CHAPTER 2:
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter has the following sections. The first section provides an overview of the model, variables included in the model. The next section gives an overview of the theoretical lens i.e. Motivational Systems Theory and its components to be used in the study. This is followed by the section providing an overview of the different career planning attitudes to be used in the study followed by an overview of the consequences - Career Decisiveness and Life Satisfaction. The next section provides review of related literature and comprises of six subsections: (1) Relationship between individual factors and career planning attitudes (namely Career Adaptability (CA), Career Optimism (CO), and Perceived Knowledge of Job Market (PJK). (2) Relationship between contextual factors (Perceived Social Support) and career planning attitudes (namely Career Adaptability (CA), Career Optimism (CO), and Perceived Knowledge of Job Market (PJK), (3) Relationship among individual, contextual factors and career planning attitudes (namely Career Adaptability (CA), Career Optimism (CO), and Perceived Knowledge of Job Market (PJK), (4) Relationship between career planning attitudes and Career Decisiveness, and (5) Relationship between Career Decisiveness and Life Satisfaction. After completion of each sub section, summary of each of them are presented. 6. The identification of research gaps from the review of related literature.
2.2 Overview of the Model

The current study investigates the antecedents and consequences of Career Decisiveness. The study builds a path model which demonstrates the causal linkage of select constructs which result in Career Decisiveness and Life Satisfaction which is an outcome of Career Decisiveness. To understand the antecedents of Career Decisiveness, the study uses the theoretical lens of Motivational System Theory and select career planning attitudes. Thus there is a path model which can be divided into two parts. The first part shows that the components of Motivational Systems Theory (goals, context beliefs, Capability Beliefs and Emotions) are the predictor variables for the three career planning attitudes - Career Adaptability, Career Optimism and Perceived Knowledge of Job Market. The next part shows that these career planning attitudes in turn are the predictor variables for Career Decisiveness. For the consequences of Career Decisiveness, Life Satisfaction is the construct which is the outcome of Career Decisiveness.

2.3 Motivational System Theory (MST)

The available research on motivation and occupational development and career choice provides substantial evidence on the fact that motivational factors like goals, self efficacy, etc. impact the career choice of individuals (Campbell, 2007). There are studies documenting the correlation of these motivational factors and career choice (Joseph and Green, 1986; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Moran et al., 2001; Priyadharshini and Pant, 2003; Serow and Forrest, 1994). However, there is paucity of literature relating MST to career choices (Hirschi, 2009).

Ford (1992) framed a comprehensive theory of motivation called MST after examining a thorough review of the then existing motivation theories. MST not only focuses on the individual
as the unit of analysis, but also entrenches the individual in the social and environmental contexts that are crucial to individual development (Campbell, 2007; Hirschi, 2009). In MST, motivation is related to the interactions between one’s personal goals, Capability Beliefs (perceptions of one’s own skills), Context Beliefs (perceptions of whether or not one’s environment provides needed support), and emotional arousal processes (feelings that help one mobilize and deploy energy). To Ford, motivation is an integrated construct that “provides the direction a person is striving for, emotional energy to support or inhibit behaviour change toward the direction, and expectancies a person has about whether he or she is about to reach the destination” (Cane, 1998, p. 6). The following equation was used by Ford (1987; 1992) to define motivation.

Motivation = Goals x Emotions x Personal Agency Beliefs

MST includes four components, namely - goals, social context beliefs, Emotions, and Capability Beliefs which are described in the following section.

2.3.1. Goals

Goals as explained in MST have two basic properties. They are defined as outcomes to be achieved (Locke, 1968) and they direct the individual to try to reach those outcomes or prevent them from occurring (Ford, 1987; Hall, 1977; Hirschi, 2009; Patton et al., 2006). Goals increase the level of effort which in turn increases the level of performance by providing direction in the fulfilment of objective (Hall, 1977). Goal has been stated as a primary influencer in both personal (Schmidt, 2004; Wegge, 2000; Wegge and Haslam, 2005) and work related behaviour (Barrick, et al., 1993; Gellatly, 1996; Martocchio and Judge, 1997). Goals are operationalized as Goal Decidedness in the present study.
2.3.2 Capability Beliefs

Capability Beliefs are beliefs that an individual has that one can successfully accomplish a goal (Ford, 1992). Such thoughts focus on the anticipated consequences of exercising personal knowledge and skills (Hirschi, 2009; Noack et al., 2010 et al., 2008). The concept of Capability Beliefs (coined by Ford, 1997) emerged from the concept of Self Efficacy pioneered by Bandura (1977; 1991). Self efficacy is defined as an individual’s perceptual judgment or belief of “how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). In the present study, the contextual beliefs are operationalized as Career Self Efficacy.

2.3.3 Context Beliefs

Context Beliefs are beliefs whether the essentials of the environment are likely to aid or restrain efforts to make progress towards a goal (Zimmet et al., 1988). Such beliefs may focus on a wide range of attributes in the context, including the opportunity structure, the availability of necessary equipment / materials and clear guidance for their use, and the presence of a positive emotional climate (Ford and Smith 2007; Ford 1987). Thus Context Beliefs reflect the positive emotional climate that facilitates goal fulfillment or task completion. So they can be summarized as how helpful and encouraging one’s environment is perceived to be in pursuing career goals
(Hirschi, 2009; Roger et al., 2008). Perceived Social Support is used as a measure of Context Beliefs in the present study.

2.3.4 Emotions

Emotions as described by Ford and Smith (2007) included affective states which related to the possible consequences of pursuing goals. In other words, in order to develop and maintain strong motivational patterns one must have a fundamental belief that the future can be better than the present (Ford, 1987). This requires a belief that there are pathways that can lead to a better future. Thus the concept of Optimism was used by the authors to explain Emotions. Optimism was defined as a predisposition to expect affirmative and constructive results in life (Scheier and Carver, 1993).

2.3.5 Advantages of Motivational Systems Theory

All the above mentioned four dimensions are important factors that foster various career related attitudes and skill sets. Extensive work has been done (which shall be discussed in detail later) where either some of these factors or all of them collectively have been studied to understand career planning attitudes (Hirschi, 2009). MST provides various advantages when dealing with career orientation studies. In the case of career choice or Career Decisiveness, it is imperative to explore self and the environment (Super, 1957). MST provides a suitable
conjectural lens to understand the same. It enables one to assess the effect social context and human capital variables (goals, Emotions and capability beliefs) collectively. MST provides all the three aspects in the form of Capability Beliefs (personality factor), Emotions (cognitive factor), and goals (motivational factor).

2.4 Career Planning Attitudes

Career planning attitudes comprise Career Adaptability, Perceived Knowledge of Job Market, and Career Optimism. Before explaining career planning attitudes, first one needs to understand career and career planning attitudes.

Johns (1998) described career as being “an evolitional sequence of professional activities and positions occupied by a person, same as the attitudes, the information and the abilities he/she improves on in time” (p. 32). In this definition, career includes not only positions and jobs within one’s present organization but the series of jobs and positions in different organizations an individual has performed over time.

“Career planning is the deliberate process through which someone becomes aware of his or her personal skills, interests, knowledge, motivations, and other characteristics; acquires information about opportunities and choices; identifies career-related goals; and establishes action plans to attain specific goals” (Dessler, 2008, p.198). Career planning gives confidence to take greater responsibility for one’s self development. This development also entrenches the shaping of skills measured as significant in the market (Doyle, 1997). Results of the empirical
field research, which includes studies at the college and organizational levels, demonstrate the implication of methodical career planning as a prologue to triumphant job hunting and long term career achievement (Broscio and Paulick, 2003; Folsom and Reardon, 2003).

Career planning attitudes are defined as predispositions which try to assess the degree of engagement in career planning activities (e.g., discussion with others about career plans; getting part time jobs; joining the job market after completion of graduation, etc.) (NOICC, 1992). Therefore, it becomes important to develop career planning attitudes, interests and skills required for efficient career planning and career choices. In the following sections, an overview of only three career planning attitudes, namely Career Adaptability, Perceived Knowledge of Job Market and Career Optimism to be used in the study would be discussed.

2.4.1 Career Adaptability (CA)

Savickas (1984) described Career Adaptability as a psychosocial construct that denotes an individual's potential to deal with current and anticipated developmental tasks, occupational transitions, and work trauma. Based on this description, Career Adaptability can be considered as very important for both students and working adults. Super and Knasel (1981) stated that the Career Adaptability as a key competency in career success. Secondly, they claimed the construct to be free of any age or stage of life effect, which increased its applicability across ages. They included the interaction of environment in the construct and instead of focusing on growth or maturity and emphasized on looking forward and more proactively according the needs of the environment. Building on the same premise, Rottinghaus et al. (2005), defined it as a predisposition affecting the way an individual perceives his or her capacity to map and regulate to changing career plans, especially in the face of unforeseen events. All of these definitions
highlight the significance of the interface between the individual and their environment, and lay emphasis on supervision of problems that confront the individual.

2.4.2 Career Optimism (CO)

Career Optimism as described by Rottinghaus et al. (2005) is a predisposition to expect the most promising outcome or to lay emphasis on the most affirmative features of one’s future career development, and comfort in performing career planning tasks. Career Optimism is a sparsely researched topic. Four studies focusing on Career Optimism require special mention here – one by Friedman et al. (1998), and others by Hennesseya et al. (2008), Gunkel et al. (2010) and Duffy (2011). In the first two studies, Career Optimism was defined as an individual’s confidence regarding one’s capability to decide, preserve, and go forward in an appropriate career. Studies by Gunkel et al. (2010) and Duffy (2011) used Rottinghaus et al. (2005) definition to understand Career Optimism.

2.4.3 Perceived Knowledge of Job Market (PJK)

Rottinghaus et al. (2005) coined the term Perceived Knowledge of Job Market (henceforth referred to as PJK) which measures perceptions of how effectively an individual comprehends job market, and employment trends and patterns. People explore job market and employment trends in order to foster progress in their career development. Getting adequate information about job market is especially relevant in the context of times of transition and unexpected events and allows individuals to adjust to a set of shifting challenges (Flum and
Blustein, 2000; Hall, 1986; Taveira and Moreno, 2003). It includes holistic environmental exploration involving exploring career options by proactively collecting information on jobs, organizations, occupations, or industries that allows more informed career decisions. Engaging in these forms of exploration may facilitate a clearer understanding of individual career ambitions including opportunities for accessing desired work contexts as well as specific work activities.

2.5 Consequences of Career Planning Attitudes

2.5.1 Career Decisiveness

Career decision-making is defined as the progression of thoughts by which an individual amalgamates self-knowledge and occupational knowledge to arrive at an occupational choice (Osipow et al., 1987). It is in fact an intricate process involving an array of processes and states (Osipow, 1999) culminating in Career Decisiveness. Career Decisiveness has been recognized as an essential construct in the study of career decision making (e.g., Dickinson and Tokar, 2004; Osipow, 1999). It has been stated as the degree to which an individual is sure about the career decision he or she has made (Osipow et al., 1987). Lounsbury, et al. (1999) referred to Career Decisiveness as “the degree to which individuals feel decided about their career choice” (p. 648).

2.5.2 Life Satisfaction

Life Satisfaction is a comprehensive construct encircling cognitive and affective components in altering sequential magnitude. It refers to people’s appraisal of their lives (Diener, et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2005), and an opinion regarding the value of a person’s life as determined by one’s selected set of criteria (Quinn and Staines, 1979). Due to the emerging
movement of positive psychology (Hirschi, 2009), there is an increased interest in investigating the correlates, antecedents, and consequences of psychological well-being, or happiness (Diener, et al., 1999). The authors stated that Life Satisfaction is one of the central emotional gauges of psychological well-being. For example, lower Life Satisfaction was found to be related to dimness, seclusion, and a variety of psychological chaos. On the other hand, adolescents who exhibit self-esteem or intrinsic motivation also have higher Life Satisfaction and are less prone to aggressive behaviour issues. Higher life-satisfaction can enact as a cushion against psychological disorders and stressful life events (Park, 2004).

2.6 Relationship between Individual Factors and Career Planning Attitudes

This section will provide a summary of studies which would include individual factors (namely - Goal Decidedness, Career Self Efficacy and Optimism) and their relationship with career planning attitudes.

Sullivan and Mahalik (2000) assessed the impact of Career Self Efficacy on the career planning attitude –vocational exploration (measured as a proxy for PJK) among 60 women in New England. The authors used an experimental study design, in which 30 women received a six week career related course that focused on increasing their Career Self Efficacy. The control group consisting of 31 women students however did not receive any training. The authors hypothesized that the experimental group would have higher Career Self Efficacy and vocational exploration. Data were collected from both the groups using survey questionnaires immediately after the end of the program. ANOVA, ANCOVA and Chi square tests were used to test the various hypotheses. Results indicated that women in the career program had higher Career Self
Efficacy and vocational exploration. However the study took only a time gap of six weeks. Secondly Career Self Efficacy for both the groups was not measured before the start of the program. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Santos (2003) analyzed the influence of goal instability (measured as the reverse of Goal Decidedness) age, gender and self-esteem in the vocational exploration (measured as a proxy for PJK) among 375 secondary school Portuguese students. The author predicted that that goal instability, age, and self esteem would impact vocational exploration. Vocational exploration was the dependent variable and gender, age, self-esteem and goal instability were the independent variables. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to analyze the data. The results of the study showed that goal instability and self-esteem contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable. Goal instability emerged as the most important predictor, confirming its relevance to research in the domain of career development and behavior. Age explained a small scrap of the variance, a fact that could be interpreted as the result of the sample’s small age range. The study included goals only as the predictor for career planning attitude. The other factors like Career Self Efficacy, Optimism were not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Patton et al. (2004) examined the relationships among self-esteem, dispositional Optimism, career expectations, and career goals and career exploration (measured as a proxy for PJK). Career goal was used to measure the level of career related goal setting. Career expectations were represented by career locus of control. Self-esteem was used to provide a measure of evaluation of self-worth. The authors hypothesized that career goals will directly relate to career
exploration. The authors also expected gender to impact career planning process. Data were collected from 467 high school students using survey method. Path analyses were utilized to test the hypothesized model. There were no significant differences between males and females in any of the independent variables (career goals, career expectations, Optimism, self esteem), or on the dependent variable of career exploration. The findings suggested that for males, self-esteem had a positive role in the development of career exploration, whereas for females the role of self-esteem appeared negative. Goals appeared to perform a similar role for both males and females. Thus the study indicated gender to be an important factor in career related studies. However the study included the role of goals and Optimism to determine one career planning attitude (PJK) only. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Creed et al. (2006) tested the relationship between Career Self Efficacy and Career Decisiveness over time among 219 Swiss students using a time gap of 2 years. The authors predicted that Career Self Efficacy at T1 would impact Career Decisiveness at T2. The study utilized a two-wave longitudinal panel design that collected data on the same two variables at T1 and T2. T1 data were collected across grades 8-12. Data at T2 were collected two years later when the students were in Grade 10. Statistical tools like CFA, Chi square were used to test the various hypotheses. The study found that a change in career decision-making self-efficacy was not associated with a change in career indecision over time. Nor was a change in career indecision associated with a change in career decision-making self-efficacy over time. The authors further suggested that it is possible then that there is no causal linkage between Career Self Efficacy and career indecision, as hypothesized in Social Cognitive Career Theory. The study showed that individual component does not impact Career Decisiveness directly. This
provides impetus to look into career planning attitude which impacts Career Decisiveness. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Nasta (2007) examined the relationship between Career Self Efficacy and career exploration (measured as a proxy for PJK). It was hypothesized that the sources of Career Self Efficacy would predict career exploration, and that past performance accomplishments would explain maximum variance for career exploration. Sample size was 259 - 211 female and 47 male college students of New York. All data were collected online. Data were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis. The CFA results showed that past performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, and verbal persuasion, emotional arousal negative and emotional arousal were the various sources of Career Self Efficacy. Sources of Career Self Efficacy sources correlated significantly with the construct of Career Self Efficacy. Results of the bi-variate correlations and multiple regression analyses supported the hypothesis that sources of Career Self Efficacy beliefs was correlated to career exploration and also predicted career exploration. Performance accomplishments explained maximum variance for Career Self Efficacy, whereas verbal persuasion explained maximum variance for career exploration. Like the previous studies, this study too concentrated on one single factor (Career Self Efficacy) on career choice. Secondly, the study being cross sectional in nature, process theory of career is not validated. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Patton et al. (2007) studied the associations among career maturity, career indecision, Career Self Efficacy, and career barriers, occupational aspirations, occupational expectations, career status aspirations, and career status expectations. The study predicted the association among
occupational aspirations, occupational expectations, career status aspirations, and career maturity, career indecision, career decision-making self-efficacy, and career barriers. Data were collected from 925 Australian high school students. Students who confirmed both low occupational and status aspiration expectation reported higher career indecision. At the same time these students were less certain about making a career-related decision. Occupational status aspirations were thought higher than expectations by students. Male students chose professional occupations more than female students. Age differences were significant for status expectations but not for status aspirations.

Bertoch (2010) examined the relationships among goals (measured by goal instability), career planning attitude (measured by career thoughts), career decision state and performance in a career development course. Career thoughts are defined as results of thinking about strategies which are related to career planning. The author predicted that goals career thoughts, and career decision would be related to each other. 537 students who enrolled in an undergraduate career course at a large south eastern university in US completed measures of goal instability, career thoughts, career decision state, and performance in course activities. Data were analyzed using correlations and multiple regression analyses. Results demonstrated that goal instability was significantly related to career thoughts, and performance in the course. Results further showed that goal instability predicted career thoughts. However goals did not relate to career decision making. Like the previous studies, thus study too concentrated on one single factor (goals) on career choice. Secondly the study showed that goals directly showed no impact on career decision state. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.
Gunkel et al. (2010) assessed the relationship among career planning attitudes (CA, CO, PJK) and personality (as a moderator) and Career Decisiveness among 555 students of China, Germany, and US. Using the Career Futures Inventory (CFI) by Rottinghaus et al. (2005), students’ Career Adaptability, Career Optimism, and Perceived Knowledge of Job Market were taken as independent variables. The authors predicted that personality traits will have a direct effect on business student’s CA, CO, and PJK. They further hypothesised that CA, CO, and PJK will have a positive effect on business student’s Career Decisiveness. Finally they expected that personality traits will affect business students’ Career Decisiveness. Again impact of personality (Big 5 traits) was assessed on each of the career planning attitude. A two-stage OLS regression analysis was applied for assessing the relation between Career Decisiveness, its determinants, and the personality traits. The results showed that personality traits had no direct effects on Career Decisiveness but it impacted the career planning attitudes. In addition, the influence of personality and the antecedents of Career Decisiveness differed in the three countries. CO did not impact Career Decisiveness for US students. The authors indicated that the downturn and recession was the sole reason for no impact of CO. The study explained the impact of cultural difference on career planning attitude. The authors also pointed out that future studies could be conducted where contextual factors could also be included apart from personality factor. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Murphy et al. (2010) conducted a qualitative study using interviews among graduating students transiting from college in US to career in their three first years of career transitions. Five men and 5 women were interviewed, and the narratives were analyzed using consensual qualitative research methodology. Several general themes emerged, including the role of
expectations, and Optimism in Career Adaptability and resilience in the college-to-career transition. The results from this study also suggested that realistic and well-informed expectations might play a central role in emerging adults' perceptions of both their current Life Satisfaction and experience of their transitions to the working world. This finding supported the importance of Career Adaptability as a means of understanding how individuals could manage the predictable tasks of career development in light of unpredictable work-based and relational experiences. Small sample size and issues of construct validity are the main limitations of the study. Secondly, the authors included only Optimism as the predictor of career planning attitude. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Creed et al. (2011) examined the relationship between career aspirations (career planning attitude) and goal orientation (learning, performance-prove, performance-avoid), among 217 Swiss students. Goal orientation was a proxy for goals and career aspiration was a measure of career planning attitude. The authors predicted that goal orientation at T1 would affect career aspirations at T2. Specifically, they hypothesised that learning and performance-prove goal orientations would be positively associated with career aspirations at T2, and that performance avoid goal orientation at T1 would be negatively associated with career aspirations at T2, reflecting the standard causal model. Data were collected using survey questionnaire in two phases, twelve months spaced out. Measures of career aspiration and goal orientation were collected. They found significant associations at T1 and T2 between all goal orientation predictors and the outcome variables and found support for a standard causal model, with performance-prove and performance-avoid orientation, but not learning orientation, predicting both career aspirations and career expectations at T2. This study included a longitudinal study
design which was missing in the earlier studies. However the study only looked into goals as the predictor variable for career planning attitude. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Duffy (2011) examined the impact of locus of control (measured as a dimension of Optimism) on CA, CO with a sample of 1991 undergraduate students in US. The authors predicted that Optimism would relate to Career Adaptability and Career Optimism. Data were collected using survey questionnaire. Multiple regressions were used to analyze the results. The results indicated that students exhibiting greater Optimism were more likely to view themselves as adaptable to the world of work. The results also indicated the greater the students had positive outlook on their future career related to higher Career Adaptability and Career Optimism. The major limitation of this study is the inclusion of only one single variable as the predictor for career planning attitudes. Secondly, Perceived Knowledge of Job Market was not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Atta et al. (2013) examined the impact of Career Self Efficacy on career planning attitude measured by negative career thoughts. The authors estimated that Career Self Efficacy would be negatively related to negative career thoughts. The study was performed in two phases. In first phase was a pilot test with 70 unemployed graduates who were seeking jobs. Initial pilot study was carried out to ensure the reliability and validity of the scales before using them for main study. The second phase consisted of the focal study on a sample of 256 unemployed graduates in US who were looking for jobs. Correlation was used to investigate the relationship among the variables. Results indicated that career related self-efficacy had an inverse impact on negative
career thought. The results also showed that males’ self-efficacy beliefs were higher. Here only Career Self Efficacy was included as the predictor variable. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

2.6.1 Summary of Studies Examining the Relationship between Individual Factors and Career Planning Attitudes

The earlier section provided detailed description of studies which looked into the impact of individual factors (goals, Career Self Efficacy and Optimism) and career planning attitudes. Most of the studies provided evidence of the impact of these factors on the career planning attitudes. However certain limitations are present in most of these studies which needs to be further investigated. The studies that investigated the effect of individual factors on career planning attitudes have mostly used either of the individual factor in the form of personality trait or motivational factor or cognitive style alone. For example studies have showed the positive impact of Career Self Efficacy on career planning attitudes (Atta et al., 2013; Gunkel et al., 2010; Hirschi et al., 2010; Nasta, 2007; Sullivan and Mahalik 2000). Similarly motivational factors in the form of Goal orientation or Goal Decidedness or goal setting or goal instability were studied alone (Creed et al., 2011; Creed et al., 2009; Santos 2003; Bertock 2010). The cognitive style in the form of Optimism was studied separately (Creed et al., 2006; Patton et al., 2004; Creed et al., 2002). Thus an empirical investigation needs to be conducted which would include aspects of motivation, personality and cognitive factors in the individual component collectively. With respect to the career planning attitudes, there is paucity of studies which have taken all the three career planning attitudes collectively.
2.7 Relationship between Contextual Factors and Career Planning Attitudes

Friedman et al. (1998) analyzed the impact of network groups (as a proxy of social support) on Career Optimism among 397 African American employees using survey method. The author predicted that network groups had a positive impact on Career Optimism. Regressions were applied to assess the validity of the set hypothesis. The results of the regressions showed that controlling for demographic variables, the network groups significantly influenced Career Optimism. It was also found that female and employees from minority group in companies who had network groups showed greater Career Optimism. Authors concluded that employee network groups enhance the Career Optimism for such employees because of their interactions with the network group members which in turn allowed them to gain social resources in-group emotional hold up, guidance, regular feedback from their group members, and social attachment. This study only included Career Optimism as the career planning attitude. The study included only working professionals as the sample frame. Secondly the study included social ties and mentoring as proxy for social support. Other aspects of social support like family and friends and institution was not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Hurtung et al. (2002) examined the impact of family interaction patterns (measured by perceived levels of cohesion and adaptability within the family of origin) on role salience and vocational identity (measured as a proxy for PJK) among 172 undergraduate students. As per the hypothesis set by the authors, family interactions would be positively related to vocational identity. Correlation was used to measure the degree of association among the variables. To
assess whether gender differences had any impact on the variables, t tests of independent means were conducted. Family adaptability and cohesion did not relate significantly to levels of work-role salience or vocational identity among the college students studied. This study included PJK as the career planning attitude. Secondly the study used correlation for data analysis. Using only correlation does not assess causality. So this could be attributed as the next limitation. In case of contextual factor the study included only family interactions. Other aspects like peers, school, teachers which are also relevant contextual factors are not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Hargrove et al. (2005) examined how perceptions of family interaction patterns as explained by quality of family relationships, family goal-orientations, and degree of organization and control within the family system would predict vocational identity (measured as a proxy for PJK) among 123 US male and female adolescents living at home. The authors predicted that all the three dimensions of family environment would predict vocational identity. Measures of family environment, vocational identity, and career planning attitudes were taken. Regression analysis was used to analyze the data. Results revealed that the quality of family relationships, family goal-orientations, and degree of organization and control within the family had a significant role in predicting vocational identity adolescents. This study included only family relationships as the proxy for social support. Other dimensions of social support like peers, friends, and teachers were not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Hennesseya et al. (2008) examined the factors predicting Career Optimism for a group of postsecondary students with disabilities (n = 208) who were enrolled in seven colleges and
universities in four states of US. Career Optimism was defined as a student’s self-confidence regarding his or her ability to choose, maintain, and advance in an appropriate career. The authors hypothesized that employment discrimination and disincentives such as perceived impact of disability on one’s education and quality of life would impact Career Optimism. The study concluded that perceived impact of disability on one’s education and quality of life, racial/ethnic status, gender, and presence of disability benefits related to employment discrimination and disincentives. Results indicated that two aspects of “disadvantage,” specifically severity of perceived impact of disability and racial/ethnic status, were significant predictors of Career Optimism. This study has captured Career Optimism for disabled candidates and contextual support in terms of structural aspects like employment discrimination and disincentives were included. However the social aspects like support of family, peers were not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Choi et al. (2010) studied the incremental change of parental attachment and Career Adaptability for adolescents over time using a longitudinal study and the impact of parental attachment on Career Adaptability. Gender was indicated as a moderator. The authors predicted that Career Adaptability will increase over time and secondly parental attachment would impact Career Adaptability in the initial phase. Data were collected using questionnaire survey method for 4 years spanning from 2004 through 2007, until they were 11th graders from 3121 US students. The study used latent growth modeling (LGM). Chi-square, CFI, TLI, and RMSEA were the fit indices used in the study. The results indicated that parental attachment was positively related to the initial state of Career Adaptability development. Results indicated that the Career Adaptability of the sample increased with the increase of parental attachment over the
The findings indicated that gender had a moderating role between parental attachment and Career Adaptability. Girls showed greater parental attachment and Career Adaptability than boys. The study highlighted the impact of parental attachment for only one career planning attitude namely — Career Adaptability. Secondly only parental attachment was considered for social support. Other aspects like friends, school, and peers were not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Noack, et al. (2010) examined school and parental influences on occupational exploration (measured as a proxy for PJK). The authors predicted that parental influences would positively impact occupational exploration. Data were collected from 6th, 8th, and 10th graders (n =859) attending high - and lower-track high US schools. Multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the results. Results suggested students who were closer to the school-to-work transition showed extensive exploration. Results also conveyed the effects of parenting and an open environment at school, predicted exploratory behaviors among students. Though the study included both school and parental support as a proxy for social support, yet the use of cross sectional study design limited the authenticity of the results of the study. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Rodriguez (2012) examined the relationships between social support and negative career thoughts (measured as a measure of Career Adaptability) in collegiate athletes and non-athletes. The authors predicted that social support would impact negative career thoughts. Data were collected from 118 college student-athletes and 154 non-athletes from a large public university in the south-eastern United States. Data were analyzed using correlations, hierarchical regression
and SEM. Results indicated social support was related to career thoughts. This suggests that social support has a moderate relationship with career thoughts. The study included all aspects of social support but did not include all career planning attitudes like CO or PJK. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

2.7.1 Summary of Studies Examining the Relationship between Contextual Factors and Career Planning Attitudes

The earlier section provided detailed description of studies which looked into the impact of contextual factors in the form of Perceived Social Support and career planning attitudes. Most of the studies provided evidence of the impact of these factors on the career planning attitudes. However certain limitations are present in most of these studies which need to be further investigated. In most of the studies impact of family relations are taken as proxy for contextual factors (Hurtung et al., 2002; Hargrove et al., 2005) or parental support (Choi et al., 2010). Very few studies have looked into other components like school and teachers (Noack et al., 2010). Secondly most of these studies are cross sectional in nature so the process theory of career choice is not properly studied. Thirdly while examining the career planning attitudes, not all the three career planning attitudes are examined together. In fact they are studied separately. For example, CO was studied by Friedman et al. (1998); PJK by Hurtung et al. (2002), Hargrove et al. (2005) and Noack et al. (2010); and CA by Choi et al. (2010) and Rodriguez (2012). So, further studies need to be conducted to fill these gaps.
2.8 Relationship among Individual - Contextual Factors and Career Planning Attitudes

Rogers et al. (2008) examined the relationship among personality, career exploration, outcome expectations, goals and social support. Personality was assessed through neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness and biographic variables (age, gender, and work experience and school achievement) were included as predictor variables in the study. Career exploration was the outcome variable. The authors predicted that the predictor variables of the T1 will impact the outcome variables of career planning and career exploration for each school year. Secondly they hypothesized that the effect of changes in the predictor variables from T1 to T2 will impact changes in the outcome variables of career planning and career exploration from T1 to T2 for each school year. Data were collected using survey questionnaire from 631 US students from eight to tenth grade. Two hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the relationship between the predictor variables of personality, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, goals and supports, and the outcome variables of career planning and career exploration. Results indicated that personality and social support are related to the career choice process. Personality variables like openness and conscientiousness were found to have relationships with planning, self-efficacy and goals. Conscientiousness and extraversion were related to exploration. Other personality variables like extraversion and neuroticism were not associated with career planning, and career exploration. Perceived Social Support also predicted career exploration, Outcome expectations, however, was not a significant predictor in the model. Age was also important in predicting career exploration. The study did not include Career Optimism. Nor was Optimism included as a predictor variable. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.
Creed et al. (2009) examined the relationships among Career Adaptability, goal-orientation and social support. The study also examined whether the Career Adaptability was a second-order factor and whether Career Adaptability, goal-orientation and social support related to lesser career concerns and finally whether Career Adaptability played the role of a mediator between the relationship of goal-orientation and social support on career concerns. Data were collected from 245 first-year university US students using survey method. The study used CFA and demonstrated that the Career Adaptability could be represented by a higher-order factor. It was negatively associated with career concerns, and acted a mediator between goal-orientation and social support and career concerns. Goal orientation was associated Career Adaptability and lesser career concerns. Thus the study included Career Adaptability and career concerns as the career planning attitudes. PJK and CO were not included. Similarly predictors like Optimism, Capability Beliefs were also excluded. Secondly the study being cross sectional in nature fails to validate content and process theories of career simultaneously.

In the same context, Hirschi, (2009) investigated the impact of the various components of MST (Optimism, Goal Decidedness, Career Self Efficacy and Perceived Social Support) on Career Adaptability. The study also examined the development of Career Adaptability and its impact on sense of power and of Life Satisfaction. The study also investigated the effects of demographic variables like gender, age, ethnic background, parental educational level, and attending a vocational or college-bound education after mandatory school, immigration background, parental educational level, and college-bound or vocational education plans on of Career Adaptability. Data were collected from 330 Swiss eighth graders at two time periods with a gap of nine months. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the hypotheses. Perceived
Social Support and Positive Emotional Disposition, non-immigration background, and continuing to vocational education had a positive impact on Career Adaptability development during the schooling years. The impact of Career Adaptability on positive youth development was supported as Career Adaptability had a positive impact on sense of power and experience of Life Satisfaction. Thus the study included only Career Adaptability as the career planning attitude. PJK and CO were not included. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Hirschi, Niles and Akos (2011) investigated the impact of personal factors (neuroticism and self efficacy) and environmental factors (Perceived Social Support) on career congruence (measured as a proxy for PJK) and career exploration and planning. Data were collected from among 349 Swiss students using a longitudinal study with 5 months gap between T1 and T2. It was predicted that social support would positively impact engagement, congruence, and decidedness and problematic personality characteristics would be negatively related to engagement, congruence, and decidedness. Structural equation modelling was used to analyze the effects of environmental and personality factors on the development of decidedness and congruence. The results showed that career exploration and planning had a mediating role between support and personality variables had and career development variables. This supported notions of the combined influence of environmental and individual variables on positive adolescent career progress. Social support was a significant predictor of career exploration and planning. Goal Decidedness and goal clarity predicted career exploration and planning positively. Thus the study included only career planning attitude PJK and some aspects of CA.
CO was not included in the study. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Shin and Kelly (2012) explored the effects of Optimism, intrinsic motivation, and family relations on vocational identity. Data were collected from 537 college students in the United States and South Korea. Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the data. The results indicated evidence for the hypothesized model. Specifically the authors predicted that intrinsic motivation would be a mediator between Optimism and vocational identity and family relations would acts as a moderator between Optimism and vocational identity. Data were collected using questionnaires. Regression was used to analyze the results. Results indicated that across both cultures, Optimism had a positive impact on vocational identity, and intrinsic motivation partially mediated the relationship between Optimism and vocational identity. Family relations moderated the mediation effect of intrinsic motivation for American students only. With Korean students, family relations moderated the direct link between Optimism and vocational identity. Thus cultural context is very important in career choice especially in relation to Context   Beliefs or social support. Study was cross sectional in nature so the conditions of the process theories of motivation are not fulfilled. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Zhao (2012) explored the relationships among social supports' influence, Career Self Efficacy and career thoughts of farmers in China. The authors predicted that both Career Self Efficacy and social support would impact career thoughts. A questionnaire was designed after in depth interviews with 140 people and reinforced by a pilot study with a sample of 419
participants. A total of 628 participants were involved in the formal questionnaire survey. CFA and SEM were used to analyze the data. Results indicated that social supports and Career Self Efficacy were related to career thoughts directly. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

2.8.1 Summary of Studies Examining the Relationship among Individual – Contextual Factors and Career Planning Attitudes

The earlier section provided detailed description of studies which looked into the impact of individual (in the form of goals, Career Self Efficacy and Optimism) contextual factors (in the form of Perceived Social Support) and career planning attitudes. Most of the studies provided evidence of the impact of these factors on the career planning attitudes. However certain limitations are present in most of these studies which needs to be further investigated. The studies have not taken the all the aspects of individual and contextual factors together. For example, only Goals and Social Support was studied by Creed et al. (2009) and Rogers et al. (2008); and Optimism and Social Support was studied by Shin and Kelly (2012). None of the studies looked into all the three career planning attitudes collectively. Most of these studies (Zhao, 2012) being cross sectional in nature do not validate the process approach to career theory.

2.9 Relationship between Career Planning Attitudes and Career Decisiveness
Ganster and Lovell (1978) assessed the relationship between career planning attitude and Career Decisiveness. The sample consisted of 237 US business management students who also enrolled themselves for a career development seminar course. The study used a quasi-experimental design with a 2 x 2 factorial design. Decision making dimension of career maturity inventory was used to assess reactions toward making career decisions along with other cognitive variables (Optimism) concerned with a career choice. Results confirmed the efficiency of the career development seminar in increasing the level of decision making dimension of Career Adaptability of college students. There are few limitations of the study. Firstly the study included CA as the only career planning attitude. Other career planning attitudes were missing. The other issue is with the methodology used in the study. The study did not include a control group, so the results have inadequate validity. Thirdly because of usage of an experimental design, the generalisability of the study needs to be reassessed. As a result, further studies need to be conducted to fill these limitations.

Dzibun et al. (1994) assessed the effect of a vocational exploration (measured as a proxy for PJK) on the Career Decisiveness. The authors tested that whether after receiving a traditional vocational exploration activity as a treatment, both treatment (39 students) and the control group (40 students) will remain similar in their Career Decisiveness test scores. The results of the study showed Career Decisiveness was exhibited by the treatment group but not by the control group. The researchers concluded that Career Decisiveness was related to career planning attitude. The study included only one career planning attitude. Other career planning attitudes could be incorporated. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.
Peng (2001) examined the effect of career education courses on college career decidedness. The authors tested whether differences existed between two different career courses (a cognitive reorganization intrusion and career decision skills training intrusion) and a control group. Measures of career decision were filled by Taiwanese 152 college freshmen. ANOVA was used to analyze data. Results revealed that there was significant impact of the treatment on Career Decisiveness, regardless of gender. Specifically, the results showed that both the groups (which received a cognitive restructuring intervention and career decision skills training intervention) had a negative effect on career indecision. Thus one could conclude that the two groups which had undertaken the career courses were significantly different from the group that did not take the course. The mean scores on the career courses for students in two career courses were significantly lower than the mean score for the control group. The study suggested that career planning attitude incorporated through vocation tutoring course have a positive impact on career decision making. The results of this study were inconclusive as the difference between the two courses was not found. Because of usage of an experimental design, the generalisability of the study needs to be re assessed. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Johnson et al. (2002) assessed the impact of a holistic career and life planning course (which mainly instilled positive career planning attitude) that met twice weekly for 10 weeks in 13 sections on career outcomes like Career Decisiveness. The treatment group included 132 US students while the control group was composed of 77 students enrolled in varied courses exploring self. The authors predicted that students enrolled for the career and life planning program would have better career planning attitude which would result in Career Decisiveness.
Course meetings happened 2 hours weekly. The outcome measure was collected using standard questionnaires. ANOVA was conducted to analyze the data. Results indicated that the course decreased students’ career indecision. The courses improved their career planning attitudes like vocational identity (measured as a proxy for PJK). Moreover, the authors noted that the career and life planning course affected career outcomes more than various personal growth courses. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Reese and Miller (2006) examined the effects of career planning attitude (which resulted from the joining of the career development course) on career decision-making. The authors hypothesised that increase in career planning attitude resulted in increase in Career Decisiveness. The study used a quasi-experimental design with a 2 x 2 factorial design. The treatment group included 30 US students who completed the course and a quasi-control group of 66 students who did not enrol themselves for the course. ANOVA was conducted to see the difference between the groups. The results indicated that students who finished the vocation course showed increased career planning attitude especially in the areas of obtaining occupational information, setting career goals, and career planning. The career reduced perceived career-decision making difficulties by increasing positive career attitude. Because of usage of an experimental design, the generalisability of the study needs to be reassessed. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Bollman (2009) investigated the effect career exploration (measured as a proxy for PJK) course on the career decision making. The study used a single group pre-post experimental design which involved a 15-week career course conducted on 141 US college students.
Evaluation of the student’s decision making skills were conducted one before the program and one after the program. A paired t-test was used to analyse the data. ANOVA was conducted to understand the influences of demographic variables like sex, cultural identification, and reported cumulative grade point average between the mean pre-test career decision making total score. Results indicated that there was no significant difference. However the study included only PJK as the career planning attitude. Because of usage of an experimental design, the generalisability of the study needs to be assessed. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Salter (2009) used a pre-test and post-test design to compare two different teaching methods of a career development course with 52 in US college students. A standard career course plan was used for one group and a special curriculum that included purposeful infusion of the five critical components of Career Adaptability into course activities was developed for the other group. The outcome variables of concern were career decision making, career decidedness, indecision. The authors hypothesized that the special career course would increase career decidedness more than the normal course. ANOVA and regression was conducted to analyse the data. Both courses were successful in improving outcomes measures. However the special course was found to be more productive. Demographic and personality characteristics did not have a significant impact on students’ receptiveness to the course interventions. Because of usage of an experimental design, the generalisability of the study needs to be re assessed. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.
2.9.1 Summary of Studies Examining the Relationship Career Planning Attitudes and Career Decisiveness

The earlier section provided detailed description of studies which looked into the impact career planning attitudes and Career Decisiveness. Most of the studies in career choices are cross sectional in nature (Creed et al., 2011; Gunkel et al., 2010; Yowell et al., 2010). Only in case of longitudinal studies the causal relations can be actually well explored. Though there have been some experimental field design studies which used pre-test and post-test method, yet these studies lack two important points (Bollman 2009; Johnson et al., 2002; Peng 2001; Salter 2009: Firstly the time gap between pre-test and post-test is only a few weeks, and secondly due to the basic nature of experimental designs the generalizability and authenticity of the results are questionable. Thus longitudinal field study needs to be incorporated.

2.10. Relationship between Career Decisiveness and Life Satisfaction

Arnold (1987) examined the relationships between career decidedness and psychological well-being (measured by Life Satisfaction). Well-being was expected to be an outcome of decision making among students who have completed or are in their final stage of graduation. It was also expected that weaker associations of the same type would be observed amongst students earlier in their studies. The data were collected from 631 undergraduate students at various stages of their studies from a one English university and recent graduates. Students were invited to participate in a study of their career development during class hours under the supervision of their faculties. Regression analysis was used to identify possible causal directions of relationships between decidedness and well-being, and to distinguish between decision making and sustaining and withholding that decision. Results revealed that Career Decisiveness and psychological well-being were significantly higher for both age groups.
Creed et al. (2005) tested the relationship among career indecision, decision-making self-efficacy, and social factors (school achievement, paid work experience) and well-being variables over times. Well being was represented as self-esteem, Life Satisfaction, and coping. At T1, participants were 292 Grade 8 Swiss students, completed measures of career indecision, decision-making self-efficacy, and social factors (school achievement, paid work experience) and well-being variables. At T2, participants were 212 asked to fill in the same measures after 8 months. Demographic and social information regarding their age, gender, their typical school achievement level, and whether they had had paid work experience was also collected. A between-groups multivariate analysis of variance and Chi-square tests were conducted to examine differences between the students who were decided at T1 and those who were undecided at T1, on the T1 variables. The findings indicated that career indecision in adolescence was related to lower scores on well-being variables.

Pooler (2010) in his dissertation assessed career decidedness and psychological distress (measured as a proxy for Life Satisfaction) among 92 college students from a Midwestern university. Correlation analysis was used to establish the associations between demographic and career decidedness and psychological distress. The results supported that an increase in career decidedness was significantly associated with lower levels of anxiety. In contrast, there was no significant association between depression and decidedness. Overall, there was no gender difference or any aspect of the Career Decision Profile. As hypothesized, an increase in self-clarity was positively associated with decisiveness. Results also suggested that age, gender, year in school, mother and father's education level, mother and father's employment status, and year in school were not associated with career decidedness. As expected, career decidedness was
significantly associated with all of the other scales of the Career Decision Profile. The study included correlation as the statistical tool. So causality was not explained in the study. The study was cross sectional in nature. So process theory of career choice was not validated. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Hirschi (2010) investigated the impact of career development variables (career decidedness, career planning) on career and Life Satisfaction among 245 Swiss adolescents. The study used a longitudinal study design where data were collected in two phases with one year gap using survey questionnaire. Correlations and regression were used to examine the relationships. The first phase included data collection on career development variables where as the second phase collected data on career success and Life Satisfaction. The results showed significant influence of career decidedness on Life Satisfaction among students. Career preparation and career decidedness envisaged subjective career success in the form of overall satisfaction among the students. The study included only school students. As a result similar results cannot be concluded for other age groups. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.

Yowell et al. (2011) used examined the relationship among career thoughts, life stress and the Career Decisiveness. Data were collected using survey method questionnaire. The study used a sample of 232 US college students. Structural equation modelling was used to analyze the data. The study found that an increase in life stress was associated with an increase in negative career thoughts. Secondly, an increase in such negative thoughts predicted lower Career Decisiveness and satisfaction with career choice. The results suggested the linkage between career decision state and life stress. The study was cross sectional in nature. As a result the validity of the results needs further exploration. As a result, further studies could be conducted to fill these limitations.
2.10.1 *Summary of Studies Examining the Relationship between Career Decisiveness and Life Satisfaction*

The earlier section provided detailed description of studies which looked into the impact Career Decisiveness on Life Satisfaction. All the studies provided evidence of the impact of the Career Decisiveness on Life Satisfaction. However, most of the studies in career choices are cross sectional in nature (Arnold 1987; Pooler 2010; Yowell et al., 2011). Most of the studies are conducted on high school students (Creed et al., 2005; Hirschi, 2010). However the literature is silent about the impact of Career Decisiveness on psychological well being among young adults (Hirschi 2010; Creed et al., 2011). Most of the studies on Career Decisiveness have been conducted among US or other Western contexts (Choi et al., 2010; Gunkel et al., 2010). So, further studies need to be conducted in the Indian context to fill these gaps.

2.11 *Identification of Research Gaps*

The gaps identified after reviewing literature are discussed in the following sections.

2.11.1 *Lack of Proper Measurement of Antecedents of Career Planning Attitudes*

Though career planning attitudes has a positive impact on Career Decisiveness (as a proxy for Career Choice), the existing literature has not paid sufficient attention to this issue. Therefore there is a requirement to investigate the predictors of important career planning
attitudes like CA, Co, PJK. The CFI scale development paper by Rottinghaus et al. (2005) offers adequate scope to perform additional research in the field as very few studies have been done using this scale (exception: Gunkel et al. (2010) examined the impact of personality on CFI, and Duffy (2011) examined impact of Optimism on CA and CO).

There have been very few studies conducted to understand the antecedents of CO or PJK like CA. CO and PJK which reflect aspects like having a positive attitude about one's career or understanding the job market trends respectively are similarly significant for Career Decisiveness (Gunkel et al., 2010; Rottinghaus et al., 2005; Santos, 2003; Savickas, 1997; Schiever et al., 1985). There are only three accessible studies in the case of CO - one by Friedman et al. (1998), second by Hennesseya et al. (2008) and third by Duffy (2011). With respect to PJK, there are studies which include career exploration which is strongly related to PJK (Bollman 2010; Hirschi et al., 2010; Hurtung et al., 2002; Noack et al., 2010; Rogers et al., 2008). This provides impetus to conduct an empirical investigation to examine the impact of MST dimensions on all the three components of CFI - CA, CO, and PJK.

2.11.2 Lack of Integration of Individual and Contextual Factors

Personal and contextual dimensions require equal attention when one needs to examine the career choice (Hirschi, 2009; Creed et al 2006; Savickas, 1997; Super, 1957). Despite this requirement, most of the previous studies on career choice had not looked into all the aspects of individual and contextual factors together, rather each study focused only on a few of them – for e.g., goals (Bertock, 2010; Creed et al., 2011; Reardson and Bertock 2011; Santos, 2003); social support (Choi et al., 2010; Hargrove et al., 2005; Hennessey et al., 2008; Hurtung et al., 2008; Noack et al., 2010; Rodriguez, 2012); goals and social support (Creed et al., 2009); goals, social
support and self efficacy, (Hirschi et al., 2010) social support and self efficacy (Hirschi et al.,
2010; Hurting et al., 2002), goals and Optimism (Patton et al., 2004).

The studies that investigated the effect of individual factor on career choice have mostly used
either personality traits (Gunkel et al., 2010; Hirschi et al., 2010) or motivational factors in the
form of goal orientation or Goal Decidedness or goal setting or goal instability (Creed et al.,
2011; Creed et al., 2009; Santos 2003; Bertock 2010), or cognitive style in the form of Optimism
(Creed et al., 2006; Patton et al., 2004; Creed et al., 2002). Thus an empirical investigation needs
to be conducted which would include aspects of motivation, personality and cognitive factors in
the individual component collectively.

2.11.3. Lack of Usage of Process and Content Theories

Studies using Social Cognitive Career theoretical framework (Roger et al., 2008; Creed et
al., 2006; Creed et al., 2005; Patton et al., 2004) have used essentials of individual and contextual
factors in making career choices. Unfortunately, these studies were cross-sectional in nature
(Roger et al., 2008; Creed et al., 2005; Patton et al., 2004). Findings from a study by Creed, et al.
(2006) on high school students in Australia did not support Social Cognitive Career Theory
(SCCT). The authors showed that the causal linkage between early self-efficacy did not predict

Motivational Systems Theory hence offers a more efficient theoretical perspective.
Motivational Systems Theory includes both human capital factors and contextual factors (social
context beliefs). With respect to human capital factors it encompasses personality attributes like
self efficacy beliefs, motivational factors like Goal Decidedness, and cognitive factors like
Optimism. There is paucity of literature which had applied the theoretical lens of MST to
comprehend Career Decisiveness, with the exception of the work done by Hirschi (2009). The author used MST to understand Career Adaptability and its impact on psychological well being. However the paper states certain very crucial limitations like Perceived Social Support and Optimism were measured at the second phase of data collection though these were treated as predictors of Career Adaptability. The use of a convenience sample further limits the generalizability of the results.

2.11.4. Lack of Studies Using Longitudinal Study Design

Most of the studies in career choices are cross-sectional in nature (Creed et al., 2011; Gunkel et al., 2010; Yowell et al., 2011). Time and again researchers and experts have called for studies related to Career Decisiveness to be longitudinal in nature (Savickas 1984; 1987; 2004; Hirschi 2009; Super 1957). Only in case of longitudinal studies the causal relations can be actually well explored. Though there have been some experimental field design studies which used pre-test and post-test method, these studies are deficient in two aspects (Bollman 2009; Johnson et al., 2002; Peng 2001; Salter 2009: Firstly the time gap between pre-test and post-test is only few weeks, and secondly due to the basic nature of experimental designs the generalizability of the results are questionable. Thus longitudinal field study needs to be conducted to understand the causal relationship between these variables.

2.11.5. Lack of Studies in a Collectivist Culture

Most of the studies on Career Decisiveness have been conducted among US or other Western contexts (Choi et al., 2010; Gunkel et al., 2010). Literature suggests that the process of career choice is also influenced by national culture. Diversity in cultural values has a significant impact
on the way individual decides on a career (Agarwal, 2008; Ozbilgin et al., 2005). Aspects of CA, CO and PJK had different impact on different countries (Gunkel et al., 2010). In such a situation, a study especially in a collectivist culture needs to be conducted (Choi et al., 2010; Lee 2007).

2.1.1.6. Lack of Studies among Young Adults

In recent times, there has been an increased attention paid to connecting adolescent career development with positive youth progress, the budding interdisciplinary study of the antecedents and consequences of happiness and thriving. Existing literature indicates that Career Decisiveness is a mark of thriving in adolescence which guides the way to positive youth development. Positive career orientation and better career preparation was shown to impede problem behavior, promoted well-being and decreased distress among US high-school students (Skorikov and Vondracek, 2007; Gore et al., 2003). The sample frame for most of these has been high school students (Creed et al., 2005; Hirschi, 2009, 2010). However the literature is silent about the impact of Career Decisiveness on psychological well being among young adults (Hirschi 2010; Creed et al., 2011). This study is intended to fill this gap.