

**THE IMPACT OF PARENTAL JOB INSECURITY ON  
YOUTHS' CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

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## SUMMARY

In the context of economic downturn and slow economic recovery, job insecurity has become an increasing concern for not only employees but also their families. This dissertation consists of two essays on the relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career development. In Essay 1, a structural model was developed to test the effect of parental job insecurity on youths' career development. The spillover theory was used to provide insights on how employees' job insecurity influences their provision of career-specific support to their children. Moreover, social cognitive career theory was utilized to explain the mechanism through which youths' perceived parental support impacts their career self-efficacy and future work selves. Essay 2 focuses on father-children relationship. Applying a multiple-mediator model, I examine the mediating effect of three types of career-specific parenting behaviors: *lack of engagement*, *support*, and *interference* on the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.

Data were collected from a sample of undergraduate students and their parents. In Essay 1, results of structural equation modeling analysis showed that parental job insecurity was positively associated with parental career support. Youths' career self-efficacy level was positively related to parental career support. Moreover, career self-efficacy was positively related to the accessibility and importance of future work selves while negatively related to the exclusiveness of future work selves. In Essay 2, results of full sample analysis showed that paternal job insecurity was positively related to lack of engagement and negatively related to support. The relationship between paternal job insecurity and interference was not significant. Sub sample analysis showed that the relationship between paternal job insecurity and career self-efficacy was mediated by lack of engagement for sons and mediated by support

for daughters.

Overall, this dissertation offers several implications for both research and practice. Theoretically, this dissertation makes contribution to the job insecurity literature by showing that the impact of job insecurity can cross the work-family boundary to affect youths' career development. The findings also suggests that organizations should be mindful about the consequences of job insecurity when they make layoff or restructuring decisions



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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

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### 1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE DISSERTATION

In the past few years, the global financial crisis triggered by bank failures in the US was like a hurricane that swept across the world. It has brought about closures of key businesses, decrease in consumer wealth estimated in trillions of U.S. dollars, and a significant decline in economic activities. A consequence of this economic crisis is the loss of jobs or curtailment of desired job features. In the US, the unemployment rate has increased from 4% in 2005 to 9.4% in 2010 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics <http://www.bls.gov/bls/unemployment.htm>). Asia is also not spared from this crisis and is going through the worse economic situation in a decade. Singapore experienced negative GDP growth in 2009. Moreover, 62,900 (2%) residents in 2008 and 86,900 (3%) in 2009 were unemployed and the future remains uncertain (Singapore Ministry of Manpower (<http://www.mom.gov.sg/statistics-publications/national-labour-market-information/statistics/Pages/unemployment.aspx>)). The shock of seeing elite Wall Street firms on their knees, destruction of financial wealth and a large scale of job loss has generated considerable feelings of job insecurity among employees, world-wide as well as in Singapore.

Job insecurity is defined as individuals' "powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, p.438). It has attracted research attention since the early 1980s when there was a sudden increase in economic restructuring and organizational downsizing. The threat of losing one's job is as stressful as, if not more stressful than, the actual loss of the job. The stress arising from job insecurity is different from that arising from unemployment, mainly in the level of certainty. Specifically, unemployment is *certain*.

Stress from unemployment will motivate the unemployed and their families to make decisions and reorganize their lives accordingly (e.g., file for unemployment, find alternative employment). On the other hand, job insecurity is stressful mainly because of its *uncertainty*. Job insecurity is often associated with a sense of unpredictability, uncontrollability, and anxiety. Stress from job insecurity will persist for an indefinite period and affect employees' economic and social situation (Wilson, Larson & Stone, 1993). Hence, job insecurity is likely to affect a larger scale of employees and yield more severe consequences than unemployment (Latack & Dozier, 1986; Wilson et al., 1993).

Extant research has provided evidence on the negative impact of job insecurity. Job insecurity has been found to be related to employees' health-related outcomes, such as insomnia, distress, psychological adjustment, and psychosomatic complaints (e.g., De Cuyper & De Witt, 2007; Sverke et al., 2002). Job insecurity has also been found to be associated with work-related outcomes, such as job dissatisfaction, non-compliant job behaviors, reduced organizational commitment, and intention to quit (Lee & Peccei, 2007; Probst, Stewart, Gruys & Tierney, 2007; Sverke, et al., 2002). These outcomes can be harmful to both job insecure individuals and their organizations.

Moreover, the impact of job insecurity goes beyond the work domain, for example, to influence spouses (Westman, Etzion & Danon, 2001; Westman, Etzion & Horovitz, 2004; Westman, Vinokur, Hamilton & Roziner, 2004). Recently, another stream of research has emerged to suggest that the effect of job insecurity goes beyond the job insecure employees to their children. It is found that parental job insecurity has negative impact on children's mood, cognitive ability, school performance, world view, work beliefs, work attitudes, work motivation, and attitude

toward money (Barling, Dupre & Hepburn, 1998; Barling & Mendelson, 1999; Barling, Zacharatos, & Hepburn, 1999; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim, & Sng, 2006).

## **1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE DISSERTATION**

This study was conducted in early 2010. It was a time when Singapore just experienced negative GDP growth in 2009, which is also the lowest GDP growth in a decade. Although there was sign of economic recovery, employees were still facing the uncertainty of future economic situation and their perception of job insecurity was still influenced by the financial crisis started in 2008. As an endeavor to study the impact of financial crisis, I examine the impact of job insecurity instead of actual job loss in this dissertation.

Given that job insecurity is one of the most distressing aspects of work (e.g., De Witte, 1999), its impact on job insecure employees' families cannot be underestimated. Extant studies, however, have not examined the effects of employees' job insecurity on their children's career development and attitudes.

On the other hand, researchers have noticed the importance of parent-child interaction for youths' career development. Parents are key sources of youths' knowledge, beliefs and values about the career and they exercise more influence than any other adults on the vocational choice of children (Brown, 2003; Bryant, Zvonkovic, and Reynolds, 2006). Findings from goal setting theory and self-prophecy theory also shed light on the importance of parents on youths' career development. Goal setting theory argues that a specific and challenging goal can motivate individuals to focus the effort, enhance performance and achieve the goal (Locke & Latham, 1990). Those youths whose parents support them set up ambitious and achievable career goals and provide timely and frequent feedback are more likely to

achieve the career success compared to those who do not receive any guidance from the parents. Some findings also support that subconscious goals have effects similar to conscious goals (Latham, Stajkovic and Locke, 2010). Hence, even if parents do not have an explicit requirement, providing inspiring reading materials to youths or accompanying them to explore career opportunities may shape youths' subconscious goals, which will also motivate children to achieve career success.

Deeply rooted in mythology and literature is the notion of a person inspired by a vision, a prophecy, or an expectation, ultimately transforming him/her in accordance with the vision. This is called the Pygmalion effect, a special case of self-fulfilling prophecy (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). Research has also shown that raising teachers' (managers') expectation improves students' (subordinates') performance (Eden, 1992; 2003; Harris & Rosenthal, 1985). If parents believe their children will succeed, their children are more likely to succeed, simply because the high expectation changes both parenting behaviors and in turn, children's self-efficacy.

So far, however, little is known about whether and how parental job insecurity influences adolescents' career development. In other words, the research on job insecurity and the research on youths' career development have been progressed separately and seldom study has linked the two streams of research. Hence, in this dissertation, to fill in this gap, I aim to investigate the relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career development.

Moreover, most of the previous studies were conducted outside Asia and relatively less is known about the impact of parental job insecurity on youths in Asia. This dissertation is set in Singapore; by doing so, I aim to make contribution to the existing literature by providing some Asian evidence and perspectives.

The dissertation comprises of two essays. In Essay 1, a structural equation

model is developed to examine the mechanisms through which parental job insecurity influences the career support they provide to youths, which, in turn, influences youths' career self-efficacy and perceived future work selves. The research model of the Essay 1 is presented in Figure 1.1. In Essay 2, I further examine the effects of three different types of career-specific parenting behaviors: *lack of engagement*, *support*, and *interference* (Dietrich & Kracke, 2009). I investigate the mediating effects of career-specific parenting types on the relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy. The research model of the Essay 2 is presented in Figure 1.2.

The data for the two essays are from the same survey. A summary of the key variables examined in two essays and the source of measurement is presented in Table 1.1. Table 1.2 presents the hypotheses and main findings of both essays.



**Figure 1.1 Research model for Essay 1**

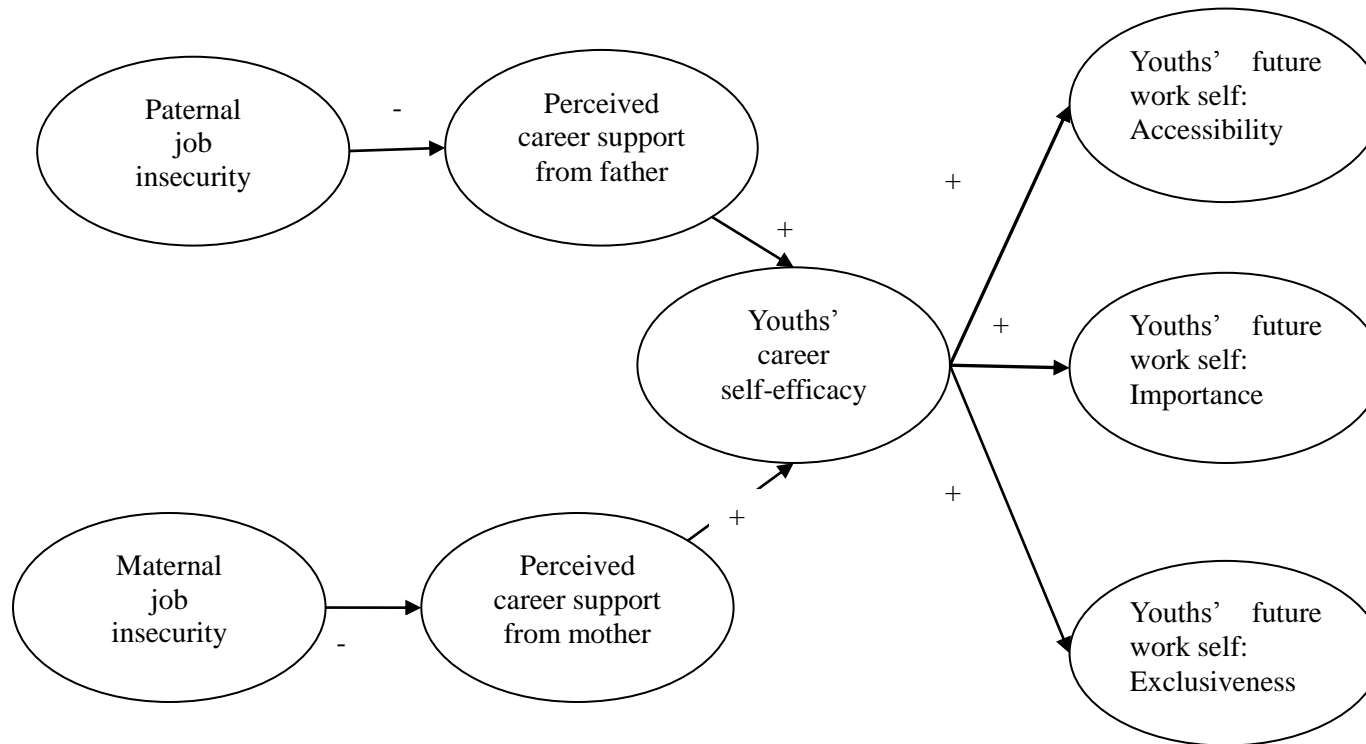
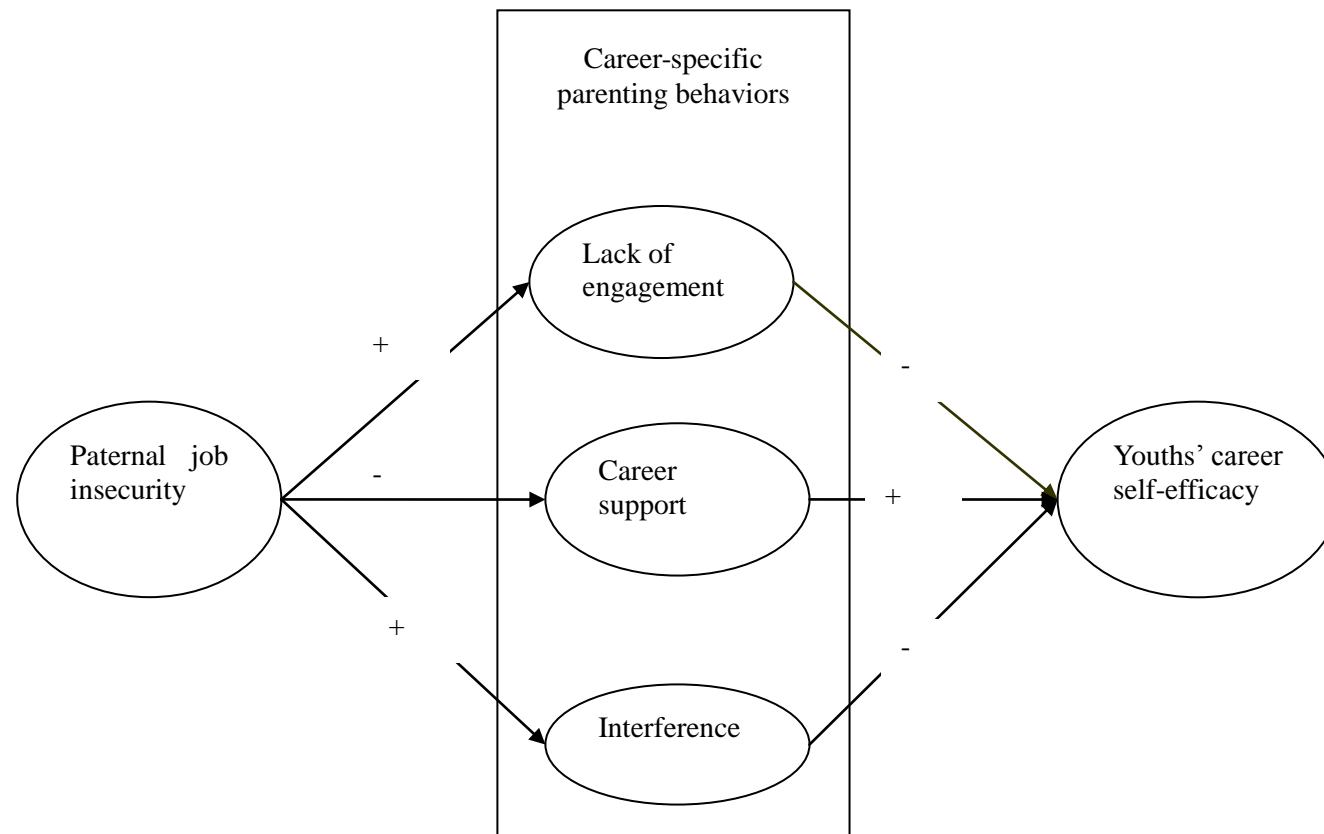


Figure 1.2 Research model for Essay 2



**Table 1.1 Summary of Variables Examined in This Dissertation**

	Variables examined in this dissertation	Variables examined in:	
		Essay 1	Essay 2
1.	Parental job insecurity (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison & Pinneau, 1980)	✓	✓
2.	Career-specific parenting behavior: Lack of engagement (Dietrich & Kracke, 2009)		✓
3.	Career-specific parenting behavior: Support (Dietrich & Kracke, 2009)	✓	✓
4.	Career-specific parenting behavior: Interference (Dietrich & Kracke, 2009)		✓
5.	Youths' career self-efficacy (Higgins, Dobrow and Chandler, 2008)	✓	✓
6.	Youths' future work self (Strauss, Griffin & Parker, 2011)	✓	

**Table 1.2 Summary of Hypotheses and Main Findings of Two Essays**

	<b>Essay 1</b>	<b>Essay 2</b>
<b>Hypotheses</b>	<p>H1a. Paternal job insecurity is negatively associated with youths' perceived career support from father.</p> <p>H1b. Maternal job insecurity is negatively associated with youths' perceived career support from mother.</p> <p>H2a. Youths perceived career support from father is positively associated with youths' career self-efficacy.</p> <p>H2b. Youths perceived career support from mother is positively associated with youths' career self-efficacy.</p> <p>H3a: Youths' career self-efficacy is positively associated with the accessibility of future work selves.</p> <p>H3b: Youths' career self-efficacy is positively associated with the importance of future work selves.</p> <p>H3c: Youths' career self-efficacy is positively associated with the exclusivity of future work selves.</p>	<p>H 1a. Paternal job insecurity is positively related to youths' perceived lack of engagement from father.</p> <p>H 1b. Paternal job insecurity is negatively related to youths' perceived career support from father.</p> <p>H 1c. Paternal job insecurity is positively related to youths' perceived interference from father.</p> <p>H 2a. Lack of engagement mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.</p> <p>H 2b. Career support mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.</p> <p>H 2c. Interference mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.</p>
<b>Main findings</b>	<p>a) Youths perceived career support from father and mother were highly correlated and hence were aggregated into youths perceived career support from parents.</p> <p>b) Both paternal and maternal job insecurity is negatively related to youths perceived career support from parents.</p> <p>c) Youths perceived career support from parents was positively related to youths' career self-efficacy.</p> <p>e) Youths' career self-efficacy was positively related to the accessibility and importance of future work selves and negatively related to the exclusiveness of future work self.</p>	<p>a) Paternal job insecurity is positively related to lack of engagement and negatively related to support. But it is not significantly related to interference.</p> <p>b) For sons, lack of engagement mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and career self-efficacy.</p> <p>c) For daughters, support mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and career self-efficacy.</p>

### **1.3 ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION**

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 provides background of the study, its objectives and potential contributions. A review of the theoretical framework as well as existing research on some key concepts of the dissertation is presented in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 presents Essay 1, “Parental job insecurity and youths’ future work selves: A structural equation model”, while Chapter 4 presents Essay 2, “Parental job insecurity and youths’ career self-efficacy: The mediating effect of career-specific parenting behaviors”. In both Chapter 3 and Chapter 4, I explain the hypotheses, methodology and results of each essay. Finally, a general discussion of the dissertation is provided in Chapter 5.

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## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONTEXT DESCRIPTION**

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This dissertation examines the indirect relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career development via the spillover mechanism and career-specific parenting behavior. Two variables used to assess youths' career development are career self-efficacy and their future work selves. Hence, this chapter begins with a review of job insecurity and its spillover effect to the family. Following this, I present a review of theories on adolescents' career development as well as empirical studies about the family influence and parenting behaviors on youths' career development. Thereafter, the key concept in Essay 1, future work self, is introduced and a discussion of the differences between future work self and career aspiration is presented.

### **2.1 JOB INSECURITY AND ITS SPILLOVER EFFECTS**

In this section, I review the literature on job insecurity as well as the literature that study the spillover effect of job insecurity to the family domain. Job insecurity is a key construct of the current dissertation and spillover theory is a theory that explains why and how work-related experience can be carried to the family domain. In this dissertation, I adopt spillover theory to explain the relationship between employees' perceived job insecurity and their parenting behaviors at home.

#### **2.1.1 Definition of job insecurity**

Extant studies have conceptualized job insecurity in various ways. Some scholars have adopted a global view, in which job insecurity is conceived as an overall concern about the continued existence of the job in the future (e.g., De Witte,

1999; Paulsen et al., 2005). Other studies have viewed job insecurity as a multifaceted concept, comprising not only the threat of potential job loss, but also the potential loss of subjectively important job features (Lee, Bobko, Ashford, Chen & Ren, 2008). Generally, studies suggest that job insecurity is associated with feelings of personal inefficiency and incapacity to maintain continuity in a situation where ones' job position is threatened (Sverke, & Hellgren, 2002). Job insecurity often stems from an undesired change, which places the continuity and security of employment at risk (Kohler, Munz & Grawitch, 2006).

In this dissertation, job insecurity is examined under the economic downturn, when the large scale job loss becomes a significant threat to those who are still holding their jobs. The concern of the job insecurity hence is more about the overall job rather than job features. As a result, job insecurity is defined as the fear of losing one's job.

Research has consistently demonstrated that job insecurity is related to psychological distress (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007; Frone, 2008) and poor physical and psychological well-being (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel & Berntson, 2008; De Witte, 2005; Sverke et al., 2002; Mauno, Kinnunen, Makikangas, & Natti, 2005). Job insecure employees reported more negative job attitudes and work behaviors. For example, job insecurity is positively related to job dissatisfaction, high propensity to leave, strong resistance to change, and negatively related to work involvement, organizational commitment, and work effort and performance among workers (e.g., Lee & Peccei, 2007; Probst et al., 2007; Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles, & Konig, 2010; Wong, Wong, Ngo & Lui, 2005).

Recent job insecurity literature also suggests an increasing interest in the effects of employees' job insecurity on their family members, especially their children

(e.g., Barling et al., 1998, Lim & Sng, 2006). In view of the increasing interest in the effects of parental job insecurity on children, scholars have recognized the need for a better understanding of the within-family processes through which job insecurity affects children (Barling & Mendelson, 1999). Hence, this dissertation focuses on the process through which job insecurity spills over to the family domain and influences children's career development.

### **2.1.2 Spillover Theory**

Work and family are two important domains in one's life. The spillover theory argues that people's experience in one domain will influence their experience in another domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Spillover is used to describe the transference of moods, skills, values, and behaviors from one role to another (Almeida, Wethington & Chandler, 1999). When spillover occurs, stress and/or satisfaction experienced at one domain will be carried over to the other domain such that there is a similarity in the patterning of both domains (Zedeck, 1992). The spillover theory has been widely applied in studies on marital and family functioning (e.g., Lazarova, Westman & Shaffer, 2010; Ilies et al., 2007; Ilies et al., 2009). The direction of spillover can be from work to family or from family to work (Bolger et al., 1989; Byron, 2005; Judge et al., 2006).

In this dissertation, I focus on the spillover from work to family. Spillover theory suggests that the feelings produced by individuals' work experiences can be brought home to affect marriage and family relations (Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson, DeRue & Ilgen, 2007; Ilies, Wilson & Wagner, 2009; Grotto, & Lyness, 2010; Heller & Watson, 2005). Spillover of emotions from work to family can be either positive or negative. Positive emotional spillovers improve family interactions



and is also referred to as work–family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) or work–family facilitation (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). Negative emotions and energy deficit spillovers can strain family interactions and reduce individuals’ involvement in the family. (Goodman, & Crouter, 2009; Heller & Watson, 2005; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010).

In this dissertation, I focus on the negative spillover effects. Previous research has established a negative relationship between work stressors and marital function and shown that emotional and cognitive consequences of experiences in the workplace can spillover to affect their affective experience at home and their interaction with family members. Job characteristics that can be brought from the workplace to the family domain include stressors such as high job demand, low job resource, excessive work hours, work overload, role conflict, and lack of organizational support (Byron, 2005; Goodman & Crouter, 2009; Grotto & Lyness 2010; O’Driscoll, Brough & Kalliath, 2010; Rantanen, Kinnunen, Feldt, & Pulkkinen, 2008). The negative affect, mood and/or attitude caused by work-related stress will be carried to the family domain and influence employees’ affect, mood, attitude, and behaviors at home. Those who have negative experience at work are likely to report higher level of negative affect at home (Judge & Ilies, 2004; Judge et al., 2006; Song, Foo & Uy, 2008), lower level of psychological well-being, and lower level of marital satisfaction (Heller & Watson, 2005; Ilies et al., 2009; Rantanen et al., 2008). Moreover, negative spillover will also result in withdrawal from family activities and decreased warmth and supportiveness in marital interactions (Ilies et al., 2007; Schulz, Cowan, Cowan & Brennan, 2004).

A summary of the literature reviewed in this section is given in Table 2.1. Since this dissertation focuses on negative spillover from work to family, I list the

relevant studies in the Table. The studies are arranged in an alphabetic sequence of the first authors.

**Table 2.1 Summary of Literature on the Negative Spillover from Work to Family**

	<b>Source</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Main variables</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
1.	Byron (2005) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	Meta-analysis of 61 studies	1) Work interference with family (WIF) 2) Family interference with work (FIW) 3) Work-domain variables 4) Nonwork-domain variables	1) Work factors (job involvement, working hours, work support, schedule flexibility, job stress) related more strongly to WIF 2) Nonwork factors (hours of nonwork continuous only, family support, family stress) were more strongly related to FIW
2.	Goodman & Crouter (2009) <i>Family Relations</i>	414 employed mothers, longitudinal study	1) Work environment 2) Work pressure 3) Negative work-family spillover 4) Depression	1) Less flexible work environment(+), Greater work pressure(+) $\rightarrow$ Negative work-family spillover $\rightarrow$ depressive symptoms
3.	Grotto & Lyness (2010) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	1178 US employees	1) Job characteristics: (i) job demands (requirements to work at home beyond scheduled hours, job complexity, time and strain) (ii) job resources (autonomy and skill development) (iii) organizational supports (flexible work arrangements and work-life culture) 2) Negative work-to-nonwork spillover	1) Job demand(+) $\rightarrow$ Negative work-to-nonwork spillover 2) Job resources(-) $\rightarrow$ Negative work-to-nonwork spillover 3) Organizational support (-) $\rightarrow$ Negative work-to-nonwork spillover

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
4.	Heller & Watson (2005) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	76 employed and married adults. Diary survey.	1) Positive affect (PA) and Negative affect (NA) 2) Job satisfaction 3) Marital satisfaction	1) Momentary job satisfaction was significantly and positively associated with momentary marital satisfaction 2) Afternoon job satisfaction was significantly associated with same-day marital satisfaction at night. 3) marital satisfaction at night predicts next day job satisfaction in the afternoon 4) PA and NA partially mediated both the concurrent and lagged effect of job satisfaction on marital satisfaction. 5) PA (but not NA) mediated the association between marital satisfaction at night and next day job satisfaction in the afternoon.
5.	Ilies et al. (2007) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	106 employees and their spouses	1) Perception of workload 2) Work-to-family conflict 3) Affect at work 4) Affect at home	1) Perception of workload(+) → Work-to-family conflict(-) → Family activity 2) Perception of workload(-) → Affect at work(+) → Affect at home
6.	Ilies et al. (2009) <i>Academy of Management Journal</i>	101 employees and their spouses or significant others. Diary survey.	1) Marital satisfaction 2) Job satisfaction 3) Positive affect and Negative affect	1) On days when employees experienced higher daily job satisfaction, they experienced higher positive affect at home 2) On days when employees experienced higher daily job satisfaction, they experienced lower negative affect at home 3) On days when employees experienced higher daily job satisfaction, they reported higher daily marital satisfaction 4) Work-family integration moderates the above relationships

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
7.	Judge & Ilies (2004) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	74 working individuals. Experience-sampling methodology	1) Positive and Negative mood 2) Job satisfaction 3) Trait of Positive and Negative affect	1) Across individuals, positive and negative mood at work partially mediated the effect of trait PA and trait NA on job satisfaction. 2) Within individuals and across time, mood at work had an effect on concurrent job satisfaction. 3) Effect of mood at work on job satisfaction weakened as the time interval between the measurement of mood and job satisfaction increased 4) Job satisfaction at work affected positive (but not negative) mood after work. 5) Within-individual effect of job satisfaction on positive mood was stronger for those high on trait PA and that the effect of job satisfaction on negative mood was stronger for those high on trait NA. 6) Positive mood at work predicted positive mood at home and negative mood at work predicted negative mood at home
8.	Judge et al. (2006) <i>Personnel Psychology</i>	75 individuals Experience-sampling methodology	1) Family-to-work conflict 2) Work-to-family conflict 3) Guilt and hostility 4) Marital satisfaction	1) Family-to-work conflict(+)→Guilt and hostility at work 2) Work-to-family conflict(+)→Guilt and hostility at home(-)→Marital satisfaction

	<b>Source</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Main variables</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
9.	Powell & Greenhaus (2010) <i>Academy of Management Journal</i>	264 pairs of employees who hold management, professional, and related occupations	1) Femininity 2) Family role salience 3) PSWF: Preferred segmentation of the work domain from the family domain 4) ASWF: Actual segmentation of the work domain from the family domain 5) Work-to-family conflict 6) Work-to-family positive spillover	1) Sex (female) (+)→Femininity 2) Femininity (+)→Family role salience 3) Femininity (+)→Work-to-family positive spillover 4) Family role salience (+)→PSWF 5) Family role salience (+)→Work-to-family conflict 6) PSWF (+)→ASWF 7) ASWF (-)→Work-to-family conflict 8) ASWF (-)→Work-to-family positive spillover
10.	Rantanen et al. (2008) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	Cross-lagged data analysis	1) job characteristics 2) psychological distress 3) marital adjustment 4) parental distress	1) high job exhaustion preceded high psychological distress, both within one- and six-year time lags, and within a one-year time lag: 2) low marital adjustment preceded high psychological distress, 3) high psychological distress preceded high parental stress.
11.	Schulz et al. (2004) <i>Journal of Family Psychology</i>	82 husbands and wives from 42 couples. Diary study.	1) Husband's and wives' work experience 2) Husband's and wives' emotions and behaviors at home	1) Husbands' end-of-work-day negative mood (+)→Withdrawal 2) Husbands' end-of-work-day negative mood (-)→angry to wives 3) Wives' end-of-work-day negative mood (-)→angry to husbands 4) Wives' workload (+)→withdrawal 5) Wives' fast paced work (+)→angry to husbands 6) marital satisfaction moderates the relationships
12.	Song et al. (2008) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	50 couples, event-sampling methodology	1) Positive mood 2) Negative mood	1) Significant spillover and crossover effects for both positive and negative moods 2) Work orientation moderates negative mood spillover from work to home

### **2.1.3 Spillover Effect of Job Insecurity to the Family**

Previous research provided rather compelling evidence that job insecurity does have spillover effects for the insecure employees. Job insecurity has been found to influence employees' family lives (Nolan, Wichert, & Burchell, 2000). As a job stressor, job insecurity increases individuals' stress and decreases their psychosomatic well-being (Barling & Macewen, 1992; Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999a, 1999b). Job insecurity exerts significant indirect effects on three dimensions of marital functioning: marital satisfaction, sexual satisfaction and psychological aggression, by decreasing the insecure individuals' concentration and elevating depression (Barling & Macewen, 1992). Extant studies suggest that job insecurity is associated with increased marital tension (Hughes & Galinsky, 1994) and work-family conflicts (Richter, Naswall, & Sverke, 2010; Voydanoff, 2004). Job insecure employees are more likely to undermine their spouses at home (Westman, Etzion & Danon, 2001; Westman, Vinukur, Hamilton & Roziner, 2004). Research shows that one's job insecurity is related to his/her spouse's anxiety and stress levels. (Mauno & Kinnunen, 2002; Westman, Etzion & Horovitz, 2004).

Moreover, research has further shown that the spillover effect of job insecurity goes beyond the dyad of couples. Job insecure individuals who are emotionally and physically fatigued from work stress tend to be less involved in parenting roles and less supportive to their children (Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999b; Repetti & Wood, 1997; Roeters, Van Der Lippe & Kluwer, 2009). Indeed, this stream of research found that the children of job insecure employees experience social or school problems (e.g., Barling et al., 1998; Barling & Mendelson, 1999; Barling et al., 1999; Stewart & Barling, 1996; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). Individuals who experience job insecurity will bring negative mood (e.g., Stewart & Barling, 1996), negative attitude

(e.g., Barling & Mendelson, 1999) and anxiety (e.g., Lim & Sng, 2006) to the family domain, which in turn, influence their children directly or indirectly. Directly, job insecure parents display more authoritarian, punishing, and rejecting kind of parenting behaviors (Lim & Loo, 2003; Stewart & Barling, 1996). Indirectly, children are able to perceive parents' negative work-related mood and attitude by observing and interacting with their parents (e.g., Barling et al., 1999; Lim & Loo, 2003). As a result, children of job insecure parents are likely to have poorer school performance (Barling et al., 1999) and negative work attitude (Lim & Sng, 2006).

A summary of the literature on the spillover effect of job insecurity is given in Table 2.2. Table 2.3 provides a summary of the literature on the impact of job insecurity on children. Taken together, existing research provides strong empirical support that job insecurity does spillover to the family domain and influence job insecure individuals' behaviors toward their children.



**Table 2.2 Summary of Literature on the Spillover Effect of Job Insecurity to the Family Domain**

	<b>Source</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Main variables</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
1.	Barling & Macewen (1992) <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i>	190 employed married people	1) Work characteristics: Role conflict; Role ambiguity; Job insecurity; Job satisfaction 2) Concentration 3) Depression 4) Marital satisfaction, Sexual satisfaction, Psychological aggression	Job insecurity (+) → Concentration (+) → Depression (+) → Marital satisfaction, Sexual satisfaction, Psychological aggression.
2.	Hughes & Galinsky (1994) <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i>	523 married full time employees	1) Job characteristics: enrichment, pressure, flexibility, and insecurity 2) Marital tension 3) Marital support 4) Negative home mood	1) Job insecurity(+)→Marital tension 2) Job insecurity→Marital support ( $\beta = -.03$ , ns) 3) Job insecurity→Negative mood at home ( $\beta = .03$ , ns)
3.	Mauno & Kinnunen (1999a) <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i>	215 couples in Finland	1) Job stressors: Job insecurity; Job autonomy; Time pressure; Leadership relationship; Work-family conflict 2) Job exhaustion 3) Psychosomatic symptoms 4) Marital Satisfaction	1) Job insecurity(+)→Job exhaustion(+)→Psychosomatic symptoms(-)→Marital satisfaction 2) Job insecurity(+)→Psychosomatic symptoms
4.	Mauno & Kinnunen (1999b) <i>Community, Work &amp; Family</i>	219 Finnish employees. Longitudinal study	1) Job insecurity 2) Job exhaustion 3) Negative spillover to parenthood	For women only: 1) Job insecurity(+)→Job exhaustion 2) Job insecurity(+)→Negative spillover to parenthood

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
5.	Mauno & Kinnunen (2002) <i>Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology</i>	387 married or cohabiting dual-earner couples in Finland	1) Job insecurity 2) Economic stress	1) Male's antecedent factors → Female's job insecurity 2) Female's antecedent factors → Male's job insecurity 3) Economic stress was bidirectional both from male partner to female partner and vice versa.
6.	Westman et al. (2001) <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i>	Longitudinal survey: 98 married couples working in the same firm in Israel	1) Job insecurity 2) Sense of control 3) Burnout 4) Social undermining	1) Husband's and wife's job insecurity are correlated; 2) Husband's and wife's sense of control are correlated 3) Husband's job insecurity(+) → Husband's burnout 4) Wife's job insecurity → Wife's burnout ( $\beta = .07$ , ns) 5) Husband's burnout(+) → Husband to wife undermining 6) Wife's burnout(+) → Wife to husband undermining
7.	Westman, Etzion & Horovitz (2004) <i>Human Relations</i>	Longitudinal survey: 250 unemployed and their spouses	1) Economic hardship 2) Spousal social support 3) Anxiety of the unemployed 4) Spouse's anxiety	1) Economic hardship(+) → Anxiety of the unemployed 2) Economic hardship(+) → Anxiety of the spouse 3) Social support(-) → Anxiety of the unemployed 4) Anxiety of spouse(+) → Anxiety of the unemployed 5) Anxiety of the unemployed(+) → Anxiety of spouse

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
8.	Westman, Vinokur, Hamilton & Roziner (2004) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	Longitudinal survey: 1250 male officers and their wives	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Distress</li> <li>2) Marital dissatisfaction</li> <li>3) Financial hardship</li> <li>4) Negative life event</li> <li>5) Social undermining</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Husband's and wife's distress are correlated</li> <li>2) Husband's and wife's marital dissatisfaction are correlated</li> <li>3) Financial hardship → Husband's distress</li> <li>4) Financial hardship → Wife's distress</li> <li>5) Husband's distress → Social undermining</li> <li>6) Wife's distress → Social undermining</li> <li>7) Husband's distress, Wife's undermining → Husband's marital dissatisfaction</li> <li>8) Wife's distress, Husband's undermining → Wife's marital satisfaction</li> </ol>
9.	Richter et al. (2010) <i>Economic and Industrial Democracy</i>	Longitudinal survey of Swedish teachers	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Job insecurity</li> <li>2) Work-family conflict</li> </ol>	Job insecurity(+) → Work-family conflict, but only for men
10.	Voydanoff (2004) <i>Journal of Marriage and Family</i>	1,938 employed adults	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Work demand: paid working hours, extra work without notice, job insecurity</li> <li>2) Work resource</li> <li>3) Work-to-family conflict</li> <li>4) Work-to-family facilitation</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Job insecurity(+) → Work-to-family conflict</li> <li>2) Work resource(+) → Work-to-family facilitation</li> </ol>

**Table 2.3 Summary of Literature on the Effect of Parental Job Insecurity on Youths**

	<b>Source</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Main variables</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
1.	Barling et al. (1998) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> ,	Multi-source survey: 200 undergraduate students and their parents	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Fathers' job insecurity;</li> <li>2) Mothers; job insecurity;</li> <li>3) Children's perception of fathers' job insecurity;</li> <li>4) Children's perception of mothers' job insecurity;</li> <li>5) Children's work beliefs (humanistic and protestant work belief);</li> <li>6) Children's work attitudes (Alienation and motivation)</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Fathers' job insecurity → Children's perceived fathers' job insecurity (<math>\beta = .50, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>2) Mothers' job insecurity → Children's perceived mothers' job insecurity (<math>\beta = .52, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>3) Children's perceived father's job insecurity → Children's work beliefs (<math>\beta = -.35, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>4) Children's work beliefs → Children's work attitudes (<math>\beta = .97, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> </ol>
2.	Barling & Mendelson (1999) <i>Journal of Occupational Health Psychology</i>	Multi-source survey: 230 undergraduate students and their parents	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Parents' job insecurity;</li> <li>2) Children's perception of parents' job insecurity;</li> <li>3) Children's belief in an unjust world;</li> <li>4) Children's negative mood (anger, anxiety, and sadness);</li> <li>5) Children's school performance</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Parents' job insecurity → Children's perception of parents' job insecurity (<math>\beta = .64, p &lt; .001</math>)</li> <li>2) Children's perception of parents' job insecurity → Children's belief in an unjust world (<math>\beta = .23, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>3) Children's belief in an unjust world → Children's negative mood (<math>\beta = .24, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>4) Children's negative mood → Children's school performance (<math>\beta = -.44, p &lt; .001</math>)</li> </ol>

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
3.	Barling et al. (1999) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	Multi-source survey: 219 undergraduate students and their parents	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Parents' job insecurity;</li> <li>2) Children's perception of parents' job insecurity;</li> <li>3) Children's cognitive difficulties;</li> <li>4) Children's grades</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Father's job insecurity → Children's perception of father's insecurity (<math>\beta = .66, p &lt; .01</math>)</li> <li>2) Mother's job insecurity → Children's perception of mother's job insecurity (<math>\beta = .71, p &lt; .01</math>)</li> <li>3) Children's perception of father's insecurity → Children's cognitive difficulties (<math>\beta = .43, p &lt; .01</math>)</li> <li>4) Children's perception of mother's insecurity → Children's cognitive difficulties (<math>\beta = -.12, ns</math>)</li> <li>5) Children's cognitive difficulties → Children's grades (<math>\beta = -.25, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> </ol>
4.	Lim & Loo (2003)* <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	Multi-source survey: 263 undergraduate students and their parents	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Parent's job insecurity;</li> <li>2) Children's perceived parental job insecurity;</li> <li>3) Parental authoritarian parenting behaviors (Control, Non-participation, Non-support);</li> <li>4) Youths' self-efficacy;</li> <li>5) Youths' work attitudes (Work involvement)</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Paternal job insecurity → Children's perceived paternal job insecurity (<math>\beta = .99, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>2) Maternal job insecurity → Children's perceived maternal job insecurity (<math>\beta = .60, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>3) Paternal job insecurity → Paternal authoritarian parenting behaviors (<math>\beta = .20, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>4) Maternal job insecurity → Maternal authoritarian parenting behaviors (<math>\beta = -.21, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>5) Perceived paternal job insecurity → Youths' self-efficacy (<math>\beta = -.32, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>6) Perceived maternal job insecurity → Youths' self-efficacy (<math>\beta = -.30, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>7) Paternal authoritarian parenting behaviors → Youths' self-efficacy (<math>\beta = -.16, ns</math>)</li> <li>8) Maternal authoritarian parenting behaviors → Youths' self-efficacy (<math>\beta = -.26, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>9) Youths' self-efficacy → Youths' work attitudes (<math>\beta = .97, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> </ol>

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
5.	Lim & Sng (2006) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	Multi-source survey: 250 undergraduate students and their parents	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Parents' job insecurity</li> <li>2) Parental money anxiety</li> <li>3) Youths' money anxiety</li> <li>4) Youths' negative money motives (Overcoming self-doubt, Social comparison)</li> <li>5) Youths' intrinsic motivation to work</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Paternal job insecurity → Paternal money anxiety (<math>\beta = .97, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>2) Maternal job insecurity → Maternal money anxiety (<math>\beta = .06, ns</math>)</li> <li>3) Paternal money anxiety → Youths' money anxiety (<math>\beta = .21, p &lt; .01</math>)</li> <li>4) Maternal money anxiety → Youths' money anxiety (<math>\beta = .23, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>5) Youths' money anxiety → Youths' negative money motives (<math>\beta = .34, p &lt; .01</math>)</li> <li>6) Youths' negative money motives → Youths' intrinsic motivation to work (<math>\beta = -.29, p &lt; .01</math>)</li> </ol>
6.	Roeters et al. (2009) <i>Journal of Marriage and Family</i>	639 Dutch couples	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Work demand: working hours, restrictive organizational norms, job insecurity</li> <li>2) Participation in routine/interactive activities</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Working hours (-) → activities with children</li> <li>2) Father's job insecurity → routine activities (<math>\beta = -.10, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>2) Mother's job insecurity → routine activities (<math>\beta = .02, ns.</math>)</li> <li>4) Fathers generally responded more strongly to their own and their partner's work demands than mothers.</li> </ol>
7.	Stewart & Barling (1996) <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i>	Multi-source survey: 195 undergraduate students and their parents	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) <u>Father's work experiences</u>: Decision latitude; Job demand; Job insecurity; Interrole conflict.</li> <li>2) <u>Job-related affect</u>: Job satisfaction; Negative mood; Job-related tension.</li> <li>3) <u>Parenting behavior</u>: Authoritative parenting; Punishing behaviors; Rejecting behaviors.</li> <li>4) <u>Children's behavior</u>: School competence; Acting out; Shyness</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Decision latitude → Job satisfaction (<math>\beta = .34, p &lt; .01</math>), Negative mood (<math>\beta = .35, p &lt; .01</math>).</li> <li>2) Job demand → Job related tension (<math>\beta = .21, p &lt; .01</math>)</li> <li>3) Job insecurity → Job satisfaction (<math>\beta = -.22, p &lt; .05</math>)</li> <li>4) Interrole conflict → Job satisfaction (<math>\beta = -.21, p &lt; .01</math>), Negative mood (<math>\beta = .42, p &lt; .01</math>), Job related tension (<math>\beta = .56, p &lt; .01</math>), punishing behaviors (<math>\beta = .19, p &lt; .05</math>), rejecting behaviors (<math>\beta = .37, p &lt; .01</math>).</li> <li>5) Negative mood → Punishing behaviors (<math>\beta = .24, p &lt; .01</math>), Rejecting behaviors (<math>\beta = .20, p &lt; .01</math>).</li> <li>6) Punishing behaviors → Acting out (<math>\beta = .27, p &lt; .01</math>).</li> </ol>

Note: paper marked with \* is also included in Table 2.5

## **2.2 THEORIES ON YOUTHS' CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

In this section, I review the theories that have been used to explain career development. There are mainly two streams of career theories, trait-factor and developmental theories, and each of them has some strengths and short-comings. Social cognitive career theory, developed based on social cognitive theory, combines the strengths and overcome the weaknesses of both trait-factor and developmental theories. Hence, social cognitive career theory is used in this dissertation to explain how parental job insecurity and parenting behaviors influence youths' career development, especially career self-efficacy and their perception of future work selves.

### **2.2.1 Trait-Factor and Developmental Theories of Career**

Effort has been made by researchers to understand individuals' career development and choice. Early theories view career choices from a trait-oriented perspective. Examples are career typology theory (Holland, 1959; 1997) and work adjustment theory (Dawis, 1992; 2005). Career typology theory argues that people's career choices represent an extension of their personality and these individuals adjust to occupational environments. Holland (1959, 1997) explained that by late adolescence, most people form a personality that resembles a combination of six vocational personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. The fit between one's vocational personality and career choice can be evaluated by three indicators: congruence, consistency, and identity (Holland, 1997). Career typology theory has received empirical support over the years and is widely used in career counseling practice.

Work adjustment theory is rooted in the individual differences tradition in

psychology (Dawis, 1992). The theory started out as a person-environment fit theory with a focus on personality and person's behavior. Work adjustment theory assumes that individuals have requirements that have to be met. The most important requirements are biological and psychological needs and values. Many of these needs can be met at work and individuals have the capabilities to meet these requirements. Individuals interact with work environment, resulting in satisfaction when requirements are fulfilled. Otherwise, individuals may choose to leave the work environment.

Career typology theory and work adjustment theory are both trait-oriented theories that view people and work environment from a trait perspective. Trait-oriented theories often emphasize the attributes that are relatively global and view them as constant and enduring across time and situations. In other words, trait-oriented theories are static models that view people to be relatively passive in the person-environment relationships.

Another stream of career theories, called developmental theories, focuses on the process of career development. Two examples are career construction theory and the theory of career circumscription and compromise. Built on Super's (1957; 1990) self-concept development theory, career construction theory views career development as a series of stages during which individuals continuously improve the match between the self and situation (Savickas, 2005). In other words, in the P-E (person-environment) symbol, the focus of career construction theory is on neither "P" nor "E" but on the dash "-", i.e., the fit and interaction between "P" and "E". The theory asserts that building a career is a psychosocial activity that synthesizes self and society. With a changing self (P) and changing situation (E), the matching process is never really completed. During career development, individuals continuously adapt to



the environment, i.e., shape their self-extension into social environment. The series of changing preferences should progress, through successive approximation, toward a better fit between worker (P) and work (E). (Savickas, 2005).

Theory of career circumscription and compromise also emphasizes the career development process (Gottfredson, 1981; 1996). According to the theory, there are four stages of career circumscription across the life span: orientation to size and power during ages 3 to 5; orientation to sex roles during 6 to 8; orientation to social valuation during ages 9 to 13; and orientation to internal and unique self at 14 or above. The theory also views career development as a compromise process by which individuals relinquish their ideal but inaccessible aspirations for less compatible but more accessible ones (Gottfredson, 2005).

Different from trait-oriented theories, developmental theories view career choice as a matching process and the emphasis is on the process. Researchers try to understand career development during different periods/stages and pay less attention to individual differences compared to trait-factor theories. Both trait-oriented and developmental theories have their own strengths and limitations; social cognitive career theory combines their strengths and overcome the limitations.

### **2.2.2 Social Cognitive Career Theory and Career Self-efficacy**

A more recent theory has been proposed to understand individuals' career development. Social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) has its foundation in general social cognitive theory that identifies human behavior as an interaction of personal factors, behavior, and the environment (Bandura 1986; 1997). Social cognitive career theory shares certain features with both trait theories and developmental theories but is distinctive in some aspects. Like developmental theories,

social cognitive career theory views career development as a relatively dynamic process that involves the interaction between people and environment. However, social cognitive career theory is less concerned with the specifics of ages and periods of career development, yet more like trait theories in that it is concerned with particular theoretical elements that promote effective career behaviors across developmental stages (Lent, 2005).

Three key theoretical elements of social cognitive career theory are: self-efficacy (“Can I do this?”), outcome expectation (“If I try doing this, what will happen?”), and personal goal (“How much and how well do I want to do this?”). These three elements are adopted from Bandura’s (1986; 1997) theory. Self-efficacy is defined as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Outcome expectation refers to “beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behaviors” (Lent, 2005, p. 104). Personal goal is defined as an individual’s intention to engage in a particular activity or to produce a particular outcome (Bandura, 1986). In social cognitive career theory, these three elements are career-specific and they play important roles in the three models of career interests, choices, and performance proposed by Lent et al. (1994).

Social cognitive career theory argues that: first, career self-efficacy influences outcome expectation and career goals. Second, self-efficacy and outcome expectations have strong influence on career goals, interests and choices. Third, career self-efficacy and career goals influence career performance. Moreover, the models of social cognitive career theory are not static. Past performance is related to the sense of self-efficacy, which has an impact on the next-stage of career development (Lent et al., 1994; Lent, 2005).

Self-efficacy occupies a central role in three models of the social cognitive career by influencing career outcomes both directly and indirectly. This is supported by empirical studies. Self-efficacy was found to have strong impact on career interest, choices, and development (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Hackett, 1995; Lent et al., 1994; Rottinghaus, Larson & Borgen, 2003). Moreover, self-efficacy is an accurate predictor of career performance (Sadri & Robertson, 1993; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Social cognitive career theory also emphasizes the importance of environmental factors in shaping people's career paths (Lent et al., 1994). For example, social/cultural environment to which individuals are exposed will influence one's access to career-related information and models. The environmental factors are generally categorized to support and barriers (Flores & O'Brien, 2002). Support includes encouragement, access to role models or mentors and financial resources while barrier includes negative social or family influences and financial concerns (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2000). Research has shown that support is positively and barrier is negatively related to career development (Lent et al., 2001; Lent et al., 2005).

Moreover, social cognitive career theory suggests that the impact of external factors on youths' career development is often through youths' self-efficacy. Empirical studies have provided evidence that family or parental support is positively related to youths' self-efficacy, which, in turn, has positive impact on youths' career decision (Nota et al., 2007), interest (Navarro et al., 2007), aspiration (Bandura et al., 2001), and behavioral intention (Gibson et al., 2007).

## **2.3 FAMILY INFLUENCE ON YOUTHS' CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

According to the social cognitive career theory, one's career development is influenced by external factors in the environment. The "environment" is a broad concept including forces from family, school, community and the society. This dissertation focuses on the influence from family, especially from parents. In this section, I first review the studies on general family influence on youths' career development. In section 2.3.2, I further review the literature on the impact of different parenting styles on youths' career development. Lastly, I introduce the Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) categorization of career-specific parenting behaviors that is used in this dissertation.

### **2.3.1 Family Influence on Youths' Career Development**

Empirical studies have shown that family plays an important role in youths' career development. Family is ranked as the most frequent source of the information and plan for the future (Malmberg, 2001). Some studies examine the impact of different family types. For example, low social economic status families (Diemer, 2007), minority families (Caldera, Robitschek, Frame & Pannell, 2003; Navarro, Flores & Worthington, 2007), divorced families (Scott & Church, 2001), and dysfunctional families (Ryan, Solberg & Brown, 1996) have all been found to have negative impact on adolescent's career development. Moreover, some researchers examine the impact of family environment characteristics. For example, it is found that expressiveness of parents and familial achievement orientation have positive impact on youths' career self-efficacy while family conflict has negative impact on youths' career self-efficacy (Hargrove, Creagh and Burgess, 2002). Malmberg, Ehrman and Lithén (2005) also reported that positive family interaction mediates the

relationship between parents' future beliefs and children's future beliefs and goals.

Previous studies have also examined the impact of family support and parenting behaviors on youths' career development. A healthy attachment relationship with parents is positively related to adolescent's career development (O'Brien, Friedman, Tipton & Linn, 2000; Vignoli, Croity-Belz, Chapeland, Fillipis & Garcia, 2005). Family support benefits adolescent's career development (Diemer, 2007; Nota, Ferrari, Solberg & Soresi, 2007). Navarro et al. (2007) showed that among different sources of support (from parents, school teachers, classmates and close friends), only parent support was positively related to youths' self-efficacy. Moreover, parents' social economic status and self-efficacy also has an impact on children's self-efficacy because parent's self-efficacy influences their ability to provide positive parenting behaviors (Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Gibson, Griepentrog & Marsh, 2007).

A summary of the literature on the impact of family influence on children's career development is given in Table 2.4. The studies are arranged in an alphabetic sequence. In the next section, I will discuss more about the different types of parenting behaviors that have impact on youths' career development.

**Table 2.4 Summary of Literature on the Impact of Family Influence on Children's Career Development**

	<b>Source</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Main variables</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
1.	Bandura et al. (2001) <i>Child Development</i>	272 children (age: 11~15)	1) Social economic status 2) Parent's academic aspiration (of their children) 3) Children's self-efficacy 4) Children's academic aspiration 5) Children's occupational self-efficacy 6) Children's occupational choice	1) Social economic status(+)→Parent's academic aspiration 2) Parent's academic aspiration(+)→Children's self-efficacy 3) Children's self-efficacy(+)→Children's academic aspiration 4) Children's academic aspiration(+)→ Children's occupational self-efficacy 5) Children's occupational self-efficacy (+)→ Children's occupational choice
2.	Diemer (2007)* <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	1298 teenagers (8 <sup>th</sup> grade ~ 2 years after high school). Longitudinal study	1) School support: Interest assess; Career readiness seminar; School job fairs 2) Parent support: Contacted school regarding post-school plans; Attended program regarding employment opportunities; Discussed about the jobs;	1) School support(+)→Vocational expectation 2) Parental support(+)→Work salience
3.	Flores & O'Brien (2002)* <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i>	Mexican American adolescent women (mean age: 17.4)	1) Nontraditional career self-efficacy 2) Nontraditional career interests 3) Career choice prestige 4) Parental support 5) Perceived occupational barriers	1) Nontraditional career self-efficacy(+)→Nontraditional career interest, Career choice prestige 2) Parental support(+)→Career choice prestige 3) Perceived occupational barriers(-)→Career choice prestige

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
4.	Gibson et al. (2007) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	601 youths and their parent (age: 16~21)	1) Parent's and youths' norms 2) Parent's and youths' attitudes 3) Parent's and youths' efficacy beliefs 4) Youths' intention to enlist	1) Parent's norms(+), Parent's efficacy beliefs(+) $\rightarrow$ Parent's attitudes 2) Parent's efficacy beliefs(+) $\rightarrow$ Youths' self-efficacy beliefs 3) Youths' self-efficacy beliefs(+), Norms(+) $\rightarrow$ Attitudes 4) Youths' attitudes(+) $\rightarrow$ Youths' intention to enlist
5.	Hargrove et al. (2002) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	210 undergraduate students (mean age: 20)	1) Family Environment 2) Career self-efficacy	1) Achievement orientation(+) $\rightarrow$ Vocational identity scores 2) Expressiveness (+), Conflict (-), Achievement orientation(+) $\rightarrow$ Career self-efficacy of goal setting 3) Expressiveness (+), Conflict (-), Achievement orientation(+), Intellectual Cultural Orientation(+) $\rightarrow$ Career self-efficacy of occupational information 4) Conflict(-), Achievement orientation(+) $\rightarrow$ Career self-efficacy of problem solving 5) Achievement orientation(+) $\rightarrow$ Career self-efficacy of planning 6) Conflict (-), Achievement orientation(+), Intellectual-cultural orientation(+), moral-religious emphasis(-) $\rightarrow$ Career self-efficacy of accurate self-appraisal.
6.	Kracke (2002)* <i>Journal of Adolescence</i>	192 German students (mean age: 15). Longitudinal survey	1) <u>Adaptive personality</u> : Self-efficacy; Openness for new experiences; Low irritability; Planfulness 2) <u>Child-centered parenting</u> : Authoritativeness; Parental openness for adolescent issues; Individuation; Parental support concerning career issues 3) Peer support 4) Career exploration	1) Children-centered parenting(+) $\rightarrow$ Career exploration 2) Adaptive personality(+) $\rightarrow$ Career exploration 3) Peer support(+) $\rightarrow$ Career exploration

	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
7.	Malmberg et al. (2005)* <i>Journal of Adolescence</i>	239 adolescents and their parents (age: 11~13)	1) <u>Family interaction</u> : Choicefulness and Engage 2) <u>Goals (both parents' and children's)</u> : Career goals, Family goals, Social goals	1) Parents' goals(+)→Children's goals 2) Family interaction mediated the relationship between parents' goals and children's goals
8.	Navarro et al. (2007)* <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i>	409 Mexican American youths (mean age: 14)	1) Support (from parents, teachers, classmates, and close friends) 2) Math/Science self-efficacy 3) Math/Science interest 4) Math/Science goal intentions	1) Parent support (but not teacher, classmate, or close friend support) (+)→Math/Science self-efficacy 2) Math/Science self-efficacy (+)→ Math/Science outcome expectation; Math/Science interests; Math/Science goal intentions 3) Math/Science outcome expectation(+)→ Math/Science interests 4) Math/Science interests(+)→ Math/Science goal intentions
9.	Neblett & Cortina (2006)* <i>Journal of Adolescence</i>	415 9-12 grade students (mean age: 15.5)	1) <u>Perception of parents' work conditions</u> : Reward; Occupational self-direction; Stress 2) Parental career support; 3) Children's future perception (optimism, pessimism, and hope)	1) Perception of parents' work conditions→Children's future perception: Reward (+); Occupational self-direction (+); Stress (-) 2) Parental career support weakened the negative relationship between children's perceived parents' unfavorable work experience and future orientation.
10.	Nota et al. (2007) <i>Journal of Career Assessment</i>	253 high school youths (mean age: 17)	1) Family support 2) Career search self-efficacy 3) Career indecision	1) Family support(-)→Career indecision 2) Career self-efficacy mediates the relationship



	Source	Sample	Main variables	Main findings
11.	O'Brien et al. (2000) <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i>	207 young women (mean age: 22). Longitudinal survey	1) attachment/separation from father/mother 2) career self-efficacy 3) career aspiration	1) Attachment to father/mother(+)→Career self-efficacy 2) Career self-efficacy(+)→Career aspiration
12.	Schmitt-Rode rmund (2004)* <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	320 college students (mean age: 15.5)	1) Authoritative parenting 2) Entrepreneurial personality 3) <u>Early entrepreneurial competence</u> : Leadership, Curiosity, Entrepreneurial skills	1) Authoritative parenting(+)→Early entrepreneurial competence 2) Entrepreneurial personality(+)→Early entrepreneurial competence
13.	Soenens, & Vansteenkiste (2005)* <i>Journal of Youth and Adolescence</i>	328 adolescents( mean age: 17)	1) Autonomy-supportive parenting 2) Autonomy-supportive teaching 3) Adolescents' self-determination 4) Adolescents' adjustment	1) Autonomy-supportive parenting(+)→ Self-determination 2) Autonomy-supportive teaching(+)→ Self-determination 3) Self-determination(+)→ Adjustment
14.	Vignoli et al. (2005)* <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	83 high school students (Mean age: 18)	1) Anxiety factors: General anxiety; Fear of failing; Fear of disappointing 2) Attachment factors: Mother attachment, Father attachment 3) Parenting factors: Authoritative; Neglectful 4) Career exploration process	1) General anxiety(-), Fear of failing(+)→Career exploration frequency and diversity 2) Attachment(+)→Exploration frequency 3) Neglectful(-)→Career exploration frequency and diversity

	<b>Source</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Main variables</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
15.	Wettersten et al. (2005)* <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i>	689 high school students (age not specified)	1) Social support 2) Academic self-efficacy 3) parents' pro-educational behaviors 4) Career outcome expectations 5) Academic outcome expectations 6) Career salience	1) Social support, Academic self-efficacy, Perceived parents' pro-educational behaviors(+)→Career outcome expectations 2) Academic self-efficacy, Perceived parents' pro-educational behaviors (+)→Academic outcome expectations 3) Perceived parents' pro-educational behaviors(+)→ Career salience

Note: papers marked with \* are also included in Table 2.5

### **2.3.2 Parenting Behaviors and Youths' Career Development**

Parents play important roles in youths' career development. In their interview study on occupational decision making during transition to adulthood, Mortimer, Zimmer-Gembeck, Holmes, and Shanahan (2002) found that parents was the most frequently mentioned source of influence that move youths toward their career interest and destination. Existing literature shows that different types of parenting behaviors exert different effects on youths' career development.

The majority of studies investigated the impact of general parenting styles. There are mainly three types of general parenting behaviors that have been found to influence youths' career development.

Some parents do not participate in youths' development. Such lack of parental engagement has been found to have negative impact on adolescents' career development. Non-participation has negative impact on youths' self-efficacy, which in turn, influences youths' work attitude (Lim & Loo, 2003). Moreover, Vignoli et al. (2005) examined four types of parenting behaviors: 1) authoritative parenting (warm and controlling), 2) authoritarian parenting (hostile and controlling), 3) permissive parenting (warm and uncontrolling) and 4) neglectful parenting (hostile and uncontrolling) and found that only neglectful had significant and negative impact on youths' career exploration.

Parental support, including emotional support and instrumental support, has been found to have positive impact on youths' career development. Emotional support, such as showing understanding, listening, and showing pride, has positive impact on youths' future goals (Malmberg et al., 2005), work salience and vocational expectation (Diemer, 2007; Wettersten et al., 2005). Moreover, Diemer (2007) found that parental instrumental support, such as attending program regarding employment

opportunities and discussing with teens about jobs and career plan, has a positive impact on youths' work salience. Wettersten et al., (2005) reported that parents' pro-educational behaviors, i.e., their engagement in certain education-facilitative behaviors, have a positive impact on youths' career outcome expectations and career salience.

Moreover, some researchers point out that to benefit youths' career development, it is important to provide them with some autonomy. Perceived choicefulness and autonomy of decision making was found to be positively related to youths' career development (Malmberg et al., 2005; Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004; Soenens, & Vansteenkiste, 2005). Applying Self-determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005) argues that experiencing a sense of autonomy and choicefulness in one's actions is critical for youths' functioning and that higher level of self-determined functioning will predict better adjustment across development processes. The three types of parenting behaviors involve providing autonomy. First, authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth, support, monitor, and autonomy of decision making, has positive impact on youths' career development (Kracke, 2002; Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004). Second, Autonomy-supportive parenting, characterized by parents' sensibility to children's needs and ability to provide choices, is positively related to self-determination, which is positively related to proactive career behaviors (Soenens and Vansteenkiste, 2005). Lastly, psychological control refers to the parenting behavior that interferes with youths' needs and makes them feel that they have no other choice. Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005) found that psychological control was negatively related to autonomy-supportive parenting and had a negative impact on youths' proactive career behaviors.

While much attention has been paid to general parenting behavior, some

researchers also investigated career-specific parenting behaviors. Among these few studies, authors often focused on supportive parenting behaviors. Parental career support, including encouraging youths to follow their career goals, discussing career goals with youths, supporting youths' career choices, providing advice, and helping youths to find out more about different careers, has been found to have a direct positive impact on youths' career aspiration (Flores & O'Brien, 2002). Neblett and Cortina (2006) also reported that parental career support weakened the negative relationship between youths' perceived parents' unfavorable work experience and outlook of the future.

Recently, based on previous literature, Dietrich and Kracke (2009) distinguished three types of career-specific parenting behaviors. *Lack of engagement* refers to the parents who do not participate in adolescents' career development at all. *Support* refers to the parents who let their offspring make their own choices while offering orientation and instrumental support if needed. Finally, *interference* refers to the parents who control their children's career actions and choices too much and enforce their own ideas regardless of children's wishes. In other words, lack of engagement is actually a behavior of "no action" while support and interference both involve some actions. From another perspective, support can be viewed as a kind of positive career-specific behavior while lack of engagement and interference are negative.

The studies reviewed in this section are summarized in Table 2.5. In this dissertation, I adopt Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) categorization of career-specific parenting behaviors and examine their impact on youths' career development. In Essay 1, career-specific support is examined. In Essay 2, I further examine all the three types of career-specific parenting behaviors.

**Table 2.5 The Impact of Various Parenting Behaviors on Youths' Career Development**

	<b>Source</b>	<b>Parenting behavior(s)</b>	<b>Details about parenting behavior(s)</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
1.	Diemer (2007) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	1) <u>Instrumental parental support</u> (to facilitate youths career development) 2) <u>Relational parent support</u> (to facilitate youths' emotional well-being and/or management of stressful events)	<u>Instrumental parental support</u> : "contact school regarding post-school plans"; "attend program regarding employment opportunities"; "discuss about the jobs plan with children"; "discuss teen's career plan with other parents" <u>Relational parental support</u> : "do things together"; "talk about troubling things"; "spend time to talk with children"	Instrumental parental support (+)→ work salience Relational parental support (+)→ work salience; (+)→vocational expectation.
2.	Flores & O'Brien (2002) <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i>	<u>Parental career support</u>	Sample items: -- "My parents agree with my career goals" -- "My parents and I often discuss my career plans."	Parental career support(+)→Career choice prestige
3.	Kracke (2002) <i>Journal of Adolescence</i>	<u>Child-centered parenting</u> : 1) Authoritativeness; 2) Parental openness for adolescent issues; 3) Individuation; 4) Parental support concerning career issues	1) Authoritativeness: e.g., "when my parents want me to do something they explain why"; 2) Parental openness for adolescent issues: e.g., "when I criticize my parents, they listen to me and think it over"; 3) Individuation: e.g., "even when my parents don't like my opinion, I openly express what I really think"; 4) Parental support concerning career issues: e.g., "my parents often ask me about my career interests and plans"	Children-centered parenting (+)→Career exploration

	Source	Parenting behavior(s)	Details about parenting behavior(s)	Main findings
4.	Lim & Loo (2003) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	Authoritarian parenting behaviors: 1) Control: the degree to which parents attempted to limit their children's autonomy. 2) non-participation: the degree to which parents spent little time and participated in few activities with their children. 3) non-support: the degree to which parents showed little affection and helped their children.	1) control: e.g., "My father (mother) has always told me how I should behave" 2) non-participation: e.g., "My father (mother) spent little time with me" 3) Non-support: e.g., "My father (mother) seemed to approve of me and the things I did" (reverse coded)	Authoritarian parenting behavior (-) → youths' self-efficacy (+) → youths' work attitude
5.	Malmberg et al., (2005) <i>Journal of Adolescence</i>	Family interaction: 1) Choicefulness 2) Engage	1) Perceived choicefulness: "do your parents allow you to figure out things for yourself", "do your parents give you choices" 2) Perceived parental engagement: "do your parents listen carefully to you", "do your parents understand you", "do your parents keep what they promise"	Family interaction mediated the relationship between parents' goals and children's goals
6.	Navarro et al. (2007) <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i>	Social support: "an individual's perceptions of general support or specific supportive behaviors (available or acted on) from people in their social network, which enhances their functioning and/or may buffer them from adverse outcomes"	Parental support: e.g., "My parent(s) show they are proud of me"	Parent support (but not teacher, classmate, or close friend support) (+) → Math/Science self-efficacy

	Source	Parenting behavior(s)	Details about parenting behavior(s)	Main findings
7.	Neblett & Cortina (2006) <i>Journal of Adolescence</i>	Parental career support: adolescents' perceptions of their mothers' and fathers' instrumental and emotional support for their career goals	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. My mother (father) encourages me to follow my career or job goals.</li> <li>2. I discuss my goals for careers and jobs for my future with my mother (father).</li> <li>3. Even if my mother (father) were to disagree with my choices for a career or job in the future, I know she (he) would support me.</li> <li>4. My mother (father) gives me advice about setting career or job goals.</li> <li>5. My mother (father) helps me find out about different careers and jobs for my future.</li> </ol>	Parental career support weakened the negative relationship between children's perceived parents' unfavorable work experience and future orientation (optimism, pessimism, and hope).
8.	Schmitt-Rodermund (2004) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	<u>Authoritative parenting</u> : parenting behavior is considered authoritative if it was described as warm and supportive rather than strict and inconsistent, and in addition included parental monitoring as well as autonomy granted to the children.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Monitoring</li> <li>2) Autonomy of decision making</li> <li>3) Warmth</li> <li>4) Authority</li> </ol>	1) Authoritative parenting(+) → Early entrepreneurial competency
9.	Soenens & Vansteenkiste (2005) <i>Journal of Youth and Adolescence</i>	<u>Autonomy-supportive parenting</u> : the extent to which parents encourage their children to pursue their own interests and values. <u>Psychological control</u> : the degree to which adolescents perceive their parents as intruding upon their need for autonomy by such means as love withdrawal, guilt induction, and instilling anxiety.	<u>Autonomy-supportive parenting</u> : e.g., "my father/mother, whenever possible, allows me to choose what to do" <u>Psychological control</u> : e.g., "my father/mother is less friendly to me if I don't see things like he/she does"	Autonomy-supportive parenting(+), psychological control (-) → Self-determination



	<b>Source</b>	<b>Parenting behavior(s)</b>	<b>Details about parenting behavior(s)</b>	<b>Main findings</b>
10.	Vignoli et al. (2005) <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>	Various parenting behaviors	Authoritative parenting: e.g., “my parents take my point of view into account” Authoritarian parenting: e.g., “My parents think I am too young to express my opinion when they are having a discussion” Permissive parenting: e.g., “My parents would always prefer letting me make my own decision, rather than influencing me by giving me advice” Neglectful parenting: e.g., “My parents don’t help me even when I need advice”.	Neglectful(-)→Career exploration frequency and diversity Neglectful(-)→request information from family members; visit center and professionals.
11.	Wettersten et al. (2005) <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i>	1) Social support (family support) 2) Parents’ pro-educational behaviors	1) Family support: emotional and instrumental social support 2) Parents’ pro-educational behaviors (Parental involvement): students’ perceptions of the frequency with which their parent(s) express or are engaged in certain education-facilitative behaviors.	1) Social support(+), Perceived parents’ pro-educational behaviors(+) →Career outcome expectations 2) Perceived parents’ pro-educational behaviors(+) → Career salience

## **2.4 FUTURE WORK SELF**

An important element of social cognitive career theory is personal goals, which refers to individuals' intention to engage in a particular activity or to produce a particular outcome (Lent, 2005). Social cognitive career theory argues that an individual's goal of what career to pursue in the future is strongly affected by his/her self-efficacy level and will predict his/her career-related activities and performance (Lent, 2005). Following the logic, in this dissertation, Essay 1, I will examine youths' future work selves as a dependent variable that reflects youths' career development level. In the following sections, I introduce the concept of future work self. Moreover, I compare future work self to a similar concept, career aspiration, and explain why future work self is chosen to be the outcome variable in this dissertation.

### **2.4.1 Definition of Future Work Self**

Future work self is one's ideal, hoped-for future self that is relevant to one's career life. Future work self is defined as the cognitive representation of the self at work that individuals hope to become in future. (Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2011). The concept of future work self is solidly based on the theories on self-concept, career identity and self motivation. First, the concept is based on the theory on possible selves, which refer to specific cognitive representations of what individuals hope to be in the future (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Future work self is a sub-set of one's possible future self, the specific part that is related to one's work and career. Possible selves, and hence future work selves, are shaped by individuals' past and present and influenced by individuals' social context (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006). Strauss et al. (2011) further argue that the creation and maintenance of future work selves can be influenced by significant others, role models, media

images and socio-cultural identities and they mediate the effect of socio-cultural values and behavior.

Second, the concept of future work self derives also from career identity theory. Career identity describes the extent that one considers the centrality of one's career and the degree that one defines oneself by work and career (London & Noe, 1997). Most conceptualizations of career identity focus on identity in the present, similar to related concepts like work commitment (Dubin & Champoux, 1975) and career commitment (Blau, 1985). Based on the concept of career identity, Strauss et al. (2009; 2011) emphasize the importance of future orientation in the definition of future work self. Future work self gives particular meaning to self-initiated, future-oriented career behaviors that go beyond current identity. Strauss et al. (2011) argue that for career identities to motivate career self-management behaviors, these identities must be future-oriented.

Third, future work self is one's psychological capital and motivates self-management behaviors. Possible self theory argues that those personalized images and conceptions of the selves in the future are psychological resources and function as motivators (Cross & Markus, 1991). Self is the core repository of life span experience and reaches from the past to the future. Possible selves are the blueprint for personal growth and facilitate adaptation and development. Strauss et al. (2009; 2011) argue that the imagination of possible future work self provides a "source of coherent self". The ideal and hoped-for future work self motivate individuals to think about and work towards future accomplishments.

Strauss et al. (2009; 2011) identify three different but related aspects of one's future work self: accessibility of future work self, importance of future work self, and exclusivity of future work self. *Accessibility* refers to the availability of images of

one's future work self in one's memory; *importance* refers to one's commitment to such images of future self; and *exclusivity* describes how central these images are among some alternatives. Three aspects jointly reflect the strength of future work self. Moreover, each of them motivates career self-management behaviors.

The importance of future work selves on youths' career development may also be explained by goal setting theory, which has strongly influenced organizational behavior ideology and practice since the late 1960s (Latham & Yukl, 1975; Locke, 1968). Goal setting theory investigates how goal difficulty and goal specificity affect performance. The basic premise is that an individual's conscious intentions regulate his/her actions, and a goal is simply what the individual is consciously trying to accomplish. Thus, ambitious goals result in a higher level of performance than easy goals, and specific, ambitious goals result in a higher level of performance than no goals or a generalized goal of "do your best" (Latham & Yukl, 1975; Yukl & Latham, 1978). Goals are therefore associated with enhanced performance because they mobilize effort, direct attention, and encourage persistence and strategy development (Locke & Latham, 1990). Youths' future work selves function like specific goals that can motivate youths to focus their attention and energy and hence, lead to career success in the future.

#### **2.4.2 Future Work Self vs. Career Aspiration**

A concept that is similar to future work self and has attracted considerable attention in the literature on career development is career aspiration. Although the concepts look similar at first glance, the construct of future work self diverges from career aspiration in a number of ways. First, future work self derives from the theory of future possible self. However, the term career aspiration, maybe because of its

understandability, is not based on a particular theory. As Rojewski (2005) said: “who hasn’t been asked about his or her future work and educational plans?” (p.131). Everyone has aspiration and researchers are interested in studying it. However, due to its familiarity, career aspiration is examined without a careful definition.

Second, following the logic of possible self theory, future work self can be viewed as one’s psychological resource that motivates one’s career behaviors. In contrast, career aspiration is viewed differently by researchers in different disciplines. Psychological theories often view aspiration as a representation of individuals’ personalities, interest, self-concept, and values (e.g., Super, 1990). Sociological theories state that social forces are more powerful in determining career aspiration and view career aspiration as a reflection of social stratification and/or social class (Hotchkiss & Borow, 1996). Moreover, social psychology theories view career aspiration more as a result of the interaction between person and environment (Rojewski, 2005).

Third, future work self consists of three dimensions, accessibility, importance, and exclusiveness. Three different but related factors capture the holistic psychological characteristics of the concept of future work self. In contrast, career aspiration is mostly viewed as a single dimension captured by one or two questions that ask participants to think about the career that is most desirable. The answers will then be categorized into different levels based on occupational prestige. The prestige scores are usually based on social economic index and reflect sociological characteristics more than psychological characteristics (e.g., Larson, Wei, Wu, Borgen & Bailey, 2007).

As a result, to better understand adolescents’ career development and capture individual differences in their self-concept, I study adolescents’ future work selves

rather than career aspiration.

## **2.5 THE CONTEXT OF THE DISSERTATION**

Contextualization is very important for the organizational behavior research (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Till today, majority of the management studies have been conducted in the West and the context is often default. However, it is unknown about the extent to which the constructs and findings are also applicable to different cultures. Recently, there is an increase of attention being paid to the cultures outside Anglo-Saxon cultures and researchers call for more consideration of contextual influence (Barney, 2009; Tsui, 2009). This dissertation is set in Singapore, an international city located in South Asia. Its unique culture may have some implications for this dissertation. Hence, I present a description of the country in this section.

### **2.5.1 Singapore: History and Background**

Singapore is a city island country located at the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula. Being a British Crown colony in the 19th century and occupied by Japan during the World War II, Singapore became a self-governing state within the Commonwealth in 1959. Singapore declared independence from Britain unilaterally in 1963 before joining the federation of Malaysia in the same year. Two years later, in 1965, Singapore left the federation and has since existed as an independent country. It has been under the uninterrupted leadership of the People's Action Party. Lee Kuan Yew, the co-founder of the People's Action Party, is the most influential leader for Singapore.

According to the latest statistics (Department of Statistics Singapore, 2010),

of the 3.8 million residents, the majority (74.1%) are Chinese, followed by Malays (13.4%), Indians (9.2%) and others (3.3%). The distribution of religious beliefs also reflects the ethnic groups; the largest group is Buddhism/Taoism (44.2%), followed by Christianity (18.3%), Islam (14.7%), and Hinduism (5.1%). Another 17% of the population has no religious attachment. The majority of the Singaporean Chinese can trace their ancestral roots to Fujian and Guangdong Provinces in China. The early Chinese emigrants came to Singapore driven by the economic pursuit. Singapore's free-port status provided them an environment to match their motivation and trading skills. Until now, Singapore's external trade is of higher value than its GDP and the economy depends heavily on exports and refining imported goods. Because of its strategic location, Singapore has become one of the most important financial centers and logistic hubs in the world. Many multinational corporations have chosen Singapore as the headquarter location of Asia-Pacific area.

Singaporeans have a high literacy rate of 96%. Among the population of 15-and-above-years-old, 32.4% have the education below secondary level, 18.9% have secondary education, 11.1% have post-secondary education, 14.8% has diploma and professional qualification and 22.8% has university education. Among the majority Chinese group, 77.4% of them are literate in English while 32.6% of them chose English as their most frequently spoken language at home. Those Singaporeans who speak English as their preferred language tend to be the political, bureaucratic, and professional elite (Li, Ngim & Teo, 2007).

### **2.5.2 Singapore Culture – East? West?**

It is difficult to categorize Singapore under East, West or any other camp. On one hand, the ethnic Chinese are the majority population and as a result, Chinese

cultural values have great influence. On the other hand, Singapore has been a multi-cultural country whose success can be attributed to the racial and religious harmony. Because of its colony and immigration history, there has been a melt of various cultures and there is no single set of cultural “rules”. However, there are several societal characteristics that are quite salient for foreigners and have significant influence on Singaporeans’ behaviors.

First, meritocracy is a cornerstone of the society (Moore, 2000). A strong emphasis is placed on cultivating elite and the policy is made so that individuals are rewarded based on achievement regardless of ethnic background (Barr & Skrbis 2008). The education system is seen as “an avenue towards establishing an ideal economic culture where the talented and hard working were to be identified, carefully developed, and given the incentive to achieve maximum production.” (Moore, 2000, pp353). As a result, Singaporeans are performance-oriented and competitive. In a study that compares the cultural differences among 62 societies across the world (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004), Singapore was ranked number 1 in terms of future orientation, which is “the degree to which a collectivity encourages and rewards future-oriented behaviors such as planning and delaying gratification (Ashkanasy, Gupta, Mayfield & Trevor-Roberts, 2004; pp282); and number 2 in terms of performance orientation, which is defined as “the extent to which a community encourages and rewards innovation, high standards, and performance improvement.” (Javidan, 2004, pp239).

Second, Singapore culture can be characterized as *Kiasuism*, literally meaning fear of losing or failure. It is originally derived from the word *kiasu* in Hokkien dialect, which is equal to the term *pa (4) shu (1)* in Mandarin. *Kiasuism* describes Singapore culture so well that “Mr. Kiasu”, a locally created comic cartoon



character, is viewed as the country's "unofficial mascot" (Economist, 1995). Hwang, Ang and Francesco (2002) define *kiasuism* as an "obsessive concern with getting the most out of every transaction and a desire to get ahead of others" (pp 75) and theorized that there are two aspects of kiasuism; kiasu-positive, a competitive attitude directed at personal diligence to get ahead of others, and kiasu-negative, a competitive attitude directed at preventing others from getting ahead of oneself. Kiasu-positive is related to hard-working, taking initiative, and high performance (Hwang & Arbaugh, 2006) while kiasu-negative has a negative impact on creativity and teamwork (Li et al., 2007; Hwang, 2003). *Kiasuim* spirit also demonstrated itself in risk aversion and uncertainty avoidance. In the same study mentioned above (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004), Singapore was ranked number 3 among 62 societies in terms of uncertainty avoidance, implying that that the Singaporeans have a great tendency to seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formalized procedures and laws to cover situations in their daily lives (De Luque & Javidan, 2004).

Third, influenced by the Chinese culture, Singaporeans are family-oriented. Relationship, especially family relationships are highly valued. For example, family and clan associations are prevalent in Singapore and they function to provide mutual help for its members (Cheng, 1995). Confucius value of filial piety is well accepted in the society. Survey has also shown that Singaporeans view family and home as their top priority and source of happiness and they do spend a lot of time with family members (Tambyah, Tan & Kau, 2009). Policy is also made to encourage families to live together or close. For example, 85.4% of the resident dwellings are HDB (Housing Development Board) dwellings that are much cheaper than the market price, but youths below 35 are not eligible to buy these HDB apartments unless they are married (<http://www.hdb.gov.sg>). Married couples, if they buy an apartment close to

their parents', receive extra financial support from the government (information available at <http://www.hdb.gov.sg>). As a result, in Singapore, it's very common for families to live together and go out dining together. The statistics show that 83% of the households are occupied by family nucleus (Department of Statistics, 2010).

In summary, Singapore has a unique culture that distinguishes it from other Asian societies and Western societies. Such culture has been formed over time, voluntarily or guided by government. The three cultural characteristics, meritocracy, *Kiasuism*, and family oriented, form the context of the current dissertation and have direct impact on employees' perception of job insecurity, family interaction and parental career-specific behaviors.

### **2.5.3. The Impact of the Context**

Although this dissertation does not aim to directly measure and test the impact of culture, it should be kept in mind that the study was set in Singapore and the data and results may be influenced by the contextual factors. Based on the above discussion, the context may influence the current study in the following ways.

First, Singapore is a highly competitive country with talents from all over the world. The government implements meritocracy policy and the culture is very performance oriented and result driven. As a result, Singaporean parents often have high academic/career expectation of their children and Singaporean youths also have ambitious aspirations (Ho, Ang, Loh & Ng, 1998). It also reflects the Confucius emphasis on academic excellence. Chinese parents are known to stressing academic success (Chua, 2011). Hence, I expect that in this study, youths tend to have a clear picture of their future work selves that are important, easily accessible, and exclusive. Moreover, youths may not perceive much interference from their parents because in

many cases, parents' expectation may be aligned with their future work selves.

Second, Singapore is a small country whose economy depends a lot on trading and is vulnerable to external environment; as a result, employees in Singapore are sensitive to the world economic situation. Slight slow-down of the U.S economy may have significant implication on Singapore and Singaporeans. Moreover, in this the *kiasuism* culture, job security is especially important for Singaporeans (Ho et al., 1998). Hence, studying job insecurity and its consequences is especially important. When the study was set up during the period from end 2009 to early 2010, although the unemployment rate in Singapore was much lower than that in the U.S., and there was also some sign of economic recovery, the level of job insecurity and its impact on Singaporeans cannot be underestimated.

Third, ethnic Chinese makes up more than seventy percent of the population, Singapore culture is largely influenced by Confucius culture that puts much emphasis on family relationships. It is very common for youths to stay with their parents even after they enroll for higher education. Such living arrangement has several implications for the current study: first, work-related stress experienced by parents is more likely to be passed on to their children. Second, parents and youths have more opportunity to communicate regarding youths' future career. Youths may be more influenced by their parents compared to those who do not live with parents. Such family values may also influence youths' perception of their parents' parenting behaviors. Specifically, less interference may be perceived because obedience to parents is valued in this culture. Third, because youths usually do not work until they complete their studies, they are relatively unexposed to workforce reality. As a result, living with families means that parents' work experience is their main source of information about the work environment. Parents play a more important role in

influencing Singaporean youths' career attitudes and development than the youths in other countries.

## **2.6 SUMMARY**

The preceding review has highlighted the main ideas prevalent in research on job insecurity, spillover theory, career development theory, career related parenting behaviors, and future work self. The contextual information of Singapore has also been discussed. In the following chapter, Chapter Three, I propose a model to test the relationship among parental job insecurity, financial strain, career-specific parental support, youths' career self-efficacy and future work selves. In Chapter Four, I further explore the mediating effect of different types of career-specific parenting behaviors on the relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.

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**CHAPTER THREE: ESSAY ONE**  
**PARENTAL JOB INSECURITY AND YOUTHS' FUTURE WORK SELVES:**  
**A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL**

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### **3.1 INTRODUCTION TO ESSAY ONE**

Given that job insecurity is one of the most distressing aspects of work, its impact on job insecure employees' families cannot be underestimated. Extant studies, however, have not examined the effects of employees' job insecurity on their children's future work selves. Parents are key sources of youths' knowledge, beliefs, and values about the career and they exercise more influence than any other adults on the vocational choice of children (Bryant, Zvonkovic & Reynolds, 2006). Although researchers have noticed the importance of parent-child interaction for youths' career development, little is known about whether and how parental job insecurity influences youths' future work selves. This essay fills this void in the literature by examining the impact parental job insecurity on youths' career development. Specifically, the objectives of this essay are to examine the impact of parental job insecurity on youths' perceived career support from parents as well as the impact of youths' perceived career support from parents on youths' career self-efficacy. In addition, I examine the effect of youths' career self-efficacy on their perceived future work selves.

Another gap in the existing literature is the lack of contextualization. This study is set in Singapore, a Southeastern Asian country with a majority of ethnic Chinese. An objective of this study is to take into account of the contextual characteristics that may influence the theoretical building in the fields of job insecurity, family interaction and youths' career development.

Future work self is one's imaged, ideal, hoped-for future self that is relevant to one's career life (Strauss et al., 2010; 2011). Rooted in Markus and Nurius' (1986)

theory of possible self, future work self can be viewed as a particular type of possible selves that are specific to the domain of work. Future work self is one's psychological capital because inherent in the notion of future work self is the idea of future orientation which drives and motivates behaviors.

Perceived future work self reflects one's desire for achievement and motivates self-management behaviors that benefit long-term success. It is the blueprint for personal growth and facilitates adaptation and development. Strauss et al. (2011) argue that the imagination of possible future work self provides a "compass" for individuals as they navigate through the fog of almost unlimited career trajectories. The ideal and hoped-for future work self motivates individuals to think about and work towards future accomplishments and serves as a psychological capital that motivates individuals to engage in career self-management behaviors. Because of its importance, future work self is examined as the dependent variable in this essay.

This essay has several contributions. First, it fills in the gap in the job insecurity literature by developing and testing a model that clarifies the process through which parental job insecurity affect their children's career development. There has been some effort made to examine parental job insecurity and youths' work attitudes (e.g., Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). However, little is known about how parental job insecurity influences youths' perceptions of their future work selves. This model draws on spillover theory and social cognitive career theory to explain the impact of parental job insecurity on their career-specific parenting behavior and on their children's career self-efficacy and perceived future work selves.

Second, this essay builds on and extends previous theoretical efforts on job insecurity by systematically linking this stream of work with the research on career development to provide insights into the dynamics underlying the relationships among

parental job insecurity, parental career support, youths' career self-efficacy and future work selves. In linking the literature, the research enables us to expand the focus on these streams of studies and build on the conclusions of previous works in these areas. In doing so, the findings add to and enrich the research streams on these topics.

Previous research on youths' career development has shown the important role that family and parents play in children's career development (Bryant, et al., 2006). However, this stream of literature has been relatively independent of the job insecurity literature and has not examined the impact of parental work-related stress and parental career support on youths' future work selves. Applying social cognitive career theory's argument that external factors affect youths' career development and the process is often through the perception of career self-efficacy (Lent, 2005), we argue that parental career support will influence youths' career self-efficacy, which, in turn, influences youths' perceived future work selves.

Third, studying youths' future work selves as an outcome variable, this essay contributes to the literature on youths' career development by applying and extending social cognitive career theory. The concept of future work self is based on the theory of possible self and can be viewed as one's psychological capital because it motivates individuals to engage in proactive behaviors that benefit long-term career (Strauss, Griffin & Parker, 2009; 2011). Youths' future work selves that are developed prior to entering the workforce are likely to serve as psychological capital for their future career development. However, little is known about the antecedents of future work self. Social cognitive career theory argues that external environment influences one's career self-efficacy, which predicts career expectation and goal. Following the logic, this study proposes that career self-efficacy mediates the relationship from parental job insecurity to youths' future work selves. This essay contributes to a better

understanding of how parental job stressor can influence the accumulation of youths' psychological resource.

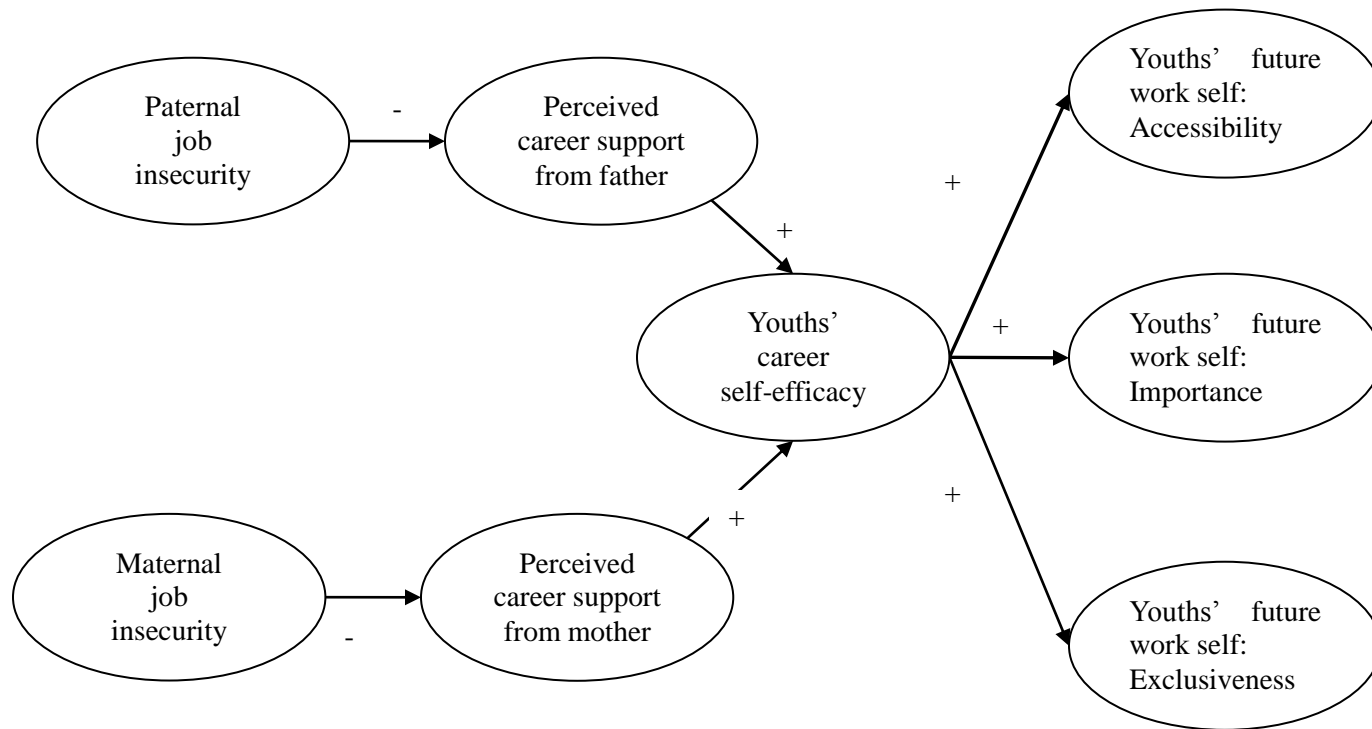
Fourth, by examining the effect of parental job insecurity and parenting behavior on youths outside Anglo-Saxon cultures, this essay theoretically and empirically enriches the existing literature on job insecurity and youths' career development. Current studies on the benefits of supportive parenting behavior were mainly conducted in western cultures (e.g., Simons & Conger, 2007). The impact of parental job insecurity and parenting behavior in Asian families is less examined. I identify some contextual factors that may influence the variables studied and the relationships among them. First, Singapore is based on meritocracy, and is highly competitive and performance oriented. Second, Singapore culture can be characterized as *kiasuism*. Third, Singaporeans are family-oriented. These factors may influence the current study in the following ways: first, Singaporean employees are sensitive to the change of external economic environment and sensitive to job insecurity. Second, Singaporean parents have high expectation of their children. Third, parents' work-related experience is likely to be passed over to children. Finally, Singaporean parents are the main source of information for youths and play a very important role in influencing youths' career perspectives.

### **3.2 RESEARCH MODEL**

Integrating prior theoretical efforts and research in job insecurity and career development, I present the research model linking the main variables in our study in Figure 1. As shown, I predicted that parental job insecurity would influence their career support to their children. Parental career support would have an impact on youths' career self-efficacy, which, in turn, influences youths' future work selves.



**Figure 3.1 Hypothesized model**



### **3.3 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT**

#### **3.3.1 Parental Job Insecurity and Youths Perceived Career Support from Parents**

Job insecurity has been found to be a work stressor that arouses much stress, strain, and other negative feelings in individuals (Barling et al., 1998; Lim, 1996; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). The relationship between parental job insecurity and youths perceived career support from parents can be explained by the spillover mechanism between work and family, which refers to the effect that the experience in one domain will influence the experience in another (Bolger, et al., 1989). The spillover process affects work and family by making the two domains alike (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Spillover is largely an *intraindividual* contagion process and has been used to provide invaluable insights into the occurrence of work–family conflict and spillover of moods. Previous studies suggest that negative emotions arising from negative work experiences can lead to social withdrawal and expressions of anger by individuals at home, generating hostile feelings that reduce marital and family functioning and well-being (Larson & Almeida, 1999).

As a work stressor, job insecurity influences people’s emotion and behavior at home. After work, job insecure employees will continue to worry about the future of their jobs. Parents who perceive job insecurity will fail to provide career support because of their affective status. Research suggests that individuals who are emotionally and physically fatigued from their experience of work stress tend to be less sensitive, participative, and supportive where their children are concerned (Repetti & Wood, 1997). Individuals experiencing work stress are more irritable and hostile in their family interactions, leading to more punishing and unresponsive parenting behaviors with their children (Lim & Loo, 2003). Hence, I hypothesize that:

*H1a. Paternal job insecurity is negatively associated with youths' perceived career support from father.*

*H1b. Maternal job insecurity is negatively associated with youths' perceived career support from mother.*

### **3.3.2 Youths' Perceived Career Support from Parents and Career Self-efficacy**

Social cognitive career theory views career development as a result of the interaction between person and environment (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994). One's career development does not happen in vacuum. External factors help shape one's learning experiences that fuel personal career goals. They can also influence one's perception and actual career opportunities from which career plans are derived (Lent et al., 1994).

Career self-efficacy occupies a central role in social cognitive career theory. Career self-efficacy was found to have strong impact on career interest, choices, and development (Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Hackett & Betz, 1995; Lent et al., 1994; Rottinghaus, Larson & Borgen, 2003). Moreover, self-efficacy is an accurate predictor of career performance (Sadri & Robertson, 1993). Moreover, empirical studies found that the impact of external factors on youths' career development is often through youths' self-efficacy. Family or parental support is positively related to youths' self-efficacy, which, in turn, has positive impact on youths' career decision (Nota, Ferrari, Solberg & Soresi, 2007), interest (Navarro, Flores & Worthington, 2007), aspiration (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 2001), and behavioral intention (Gibson, Griepentrog & Marsh, 2007).

Youths are at a particularly vulnerable stage in their lives as they are on the verge of entering the workplace, where new experiences are encountered, and

attitudes and beliefs further crystallized. Facing many uncertainties, youths truly need their parents' support and encouragement. Considering the significant role parents play in youths' career development, we argue that parental career support, including providing advice, encouragement of exploration, and help with searching opportunities, will have direct impact on children's confidence of their future careers.

Children from problematic families often have low sense of mastery (Carlson & Corcoran, 2001) mainly because their parents lack the ability or willingness to provide appropriate guidance. Some researchers provide direct evidence that inappropriate parenting behaviors are negatively related to youths' self-efficacy (Lim and Loo, 2003). Qualitative studies on youths' career development have also shown that youths' confident on their future career will be boosted if parents can support their interest, exploration and aspirations (Young, et al., 2001; Young, et al., 2006). Hence, we hypothesize that:

*H2a. Youths perceived career support from father is positively associated with youths' career self-efficacy.*

*H2b. Youths perceived career support from mother is positively associated with youths' career self-efficacy.*

### **3.3.3 Youths' Career Self-efficacy and Future Work Selves**

In social cognitive theory, perceived self-efficacy occupies a central role. Such efficacy belief is one's psychological capital and influences one's commitments to aspirations, the ability of analytic thinking, and level of motivation, perseverance when facing difficulties, and vulnerability to stress (Bandura, 1997).

Similarly, in social cognitive career theory, career self-efficacy also determines individuals' career interest, choice, practice and performance (Betz, & Hackett, 1981; Hackett, 1995; Lent, 2005; Lent et al., 1994; Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1987). When people believe that they can produce desired outcomes by their actions, they have incentive to pursue high and difficult goals and put in more effort (Côté, Saks & Zikic, 2006). Indeed, the stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal aspirations people adopt and the firmer their commitment is (Bandura, 1991; Locke & Latham, 1990).

Future work self is part of one's perceived possible future self (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Future career identities can be seen as part of a broad career identity concept (Strauss et al., 2009; 2011). Future work self more specifically refers to hoped-for future self and maximal career goals in relation to one's work life. According to social cognitive career theory, people's self-efficacy perceptions predict their goal intentions (Rottinghaus, Lindley, Green & Borgen, 2002). How much people aspire for the future depends on their past experience that shapes their self-efficacy (Strahan & Wilson, 2006). Hence, I propose that individuals' perceived future work selves is influenced by how confident they are about their ability to reach the future.

*H3a: Youths' career self-efficacy is positively associated with accessibility of future work selves.*

*H3b: Youths' career self-efficacy will be positively associated with perceived importance of future work selves.*

*H3c: Youths' career self-efficacy will be positively associated with exclusivity of future work selves.*

### **3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

In this section, the research methodology is presented. First, the sample and the data collection procedure is introduced. Then the instruments used in the survey are presented. Lastly, the data analysis method, structural equation modeling, is described.

#### **3.4.1 Procedures and Data Collection**

##### **3.4.1.1 Focus Group Interviews and the Pretest**

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 18 undergraduate students. Each interview lasted for about 1 hour. Students were first asked to fill in a short survey on their demographic background. Following that, they were interviewed in detail about their career attitudes pertaining to their career interest (e.g., “have you ever thought about what you want to do after graduation?”), career self-efficacy (e.g., “how confident that you will make it?”), career identity (e.g., how important is career to you?), and career planning (e.g., “do you have a plan for your future career?”). In addition, students were asked about the parental influence of their career development in terms of their relationships with their parents and the ways that their parents guide their career choices. The interview protocol is shown in Appendix I. The purpose of the focus group interviews was to have a qualitative understanding of undergraduate students’ career perception and attitudes.

Based on the result of focus group interviews, an extensive review of the literature on job insecurity, financial strain, social support, parenting behavior, and career development was conducted to obtain the scales measuring the constructs in the present study. Wherever possible, multiple-item scales were used to operationalize the various constructs. Moreover, only constructs with established psychometric

properties in existing studies were adopted.

A pretest of the initial questionnaire was conducted with five students and their parents. The main purpose of the pretest was to elicit feedback regarding the clarity of instructions and items in the instrument as well as the overall presentation of the questionnaire. The presentation of the questionnaire was refined based on comments and suggestions obtained.

#### **3.4.1.2 Participants and questionnaire survey**

Data were collected using questionnaire surveys. Respondents comprised undergraduates as well as their parents. The surveys were given out to undergraduates attending management classes at the National University of Singapore. Students were given a copy of the student questionnaire, as well as two copies of parent questionnaires that were placed in separate envelopes. The students' questionnaires were in English while parents' questionnaires contained the same questions in both English and Chinese. The English and Chinese questions were arranged in parallel so that parents can easily choose the language that they are familiar with. Parents were asked to answer the questionnaires independently, place the completed questionnaires in the enclosed envelopes and seal them. Completed sets of questionnaires were then collected back within a week's time. The multi-source design of the survey enables the non-exclusive reliance on children's self-report data.

In total, 215 students participated in the study. As only responses from dual-earner families were required, students who were from single-earner families were excluded. One hundred and ninety-six full data sets were obtained, yielding a usable response rate of 91.6%. The response rate is much better than the 50% cutoff recommended by previous researchers (Babbie, 1998). Information provided by the

parents suggests that these undergraduate students all come from intact, heterosexual families.

### **3.4.2 Instrument**

***Job insecurity.*** Both fathers and mothers reported their perceived job insecurity level. Job insecurity was measured by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau's (1980) five-item scale. The scale has been widely used in job insecurity literature and its reliability has been proven by previous studies. A sample item is: "how certain are you about what your future career picture looks like?" Items were scored on a 7-point scale ranging from 1-*very uncertain* to 7-*very certain*. The Cronbach's alphas of this scale were .90 for both fathers and mothers.

***Career-specific support.*** Youths reported the perceived career support from their parents. The career-specific support was measured by Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) scale. The five-item scale captures the extent to which parents encourage their children to explore career interests and opportunities. A sample item is: "My Dad (Mom) encourages me to seek information about careers I am interested in." Items were scored on a 7-point scale ranging from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. Cronbach's alphas of .84 (youths' perceived career support from father) and .83 (youths' perceived career support from mother) were obtained in the present study.

***Career self-efficacy.*** Youths' career self-efficacy was measured with Higgins, Dobrow and Chandler's (2008) scale. A sample items is: "I am confident in my ability to perform well in my career." Items were scored on a 7-point scale ranging from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. The Cronbach's alpha of this scale is .91.

***Future work self.*** Youths' future work selves were measured with Strauss et al.'s (2011) scale. Participants were first asked to mentally travel into the future and to



imagine that the future work situation they were hoping for has become reality. Keeping this mental image in mind, participants then wrote a short description of the scenario they imagined. This narrative served as the basis of their consecutive ratings of the characteristics of their future work self. The measure of future work self consists of three components, accessibility, importance and exclusivity. A sample item of the accessibility dimension is: “the future is very easy for me to imagine”; a sample item of the importance dimension is: “it is very important for me to make this future become reality” and a sample item of the exclusivity dimension is “I see many possible paths for myself in the future” (reverse coded). All items were scored on a 7-point scale ranging from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. The Cronbach’s alphas of accessibility, importance and exclusivity were .90, .91, and .82, respectively.

Before testing the structural equation model, I did confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and tested the measurement model. First, I put all the ten variables with their items in the same model and allow them to freely correlate. Second, I combined three factors of future work self (i.e., accessibility, importance and exclusivity) into a single variable and put it in the model and allow all the eight variables to freely correlate. The comparison between the two models confirms that: 1) the ten-factor solution is better than the eight-factor solution; and 2) all items were loading cleanly in the respective constructs.

### **3.4.3 Structural Equation Modeling for Data Analyses**

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to empirically test the casual structure underlying the postulated relationships among parental job insecurity, parental financial strain, career-specific parenting behaviors, youths’ career self-efficacy and youths’ future work selves. SEM is an appropriate statistical

methodology for the purpose of the current dissertation since it enables an overall assessment of the fit among the constructs in the hypothesized model to the data, while testing individual hypotheses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1999). This provides researchers with an evaluation of the entire research model as well as the specific relationships of interest. To facilitate understanding of the results of SEM, this section provides the background of SEM.

#### **3.4.3.1 Overview of Structural Equation Modeling**

Given the desirable characteristics of SEM, this methodology has gained increased popularity in non-experimental research (Byrne, 2001). Indeed, SEM has at least four advantages over regression analysis. First, it takes a confirmatory rather than an exploratory approach to data analysis, allowing for the testing of a priori specified models. Second, SEM tests the relationship between latent factors and their indicators in a measurement model, as well as the relationships among latent variables in a structural model. This prevents the problems of reliability among the indicators from confounding the results of the latent variable structural model. Third, SEM accounts for the influence of measurement errors, thereby producing more accurate estimates of the structural coefficients. Lastly, SEM permits the testing of all the postulated relationships simultaneously while allowing for the testing of individual hypotheses. This provides an evaluation of the entire research model as well as the specific relationships of interest.

#### ***Structural Equation Modeling Procedure***

SEM comprises two key components. First, a series of structural equations, i.e., regressions, are used to represent the causal processes under study. Second, these

structural relations are modeled pictorially to present a clear conceptualization of the theory under study. Conventionally (as well as in AMOS program), latent variables are depicted by ellipses, measured variables (indicators) by rectangles, causal relationships between two variables are represented by single arrows and the associations between two variables by double arrows. The hypothesized model is tested statistically to determine the extent to which it is consistent with the data (Byrne, 2001). Typically, the maximum likelihood method of parameter estimation is used because this method ensures that optimal parameter estimates are yielded (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1999).

Extant research suggests that a sample size of 150 or more is adequate for obtaining meaningful parameter estimates in SEM (e.g., Russell, Kahn, Spoth & Altamaier, 1998; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The sample size of 196 in the current study meets this minimum requirement.

### *Assessment of Model Fit*

Once specified, the research model is tested for fit with the data—if the fit is adequate, the postulated relationships among the constructs are supported, and the model tenable. Different indices are used to allow researchers to test the fit of the research model. However, there exists no universally accepted criterion to evaluate how well the hypothesized model fits the data (Crowley & Fan, 1997). AMOS offers several fit indices to allow researchers to justify the interpretation of their result. Incremental fit index (IFI); Tucker–Lewis coefficient (TLI); Comparative fit index (CFI); Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used in the present study for the following reasons:

The CFI is the most often used index of choice (Byrne, 2001; McDonald & Ho,

2002). The TLI is also reported in this study as it is relatively independent of sample size, includes the degree of freedom in its computation and permits comparison of fit for nested models (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Bollen, 1990). I also report IFI since it is also relatively unaffected by sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988). All of these fit indices can range in value from 0 to 1, where 0.90 or above is considered a good fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Finally, RMSEA values of less than 0.08 are indicative of an adequate model fit (Browne & Cudek, 1993).

In addition, the chi-square statistics ( $\chi^2$ ) is reported to indicate the degree of model fit. More specifically, it summarizes the discrepancies between the sample covariance matrix and the one predicted by the measured model (Williams & Podsakoff, 1989). If the hypothesized model has a good fit, the chi-square statistic should be non-significant for a given degree of freedom. However, because the chi-square test is sensitive to sample size and model complexity, I also report the chi-square ratio ( $\chi^2/df$ ) that adjusts for model complexity. In general, a chi-square ratio between 1 and 3 indicates acceptable fit (Arbuckle, 2006).

### ***Assessment of Parameter Estimates***

To test the hypotheses, the standardized parameter estimates are reported. Unstandardized parameter estimates retain scaling information of the variables involved, and thus indicate the number of unit changed in the dependent variable per unit change in the independent variables, when all the remaining independent variables are equal to their mean values. However, standardized parameter estimates rescale the variables to have variance of 1.0, thereby allowing comparisons of parameters throughout the model regardless of scaling information (Hoyle, 1995).

Standardized parameter estimates index the number of units changed in standard deviation in the dependent variable, per unit change in standard deviation in the independent variable. The admissible range of values of standardized coefficients for each path is -1.0 to 1.0, while the test statistic for each path should be greater than  $\pm 1.96$  for the parameter estimate to be statistically significant at a confidence level of 95%.

Generally, the path coefficients are similar to the effect sizes shown by the weights in simple regressions. That is, coefficients near zero have limited substantive effects. Moreover, higher coefficients indicate increasing importance of the path relationship (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998).

#### **3.4.3.2 Nested Models Comparison**

Following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendations, I assessed the absolute fit of the hypothesized model using nested models comparison. A model is said to be nested within another model when the set of freely estimated parameters of the first model is a subset of those estimated in the second model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). First, I will estimate the *null model*, in which all correlations among variables are zero. The null model represents the baseline for model comparison. Next, the hypothesized model will be fitted to the data. Finally, following previous research (e.g., Lee & Klein, 2002), I will estimate an alternative model to test whether the addition of paths from parental job insecurity to the youths' career self-efficacy resulted in a significant improvement over the hypothesized model.

Previous research has found that parental job insecurity influences their children both directly and indirectly. Directly, parental job insecurity influences their parenting behaviors (Lim & Loo, 2003), which, in turn, has an impact on their

children. Indirectly, youths are able to observe their parents emotion and mood and such perceived parental job insecurity will also influence children's development (Barling et al., 1999). Following the logic, we added paths to test whether parental job insecurity exert direct effects on youths' career self-efficacy, instead of through parenting behaviors. If the additional paths significantly improves model fit and are theoretically justified, it indicates that the paths should be included in the model.

### **3.5 RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

This section presents the results of statistical procedures carried out to investigate the research hypotheses. First, descriptive statistics, reliabilities and correlation analyses of the variables under study are presented. Thereafter, I report the hypotheses results from structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses.

#### **3.5.1 Characteristics of Respondents**

Demographic characteristics for undergraduate students are summarized in Table 3.1. 43.9% of the respondents were male. This is consistent with the gender profile of the students enrolled in undergraduate management classes in the University where the data were collected. Majority of the student respondents were Chinese (90.8%). This is also consistent with the racial distribution in Singapore.

**Table 3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Undergraduates**

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Valid percentage of respondents (%)</b>
<b>Gender</b>	
Male	43.9
Female	56.1
<b>Ethnic Group</b>	
Chinese	90.8
Indian	5.6
Malay	3.1
Others	0.5
<b>Work experience</b>	
Yes	70.4
No	29.6

*N* = 196

The mean age for youths was 22 years old ( $SD=2.7$ ). Majority of the participants were first year students, followed by third year, fourth year and second year students. Among these students, 70.4% had work experience.

The mean ages for fathers and mothers were 54 years ( $SD=4.5$ ) and 51 years ( $SD=4.2$ ), respectively. Majority of parents had secondary school education level. The description of parental education level is given in Table 3.2 and a summary of family income is given in Table 3.3.



**Table 3.2 Summary of Paternal and Maternal Education Level**

<b>Education Level</b>	<b>Father (%)</b>	<b>Mother (%)</b>
none	0.5	1.5
primary	8.2	9.3
secondary, vocation, VITB, ITE	40.3	44.3
Pre-U/Junior College, polytech, diploma	24.0	27.3
Tertiary/University	25.0	15.5
Master	2.0	1.5
PhD		0.5

*N* = 196 and missing values have been excluded

**Table 3.3 Summary of Family Income Level**

<b>Family Income Level</b>	<b>No. of families</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
Less \$40,000	32	16.33
\$40,000 - \$59,999	36	18.37
\$60,000- \$79,999	26	13.27
\$80,000 - \$99,999	23	11.73
\$100,000- \$119,999	26	13.27
\$120,000- \$139,999	14	7.14
\$140,000 - \$159,999	10	5.10
\$160,000- \$179,999	6	3.06
\$180,000 - \$199,999	6	3.06
\$200,000- \$219,999	2	1.02
\$220,000- \$239,999	2	1.02
Above \$240,000	13	6.63

### **3.5.2 Description of Variables**

#### **3.5.2.1 Comparison of English and Chinese Questionnaire**

Parents report their perceived job insecurity in this study and they have a choice between English or Chinese version of the questionnaire. Among the 196 families, 145 couples both chose the English version of the survey and 26 couples both chose the Chinese version. There were 6 couples with only father chose the Chinese version and another 19 couples with only mother chose the Chinese version. The summary is shown in Table 3.4.

#### ***Comparison of reliability and means***

Table 3.5 shows that comparison of sample size, reliability of the job insecurity, and the means between the English-speaking and Chinese versions. Among 196 fathers, 164 chose the English version and 32 chose the Chinese version. The alphas for sub-samples were both .90. The means of perceived job insecurity were not significantly different. Moreover, among 196 mothers, 151 chose the English version and 45 chose the Chinese version. The alpha was .90 for the English-speaking sub-sample and .88 for the Chinese-speaking sub-sample. Both numbers confirmed the high reliability of the scale. However, there was some difference between the means of job insecurity perceived by English-speaking mothers and Chinese-speaking mothers. The t-test showed that the difference was significant at the 95% confidence level. Finally, when both father and mother samples were combined, among the 392 individuals, 315 chose the English version and 77 chose the Chinese version. The alphas were .90 and .89 for English-speaking and Chinese-speaking sub-samples, respectively. The t-test showed that the mean difference between the English and Chinese versions was at the 95% confidence level.

The overall difference of job insecurity between the English-speaking and Chinese-speaking sub-samples was due to the difference between the English-speaking and Chinese-speaking mothers. The Chinese-speaking mothers generally perceived higher level of job insecurity than their English-speaking counterparts. This may be due to the difference of the average education level of the two groups. Among the Chinese-speaking mothers, 66.7% of them had very limited education (i.e., none, primary school, or secondary school education). In contrast, among the English-speaking mothers, this percentage was 49.7%. Moreover, Chinese-speaking mothers also earned significantly less than English speaking mothers; 62.2% of the Chinese-speaking mothers earned less than \$2000 per year while for English-speaking mothers the percentage was only 27.8%. Hence, the Chinese-speaking mothers who were less educated and earned less were likely to perceive more insecure about their lower-skill-level jobs.

### ***Measurement equivalence analysis***

In cross-cultural research, measurement equivalence is a concern when constructs are translated from one language to another (Mullen, 1995). To determine measurement equivalence for job insecurity between Chinese- and English-speaking samples, multiple group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) was conducted. MGCFA is a powerful approach for testing measurement equivalence and the procedure involves a series of analyses that evaluate the different types of invariance (Cole, Bedeian & Field, 2006). Sets of parameters are constrained in a logically ordered, increasingly restrictive fashion. In total, there are 5 steps:

Step 1 was a configural invariance model, in which none of the parameters were constrained to be equal across two groups. Configural equivalence evaluate

whether the conceptual frame of reference used by participants are comparable across groups. Configural model is considered the weakest form of equivalence (Cole et al., 2006).

Step 2 was a metric invariance model, in which the factor loadings of job insecurity were constrained to be equal across two groups. Metric invariance model tests whether factor loadings are equal across groups. Some level of metric invariance must be evidence for subsequent tests of measurement equivalence to be interpretable.

Step 3 was a scalar invariance model, in which the measurement intercepts of the items were constrained to be equal in the scalar invariance model (all previous constraints remain in place). Scalar invariance model tests whether the vector of intercepts is invariant across groups.

Step 4 was a residual invariance model, in which residuals were constrained be equal across two groups (all previous constraints remain in place). Residual invariance model tests whether items capture the same underlying construct with a similar degree of measurement error.

Step 5 was a factor variance invariance model, in which the factor variances were constrained be equal (all previous constraints remain in place). It tests between-group differences in latent means.

Following Cole et al. (2006), I conducted the five nested models in sequence. Tucker–Lewis coefficient (TLI); Comparative fit index (CFI); Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) were examined to assess model fit. A model is considered to have good fit if TLI and CFI values above .90 and RMSEA value below .08. Change of CFI ( $\Delta$ CFI) was examined to evaluate measurement equivalence. Cheung and Rensvold's (2002) suggested that a value of  $\Delta$ CFI equal or less than .01 indicate a good fit of the nested model.

Table 3.6 shows the multiple-group analysis results. In step 1, the configural invariance model shows good model fit ( $\chi^2 (10, N = 392) = 3.44, p < .001, CFI = .98, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .08$ ), implying equal factor structures across the English- and Chinese-speaking groups. In the following steps, Step 2 to Step 5, models also showed good fit: for the metric invariance model,  $\chi^2 (14, N = 392) = 2.57, p < .001, CFI = .98, TLI = .96, RMSEA = .06$ ; for the scalar model,  $\chi^2 (19, N = 392) = 2.97, p < .001, CFI = .97, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .07$ ; for the residual model,  $\chi^2 (24, N = 392) = 3.16, p < .001, CFI = .95, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .07$ ; for the factor invariance model,  $\chi^2 (25, N = 392) = 3.16, p < .001, CFI = .95, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .07$ . The values TLI and RMSEA for these four models were similar to the baseline model, i.e., the configural invariance model. Moreover, the changes of CFI values were less or equal to .01, suggesting good fit of the nested model. Taken together, it can be concluded that across two groups, job insecurity demonstrated equal factor structure (Step 1), factor loading (Step 2), item intercept (Step 3), measurement error (Step 4) and construct (Step 5). Hence, evidence was provided to support overall measurement equivalence.

**Table 3.4. Summary of the Language Chosen by Couples**

<b>Language chosen</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Both English	145	74
Father Chinese mother English	6	3
Father English mother Chinese	19	10
Both Chinese	26	13
Total	196	100

**Table 3.5. Summary of the Comparison of Job Insecurity reported in English and Chinese**

	<b>sample size</b>		<b>Reliability (<math>\alpha</math>) for the perceived job insecurity</b>		<b>Mean for the perceived job insecurity</b>		<b>t-value</b>
	<b>English</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	
Fathers ( $N = 196$ )	164	32	.90	.90	3.31	3.64	1.30 (ns)
Mothers ( $N = 196$ )	151	45	.90	.88	3.33	3.89	2.55*
Total ( $N = 392$ )	315	77	.90	.89	3.32	3.78	2.81*

\* $p < .05$

**Table 3.6 Two-group Structural Invariance Analysis for English- and Chinese-speaking samples**

Models	Overall Fit Indexes						Comparative Fit Indexes			
	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	Model comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta df$	$\Delta CFI$
1. Configural invariance	34.43	10	3.44	0.94	0.98	0.08				
2. Metric invariance	35.98	14	2.57	0.96	0.98	0.06	M2 vs. M1	1.55	4	0.00
3. Scalar invariance	56.37	19	2.97	0.95	0.97	0.07	M3 vs. M2	20.39	5	0.01
4. Residual invariance	75.91	24	3.16	0.94	0.95	0.07	M4 vs. M3	19.54	5	0.01
5. Factor variance invariance	79.11	25	3.16	0.94	0.95	0.07	M5 vs. M4	44.68	15	0.00

( $N = 392$  for total;  $N = 77$  for Chinese-speaking parents;  $N = 315$  for English-speaking parents)

\* $p < .001$

### **3.5.2.2 Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities and Correlations**

Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and correlations of the variables under study are presented in Table 3.7. The reliability indices of variables in this study were reasonably good, ranging from .82 to .91, as shown along the diagonal in Table 3.7. The high level of youths' self-efficacy ( $m = 5.27$ ) and importance of future career selves ( $m = 5.46$ ) is a sign that youths in Singapore are influenced by the meritocracy culture and have high career ambition.

Table 3.7 summarized the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (with two-tailed significance test) for all key variables in the study. Results of correlation analyses revealed that paternal job insecurity was positively correlated with maternal job insecurity ( $r = .41, p < .001$ ).

Consistent with expectation, paternal job insecurity was negatively correlated with youths' perceived career support from father ( $r = -.20, p < .01$ ). Similarly, maternal job insecurity was negatively correlated with youths' perceived career support from mother ( $r = -.21, p < .01$ ).

Youths' perceived career support from father was positively correlated with youths' career self-efficacy ( $r = .16, p < .05$ ). However, the correlation between youths' perceived career support from mother and youths' career self-efficacy was not significant ( $r = .14, ns$ ).

Results of the correlation analyses also revealed that career self-efficacy was positively correlated with two factors of youths' future work selves: accessibility ( $r = .51, p < .001$ ) and importance ( $r = .62, p < .001$ ). However, career self-efficacy was not significantly correlated with the exclusiveness of youths' future work selves ( $r = -.13, ns$ ). In general, various constructs were significantly correlated in the expected directions.



**Table 3.7 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities**

	Mean	SD	1	2	3.	4.	5	6	7	8
1. Paternal job insecurity	3.36	1.32	(.90)							
2. Maternal job insecurity	3.46	1.32	.41***	(.90)						
3. Youths' perceived career support from father	4.2	1.29	-.20**	-.25***	(.84)					
4. Youths' perceived career support from mother	4.25	1.23	-.21**	-.21**	.82***	(.83)				
5. Youths' career self-efficacy	5.27	0.96	-.09	-.05	.16*	.14	(.91)			
6. Youths' future work selves: Accessibility	4.62	1.27	-.02	-.01	.07	.10	.51***	(.89)		
7. Youths' future work selves: Importance	5.46	1.11	.01	-.05	.12	.11	.62***	.51***	(.91)	
8. Youths' future work selves: Exclusiveness	3.01	1.22	.08	-.01	.02	-.03	-.13	.06	.01	(.82)

$N = 196$

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

### 3.5.3 Hypotheses Testing Results

Data analysis was conducted in three steps. First, a null model, in which all the correlation among variables were zero, was tested and used as a baseline model; Second, the hypothesized model (as presented in Figure 3.1) was tested; Third, an alternative model (the hypothesized model with extra paths from parental job insecurity to youths' career self-efficacy). The sequence of nested alternative models was evaluated based on the sequential chi-square difference test.

In this study, for latent variables that were measured by one indicator variable, measurement error was taken into consideration by setting the path from the latent variable to the scale score equal to the product of the square root of the reliability and its standard deviation, and by setting the error variance equal to the product of the variance of the scale score and 1.0 minus the reliability (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993).

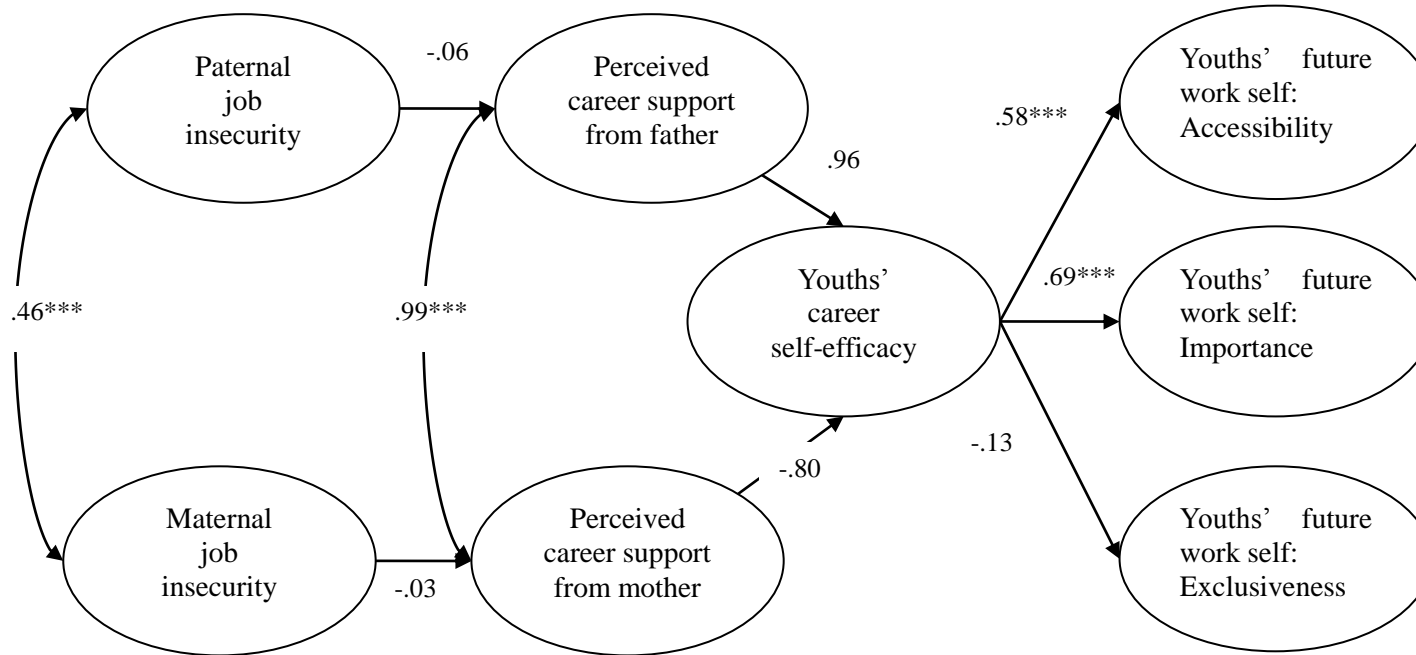
Moreover, following previous studies (e.g., Westman et al., 2004), some disturbances were allowed to be correlated. Because members from the same families reported the data, by correlating disturbances, it is assumed that some unspecified common contributors may influence the key factors simultaneously. According to Westman et al. (2004), these unspecified factors (disturbances) should be considered when testing the structural model. The correlation between disturbances of paternal and maternal job insecurity was allowed because couples' stress may influence each other (Mauno, & Kinnunen, 2002). Moreover, the disturbances of youths perceived career support from father and mother was also allowed to be correlated. This is because: a) factors such as family climate, family social economic status may influence both father and mother's provision of career support; b) perceived career support from father and mother were both reported by the youths and some characteristics of the same source may influence the perception of career support from

both father and mother.

### **3.5.3.1 Results of the Hypothesized Model**

Figure 3.2 represents the parameter estimates for the hypothesized model and the results of nested model comparison are summarized in Table 3.8.

**Figure 3.2 Structural equation model for the hypothesized model**



**Goodness of Fit Summary**

$\chi^2(19, N=196) = 42.08$  ( $p < .01$ )

$\chi^2/df = 1.44$

CFI = .95

TLI = .92

NFI = .91

RMSEA = .08

\* $p < .05$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 3.8 Fit Indices and Model Comparisons for the Hypothesized Model**

<b>Model</b>	<b><math>\chi^2</math></b>	<b>df</b>	<b><math>\chi^2/\text{df}</math></b>	<b>NFI</b>	<b>TLI</b>	<b>CFI</b>	<b>RMSEA</b>	<b><math>\Delta\chi^2</math></b>	<b><math>\Delta\text{df}</math></b>
Null	466.38	28	16.66	.00	.00	.00	.28	-	-
Hypothesized model	42.08	19	2.21	.91	.92	.95	.08	424.30	9
Alternative model	41.97	17	2.47	.91	.91	.94	.09	.11	2

Chi-square value for the null model was extremely high,  $\chi^2$  (28,  $N = 196$ ) = 466.38 ( $p < .001$ ), indicating a significant misfit of the null model with the data. This implies that the hypothesized relationships exist. Next, the model with aggregated parental career support showed good fit. Chi-square value ( $\chi^2$  (19,  $N = 196$ ) = 42.08, *ns.*) was not significant, suggesting that we can reject the null hypothesis that the model does not fit the data. The chi-square ratio of 2.21 also indicated good fit. Additionally, the NFI (.91), TLI (.92), CFI (.95) all exceeded the benchmark of 0.90. The RMSEA of 0.08 provide further support of an acceptable model fit. Moreover, the alternative model did not make a significant improvement over the initial hypothesized model ( $\chi^2_{\text{diff}}$  (2) = .11, *ns.*), implying that the added paths from the parental job insecurity to youths' career self-efficacy should not be included in the model. Taken together, the results of model comparison suggested that the model with aggregated parental career support best fitted the data statistically.

Paternal job insecurity was positively correlated with maternal job insecurity ( $r = .46$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Youths' perceived career support from father and mother was significantly correlated ( $r = .99$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Contrary to our expectation, results of SEM analyses showed that paternal job insecurity was not significantly related to youths perceived career support from father ( $\beta = -.06$ , *ns.*), and maternal job insecurity was not significantly related to youths perceived career support from mother ( $\beta = -.03$ , *ns.*). Neither perceived career support from father ( $\beta = .96$ , *ns.*) nor perceived career support from mother ( $\beta = -.80$ , *ns.*) was significantly related to youths' career self-efficacy.

Consistent with hypotheses 3a and 3b, youths' career self-efficacy was positively related to the accessibility ( $\beta = .58$   $p < .001$ ) and the importance ( $\beta = .69$ ,  $p < .001$ ) of youths' future work selves. However, contrary to our prediction, youths'

career self-efficacy was negatively related to the exclusiveness of youths' future work selves but the significance level was only marginal ( $\beta = -.13$   $p = .10$ ).

### **3.5.3.2 Results of the Model with Aggregated Youths Perceived Career Support from Parents**

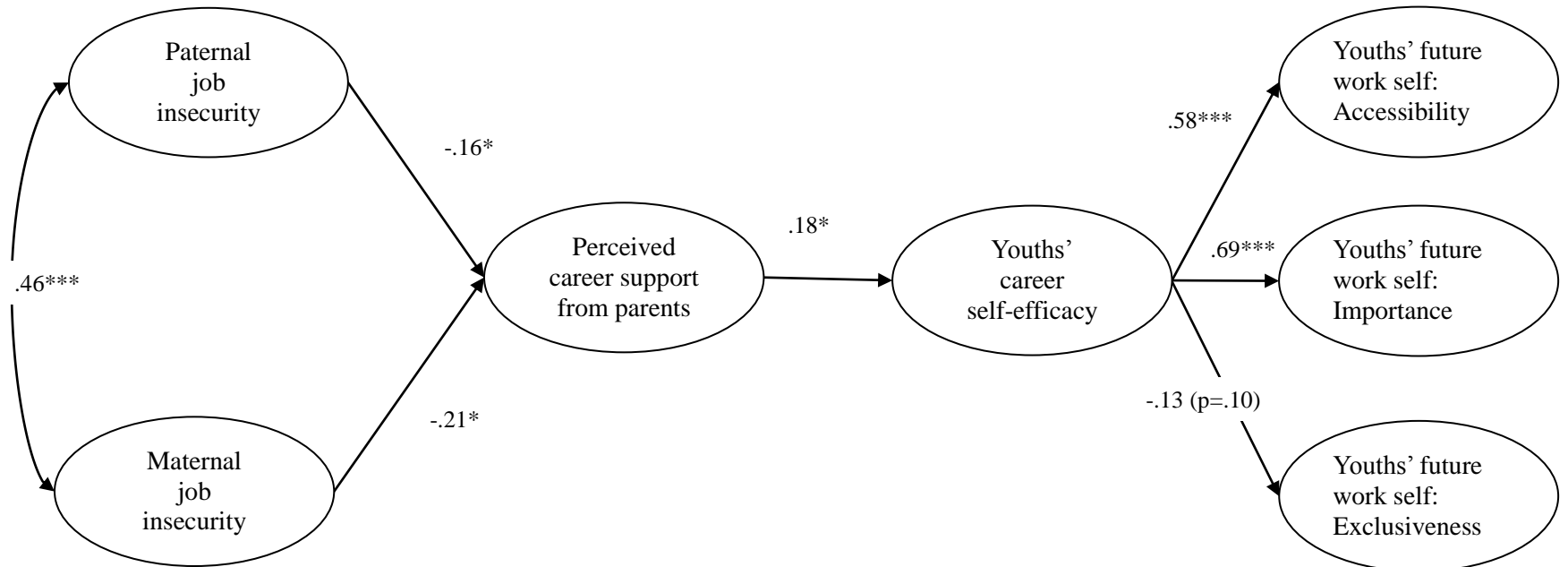
Although the model fit for the hypothesized model was good, the results of SEM analysis did not support our hypotheses that parental job insecurity influences youths' level of perceived career support from fathers and mothers. The correlation perceived career support from fathers and mothers was high, suggesting that youths are not able to distinguish the career support from their fathers and mothers. Consequently, we aggregated career support from father and career support from mother into one variable, career support from parents and re-ran the SEM analysis.

Table 3.9 presents the indices of the nested models. Chi-square value for the null model was still high,  $\chi^2(21, N = 196) = 239.69$  ( $p < .001$ ), indicating a significant misfit of the null model with the data. This implies that the hypothesized relationships exist. Next, the model with aggregated parental career support showed good fit. Chi-square value ( $\chi^2(14, N = 196) = 23.59$ , *ns.*) was not significant, suggesting that we can reject the null hypothesis that the model does not fit the data. The chi-square ratio of 1.69 also indicated good fit. Additionally, the NFI (.90), TLI (.93), CFI (.96) RMSEA (.06) provided further evidence of good model fit. Moreover, the alternative model did not make a significant improvement over the initial hypothesized model ( $\chi^2_{\text{diff}}(2) = .29$ , *ns.*), implying that the added paths from the parental job insecurity to youths' career self-efficacy should not be included in the model. Taken together, the results of model comparison suggested that the model with aggregated parental career support best fitted the data statistically.

The results of parameter estimates are shown in Figure 3.3. Paternal job insecurity was positively correlated with maternal job insecurity ( $r = .46, p < .001$ ). Both paternal job insecurity ( $\beta = -.16, p < .05$ ) and maternal job insecurity ( $\beta = -.21, p < .05$ ) were significantly associated with career support from parents. Further, career support from parents was positively and significantly related to youths' career self-efficacy ( $\beta = .18, p < .05$ ). These results support our hypotheses 1 and 2. Youths' career self-efficacy was significantly and positively associated with accessibility ( $\beta = .58, p < .001$ ) and importance of future work self ( $\beta = .69, p < .001$ ). Hence, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were empirically supported. However, the relationship between youths' career self-efficacy and exclusivity of future work self was negative and marginally significant ( $\beta = -.13, p = .10$ ).



**Figure 3.3 Structural equation model for the hypothesized model with aggregated career support from parents**



**Goodness of Fit Summary**

$\chi^2(14, N=196) = 23.59$  (ns.)

$\chi^2/df = 1.69$

CFI = .96

TLI = .93

NFI = .90

RMSEA = .06

\* $p < .05$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 3.9 Fit Indices and Model Comparisons for the Hypothesized Model with Aggregated Career Support from Parents**

<b>Model</b>	<b><math>\chi^2</math></b>	<b>df</b>	<b><math>\chi^2/df</math></b>	<b>NFI</b>	<b>TLI</b>	<b>CFI</b>	<b>RMSEA</b>	<b><math>\Delta\chi^2</math></b>	<b><math>\Delta df</math></b>
Null	239.69	21	11.41	.00	.00	.00	.23	-	-
Hypothesized model	23.59	14	1.69	.90	.93	.96	.06	216.10	7
Alternative model	23.30	12	1.94	.90	.91	.95	.07	.29	2

### **3.6 DISCUSSION OF ESSAY ONE**

An important theme within the job insecurity literature has been that the effects of job insecurity can, and do, extend beyond the job-insecure individuals—that is, job insecurity has an impact on the families of job-insecure employees (cf. Barling et al., 1998; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). Although the literature provides some insights that parental job insecurity affects youths' work attitudes, self-efficacy, and academic performance, little information is presently available on the effects of job insecurity on youths' future work selves. An integration of the literature on job insecurity and youths' future work selves is potentially valuable because it enables us to more fully understand the impact of parental job insecurity on the employees' parenting behaviors and, in turn, the effect of parenting behaviors on their children's career self-efficacy and perceived future work selves.

**Table 3.10 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results for Essay One**

Hypotheses		Results	
		Hypothesized model	Model with aggregated youths' perceived career support from parents
Hypothesis 1a	Paternal job insecurity is <b>negatively</b> associated with youths' perceived career support from father.	Not supported	
	Paternal job insecurity is <b>negatively</b> associated with youths' perceived career support from parents.		Supported
Hypothesis 1b	Maternal job insecurity is <b>negatively</b> associated with youths' perceived career support from mother.	Not supported	
	Maternal job insecurity is <b>negatively</b> associated with youths' perceived career support from <u>parents</u> .		Supported
Hypothesis 2a	Youths' perceived career support from father is <b>positively</b> associated with youths' career self-efficacy.	Not supported	
Hypothesis 2b	Youths' perceived career support from mother is <b>positively</b> associated with youths' career self-efficacy.	Not supported	
	Youths' perceived career support from <u>parents</u> is <b>positively</b> associated with youths' career self-efficacy.		Supported
Hypothesis 3a	Youths' career self-efficacy is <b>positively</b> associated with accessibility of future work selves.	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 3b	Youths' career self-efficacy is <b>positively</b> associated with perceived importance of future work selves.	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 3c	Youths' career self-efficacy is <b>positively</b> associated with exclusivity of future work selves.	Not supported	Not supported

The hypotheses and results of Essay 1 are summarized in Table 3.10. The results provide some evidence that the spillover effect of job insecurity on career-specific parenting behavior is salient for both fathers and mothers. The stress of job insecurity will be brought home and influence job insecure employees' behavior towards their children. The more uncertainty they perceive about their job, the less likely that they are willing or able to provide career-related support to their children. The findings support the argument of spillover theory that employees' work-related experience will influence their emotions and behaviors at home (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). More specifically, the results show that the spillover impact of job insecurity is negative and such results are consistent with the findings of the previous literature that examines the negative spillover effect of job insecurity to the family domain (Westman et al, 2004; Hughes & Galinsky, 1994; Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999a; 1999b). Further, findings from this study also advance the spillover theory by showing that the spillover effect will influence not only job insecure employees' spouse but also their children. Hence, this study contributes to the growing field that examines the impact of work related stress on children's development (Barling et al., 1998; Barling et al., 1999; Lim & Sng, 2006).

Different from expectation, the paths from parental career support to youths' career self-efficacy were significant only after youths perceived career support from both father and mother were aggregated. In this study, youths' perceptions of career support from father and from mother were highly correlated, suggesting that youths perceive their fathers' and mothers' career-specific parenting behaviors to be similar. It seems that the youths in this sample tend to perceive similar level of career support from their parents, which is consistent with findings from other research that it is very common that youths perceive both parents display the same parenting style (Simons

& Conger, 2007). There are several reasons that may contribute to such result. First, such perception may be due to some higher level factors such as youths' perception of family climate. In a warm, encouraging family climate, both father and mother are more likely to support their children and youths tend to perceive similar level of support from both parents. On the contrary, in a family with a lot of conflicts, youths may perceive low support from both father and mother. Second, a cultural characteristic of Singapore is the family value. Since the family ties are tight, parents may interchange ideas of how to provide career support to their children; plus, parents and children may also discuss together, seriously or just over the dinner table. Spending a lot of time with both father and mother, youths may not be able to tease apart paternal and maternal support. Third, it should be kept in mind that the sample for this study consists of only dual-earner families, in which both fathers and mothers have work commitment while sharing family responsibilities. Hence, they may also play similar roles in spending time with youths guiding youths' career development.

Youths' career self-efficacy was positively related to accessibility and importance of future work selves. This suggests that the more one is confident about one's ability to make correct career decision, the clearer the picture of future work self, the more important and more easily accessible this picture is. However, contrary to expectation, career self-efficacy was negatively and significantly related to the exclusiveness of future work self, meaning that the more confident one is about his career, the less likely that he would view the picture of future work self as the only possibility. Several reasons may explain such finding. First, the negative relationship between career self-efficacy and the inclusiveness of future work self may be due to the nature of career self-efficacy. Career self-efficacy refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they are able to successfully manage their careers (Higgins et

al., 2008). The more one believes that he/she can manage his future career, the more likely that he/she have more than one future work self because he/she has the confidence that he/she is adaptive in the job market and can manage various situations. Second, the context in Singapore may also contribute to the result. As I described in Section 2.5, Singapore is a highly competitive society. As a result, youths often prepare themselves for the competition by learning multiple skills. For example, in the university where I collect the data, many undergraduate students pursue a minor degree or second degree, in addition to their major degree, so that they can have more alternative options when they enter the job markets. These students tend to have higher career self-efficacy because they are prepared with multiple skills; they also tend to have lower level of exclusiveness of future career selves.

Overall, the results of the current study suggest that parents' experience of job insecurity has a negative impact on youth's perception of their future work selves. As part of the survey, youths were also asked to describe the mental images of their future work selves. The narratives of future work selves show that youths from the families where both father and mother have low level of job insecurity tend to provide longer and more elaborate description of their future work selves. They provide such information as their roles at work, goals of career and plans to achieve the goals. They also express positive attitude towards work, life and even work-life balance. Here are three examples of such narratives:

Respondent 158: (Female, Age: 20, Faculty: science) *"My future work self involves a busy schedule. When I'm not busy helping save children's lives in Singapore, I'll be travelling with doctors without borders to share my skills, and care and concern with others, I would like to be allocated to a flexible hospital that understands my needs to help. If I'm*

*free, I'll also initiate research projects, and do everything I can through science, to improve healthcare. I don't see myself as being held down by paper work."*

Respondent 134: (Male, Age: 22, Faculty: business) *"My future work self would like to put in the knowledge and skills he leans to the greatest use. However, I would also want to make a difference in people's lives. As a lecture/tutor/teacher, I would be able to apply everything I have learnt in the university and at the same time make an impact in the lives of others. I would enjoy this line of work as it is more meaningful impacting people's lives."*

Respondent 28: (Female, Age: 23, Faculty: science) *"My future work self involves in developing new food product so that different type of innovative and nutritive food products can be launched to the market of the benefits of customers. I would be working with a team of people, trying different recipes and methods to come out with the best product. After gaining enough experience and serving any bond and cleaning my loan, I will develop my own business in food industry or further studies for nutrition at overseas. I wish my future work self will be doing what I like every day instead of accomplishing my responsibility for work only. Plus work-life balance is also very important to me."*

In contrast, youths from high job insecurity families, where both father and mother report high level of job insecurity, provide much less details of their future work selves. Moreover, they also tend to use such words as "perhaps", "maybe" and "might", showing some sense of uncertainty about the images of future work selves. Below are some examples:



Respondent 8: (Female, Age: 23, Faculty: Business) *“My future work self involves working in the financial industry.”*

Respondent 132: (Male, Age: 22, Faculty: Business) *“My future work self is to start up a company which involves tourism. The job will probably be demanding and tough. I might have to work long hours to achieve my goals.”*

Respondent 30: (Female, Age: 21, Faculty: Law) *“My future work self involves working with the legal service. I will be making a decent living. I would like to be a litigator/public presenter in the attorney’s general Chandler.”*

These qualitative narratives suggest that the richness of the information reflects the salience and importance of future work selves and can be influenced by parents’ job insecurity. Because narratives play a critical role in identity construction, the richness of information reflects the implicit importance and centrality of the future work selves. As found by Strauss et al. (2011), the richness of narratives has a positive relationship with the accessibility of future work self and predicts youths’ proactive career behaviors. Hence, the qualitative data also support the results of the quantitative data analysis, i.e., parental job insecurity has a negative impact on youths’ perception of future work selves.

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**CHAPTER FOUR: ESSAY TWO**

**PARENTAL JOB INSECURITY AND YOUTHS' CAREER SELF-EFFICACY:  
THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF CAREER-SPECIFIC PARENTING  
BEHAVIORS**

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#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION TO ESSAY TWO**

Job insecurity, defined as the fear of losing one's job, is a severe work stressor and often associated with a sense of unpredictability, uncontrollability, and anxiety (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). Job insecurity is related to employees' health-related outcomes, such as insomnia, distress, psychological adjustment, and psychosomatic complaints (De Cuyper & De Witt, 2007; Sverke, Hellgren & Näswall, 2002). Moreover, the impact of job insecurity goes beyond job insecure employees to affect their children. Parental job insecurity was found to be negatively related with children's mood, cognitive ability, self-efficacy, school performance, world view, work beliefs, work attitudes, work motivation, and attitude toward money (Barling, Dupre & Hepburn, 1998; Barling & Mendelson, 1999; Barling, Zacharatos, & Hepburn, 1999; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim, & Sng, 2006). Moreover, Social cognitive career theory argues that external factors, such as parental attitudes, parenting styles, and family environment, influence youths' career self-efficacy level (Bandura et al., 2001; Diemer, 2007; Hargrove et al., 2002; Malmberg et al., 2005). Taken together, I expect that parental job insecurity has an impact on youths' career self-efficacy. However, the mechanism through which parental job insecurity impact youths' career self-efficacy is not yet clear.

Previous research on the impact of parental job insecurity on youths mainly focused the crossover mechanism of the impact. Crossover is an *interindividual* transmission of stress, referring to the mechanism that the stress experienced by one

person has impact on the stress experienced by another (Westman, 2001). Previous research has shown that youths can perceive the job insecurity experienced by their parents and such perception has impact on youths' cognition, affect and behaviors (Barling et al., 1998; Barling & Mendelson, 1999; Barling et al., 1999; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). In this dissertation, I take a different approach by examining the impact of job insecurity on youths' career development through the mechanism of career-specific parenting behaviors. The results from Essay 1 show that parental job insecurity influences their ability and willingness to provide career-specific support, which in turn, has an impact on youths' career self-efficacy. In this essay, I further examine the mediating effect of different types of career-specific parenting behaviors.

In Section 2.3.2, a brief literature review on parenting behavior and youths' career development has shown that youths' career development is influenced by various parenting styles. However, there are several limitations in previous literature. First, in the existing literature, parenting behaviors are often viewed as independent of parents' work-related stress. Although there are studies examining the relationship between job insecurity and youths' work outcomes (e.g., Barling et al., 1999; Lim & Sng, 2006) as well as the relationship between parenting behaviors and youths' career outcomes (e.g., Bryant et al., 2006), few studies have linked parental job insecurity to youths' career development via the mechanism of parenting behaviors (Lim & Loo, 2003). Second, when examining parental influence on youths' career development, the majority of studies focused on the impact of parent-children relationship or general parenting behavior on youths (O'Brien et al., 2000; Lim & Loo, 2003) while much less attention has been paid to the impact of career-specific parenting behaviors on youths' career development. Third, when studying the impact of career-specific parenting behaviors, researchers often focus on parental career support (e.g., Flores &

O'Brien, 2002; Neblett & Cortina, 2006); studies have seldom investigated the effects of various types of career-specific parenting behaviors simultaneously and compare the relative strength of their effects.

To fill these gaps, in this study, I examine the role of career-specific parenting behaviors in the relationship between work-related stress and youths' career development. I hypothesize that three types of career-specific parenting behaviors, lack of engagement, support and interference, will mediate the relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.

Moreover, in this study, I focus on father-children relationship for two reasons. First, in Asian cultures, men are often the main breadwinners in families. In the current sample, on average, men contribute 65% to the family income. Hence, fathers are more likely to be the role models and information sources of youths regarding career. Second, men are more likely to experience spillover and bring work-related experience to the family domain (Lim & Sng, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Therefore, it is important to understand how fathers' work-related experience influences youths' career development. Steward and Barling (1996) pointed out that while much attention has been paid to the impact of mothers' work-related experience on their children; relatively less is known about the consequences of fathers' work experience. Hence, in this essay, I examine the impact of paternal job insecurity and paternal parenting behaviors on youths' career self-efficacy.

As I describe in Section 2.5, Singapore is a multi-racial, international country that embraces both the Eastern and Western cultures. Such multiculturalism is also demonstrated in the general attitude toward gender roles. On one hand, as a developed society, Singapore provides equal opportunities for men and women. Statistics shows that men and women have almost the same literacy rate and average years of

schooling (Department of Statistics Singapore, 2010). Women students and employees perform as well as, if not better than, their men counterparts. On the other hand, the society is also deeply influenced by traditional Chinese values, which emphasizes the traditional roles of men and women. It is quite common that wives quit job after marriage or having children. In a study that compares 62 societies across the world (Emrich, Denmark & Hartog, 2004), the authors examine the difference of gender egalitarianism, for the same set of items, participants were asked two questions: a “as is” question that asks the current society practices and a “should be” question that more reflects the real value of individuals. Singapore was ranked No. 10 for the “as is” question, implying a high gender egalitarian among 62 societies. However, it is ranked 46 for the “should be” question, implying that Singaporean still value the traditional gender roles (Emrich et al., 2004).

In another recent survey, participants answered their wishes for the children (Tambyah, Tan and Kau, 2009). While Singaporean parents have similar wishes for sons and daughters to be loving and charitable (top 1 wish), and to care for the families (top 2 wish), the result shows different expectation for sons and daughters. Specifically, for sons, the top 3 and top 4 wishes are professional proficiency (27.6%) and scholarly success (24.5) while for daughters, finding a good spouse seems much more important (top 3, 32.3%); followed then by professional proficiency (21.6%) and scholarly success (18.7%) (Tambyah, Tan and Kau, 2009). Table 4.1 show the findings of this study.

**Table 4.1 Singaporean Parents' Wishes for Sons and Daughters**

<b>Parents' wishes for their children</b>	<b>Sons</b>	<b>Daughters</b>
A person who cares about family	51.9	52.5
A loving and charitable person	42.2	40.8
More proficient in profession than I am	27.6	21.6
A great scholar	24.5	18.7
A person respected by the masses	13.8	9.0
Very wealthy	13.2	9.2
To find a good marriage partner	11.7	32.3
Fulfilled spiritually	9.1	9.5
A powerful political leader	2.4	1.2
To follow in my footsteps	1.3	3.1

Note: All figures in %

Source: *The Wellbeing of Singaporeans* (Tambyah, Tan & Kau, 2009)

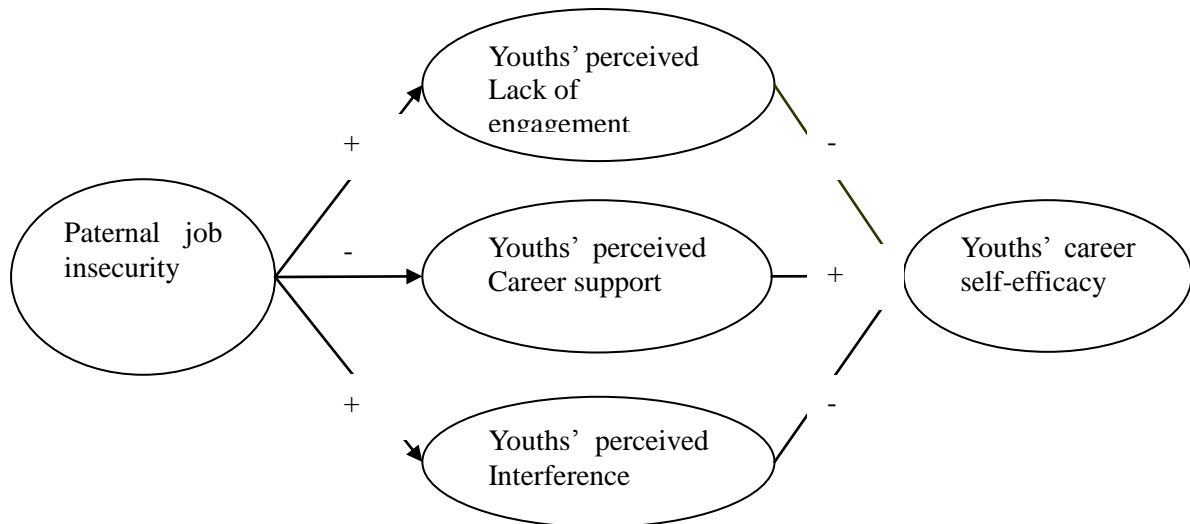
In conclusion, because Singapore is a pragmatic society in which men and women compete fairly, and career and scholarly success is not unimportant for girls, I develop the same hypotheses for both sons and daughters. However, because of the influence of cultural values, there may be some differences between sons and daughters, I analyze the sons' and daughters' sub-samples in addition to the full sample.

## **4.2 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT**

The research model proposed for this Essay is shown in Figure 4.1. In the following sections, I will first introduce the three types of parenting behaviors: lack of engagement, support, and interference. Further, to build up the mediating hypotheses, I will explain the relationship between paternal job insecurity and paternal career-specific parenting behaviors, as well as the relationship between paternal

career-specific parenting behaviors and youths' career self-efficacy.

**Figure 4.1 Hypothesized multiple-mediator model**



#### **4.2.1 Career-specific Parenting Behaviors**

Previous research has shown that various parenting styles have different impact on youths' career development. Parental neglectfulness and lack of participation has negative impact on youths' career development (e.g., Lim & Loo, 2003; Vignoli et al., 2005). Parental support, including general support and career-specific support, benefits youths' career development (e.g., Diemer, 2007; Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Neblett and Cortina, 2006). Moreover, if parents' actions intrude youths' autonomy and/or constrain their options, youths' career development progress will be negatively influenced (Soenens and Vansteenkiste, 2005).

Recently, based on the rich information from exciting qualitative research, Dietrich and Kracke (2009) summarized that there are three types of career-specific parenting behaviors. Some parents do not engage in their children's career development process at all. Dietrich and Kracke (2009) labeled this type of care-specific parenting behavior as *lack of engagement*. In contrast to this type of "non-action", Dietrich and Kracke (2009) further distinguished two types of "actions". Some adolescents report that their parents are very supportive of their career choice and development. They are encouraged by parents to explore their interest, and are provided with advice and help when necessary (Schultheiss, Kress, Manzi, & Glasscock, 2001). This type of care-specific parenting behavior was labeled as *support*. However, some adolescents feel that their parents try to control their career actions and they feel passive in the process of career preparation (Kracke & Noack, 2005). Dietrich and Kracke (2009) labeled this type of parenting behavior *interference*.

Three-factor structure of career-specific parenting behaviors gained empirical support (Dietrich & Kracke, 2009). Three factors were distinct from each other while reasonably correlated. Specifically, Dietrich and Kracke (2009) found that lack of engagement was negatively correlated to support and explained that this may be due to the fact that adolescents who are very autonomous is likely to report neither lack of engagement (because their parents are not disinterested or over-challenged) nor support (because they manage their own career). Moreover, lack of engagement was positively correlated with interference. Dietrich and Kracke (2009) explained that the association may be because adolescents appraised parents' behaviors only on a good-bad dimension and may not distinguish between lack of engagement and interference. Finally, Dietrich and Kracke (2009) found that support and interference



were unrelated.

Career-specific parenting behaviors have direct impact on youths' career exploration and career indecision. While career support was positively related to career exploration, lack of engagement and interference were positively related to career indecision (Dietrich & Kracke, 2009). Moreover, Dietrich and Kracke (2009) also found interaction effect of various parenting behaviors. Specifically, the positive linear relationship between parents' career-specific support and youths' career exploration increased with higher interference, suggesting that higher levels of parents' pressure, when combined with support, functions as a motivator rather than an inhibitor (Phillips, Christopher-Sisk, & Gravino, 2001). As well, the positive linear relationship between parents' career-specific support and youths' career exploration decreased with less parental engagement, meaning that career support becomes less beneficial if youths perceive that their parents have little interest in their career.

In this study, I expect that these three types of career-specific parenting behaviors play a mediating role in the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy. I base this view on the belief that: a) paternal job insecurity has an impact on career-specific parenting behaviors; and b) career-specific parenting behaviors will influence youths' career self-efficacy level. I will explain these hypotheses in the following sections.

#### **4.2.2 From Job Insecurity to Career-specific Parenting Behaviors**

The relationship between fathers' job insecurity and career-specific behaviors can be explained by spillover theory. Individuals who experience job insecurity will carry the stress to family domain and such strain will influence their behaviors at home (Lim & Sng, 2006). Fathers are often the breadwinners of the family and have

higher level of work role salience (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010); as a result, they are more likely to carry the work experience to the family domain compared to mothers. I expect that fathers' job insecurity will result in negative career-related parenting behaviors for the following reasons.

First, job insecurity will lead to lack of engagement and low support because of the affective strain. Such strain hinders fathers from engaging in their children's career development. Individuals who are emotionally and physically fatigued from their experience of work stress are often more irritable and hostile in their family interactions and less sensitive, participative, and supportive to their children (Repetti & Wood, 1997). Previous research suggests that fathers experiencing job insecurity are more likely to engage in non-participative (Lim & Loo, 2003) and rejecting (Stewart & Barling, 1996) parenting behaviors with their children.

Second, job insecure fathers are likely to fail to provide career support because they cognitively perceive the inability to provide career support to their children. Job insecurity is a feeling of uncertainty and powerlessness (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). When people perceive job insecurity, they tend to feel that they are not able to give advice to their children and that they are not able to provide career opportunities to their children.

Third, job insecure fathers are more likely to try to manipulate their children's future career plan. Research has shown that job insecurity negatively influences employees' job satisfaction and commitment to their organization as well as occupation. Employees who feel insecure are more dissatisfied with their jobs and more likely to quit (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Lee & Peccei, 2007; Probst, Stewart, Gruys & Tierney, 2007; Sverke et al., 2002). According to spillover theory, job insecure fathers will carry the negative attitudes home and influence their children

(Barling & Mendelson, 1999). Hence, I expect that job insecure fathers are more likely to expect their children to pursue a secure job rather than following their own interest. Moreover, job insecure fathers tend to perceive higher financial strain (Lim & Sng, 2006) and hence more likely to expect their children to pursue a job with financial security.

In summary, based on the above mentioned reasons, I expect that fathers' job insecurity will be positively related to lack of engagement and interference, and negatively related to career support.

*H1a Paternal job insecurity is positively related to youths' perceived lack of engagement from father.*

*H1b Paternal job insecurity is negatively related to youths' perceived career support from father.*

*H1c Paternal job insecurity is positively related to youths' perceived interference from father.*

#### **4.2.3 From Career-specific Parenting Behaviors to Youths' Career Self-efficacy**

Career self-efficacy denotes one's confidence in pursuing career related tasks (Hackett and Betz, 1995; Taylor & Betz, 1983) and can be viewed as an indicator of career adaptability (Patton & Creed, 2007; Savickas, 2005). Social cognitive career theory suggests that youths' career self-efficacy is influenced by external factors such as parents' behaviors (Lent et al., 1994).

Youths are at a particularly vulnerable stage in their lives as they are on the verge of entering adulthood, where new experiences are encountered, and attitudes and beliefs further crystallized (Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). Faced with so many options and uncertainties, youths are in great need of guidance from adults.

Although youths can find help from elsewhere, the resources and information provided by parents are not substitutable (Navarro et al., 2007). Research has shown that children from problematic families often have low sense of mastery (Carlson & Corcoran, 2001; Jackson, Brooks-Gunn, Huang & Glassman, 2000). Non-participative and neglectful parenting behaviors are negatively related to youths' career development (Lim & Loo, 2003; Vignoli et al., 2005). Therefore, I expect lack of engagement to have a negative impact on youths' career self-efficacy.

Considering the significant role fathers play in youths' career development, I argue that paternal career support, including providing advice, listening, communicating, and instrumental support will have direct impact on children's confidence of career decision and development. Fathers are often the role models for youths regarding future career and important source of workplace information. If fathers show no interest in their children's career development and do not participate in the process at all, children are likely to have low career self-efficacy. However, if fathers are willing to discuss with youths about the future career plan and possibilities, provide advice based on their experience, introduce children to some career opportunities, or bring them into social networks that are potentially beneficial, youths' confident on their future career will be boosted (e.g., Young et al., 2006; Young et al., 2001).

Moreover, interfering parenting behaviors, characterized by the exercise of control and imposing ideas to children, are likely to inhibit youths' sense of mastery and erode their efficacy. According to Self-determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), interfering behavior intrudes youths' need for autonomy and too much control and interference will result in a perceived external locus of causality. Youths who perceive interference parenting behavior will think that they do not have many options and

there is nothing much they can do regarding future career. Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005) reported that parental psychological control results in low self-determination of their adolescent children. Lim and Loo (2003) also provided empirical evidence by showing that parental control, characterized by attempt to limit children's autonomy, was negatively related to youths' self-efficacy.

In summary, I expect that paternal lack of engagement and interference will be negatively while career support positively related to youths' self-efficacy. Incorporating the previous argument that job insecurity influences career-specific parenting behaviors, I hypothesize that:

*H2a Lack of engagement mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.*

*H2b Career support mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.*

*H2c Interference mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.*

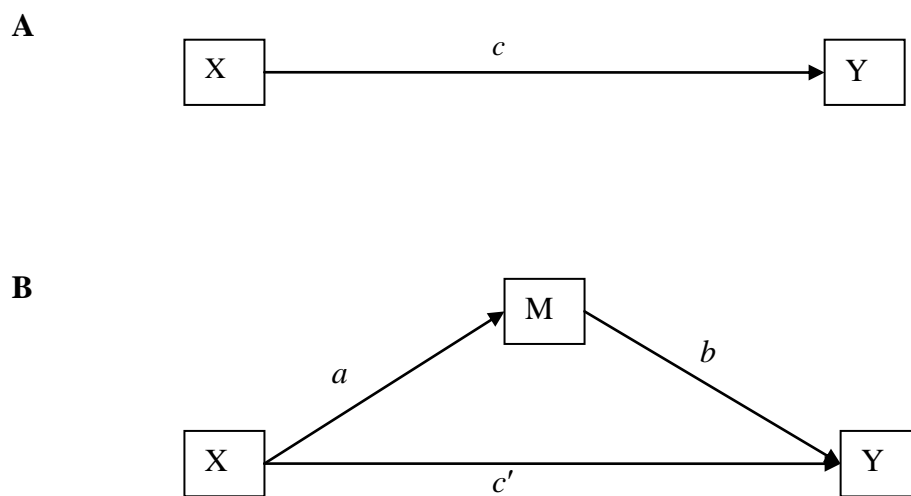
#### **4.3 PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSES**

Mediation analysis will be applied to test the hypotheses. More specifically, multiple-mediator model (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) will be used to empirically test the hypothesized model. Because Dietrich and Kracke (2009) found gender difference in reporting career-specific parenting behaviors, I also split the sample into two and further examine father-son relationship and father-daughter relationship. before I present the results, I will explain the methodology of mediation analysis.

### 4.3.1 Overview of mediation analysis

Mediation hypotheses posit how, or by what means, an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through one or more potential mediators (M). An illustration of single-mediator model is presented in Figure 4.2.

**Figure 4.2 Illustration of single-mediator model**



X: independent variable; M: mediator; Y: dependent variable

A: Illustration of direct effect of X on Y.

B: Illustration of indirect effect of X on Y through M

The most well-known mediation analysis was offered by Baron and Kenny (1986). A variable M can be viewed as a mediator when: 1) the relationship between X and Y (path  $c$  in Figure 4.2) is significant; 2) the relationship between X and M (path  $a$  in Figure 4.2) is significant; 3) the relationship between M and Y (path  $b$  in Figure 4.3) is significant; and 4) when paths  $a$  and  $b$  are controlled, the relationship

between X and Y ( $c'$  in Figure 4.2) is no longer significant or less significant. Based on the result of the last step, if  $c'$  is not significant, M *fully* mediates the relationship between X and Y; if  $c'$  is less significant, M *partially* mediates the relationship. Moreover, Baron and Kenny (1986) also recommended testing the significance of the indirect path using the Sobel  $z$ -test.

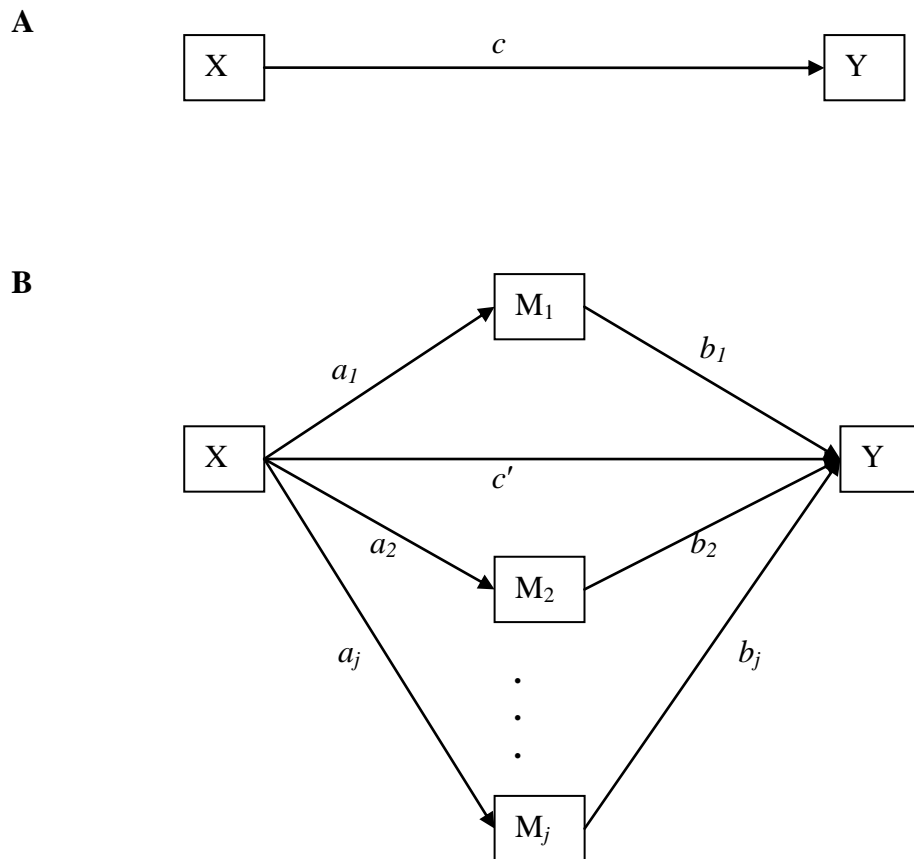
However, while the popularity of this method grows, a stream of literature has also grown that criticize the flaws in Baron and Kenny's (1986) logic (MacKinnon, 1994, 2000; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao Lynch & Chen, 2010). In a recent paper, Zhao et al. (2010) pointed out that the misapplication of Baron-Kenny procedure is causing authors to overlook important findings. They disputed three key points made by Baron and Kenny (1986). First, Zhao et al. (2010) argue that there is no need for a significant effect to be mediated. i.e., path  $c$  does not have to be significant for a mediation to exist. Second, the strength of mediation should not be measured by the lack of the direct effect. The only requirement to establish a mediation is the indirect effect  $a \times b$  be significant. Moreover, the significance of path  $c'$  is used to determine different types of mediation. According to Zhao et al.'s (2010) decision tree, if  $a \times b$  is significant but  $c'$  is not, it is called indirect-only mediation; if both  $a \times b$  and  $c'$  are significant, it is called either complementary mediation (when  $a \times b \times c'$  is positive) or competitive mediation (when  $a \times b \times c'$  is negative). Third, Zhao et al. (2010) also recommend the bootstrap test by Preacher and Hayes (2004) because it is more powerful than the Sobel  $z$ -test.

#### **4.3.2 Multiple-mediator analysis**

An illustration of multiple-mediator model is presented in Figure 4.3. Similar to the single-mediator model, a multiple mediator model consists of three types of

variables: an independent variable (X), a dependent variable (Y), and more than one mediators (Ms).

**Figure 4.3 Illustration of multiple-mediator model**



X: independent variable;  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_j$ : mediators; Y: dependent variable

A: Illustration of direct effect of X on Y.

B: Illustration of indirect effect of X on Y through Ms

In this study, I followed Preacher and Hayes's (2008) method to test the proposed model. Preacher and Hayes's (2008) method allows testing multiple mediators simultaneously. The model allows the calculation of total effect, total



indirect effect and specific indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. The *Total effect* is the regression weight of Y on X (Path *c* in Figure 4.3). The *specific indirect effect* of X on Y via mediator M is defined as the product of the two unstandardized paths linking X to M and M to Y ( $a_i \times b_i$ ). The *total indirect effect* of X on Y is the sum of specific indirect effects ( $\sum (a_i b_i, i=1 \text{ to } j)$ ). *Direct effect* of X on Y equals to total effect minus total indirect effect (Path *c'* in Figure 4.3). Total effect equals to the sum of direct effect and total indirect effect:  $c=c'+\sum (a_i b_i)$ .

There are at least two advantages of testing a multiple-mediator model rather than testing several mediators separately. First, by applying multiple-mediator model, it is possible to determine to what extent a specific mediator mediate the  $X \rightarrow Y$  relationship, conditional on the presence of other mediators. Hence, multiple-mediator model reduces the bias caused by omitted variable problem. Second, including multiple mediators in one model allows me to examine the relative magnitudes of the specific indirect effects associated with all mediators.

A mediating effect exists only when both the  $X \rightarrow M$  relationship and the  $M \rightarrow Y$  relationship are significant. That is, if either of the constituent paths is not different from zero, M is deemed not to be a mediator of the effect of the  $X \rightarrow Y$  relationship. Similar to Zhao et al. (2010), Preacher and Hayes (2008) also suggest that for a mediation to occur, total effect or total indirect effects do not have to be significant.

Preacher and Hayes (2008) also suggest using bootstrapping method to get confidence interval of the specific indirect effect. Their syntax will produce a confidence interval for the indirect effect  $a_i \times b_i$ . If the confidence interval does not include 0, the indirect effect  $a_i \times b_i$  is significant. Otherwise, the mediation hypothesis

should be rejected.

## **4.4 RESULTS**

### **4.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Career-specific Parenting Behaviors**

Before I tested the hypotheses, I carried out a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the structure of career-specific parenting behaviors. I compared three factor solutions: first, I analyzed the original three-factor model proposed by Dietrich and Kracke (2009); second, because in Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) study, support and lack of engagement were moderately correlated and seemed to capture substantively similar aspects of parental career-related behaviors, I combined support and lack of engagement into one factor and analyzed the two-factor model, finally, I put all the items in a single dimension and analyzed the one-factor model.

Table 4.2 shows the CFA results based on full sample. The original three-factor solution gained the best model fit ( $\chi^2(78) = 155.58, p < .001, IFI = .95, TLI = .93, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .07$ ). Table 4.3 shows the CFA results based on the sub sample of sons. Among the three factor solutions, the original three-factor solution also had the best model fit ( $\chi^2(78) = 122.38, p < .001, IFI = .95, TLI = .92, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .08$ ). Table 4.4 shows the CFA results based on the sub sample of daughters. Again, the original three factor solution showed the best model fit ( $\chi^2(78) = 131.29, p < .001, IFI = .93, TLI = .91, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .08$ ).

In conclusion, factor analysis confirmed the three-factor structure of career-specific parenting behaviors. Following this, I further test the mediating effect of the three types of paternal career-specific parenting behaviors: lack of engagement, support, and interference.

**Table 4.2 CFA Results for Paternal Career-specific Parenting Behavior (Full Sample  $N = 196$ )**

	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/\text{df}$	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\text{df}$
3 factor solution	155.58	78	1.99	.95	.93	.95	.07	-	-
2 factor solution (lack+support)	208.79	80	2.61	.91	.88	.91	.09	53.21	2
1 factor solution	437.61	81	5.40	.76	.69	.76	.15	228.82	1

**Table 4.3 CFA Results for Paternal Career-specific Parenting Behavior (Sub Sample: Sons  $N = 86$ )**

	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/\text{df}$	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\text{df}$
3 factor solution	122.38	78	1.57	.95	.92	.94	.08	-	-
2 factor solution (lack+support)	150.57	80	1.88	.91	.88	.91	.10	28.19	2
1 factor solution	280.81	81	3.47	.75	.67	.75	.17	130.24	1

**Table 4.4 CFA Results for Paternal Career-specific Parenting Behavior (Sub Sample: Daughters  $N = 110$ )**

	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/\text{df}$	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\text{df}$
3 factor solution	131.29	78	1.68	.93	.91	.93	.08	-	-
2 factor solution (lack+support)	162.29	80	2.03	.90	.86	.89	.10	31.00	2
1 factor solution	263.40	81	3.25	.77	.69	.76	.14	101.11	1

#### 4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities and Correlations

Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and correlations of the variables under study are presented in Table 4.5 to 4.7. Table 4.5 shows the correlation among variables based on the full sample of sons ( $N = 196$ ). Paternal job insecurity was not correlated with youths' career self-efficacy ( $r = -.09$ , ns.). Consistent with expectation, paternal job insecurity was significantly correlated with lack of engagement ( $r = .21$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and support ( $r = -.17$ ,  $p < .05$ ). However, paternal job insecurity was not correlated with interference ( $r = -.08$ , ns.). Consistent with expectation, both lack of engagement ( $r = -.17$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and support ( $r = .16$ ,  $p < .05$ ) were significantly correlated with youths' self-efficacy. However, interference was not significantly related to youths' career self-efficacy ( $r = -.07$ , ns.). Similar to Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) finding, lack of engagement and support were significantly correlated ( $r = -.62$ ,  $p < .001$ ). However, different from Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) finding, lack of engagement and interference were not significantly correlated ( $r = -.10$ , ns.). Although support and interference were not correlated in Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) report, they were significantly correlated in this study ( $r = .31$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Table 4.6 shows the correlation among variables based on the sub sample of sons ( $N = 86$ ). Paternal job insecurity was not significantly correlated with sons' career self-efficacy ( $r = -.14$ , ns.). Paternal job insecurity was not significantly correlated with sons' perceived paternal career behaviors ( $r = .20$ , ns., for lack of engagement;  $r = -.11$ , ns., for support; and  $r = -.01$ , ns., for interference). Paternal career-specific behaviors were not significantly correlated with sons' career self-efficacy. The correlations between lack of engagement, support, and interference and sons' career self-efficacy were  $-.17$  (ns.),  $.02$ (ns.), and  $-.19$ (ns.), respectively. For

sons, three types of career-specific parenting behaviors were correlated with each other. Lack of engagement was negatively correlated with support ( $r = .60, p < .001$ ) and interference ( $r = -.22, p < .05$ ). Moreover, support was positively correlated with interference ( $r = .39, p < .001$ ).

Table 4.7 shows the correlation among variables based on the sub sample of daughters ( $N = 110$ ). Paternal job insecurity was significantly correlated with daughters' career self-efficacy ( $r = -.29, p < .01$ ). Paternal job insecurity was significantly correlated with daughters' perception of paternal lack of engagement ( $r = .23, p < .05$ ) and support ( $r = -.23, p < .05$ ). However, paternal job insecurity and daughters' perceived paternal interference was not significantly correlated ( $r = -.12, ns.$ ). Daughters' career self-efficacy was significantly correlated with paternal lack of engagement ( $r = -.22, p < .05$ ) and support ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ). However, daughters' career self-efficacy was not correlated with paternal interference ( $r = .01, ns.$ ). Among the three types of career-specific parenting behaviors perceived by daughters, lack of engagement and support were negatively correlated ( $r = -.65, p < .001$ ); support and interference were positively correlated ( $r = .24, p < .05$ ). However, lack of engagement and interference were not significantly correlated ( $r = -.12, ns.$ ).

In the next section, I test the proposed model using full sample, sub-sample of sons and sub-sample of daughters.

**Table 4.5 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities (Full Sample)**

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Paternal job insecurity	3.15	1.13	(.91)				
2. Paternal career parenting: Lack of engagement	3.06	1.30	.21**	(.81)			
3. Paternal career parenting: Support	4.20	1.29	-.17*	-.62***	(.84)		
4. Paternal career parenting: Interference	2.81	1.31	-.08	-.10	.31***	(.87)	
5. Youths' career self-efficacy	5.27	0.96	-.09	-.17*	.16*	-.07	(.91)

$N = 196$

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 4.6 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities (Sub Sample: Sons)**

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Paternal Job insecurity	3.19	1.12	(.91)				
2. Paternal career parenting: Lack of engagement	3.18	1.41	.20	(.85)			
3. Paternal career parenting: Support	4.19	1.31	-.11	-.60***	(.83)		
4. Paternal career parenting: Interference	2.90	1.42	-.01	-.22*	.39***	(.91)	
5. Sons' career self-efficacy	5.53	0.98	-.14	-.17	.02	-.19	(.92)

$N = 86$

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$

**Table 4.7 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities (Sub Sample: Daughters)**

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Paternal Job insecurity	3.13	1.14	(.91)				
2. Paternal career parenting: Lack of engagement	2.97	1.20	.23*	(.77)			
3. Paternal career parenting: Support	4.20	1.28	-.23*	-.65***	(.85)		
4. Paternal career parenting: Interference	2.73	1.22	-.12	.03	.24*	(.84)	
5. Daughters' career self-efficacy	5.07	0.90	-.29**	-.22*	.28**	.01	(.90)

$N = 110$

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

\*\*\* $p < .001$



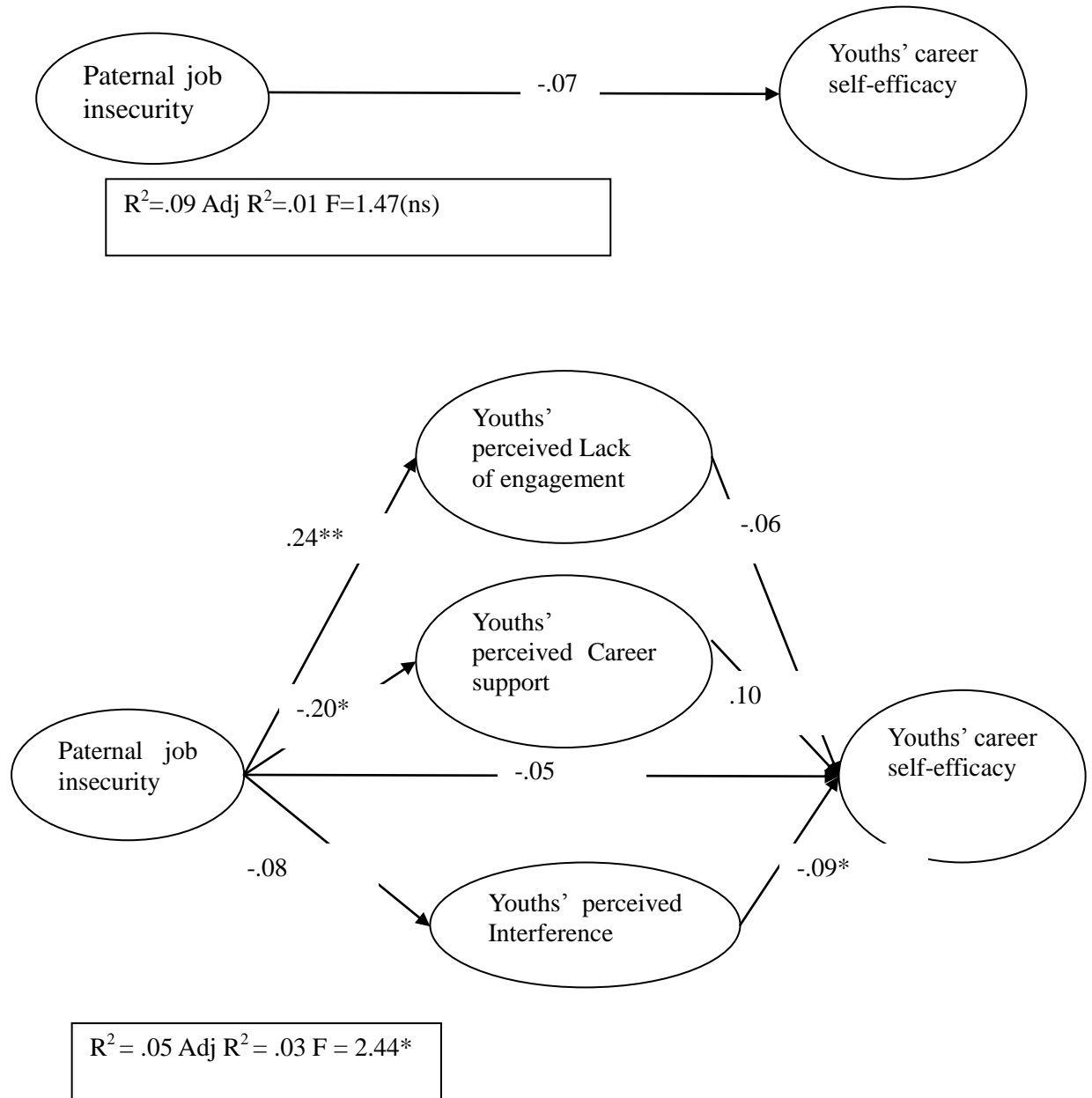
### **4.4.3 Hypotheses Testing Results**

The hypotheses testing consisted of two steps. First, a simple regression was conducted to test the *total effect* of paternal job insecurity on youths' career self-efficacy. Second, a multiple-mediator model was conducted to test: a) *specific indirect effect* of paternal job insecurity on youths' career self-efficacy via three mediators: support, lack of engagement, and interference; and b) *direct effect* of paternal job insecurity on youths' career self-efficacy.

#### **4.4.3.1 Results for the Full Sample**

The multiple-mediator model results are shown in Figure 4.4. I first analyzed the hypothesized model using full sample. To begin with, a simple regression was conducted and the result show that the total effect of paternal job insecurity on youths' career self-efficacy was negative but not significant ( $\beta = -.07$ , ns).

**Figure 4.4 Result of multiple-mediator model—Full sample ( $N = 196$ )**



Paternal job insecurity was significantly and positively related to both lack of engagement ( $\beta = .24, p < .01$ ); it is significantly and negatively related to career support ( $\beta = -.20, p < .05$ ); but it is not significantly related to interference ( $\beta = -.08, ns$ ). Moreover, neither the relationship between lack of engagement and youths' career self-efficacy ( $\beta = -.06, ns$ ) nor the relationship between support and youths' career self-efficacy ( $\beta = .10, ns$ ) was significant. Interference was negatively and significantly related to youths' career self-efficacy ( $\beta = -.09, p < .05$ ). Finally, the direct effect of paternal job insecurity on youths' career self-efficacy was not significant ( $\beta = -.05, ns$ ).

F value of the model was significant ( $F = 2.44, p < .05$ ), meaning that the three mediators as a whole explained the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy. Results showed that fathers' job insecurity influenced their career-specific parenting behavior towards children. Those who perceived job insecurity were more likely to lack engagement in their children's career development and less likely to provide career-specific support.

However, based on the findings, I was not able to conclude which type of parenting behavior mediates the relationship because a mediation effect exists only when both the path from X to M and the path from M to Y are significant. The insignificant relationships between support and lack of engagement to youths' career self-efficacy may be due to two reasons: first, Preacher and Hayes (2008) point out that the effects of mediators on Y are often attenuated depending on how much mediators are correlated. Because support and lack of engagement are modestly correlated, the significance of each path may be attenuated; second, the significant relationship between another mediator, interference, may also suppress the magnitude

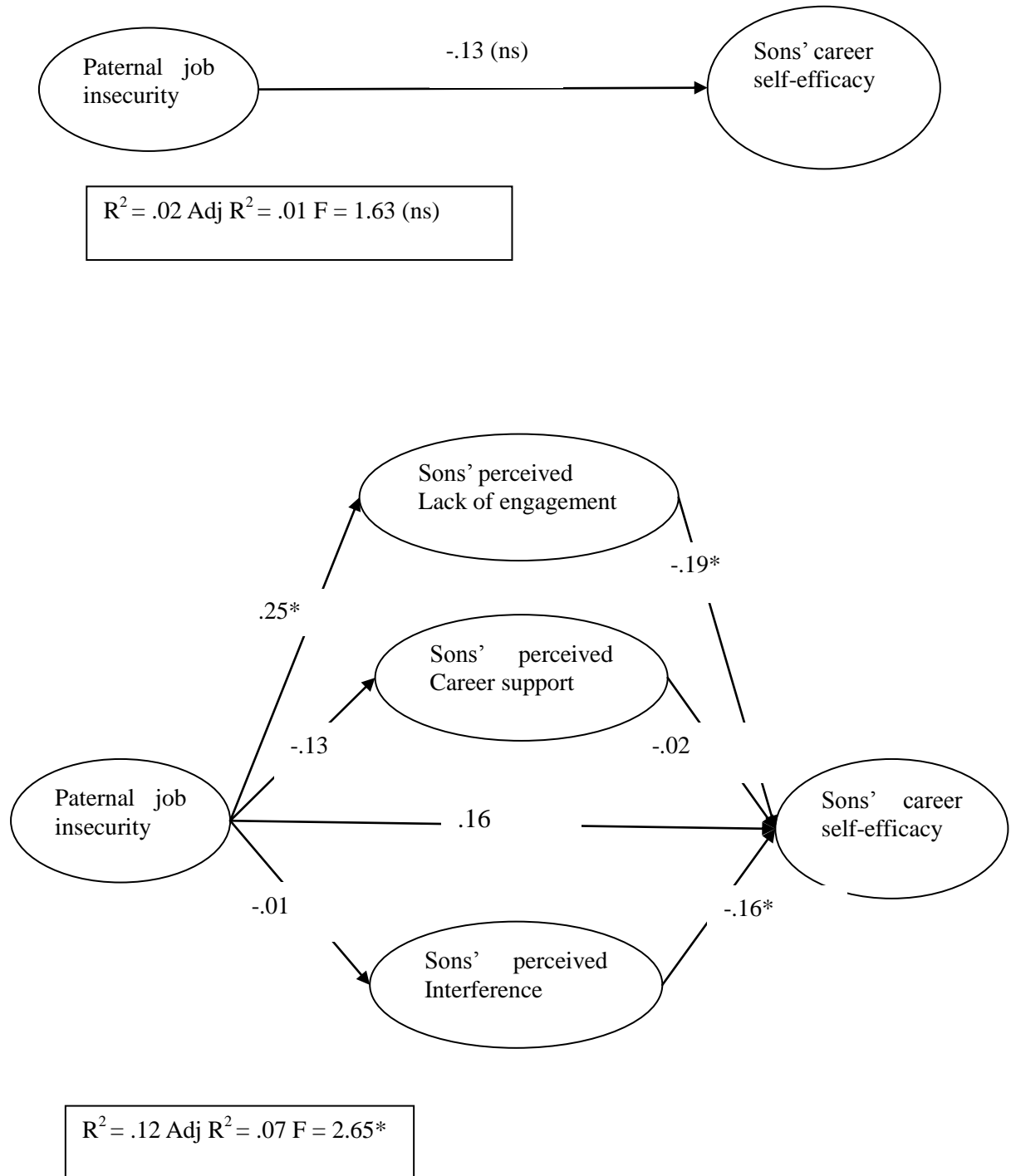
of these two paths.

#### **4.4.3.2 Results for the Sub-sample: Sons**

For the sub sample of sons, I first tested the total effect of paternal job insecurity on sons, the regression path was negative but not significant ( $\beta = -.13$ , ns).

The results were presented in Figure 4.5.

**Figure 4.5 Result of multiple-mediator model—Sub sample: sons ( $N = 86$ )**



Paternal job insecurity was significantly related to lack of engagement ( $\beta = .25, p < .05$ ). However, in the sub-sample for sons, paternal job insecurity was related to neither support ( $\beta = -.13, ns$ ) nor interference ( $\beta = -.01, ns$ ). Moreover, although support was not significantly related to sons' career self-efficacy ( $\beta = -.01, ns$ ), both lack of engagement and interference was significantly and negatively related to sons' career self-efficacy (for lack of engagement,  $\beta = -.19, p < .05$ ; for interference,  $\beta = -.16, p < .05$ ). Finally, direct effect of paternal job insecurity on youths' career self-efficacy was not significant ( $\beta = .16, ns$ ).

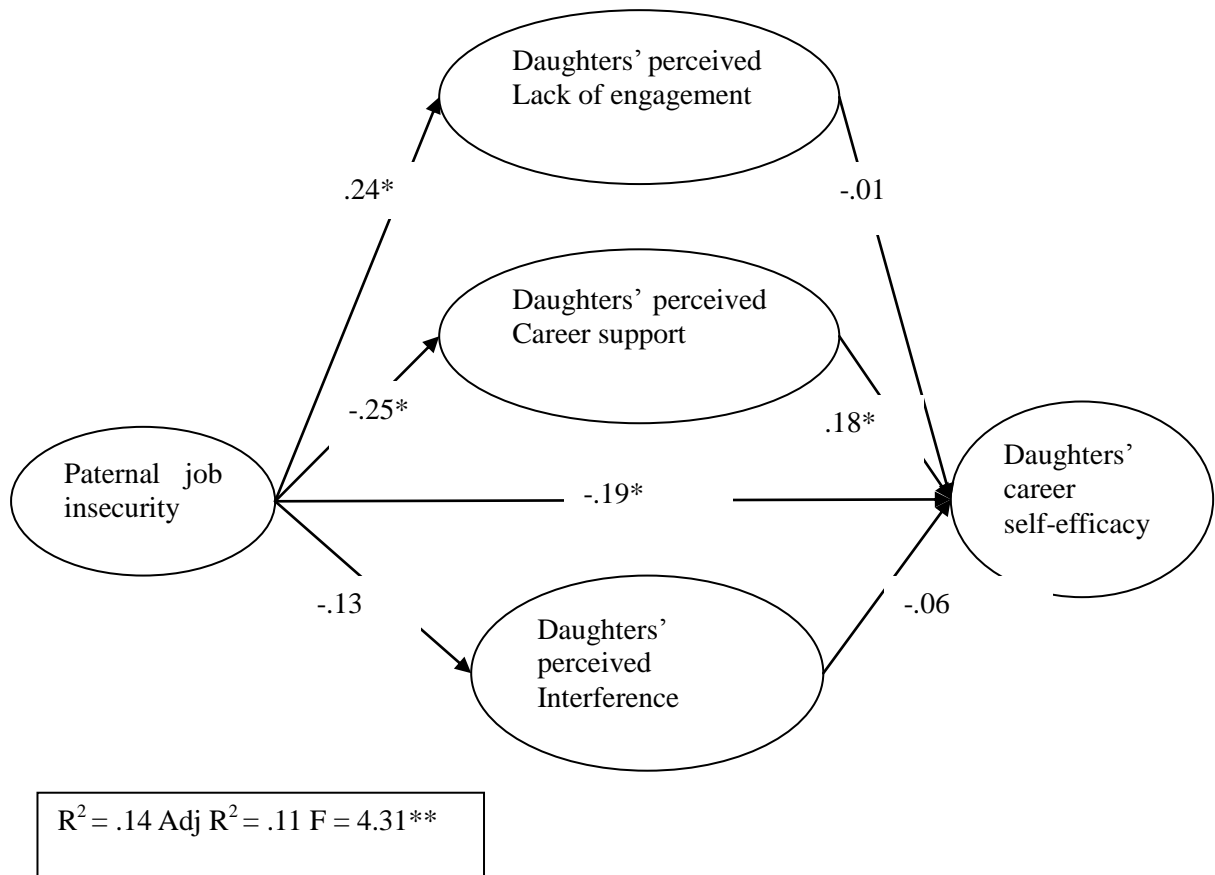
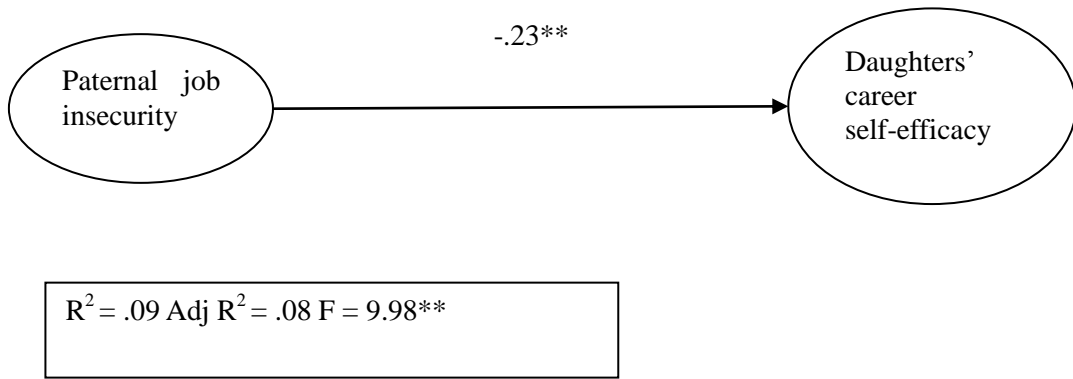
F statistics of the model was significant ( $F = 2.65, p < .05$ ), meaning that the three types of parenting behaviors as a whole mediate the relationship between paternal job insecurity and sons' career self-efficacy. Moreover, the bootstrap analysis produced confidence intervals for the indirect effects ( $a_i b_i$ ) of three mediators: lack of engagement (-.17 to .00), support (-.03 to .06), and interference (-.05 to .06). Only lack of engagement had a confidence interval excluding 0, suggesting that the mediation was mainly through sons' perceived paternal lack of engagement.

Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported in the sub-sample for sons. Lack of engagement mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and sons' career self-efficacy. According to Zhao et al.'s (2010) typology, because  $c'$  is not significant, the mediation of lack of support in sons' model is indirect-only mediation. Fathers who perceive job insecurity are more likely to withdraw from participating in their sons' career development. Sons who perceive fathers' lack of engagement tend to have lower level of career self-efficacy.

#### **4.4.3.3 Results for the Sub-sample: Daughters**

For the sub sample of daughters, regression result showed that father's job insecurity was negatively and significantly related to daughters' career self-efficacy. ( $\beta = -.23, p < .01$ ). Hence, the total effect from paternal job insecurity to daughters' career self-efficacy was  $-.23$ . Figure 4.6 presents the results for daughters' sample.

**Figure 4.6 Result of multiple-mediator model—Sub sample: daughters (N = 110)**





Paternal job insecurity was significantly related to both lack of engagement ( $\beta = .24, p < .05$ ) and career support ( $\beta = -.25, p < .05$ ) but not significantly related to interference ( $\beta = -.13, ns$ ). Moreover, paternal career support was significantly and positively related to daughters' career self-efficacy ( $\beta = .18, p < .05$ ). However, neither lack of engagement ( $\beta = -.01, ns$ ) nor interference ( $\beta = -.06, ns$ ) was significantly related to daughters' career self-efficacy. Finally, direct effect of paternal job insecurity on daughters' career self-efficacy was still significant, but with less magnitude ( $\beta = -.19, p < .05$ ).

F statistics of the model was significant ( $F = 4.31, p < .01$ ), meaning that the three types of parenting behaviors as a whole mediate the relationship between paternal job insecurity and daughters' career self-efficacy. Moreover, the bootstrap analysis produced confidence intervals for the indirect effects ( $a_i b_i$ ) of three mediators: lack of engagement (-.05 to .04), support (-.13 to .00), and interference (-.01 to .06). Only support had a confidence interval excluding 0, suggesting that the mediation was mainly through daughters' perceived paternal career support.

Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported in the sub-sample for daughters. Career support mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and daughters' career self-efficacy. According to Zhao et al.'s (2010) typology, because  $c'$  is significant and positive, and  $a \times b \times c'$  is positive, the mediation of support in daughters' model is complementary mediation. Fathers who perceive job insecurity are less likely to provide career related support to their daughters. Daughters who perceive less paternal career support tend to have lower level of career self-efficacy.

#### **4.5 DISCUSSION OF ESSAY TWO**

Literature on job insecurity has shown that employees' job insecurity influences their emotions at home and behaviors toward their children (e.g., Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). Literature on youths' career development has also shown that different types of parenting behaviors have different impact on youths' career development (e.g., Altman, 1997; Diemer, 2007; Kracke, 2002; Vignoli et al., 2005). However, research have seldom linked these two streams of literature and studied the impact of parental job insecurity on youths' career development via parenting behaviors. To fill this gap, this study focuses on testing the mediating effect of parenting behaviors on the relationship between job insecurity and youths' career development.

Previous research that examined the impact of parenting behaviors on youths' career development often focus on general parenting behavior (e.g., Kracke, 2002; Lim & Loo, 2003; Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005). Among a few studies that investigated career-specific parenting behaviors, attention has often been paid to career support (e.g., Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Neblett & Cortina, 2006). Only recently, based on rich information from previous qualitative studies, Dietrich and Kracke (2009) distinguished three types of career-specific parenting behaviors: lack of engagement, support and interference. I adopt this categorization and propose a multiple-mediator model in this study.

Results of factor analysis confirmed the factorial structure of career-specific parenting behaviors. Similar to Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) result, lack of engagement and support were negatively correlated but still appeared as distinct constructs. This confirmed the expectation that lack of engagement is viewed as negative while support is viewed as positive by youths. Moreover, the results also

showed that lack of engagement is not merely the opposite of support. Lack of engagement captures the parenting style that parents do not participate, do not care about, and show ignorance in youths' career development. Hence, in Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) categorization, lack of engagement is an even worse parenting style than no support.

Dietrich and Krack (2009) found that lack of engagement and interference were positively correlated and explained that "this association may have appeared because participants appraised parents' behavior only on a good-bad dimension" (p116). Different from Dietrich and Krack's (2009) finding, lack of engagement and interference were only correlated for sons' sub-sample and the correlation is negative. It seems that daughters in this study can clearly distinguish "non-action" (i.e., lack of engagement) from "action" (i.e., interference) even though they are both negative actions. Sons, perceiving lack of engagement and interference to be positively correlated, do not seem to appraise parents' behavior by the "good-bad" dimension as their Western counterparts.

In contrast to Dietrich and Krack's (2009) finding that support and interference were not correlated, data from the current study showed that they were positively correlated, for both sons and daughters. It seems that the boundary of two types of "actions", support and interference, is not so clear. The result in this study reflects the relationship between authoritative and authoritarian parenting behaviors. Authoritative parenting behavior is characterized by not only monitoring and authority but also warmth and autonomy (Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004). In contrast, authoritarian parenting behavior refers to the demonstration of strict parental control, with minimal parental participation and support for the children (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). Both authoritative and authoritarian parenting behaviors involve some extent

of guidance and request. The difference lies in the fact that authoritative parents provide explanation and autonomy while authoritarian parents try to manipulate their children's actions and choices. As a result, previous research reveals that authoritative parenting behaviors benefit youths' career development (Kracke, 2002; Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004) while authoritarian parenting behaviors have negative impact on youths (Lim & Loo, 2003). In this study, supportive and interferential career-specific parenting behaviors are positively correlated because both parenting types involve some actions. However, they are still different types of parenting behaviors and have opposite effect on youths' career development depending on whether youths perceive warmth or lack of autonomy from parents' actions.

The relationship among three types of career-specific parenting behaviors also reflects the Singapore culture. As I mentioned in Chapter One, Singapore is a competitive country characterized by *Kiasuism* culture, and parents tend to have high expectation of their children in academic and career performance. Like the Chinese parents in other countries, Singaporean parents often impose such high expectation to their children, explicitly (by forcing children to study and monitor their study closely) or implicitly (by reminding them the importance of "being prepared for the world") (Chua, 2010). It is also quite common that parents make important decisions for their children (Ho et al., 1998). Moreover, influenced by the Chinese traditional culture, Singapore children tend to be more obedient to their parents and take their advice seriously. As a result, the boundary between interference and support is not clear for Singaporean children. Different from their Western peers who interpret parents' interference as negative, Singaporean children may interpret interfering parenting behaviors as "for my good".

Dietrich and Krack's (2009) scale was developed based on the theories that are

deeply grounded on the research conducted in the West and was first tested among a group of Western youths. Although it provides a useful categorization of career-specific parenting behaviors that can help us better understand the role of parents in youths' career development, there is no research to prove if it is suitable for Asian samples. This dissertation provides some preliminary evidence of the validity of the three-factor scale among a group of Singaporean youths. However, it also shows some differences in the correlations among three factors that may be due to the cultural differences. More research is needed to understand the extent to which this scale is also applicable in the East and whether it is necessary to develop an scale that can measure Asian parents' career-specific parenting behaviors.

The hypotheses testing results are summarized in Table 4.8. Consistent with the expectation, the results show that fathers' job insecurity has impact on two types of career-specific parenting behaviors: lack of engagement and support. Those fathers who perceive job insecurity are more likely to lack engagement in children's career development and less likely to provide support for their children. The results confirm that job insecurity can and does spillover to the family domain and cause negative career-specific parenting behaviors.

**Table 4.8 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results for Essay Two**

<b>Hypotheses</b>		<b>Results</b>		
		<b>Full Sample</b>	<b>Sub Sample: Sons</b>	<b>Sub Sample: Daughters</b>
Hypothesis 1a	Paternal job insecurity is <b>positively</b> related to youths' perceived lack of engagement from father.	Supported	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 1b	Paternal job insecurity is <b>negatively</b> related to youths' perceived career support from father.	Supported	Not supported	Supported
Hypothesis 1c	Paternal job insecurity is <b>positively</b> related to youths' perceived interference from father.	Not supported	Not supported	Not supported
Hypothesis 2a	<b>Lack of engagement</b> mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.	Not supported	Supported	Not supported
Hypothesis 2b	<b>Career support</b> mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.	Not supported	Not supported	Supported
Hypothesis 2c	<b>Interference</b> mediates the relationship between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy.	Not supported	Not supported	Not supported

However, paternal job insecurity has no impact on interference. It seems that not all the job insecure fathers will impose their career ideas to their children. Maybe some job insecure fathers feel unable to guide children's career development and choose to withdraw from participating their children's career development. Some job insecure fathers may even encourage their children to pursue their career goals, especially if their children also aim to pursue a secure job as they expected. The relationship between paternal job insecurity and their interference parenting behavior is complicated; more research is needed to find out possible factors that moderates the relationship. One possible moderator may be goal (mis)alignment. Job insecure fathers are more likely to interfere when their children have career goals that are different from what they expect. Because of the stress, job insecure fathers may not be able to control their negative emotions and may not have the patience to listen to and discuss with their children. Therefore, when there is goal misalignment, job insecure fathers are likely to interfere with their children's career decisions and make their children feel manipulation and lack of autonomy.

The multiple-mediator testing results showed that for sons and daughters, the parenting styles that mediate the relationship between paternal job insecurity and career self-efficacy are different. Sub-sample analysis for sons showed that lack of engagement was the only significant mediator. Fathers' job insecurity is positively related with lack of engagement, which in turn, negatively influences sons' career self-efficacy. In contrast, in the daughters' sample, support was the only significant mediator. Fathers' job insecurity is negatively related to career support which has a significant positive impact on daughters' career self-efficacy.

The finding is interesting because it reveals gender differences in need for career support and interpreting of parenting behaviors. Society has different gender

role expectations for adolescent sons and daughters. Daughters are expected to establish connectedness and communion and be more relationship-oriented (Cross & Madson, 1997). In contrast, sons are expected to establish assertion and demonstrate masculinity and competitiveness (Nurmi, 2001). This is especially so in a society like Singapore, which is influenced by Chinese culture that puts much emphasis on family value and gender role differences. As a result, paternal support is very important for daughters' career development. Moreover, daughters are likely to interpret fathers' advice and help as positive support. For sons, it is definitely not good if fathers show no interest and do not participate in their career development at all. However, it seems that sons have a higher desire for autonomy and they sometimes interpret fathers' advice and help as negative interference. This may be because of the psychological characteristics of adolescent boys. Research found that during adolescence, boys show more excessive autonomy strivings and they fear for over control and emotional intrusion by parents (Levpuscek, 2006). The data in this study shows that the correlation between support and interference was higher and more significant for sons than for daughters, meaning the boundary between career support and interference is more blurred for sons. The finding is also consistent with Dietrich and Kracke's (2009) finding that sons reported less support and more interference.



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## CHAPTER FIVE: GENERAL DISCUSSION

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### 5.1 CONCLUSIONS

With the economic downturn, job insecurity has become a severe stressor for working employees. Job insecurity is different from job loss in that it is related to a sense of *uncertainty*. Perceived job insecurity is negatively related to one's physical and psychological health as well as work performance. Moreover, the impact of job insecurity can cross the boundary to the family domain and influence one's interaction with family members. The findings of this dissertation show that employees' job insecurity has a potential negative impact on their children's career development. Both Essay 1 and Essay 2 find that parental job insecurity and parenting behaviors have impact on youths' career self-efficacy. Essay 1 provides further evidence that youths' career self-efficacy has an impact of youths' future work selves.

Moreover, this dissertation also investigates the mechanism through which parents' work experience influence their children. In this dissertation, I focus on the mechanism of parenting behaviors. I found that job insecurity has an impact on career-specific parenting behaviors, which, in turn, influences youths' career self-efficacy and perceived future work selves. Essay 1 shows that parental job insecurity influences youths' perceived career support, which, in turn, influences youths' career self-efficacy. Essay 2 further explores the mediating effect of different types of career-specific parenting behaviors. Results of Essay 2 show that job insecurity has direct impact on lack of engagement and support, which, in turn, influences youths' career self-efficacy.

While one motivation to study job insecurity was the recent economic crisis, it is important to note that job insecurity remains relevant even in times of economic

security. With the current severe economic downturn and pervasive layoff, downsizing and restructurings in organizations, leading to the impermanence of jobs or job features, it is likely that job insecurity will be salient to most employees in the next few years. In accord with this organizational trend, results of this study suggest that there is indeed value in focusing on the relationship between job insecurity and psychological capital as the impact of job insecurity cross the boundary to influence the psychological capital of future employees.

## **5.2 CONTRIBUTIONS**

Table 5.1 summarizes the theoretical contributions and practical implications of the current dissertation. In this section, I summarize the theoretical contributions; in the next section, I summarize the practical implications.

First, when it comes to financial crisis and/or economic downturn, attention is usually paid to those who lose their jobs. By focusing on job insecurity, this dissertation brings scholarly attention to the negative impact of job insecurity. It also extends the job insecurity literature by showing the negative impact of job insecurity on job insecure employees' children. Moreover, the findings of the dissertation may have implication to other work-related stressors as they may also have similar negative impact on employees' children.

**Table 5.1 Summary of the Contributions of This Dissertation**

Existing literature	This dissertation	Contributions and Implications
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- There is relatively less attention to job insecurity compared to job loss/unemployment, especially when it comes to the impact of economic depression or financial crisis.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Focused on job insecurity in the time of financial crisis.</li> <li>-- Found that job insecurity can spillover to the family domain.</li> <li>-- Found that job insecurity has a “long-arm” effect on employee’s children.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Brings scholarly attention to the negative impact of job insecurity during financial crisis</li> <li>-- Extends the job insecurity literature by showing its impact on employees’ family members: their children.</li> <li>-- Has implications for the research on other work-related stressors as they may also have the “long-arm” effect on employees’ children.</li> <li>-- Empirical contribution: using multi-source survey to avoid measurement bias.</li> <li>-- Practical implication: during financial crisis, managers should pay attention to the “survivors”.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- The literature on job insecurity and the literature on youths’ career development are independent of each other.</li> <li>-- The job insecurity literature has not examined the impact of parental job insecurity on youths’ career development.</li> <li>-- The literature on youths’ career development seems to assume that that parenting behavior is independent of work stress</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Linked the two streams of literature by showing that:                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) parental job insecurity influences the provision of career-specific support, which has an impact on youths’ career self-efficacy; career self-efficacy is positively related to youths’ future work selves (Essay 1).</li> <li>b) paternal job insecurity is positively related to lack of engagement and negatively related to career support; lack of engagement is negatively related to sons’ career self-efficacy while career support is positively related to daughters’ career self-efficacy (Essay 2).</li> </ul> </li> <li>-- Using social cognitive career theory to link the two streams of literature.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Advances the job insecurity literature by linking it to the literature of youths’ career development and shows the impact.</li> <li>-- Extends the literature on youths’ career development by showing the impact of parental job insecurity.</li> <li>-- Tests and confirms the argument of social cognitive theory that external environment (including family and parents) has an impact on youths’ career development (Essay 1 and Essay 2) and such impact is through youths’ career self-efficacy (Essay 1).</li> <li>-- Empirical contribution: using structural equation model to examine the mechanism.</li> <li>-- Practical implication: managers should be mindful that the impact of job insecurity goes beyond the work domain and will ultimately influence the career development of future employees.</li> </ul>

Existing literature	This dissertation	Contributions and Implications
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- When examine the impact of one person's stress on family members, crossover mechanism is often assumed.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Examined the mechanism from parental job insecurity to youths' career development via parenting behaviors.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Contributes to our understanding of how parental work-related stress influence youths' career development.</li> <li>-- Practical implication: different parenting behaviors have different impact on youths' career development.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Has not studied future work self as an dependent variable</li> <li>-- Has not studied the impact of parenting behavior on youths' future work selves</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Found evidence that youths' perception of future work selves is influenced by their parents' job insecurity via career support and youths' self-efficacy (Essay 1).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Advances our knowledge of youths' career development by examining the antecedents of youths' future work selves.</li> <li>-- Practical implication: future work self is one's psychological capital, which motivates him/her engage in proactive career management behaviors that will ultimately lead to future career success.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- The majority of studies focused on the impact of parent-children relationship or general parenting behavior</li> <li>-- When studying the impact of career-specific parenting behaviors, researchers often focus on parental career support</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Studied three types of career-specific parenting behaviors simultaneously: lack of engagement, support, and interference (Essay 2).</li> <li>-- Examined the mediating effect of career-specific parenting behaviors between paternal job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy (Essay 2).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Contributes the literature on youths' career development by identifying three types of career-specific parenting behaviors.</li> <li>-- Advances the job insecurity literature by examining the mechanism through which it affects youths' career development.</li> <li>-- Empirical contribution: using multiple-mediator analysis to examine the three types of career-specific parenting behaviors simultaneously.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Relatively less research in Asia</li> <li>-- Seldom discussed context</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Was conducted in Singapore, right after the lowest peak of financial crisis.</li> <li>-- Discussed three cultural characteristics and their potential influence on the current study: meritocracy, <i>kiasuism</i> and family value.</li> <li>-- Discussed the gender difference and its potential influence on parents' expectation on children (Essay 2).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-- Contributes to the relative research fields by conducting the study in Singapore, a country with the influence of both East and West.</li> <li>-- Echoes the call for more research that takes into account the context.</li> <li>-- Practical implication: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Managers in Singapore should consider the cultural factors when managing employees, especially during financial crisis.</li> <li>b) Managers in Singapore should be aware of the society's mixed feeling toward gender egalitarian/differences.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

Second, literature review suggests that two streams of research, research on job insecurity and research on career development have developed separately. On one hand, although job insecurity literature suggests that job insecurity may have negative impact on employees' children (Barling et al., 1998; Lim & Sng, 2006); this stream of literature has not examined the impact of parental job insecurity on youths' career development. On the other hand, although career development theories suggest that parents play an important role in youths' career development, this stream of literature has not examined whether and how parental work experience influences youths' career development.

Applying social cognitive career theory, this dissertation links these two streams of literature and shows that: a) parental job insecurity influences the provision of career-specific support, which has an impact on youths' career self-efficacy; career self-efficacy is positively related to youths' future work selves (Essay 1); and b) paternal job insecurity is positively related to the lack of engagement and negatively related to career support; the lack of engagement is negatively related to sons' career self-efficacy while career support is positively related to daughters' career self-efficacy. This dissertation advances the job insecurity literature linking it to the literature of youths' career development and shows the impact. It also extends the literature on youths' career development by showing the impact of parental job insecurity. Moreover, this dissertation tests and confirms the argument of social cognitive theory that external environment (including family and parents) has an impact on youths' career development (Essay 1 and Essay 2) and such impact is through youths' career self-efficacy (Essay 1).

Third, previous literature that examines the impact of job insecurity on children often uses the crossover effect to explain the mechanism i.e., parental job

insecurity impacts youths through youths' perception of parents' stress and attitudes (Barling et al., 1998; Barling et al., 1999; Barling & Mendelson, 1999; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006). In this dissertation, based on social cognitive career theory, I explain that the impact can be through career-specific parenting behaviors. By showing the mediating effect of career-specific parenting behaviors on the relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career self-efficacy, this dissertation advances our understanding of the mechanism through which parental work-related stress influences youths' career development.

Fourth, this dissertation also contributes to our knowledge of youths' career development by studying youths' future career selves and examine their antecedents. Future work self can be viewed as one's psychological capital and the value of it can be explained by goal setting theory and self-prophecy theories (Locke & Latham, 1990). In Essay One of this dissertation, the factorial structure of future work self is confirmed; the antecedents of future work self are examined; moreover, I also found that while the accessibility and importance dimensions are positively related to career self-efficacy, exclusiveness dimension is not. The findings suggest that future work self is an important concept to study and future research effort is needed to better understand the factorial structure, antecedents and consequences of it.

Fifth, this dissertation contributes to research on youths' career development and our understanding of the mechanism through which job insecurity influences youths' career development, by studying three types of career-specific career behaviors simultaneously. As I reviewed in Section 2.3, existing studies, when examining the impact of parents on youths' career development, usually focus on the parent-child relationship or general parenting behaviors (e.g., O'Brien et al., 2000; Vignoli et al., 2005). Some studies that examine career-specific parenting behavior

only focus on one kind of such behavior: career support (e.g., Neblett & Cortina, 2006). In Essay Two of this dissertation, I examine the factorial construct as well as the mediating effect of three types of career-specific parenting behaviors, lack of engagement, support and interference, and found the differences among them. It contributes to the literature on youth's career development by identifying three types of career-specific parenting behaviors and their impact; it can be considered as a first step for future study on parenting behaviors that may influence youths' career development.

Sixth, echoing the call for management research to take into account the influence of context when developing theories (Barney, 2009; Tsui, 2009), this study discusses the potential impact of context, which consists of both timing and location. Previous research on job insecurity and career development was seldom conducted in Asia and contextual influence is seldom discussed. This dissertation is conducted in Singapore right after the peak of financial crisis. Hence, it is a right timing to study the impact of job insecurity. Moreover, the models developed in this dissertation are influenced by three dimensions of the Singapore culture: especially the meritocracy, *kiasuism* and family value. Although I do not test the cultural impact or compare cultural differences directly in this dissertation, it is important to keep in mind the contextual influence when interpreting the findings. The findings of the current study contributes to our understanding of how parental job insecurity impact youths' career environment in Asia.

Apart from the theoretical contribution, I would like to also highlight the empirical contributions of the current dissertation. First of all, instead of collecting self-report data from a single source, this study adopts a multi-source methodology and avoids the potential problems that may be caused by single-source survey.

Moreover, two advanced data analysis methods were used in two essays separately. In Essay One, a structural model was developed to examine the paths through which parental job insecurity influence the career support they provide, which in turn, influences youths' career self-efficacy and three dimensions of future work selves. The structural equation model is suitable for Essay One hypotheses testing because it allows testing multiple relationships together while considering the overall model fit. In Essay Two, the multiple-mediator model was applied to test the mediating effect of three types of career-specific parenting behaviors: lack of engagement, career support and interference. This methodology allows the testing of more than multiple mediators while taking into account of the relative strengths of each mediating relationship.

### **5.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

Besides theoretical contributions, this dissertation also provides important implications for organizational practices. First, this dissertation suggests that during financial crisis or organizational layoff, organizations should pay attention not only to “victims” but also to “survivors” Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt & O'Malley, 1987). Job insecurity is as stressful as job loss and has impact on employees' children, future employees and as a result, rganization should try to reduce the negative impact of job insecurity. For example, organizations can reduce the uncertainty level by increasing the transparency of the information regarding organizational performance and possible layoff plan. Moreover, if there has to be layoff, it is important to make sure that the procedure is conducted in a fair way. If employees perceive justice, they will experience less powerlessness and insecurity and hence, less stress.

Second, findings of this study suggest that the effects of job insecurity yield



significant consequences for the children of job-insecure employees. The results are consistent with those of earlier studies (e.g., Barling et al., 1998; Barling & Mendelson, 1999; Lim & Loo, 2003; Lim & Sng, 2006) that suggest that individuals who were exposed to potential unemployment manifest negative work values and attitudes and that parental job insecurity negatively affect youths' motivation to work. As the youths in our study are poised to enter the workforce, this is a potential and salient cause of concern for organizations.

Results of this dissertation demonstrate the potential adverse consequences that job insecurity entails for both employees and their children. Hence, employers should be mindful that in the event that layoffs are inevitable, organizations can endeavor to minimize feelings of uncertainty for their employees by providing them with job assistance programs. Organizations can also consider the possibility of helping their employees cope financially by allowing them to continue to work, albeit at reduced level and income, to ensure that they do not lose their entire source of income.

Third, findings in this study also have implications for parenting adolescents. Youths are at a very important stage during which they experience biological, psychological, and contextual changes and face many challenges. It is also a time during which they prepare to be independent, enter adulthood and join the workplace. Parents play important role during this period (Holmbeck, Paikoff, & Brooks-Gunn, 1995). Consistent with previous research (e.g., Diemer, 2007; Krack, 2002; Neblett & Cortina, 2006; Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005), this study suggests that to benefit youths' career development it is important for parents to show interest and care, as well as to provide support and autonomy. Moreover, this study suggests that parents should take gender differences into account when parenting

youths. For daughters, it is important to show warmth while for sons, some extent of autonomy is critical.

Fourth, career self-efficacy is an important characteristic that predicts career interest, choice and success. The findings of this study confirm the prediction of social cognitive career theory that one's career development is influenced by external factors. Future work selves are youths' psychological capital that motivates proactive career management behaviors. Parents, schools and society should help youths build up their self-efficacy and find out career interest and aspiration. When youths have a clear picture of their future work selves, they are more motivated and more likely to succeed in a competitive work environment.

Finally, employees, managers and parents should all be aware of the contextual influence. Three dimensions of cultural characteristics, meritocracy, *kiasuism* and family value, are not unique to Singapore but common seen in many Asian cultures. Organizations in such cultural environment can help create a healthy platform for competition so that employees can benefit from competition and collectively contribute to the organizational performance. Managers should also understand employees' need for certainty and provide them more information whenever possible. Employees should try to bring positive rather than negative working experience to the family domain, so that family members are happy and children can also build up a more positive attitude towards work and career.

#### **5.4 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS**

A limitation of this study is that data were collected at a single point of time, thus, precluding definite causal inferences about the relationships among variables. Hence, the results should be interpreted within this boundary condition. Longitudinal

studies are necessary for more rigorous tests of causal direction. Despite this limitation, a key strength of this study is that data were obtained from multiple sources, i.e., fathers, mothers, and their children. I emphasized to the subjects that fathers, mothers and youths should complete the surveys independently. This method of data collection helps me to overcome exclusive reliance on single source reports and helps to mitigate the potential problem of common method bias.

As noted earlier, for the purpose of this study, I have focused on dual-earner heterosexual and intact families to examine the hypothesized research models. Whether the conclusion of this dissertation is applicable to the US or other Western families is beyond the scope of the current study, though a review of studies in the West does show that similar patterns can be found in the West. However, it is a limitation of the current study that it does not include single-parent families. Previous research noted that when only one parent is present or employed, the parent are likely to transmit all the effects of job insecurity on the child (Barling & Mendelson, 1999). Moreover, single-parent families function quite differently from dual-earner families. A valuable step for future research therefore would be to examine the hypotheses in single-parent/single-income families.

Although I discuss the context of the study and several cultural factors that may influence the variables as well as their relationships, a limitation of the study is that the constructs are mainly from the Western research. It is not my aim to develop new constructs for the current dissertation; however, the results show that a key construct for this study, career-specific parenting behavior, may not fit the Asian culture completely. Hence, future study is needed to develop a construct of career-specific parenting behavior that uniquely exists in Asian cultures.

Another avenue of future research is to consider the effects of some

moderators. For example, research has found that the extent to which children identify with their parents moderates the effect of perceptions of parents' job insecurity on children's work beliefs (Barling et al., 1998). Thus, future research may examine whether identification with parents impact the relationship between parental job insecurity and youths' career attitudes. Moreover, Bandura et al. (2001) also suggest that parental social economic status and self-efficacy may influence their expectation of children and the way they guide their children. Hence, future research may examine whether parental social economic status and self-efficacy moderate the relationship between job insecurity and their parenting behaviors.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **Appendix I Interview Protocol and Background Survey for Focus Group**

#### **Interview protocol**

1. Greetings. Thank the interviewee for participation.
2. Briefly introduce the purpose of the interview: this is a pilot study of my dissertation that examines the family influence on youths' career attitude. The interview will last about an hour.
3. Guarantee confidentiality: all the information will be used only for research purpose. The interviewer (i.e., I) will be the only one that can access the information.
4. Ask for permission of using a recorder.
5. Part I: interview on career attitude
  - a) Why did you choose the current major? (Anyone influence you? how?)
  - b) Have you ever thought about what you want to do after graduation?
  - c) Have you ever involved in any activity to explore the possible future career?
  - d) Have you decided what to do after college?
    - i. If yes, how confident are you that you will make it?
    - ii. If not, why?
  - e) How important is career to you/your life?
  - f) Do you have a plan for your future career?
  - g) If yes, what is it like? How confident are you about your future career?
  - h) What is your expectation/goal of yourself regarding the future career?
  - i) What factors may block/hamper your future career success?
6. Part II: interview on family influence
  - a) Do your parents talk about their work experience to each other at home?

- b) How is your relationship with your father like?  
How much do you like your father (in lifestyle/belief/personality)?
- c) How is your relationship with your mother like?  
How much do you like your mother (in lifestyle/belief/personality)?
- d) How often do you communicate with your father/mother?
- e) What do you usually talk about with your father/mother?  
How often do you spend time together with your father/mother?
- f) What do you usually do when you are with your father/mother?  
To whom do you talk more, mother or father?
- g) Does your father/mother talk about his work-related issues to you?
- h) What is your father's/mother's general attitude toward work/career?
- i) What is your father's/mother's expectation of you?
- j) Do you talk with your father/mother about your future career? How often? What does he/she usually say (what's his/she attitude)?
- k) How does your father/mother influence your career decision (support/interfere/no engage)?
- l) How is the financial situation of your family? Any difficulty?
- m) Does the financial crisis affect the family? If so, how?
- n) What other factors influence their career decisions besides their parents?
- o) If you think none of your parent has any impact on your career, is there anyone else that has a significant influence on you? If yes, who? How?

### Background Survey

1. Gender: \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Age: \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Year of study: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Faculty: \_\_\_\_\_ Major of study: \_\_\_\_\_
5. Ethnic Group:  Chinese  Malay  Indian  Eurasian  Others, \_\_\_\_\_
6. Religion:  Christian  Buddhist  Muslim  Hindu  Others, \_\_\_\_\_
7. How many people are there in your family? Who are they?

	Relationship	Age	Education	Job (monthly income)
1	Father			
2	Mother			
3				
4				
5				
6				

8. Who are you currently living with? \_\_\_\_\_
9. Please state how much time you spend talking/ interacting with your parents on an average week:  
 Father: \_\_\_\_\_ hours \_\_\_\_\_ minutes  
 Father talks to you about 1) his friends? \_\_\_\_\_ 2) his work? \_\_\_\_\_ 3) others \_\_\_\_\_  
 Mother: \_\_\_\_\_ hours \_\_\_\_\_ minutes  
 Mother talks to me about 1) her friends? \_\_\_\_\_ 2) her work? \_\_\_\_\_ 3) others \_\_\_\_\_

11. Do you have work experience?  No  Yes,  
 If yes, what kind of job? \_\_\_\_\_ how long? \_\_\_\_\_  
 How many hours did you work per week? \_\_\_\_\_ hours/day and \_\_\_\_\_ days/week.

12. How stressful is school work for you?

**Not at all** **Extremely**  
**Stressful** **Stressful**  
 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

13. How confident are you about your school work?

**Not at all**

**Extremely**

**Confident**

**Confident**

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

14. Current Grade Point Average (GPA)? \_\_\_\_\_



**Appendix II**  
**Survey on Parents' Work Experience and Youths' Career Attitude**  
**(Father Version, Mother Version, and Youths' Version)**



## Survey on parents' work experience and youths' career attitudes

Dear respondent,

This study examines the impact of parents' work experience on youths' career attitudes. There is no right or wrong answer. We are interested in your opinions. The results of this survey will have important implications for the theory and practice of organizational management.

As your complete responses are crucial to the final results of the survey, we would appreciate it very much if you could ensure that every question is answered.

Please be assured that your responses are **anonymous** and that the information you provide in this survey will be used **only** for research purposes.

If you have questions about this survey, please contact:

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## SECTION A

We all think about the future to some extent, and we imagine what we could become. We would like to ask you to imagine the future of your work life. Imagine you could travel in time. You travel to the future and can take a look at your future self. Try to go as far ahead into the future as possible, so that you still have a clear image. Imagine what you have hoped for your future work life has become true. Keep the image in mind. What does your future work self do? What is your future work self like? Please write below in at least 50 words what you imagine.

**Example: A medical student's future work self may look like this:**

**"My future work self involves working with patients in private practice. As a doctor in private practice, I would be making a lot of money after serving out my bond. My future work self does not involve remaining in the government public sector as the hours are long, the work demanding and not as lucrative. I would also like to be a specialist and not a general practitioner"**

Please write below what you imagine: My future work self \_\_\_\_\_

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**To what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

	Strongly disagree				neutral			Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. This future is very easy for me to imagine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. The mental picture of this future is very clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. When asked about my future, I will immediately think of this picture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I often think about this possible future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. It is very important for me to make this future become reality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I would very much like this future to become reality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. I plan with this future in mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. I will put effort to make this future come true	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. This is only one of many futures I imagine for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. I see many possible work paths for myself in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. I can imagine many different futures for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. When asked about the future, I have only the above picture in mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. I do NOT see many alternatives for my future work self.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. This is the key future I see for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

## SECTION B

**To what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

	Strongly disagree			neutral			Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I am confident about making decisions related to my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I believe that I can do what I need to do in order to be successful in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am confident in my ability to grow and improve professionally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am confident that I am able to deal with most problems that come up in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am confident in my ability to perform well in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. For my future career, I want to have high occupational reputation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. For my future career, I want to earn a lot of money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. For my future career, I want to have high upward mobility.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. For my future career, I want to have a prestigious job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. For my future career, I want to have good career opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I talk to as many people as possible about career(s) I am interested in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I try to find out about my career interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I try to get information about career(s) I'm interested in in many possible ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I try to find out which career(s) best fit my strengths and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. When I seek information about a career, I also try to find out its negative aspects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I consider various careers and try to get extensive information about all alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them very well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I feel insecure about my ability to do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Failure just makes me try harder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I give up easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I avoid facing difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I give up on things before completing them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I am a self-reliant person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**SECTION C** (please answer both Dad's and Mom's columns)

<b>To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</b>	<b>Dad</b>						<b>Mom</b>							
	Strongly Disagree			neutral			Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree			neutral		Strongly Agree	
1. My Dad/Mom cannot support my career preparation,														
(i) because he/she knows too little about different career options.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii) because he/she is too busy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii) as he/she faces difficulties at work himself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My Dad/Mom is not really interested in my future career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My Dad/Mom doesn't care about my career preparation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My Dad/Mom talks to me about my career interests and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My Dad/Mom encourages me to seek information about careers I am interested in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My Dad/Mom supports me in getting an internship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My Dad/Mom gives advice on the choice of careers available.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My Dad/Mom talks to me about internship opportunities in various organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My Dad/Mom has his/her own ideas about my future career and tries to influence me accordingly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My Dad/Mom interferes too much with my career preparation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My Dad/Mom tries to force his/her ideas on what career I should be in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My Dad/Mom would talk me out of a career he/she doesn't like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My Dad/Mom tries to push me in a certain direction regarding my future career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**SECTION D** (please answer both Dad's and Mom's columns)

**How often does your Dad/Mom experience the following emotions about his/her work?**

	<b>Dad</b>					<b>Mom</b>				
	Not at all				Very Much	Not at all				Very Much
(a) happy	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(b) proud	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(c) love	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(d) fun	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(e) afraid	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(f) hate	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(g) ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(h) sad	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(i) angry	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(j) disgusted	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION E** (please answer both Dad's and Mom's columns)

<i>To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</i>	<b>Dad</b>							<b>Mom</b>						
	Strongly Disagree	neutral					Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	neutral					Strongly Agree
1. My personality is like my Dad's/Mom's.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My lifestyle is like my Dad's/Mom's.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I share common beliefs/attitudes with my Dad/Mom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. In general, I am like my Dad/Mom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My Dad/Mom often talks to me about his/her work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**SECTION F** (please answer both Dad's and Mom's columns)

<i>To what extent do you engage in the following with your Dad/Mom?</i>	<b>Dad</b>							<b>Mom</b>						
	Never			Often				Never			Often			
1. Discuss career plans with your Dad/Mom?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Talk seriously about career options with your Dad/Mom?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Discuss plans for future careers with your Dad/Mom?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Discuss career possibilities with your Dad/Mom?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**SECTION G**

1. How much does your <u>Dad</u> go out of his way to make your life easier?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Are you at ease when you are talking to your <u>Dad</u> ?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How much can you rely on your <u>Dad</u> when things get tough?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How much is your <u>Dad</u> willing to listen to your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How much does your <u>Mom</u> go out of her way to make your life easier?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Are you at ease when you are talking to your <u>Mom</u> ?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How much can you rely on your <u>Mom</u> when things get tough?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How much is your <u>Mom</u> willing to listen to your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How much do your <u>friends</u> go out of their way to make your life easier?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Are you at ease when you are talking to your <u>friends</u> ?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. How much can you rely on your <u>friends</u> when things get tough?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. How much are your <u>friends</u> willing to listen to your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION H

***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree				neutral			Strongly Agree
1. My family generally helps one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. There's a feeling of togetherness in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. Someone in family takes time to talk about things that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I can always turn to someone in my family for help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. Someone in my family takes an interest in the things I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. There is a lot of yelling and fighting in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Someone is always upset or angry in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. People hit each other in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. It is hard to settle problems in my family without fighting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. People in my house have been known to throw things at each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

## SECTION I

***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree				neutral			Strongly Agree
1. A worker should feel some responsibility to do a decent job whether or not his/her supervisor is around.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. A person should feel a sense of pride in his/her work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. People want to do their best in their jobs, even if sometimes it means working overtime.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. If a person can get away with it, he/she should try to work as little as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. The best job a worker can get is one which permits him/her to do almost nothing during the working day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. A worker who does a sloppy job ought to feel a little ashamed of himself/herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Doing a good job should mean as much to a worker as a good paycheck.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. If I had the chance, I'd go through life without ever working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

## SECTION J

***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION K

***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly disagree		Neutral			Strongly agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I achieve high grades in relation to my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I regard my academic work as top priority.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Employers are eager to employ graduates from my university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The status of this university is a significant asset to me in job seeking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Employers specifically target this university in order to recruit individuals from my subject area(s).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My university has an outstanding reputation in my field(s) of study.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. A lot more people apply for a place in my faculty than there are places available.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My chosen subject(s) rank(s) highly in terms of social status.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. People in the career I am aiming for are in high demand in the external labor market.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My degree is seen as leading to a specific career that is generally perceived as highly desirable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. There is generally a strong demand for graduates at the present time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. There are plenty of job vacancies in the geographical area where I am looking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I can easily find out about opportunities in my chosen field.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The skills and abilities that I possess are what employers are looking for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I am generally confident of success in job interviews and selection events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I feel I could get any job so long as my skills and experience are reasonably relevant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION L

***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree		neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My career in the future is an important part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My career in the future has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my career in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I strongly identify with my chosen career in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The costs associated with my career in the future sometimes seem too great.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Given the problems I encounter in my career in the future, I sometimes wonder if I get enough out of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Given the problems in my career in the future, I sometimes wonder if the personal burden is worth it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The discomforts associated with my career in the future sometimes seem too great.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I do not have a strategy for achieving my goals in my career in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I have created a plan for my development in my career in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I do not identify specific goals for my development in my career in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I do not often think about my personal development in my career in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7







## Survey on parents' work experience and youths' career attitudes

Dear respondent,

This study examines the impact of parents' work experience on youths' career attitudes. There is no right or wrong answer. We are interested in your opinions. The results of this survey will provide important insights on the influence of parents on youths' career attitude.

You can choose to fill in either the English **OR** the Chinese version of the survey. Some questions ask you about "your child". It refers to the child who gave this questionnaire to you.

As your complete responses are crucial to the final results of the survey, we would appreciate it very much if you could ensure that every question is answered.

Please be assured that your responses are **anonymous** and that the information you provide will be used **only** for research purposes.

### 关于父母工作经历和青年人职业态度的问卷

尊敬的受访者，

这份问卷是用来帮助我们了解父母的工作经历和青年人的职业态度。答案没有正确和错误之分，我们只对您的观点感兴趣。这份问卷的结果将对组织管理的理论和实践有重要的意义。

您可以选择英文**或者**中文版本的问卷来回答。它们是一样的。有些问题问到“您的孩子”，这指的是把这份问卷交给您的孩子。

因为完整的回答对整个调查问卷的结果有重要影响，所以我们希望您能认真回答这份问卷的每一个问题。

我们保证您的答案是**匿名**的，您在问卷中提供的信息**只会**用于研究。

Thank you very much. If you have questions about this survey, please contact:

非常感谢您的帮助。如果您对这份问卷有任何疑问，请联系：

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## SECTION A

**To what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My family generally helps one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. There's a feeling of togetherness in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. At least someone in my family takes time to talk about things that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I can always turn to someone in my family for help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Someone in my family takes an interest in the things I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. There is a lot of yelling and fighting in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Someone is always upset or angry in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. People hit each other in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It is hard to settle problems in my family without fighting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. People in my family throw things at each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION B

	Not at all						Very Much
1. Are you at ease when you are talking to your wife?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How much can your wife be relied on when things get tough?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How much is your wife willing to listen to your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. <b>How much does your wife:</b>							
(i) go out of her way to make your life easier for you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii) act in an unpleasant or angry manner toward you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii) make your life difficult?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv) show she dislikes you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v) make you feel unwanted?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi) criticize you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION C

	Not at all difficult						Extremely difficult
1. How difficult is it for you to live on your total household income right now?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Do you have difficulty paying your bills?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>In the next 6-12 months,</b>							
3. to what extent do you expect your family and you will experience actual hardships such as difficulty in paying for medical services, rent or food?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. to what extent do you anticipate to reduce your standard of living?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Not enough to make ends meet						More than enough leftover
5. How much money is usually leftover at the end of each month?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第一部分

您在多大程度上同意以下说法？

	非常不同意	不同意	有些不同意	不同意不反对	有些同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我的家人常常互相帮助.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的家人很团结.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我的家人肯花时间跟我谈对我很重要的事情.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 需要的时候, 我总能向家人寻求帮助.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我的家人关心我做的事情.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我家常常有打骂声.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我家里有人常常很沮丧或生气.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 我家有人会打架.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 在我家要通过争吵才能解决问题.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 家人生气时会互相扔东西.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第二部分

	一点也不						非常
1. 您跟您的妻子交流时感觉轻松自在吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 遇到困难时, 您在多大程度上您能依赖您的妻子?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 您的妻子愿意倾听您的个人问题吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在多大程度上您的妻子会:							
(i) 尽量让您的生活轻松些?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii) 用不高兴或生气的态度对待您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii) 给您的生活带来麻烦?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv) 表现出不喜欢您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v) 让您觉得她不需要您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi) 责备您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第三部分

	一点也不困难						非常困难
1. 目前来讲靠您的家庭总收入生活有困难吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 您家支付账单有困难吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>在接下来的6-12个月,</b>	一点也不						很大程度
3. 您家在多大程度上会支付不起医疗, 房租, 或者食物?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 您家多大程度上可能需要降低生活水平?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	不够用						有充足的结余
5. 您家每个月底通常有多少钱结余?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION D

### ***How certain are you...***

	Very uncertain	uncertain	slightly Uncertain	Neutral	slightly certain	certain	very Certain
1. ...about what your future career picture looks like?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...of the opportunities for promotion and advancement in the next few years?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...about whether your job skills will be of use and value 5 years from now?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...about what your work responsibilities will be 6 months from now?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...that you will <u>NOT</u> be laid off from your job sometime in the future?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### ***In the next 1-2 years, how likely is it that...***

	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Slightly Unlikely	Neutral	Slightly Likely	Likely	Very Likely
1. ...you will be forced into early retirement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...you can keep your job with your present organization?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...your current level of pay will be reduced?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...your current level of benefits will be reduced?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...you will lose your job soon?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION E

### ***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My competence is sought after in the labor market.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I have a contact network that I can use to get a new job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I know of organizations where I could get a job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My personal qualities make it easy for me to get a new job in an organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My experience is in demand on the labor market.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am generally very satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I frequently think of quitting this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION F

### ***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第四部分

**对于以下关于您工作的描述，您有多肯定：**

	非常 不肯定	不肯定	有些 不肯定	中立	有点 肯定	肯定	非常 肯定
1. 关于您未来的职业前景？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 关于您在接下来几年内升迁的机会？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 关于您的工作技能在5年后是否还会有价值？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 关于您6个月后的工作责任？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 关于您将来不会被裁员？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**在接下来的1到2年内，多大可能：**

	非常 不可能	不可能	有些 不可能	中立	有点 可能	可能	非常 可能
1. ...您会被强制提前退休？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...您会继续在现在的公司工作？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...您的薪水会降低？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...您目前的福利会减少？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...您将会失业？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第五部分

**您在多大程度上同意以下说法？**

	非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	不同意 不反对	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
1. 我的工作能力是很多公司需要的.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的人脉关系网络能帮我找到新的工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我知道在哪家公司的我能找到工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 我个人的能力让我很容易找到一个新的工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 很多公司需要我的工作经验.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 总的来说我对我的工作岗位很满意.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我大体上很满意我现在做的这份工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 我常常想辞职.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 大多数相同工作职位的人都觉得这份工作很没意思,无关紧要.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 大多数相同工作职位的人都很满意这份工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第六部分

**您在多大程度上同意以下说法？**

	非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	不同意 不反对	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
1. 我的生活在大多方面都基本上接近我的理想.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的生活条件非常好.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我对我的生活很满意.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 目前为止我已经得到了生活中我想要的重要东西.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 如果能再活一次，我几乎不会做任何改变.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION G

***During the past 6 months, how often did you...***

	Never						Always
1. ...feel full of vigor?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...have a lot of energy?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...feel worn out?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...feel tired?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...have enough energy to do the things you wanted to do?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. ...feel nervous?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. ...feel hopeless?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ...feel restless or fidgety?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. ...feel so depressed that nothing could cheer you up?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. ...feel that everything was an effort?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. ...feel worthless?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

***Do you experience the following?***

	Never						Always
12. You have difficulty sleeping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. You wake up several times during the night.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. You have difficulty staying asleep.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. In the morning, you wake up feeling worn out and tired.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION H

Please state the extent to which these adjectives describe how **you feel when you think about your work situation.**

	Not at All		Very Much				Not at All		Very Much		
(a) happy	1	2	3	4	5	(f) love	1	2	3	4	5
(b) proud	1	2	3	4	5	(g) fun	1	2	3	4	5
(c) afraid	1	2	3	4	5	(h) hate	1	2	3	4	5
(d) ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	(i) sad	1	2	3	4	5
(e) angry	1	2	3	4	5	(j) disgusted	1	2	3	4	5

## SECTION I

1. Your highest education attained

- Primary school   
 Secondary school   
 Pre-U/Junior College  
 Polytechnic   
 Tertiary/University   
 Others, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please report your **own annual** income level:

- Less than \$20,000   
 \$20,000 - \$29,999   
 \$30,000- \$39,999   
 \$40,000 - \$49,999  
 \$50,000- \$59,999   
 \$60,000- \$69,999   
 \$70,000 - \$79,999   
 \$80,000- \$89,999  
 \$90,000 - \$99,999   
 \$100,000- \$109,999   
 \$110,000- \$119,999   
 Above \$120,000

3. Please report your **family annual** income level:

- Less \$40,000   
 \$40,000 - \$59,999   
 \$60,000- \$79,999   
 \$80,000 - \$99,999  
 \$100,000- \$119,999   
 \$120,000- \$139,999   
 \$140,000 - \$159,999   
 \$160,000- \$179,999  
 \$180,000 - \$199,999   
 \$200,000- \$219,999   
 \$220,000- \$239,999   
 Above \$240,000

**(last section to be continued in the next page)**

## 第七部分

在过去的6个月里，您经常会感到…

	从不						总是
1. ...充满活力?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...精力充沛?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...疲倦?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...累?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...有足够的精力去做想做的事情?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. ...紧张?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. ...绝望?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ...不安或烦躁?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. ...太沮丧以至于什么都不能让您愉快起来?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. ...做每一件事情都很费劲?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. ...自己没有价值?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

您有以下的问题吗?

	从不						总是
12. 您很难入睡.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 您晚上会醒来几次.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 您睡不好.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 您早上醒来时觉得很疲倦.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第八部分

当您想到您的工作时，以下形容词在多大程度上代表您的感受，请选择。

	Not at All					Very Much					
(a) 高兴的	1	2	3	4	5	(f) 热爱的	1	2	3	4	5
(b) 骄傲的	1	2	3	4	5	(g) 有乐趣的	1	2	3	4	5
(c) 担心的	1	2	3	4	5	(h) 讨厌的	1	2	3	4	5
(d) 羞愧的	1	2	3	4	5	(i) 难过的	1	2	3	4	5
(e) 生气的	1	2	3	4	5	(j) 厌恶的	1	2	3	4	5

## 第九部分

1. 您的最高学历:     小学         中学         初级学院、高中  
                               理工学院     大学         其他，请指明: \_\_\_\_\_

2. 请问您个人每年的收入是:

<input type="checkbox"/> 少于 \$20,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$29,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000- \$39,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$49,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000- \$59,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000- \$69,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 - \$79,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000- \$89,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$90,000 - \$99,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000- \$109,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$110,000- \$119,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$120,000 以上

3. 请问您全家每年的收入是:

<input type="checkbox"/> 少于\$40,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$59,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000- \$79,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 - \$99,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000- \$119,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$120,000- \$139,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$140,000 - \$159,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$160,000- \$179,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$180,000 - \$199,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$200,000- \$219,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$220,000- \$239,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$240,000 以上

(最后一部分在下页继续)



## SECTION J

1. Age \_\_\_\_\_
2. Ethnic Group:  Chinese  Malay  Indian  Eurasian  Others, please specify \_\_\_\_\_
3. Religion:  Christian  Buddhist  Taoism  Muslim  Hindu  Others, please specify \_\_\_\_\_
4. Please indicate what percentage of the living/household expenses a) you are responsible for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
b) your spouse is responsible for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
c) others, specify \_\_\_\_\_, for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
d) others, specify \_\_\_\_\_, for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
(Total of the above must add up to 100%)
5. Please state the industry you are in: \_\_\_\_\_ Your job title: \_\_\_\_\_  
You have worked \_\_\_\_\_ years in the current company and \_\_\_\_\_ years in this industry.
6. How many hours do you work in an average week? \_\_\_\_\_ hours/day and \_\_\_\_\_ days/week.
7. How stressful is your current job? **Not at all Stressful** **Extremely Stressful**  
1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

## 第十部分

1. 年龄 \_\_\_\_\_
2. 种族:  华族  马来  印度  欧亚  其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_
3. 宗教信仰:  基督教  佛教  道教  穆斯林  印度  其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_
4. 请指出你们家收入来源的百分比: a) 您的贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
b) 您太太的贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
c) 其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_, 贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
d) 其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_, 贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
(以上几项相加必须等于 100%)
5. 您目前工作的行业是: \_\_\_\_\_ 您的工作头衔是: \_\_\_\_\_  
您在目前的公司工作几年了? \_\_\_\_\_ 年。您在目前的行业工作几年了? \_\_\_\_\_ 年。
6. 您每天工作几小时? \_\_\_\_\_ 小时。每周工作天? \_\_\_\_\_ 天。
7. 您的工作压力大吗? **一点儿也不** **压力非常大**  
1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

**Please check that you have completed all the items in this survey. Please be assured that the information you provided will be confidential and used for research only. Thank you!**

请您仔细检查您是否回答了全部的问题。请相信您所给的答案都将严格保密和仅仅用于研究的用途。非常感谢!



## Survey on parents' work experience and youths' career attitudes

Dear respondent,

This study examines the impact of parents' work experience on youths' career attitudes. There is no right or wrong answer. We are interested in your opinions. The results of this survey will provide important insights on the influence of parents on youths' career attitude.

You can choose to fill in either the English **OR** the Chinese version of the survey. Some questions ask you about "your child". It refers to the child who gave this questionnaire to you.

As your complete responses are crucial to the final results of the survey, we would appreciate it very much if you could ensure that every question is answered.

Please be assured that your responses are **anonymous** and that the information you provide will be used **only** for research purposes.

### 关于父母工作经历和青年人职业态度的问卷

尊敬的受访者，

这份问卷是用来帮助我们了解父母的工作经历和青年人的职业态度。答案没有正确和错误之分，我们只对您的观点感兴趣。这份问卷的结果将对组织管理的理论和实践有重要的意义。

您可以选择英文**或者**中文版本的问卷来回答。它们是一样的。有些问题问到“您的孩子”，这指的是把这份问卷交给您的孩子。

因为完整的回答对整个调查问卷的结果有重要影响，所以我们希望您能认真回答这份问卷的每一个问题。

我们保证您的答案是**匿名**的，您在问卷中提供的信息**只会**用于研究。

Thank you very much. If you have questions about this survey, please contact:

非常感谢您的帮助。如果您对这份问卷有任何疑问，请联系：

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## SECTION A

**To what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My family generally helps one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. There's a feeling of togetherness in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. At least someone in my family takes time to talk about things that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I can always turn to someone in my family for help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Someone in my family takes an interest in the things I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. There is a lot of yelling and fighting in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Someone is always upset or angry in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. People hit each other in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It is hard to settle problems in my family without fighting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. People in my family throw things at each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION B

	Not at all						Very Much
1. Are you at ease when you are talking to your husband?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How much can your husband be relied on when things get tough?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How much is your husband willing to listen to your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. <b>How much does your husband:</b>							
(i) go out of his way to make your life easier for you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii) act in an unpleasant or angry manner toward you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii) make your life difficult?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv) show he dislikes you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v) make you feel unwanted?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi) criticize you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION C

	Not at all difficult						Extremely difficult
1. How difficult is it for you to live on your total household income right now?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Do you have difficulty paying your bills?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>In the next 6-12 months,</b>							To a great extent
3. to what extent do you expect your family and you will experience actual hardships such as difficulty in paying for medical services, rent or food?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. to what extent do you anticipate to reduce your standard of living?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Not enough to make ends meet						More than enough leftover
5. How much money is usually leftover at the end of each month?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第一部分

您在多大程度上同意以下说法？

	非常不同意	不同意	有些不同意	不同意不反对	有些同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我的家人常常互相帮助.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的家人很团结.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我的家人肯花时间跟我谈对我很重要的事情.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 需要的时候, 我总能向家人寻求帮助.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我的家人关心我做的事情.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我家常常有打骂声.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我家里有人常常很沮丧或生气.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 我家有人会打架.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 在我家要通过争吵才能解决问题.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 家人生气时会互相扔东西.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第二部分

	一点也不						非常
1. 您跟您的丈夫交流时感觉轻松自在吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 遇到困难时, 您在多大程度上您能依赖您的丈夫?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 您的丈夫愿意倾听您的个人问题吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在多大程度上您的丈夫会:							
(i) 尽量让您的生活轻松些?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii) 用不高兴或生气的态度对待您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii) 给您的生活带来麻烦?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv) 表现出不喜欢您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v) 让您觉得他不需要您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi) 责备您?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第三部分

	一点也不困难						非常困难
1. 目前来讲靠您的家庭总收入生活有困难吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 您家支付账单有困难吗?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>在接下来的6-12个月,</b>	一点也不						很大程度
3. 您家在多大程度上会支付不起医疗, 房租, 或者食物?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 您家多大程度上可能需要降低生活水平?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	不够用						有充足的结余
5. 您家每个月底通常有多少钱结余?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION D

### ***How certain are you...***

	Very uncertain	uncertain	slightly Uncertain	Neutral	slightly certain	certain	very Certain
1. ...about what your future career picture looks like?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...of the opportunities for promotion and advancement in the next few years?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...about whether your job skills will be of use and value 5 years from now?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...about what your work responsibilities will be 6 months from now?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...that you will <u>NOT</u> be laid off from your job sometime in the future?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### ***In the next 1-2 years, how likely is it that...***

	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Slightly Unlikely	Neutral	Slightly Likely	Likely	Very Likely
1. ...you will be forced into early retirement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...you can keep your job with your present organization?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...your current level of pay will be reduced?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...your current level of benefits will be reduced?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...you will lose your job soon?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION E

### ***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My competence is sought after in the labor market.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I have a contact network that I can use to get a new job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I know of organizations where I could get a job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My personal qualities make it easy for me to get a new job in an organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My experience is in demand on the labor market.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am generally very satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I frequently think of quitting this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION F

### ***To what extent do you agree with the following statements?***

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第四部分

**对于以下关于您工作的描述，您有多肯定：**

	非常 不肯定	不肯定	有些 不肯定	中立	有点 肯定	肯定	非常 肯定
1. 关于您未来的职业前景？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 关于您在接下来几年内升迁的机会？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 关于您的工作技能在5年后是否还会有价值？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 关于您6个月后的工作责任？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 关于您将来不会被裁员？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**在接下来的1到2年内，多大可能：**

	非常 不可能	不可能	有些 不可能	中立	有点 可能	可能	非常 可能
1. ...您会被强制提前退休？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...您会继续在现在的公司工作？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...您的薪水会降低？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...您目前的福利会减少？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...您将会失业？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第五部分

**您在多大程度上同意以下说法？**

	非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	不同意 不反对	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
1. 我的工作能力是很多公司需要的.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的人脉网络能帮我找到新的工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我知道在哪家公司我能找到工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 我个人的能力让我很容易找到一个新的工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 很多公司需要我的工作经验.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 总的来说我对我的工作岗位很满意.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我大体上很满意我现在做的这份工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 我常常想辞职.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 大多数相同工作职位的人都觉得这份工作很没意思,无关紧要.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 大多数相同工作职位的人都很满意这份工作.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第六部分

**您在多大程度上同意以下说法？**

	非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	不同意 不反对	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
1. 我的生活在大多方面都基本上接近我的理想.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的生活条件非常好.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我对我的生活很满意.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 目前为止我已经得到了生活中我想要的重要东西.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 如果能再活一次，我几乎不会做任何改变.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION G

***During the past 6 months, how often did you...***

	Never						Always
1. ...feel full of vigor?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...have a lot of energy?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...feel worn out?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...feel tired?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...have enough energy to do the things you wanted to do?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. ...feel nervous?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. ...feel hopeless?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ...feel restless or fidgety?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. ...feel so depressed that nothing could cheer you up?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. ...feel that everything was an effort?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. ...feel worthless?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

***Do you experience the following?***

	Never						Always
12. You have difficulty sleeping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. You wake up several times during the night.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. You have difficulty staying asleep.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. In the morning, you wake up feeling worn out and tired.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION H

Please state the extent to which these adjectives describe how **you feel when you think about your work situation.**

	Not at All		Very Much				Not at All		Very Much		
(a) happy	1	2	3	4	5	(f) love	1	2	3	4	5
(b) proud	1	2	3	4	5	(g) fun	1	2	3	4	5
(c) afraid	1	2	3	4	5	(h) hate	1	2	3	4	5
(d) ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	(i) sad	1	2	3	4	5
(e) angry	1	2	3	4	5	(j) disgusted	1	2	3	4	5

## SECTION I

1. Your highest education attained

- Primary school   
 Secondary school   
 Pre-U/Junior College  
 Polytechnic   
 Tertiary/University   
 Others, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please report your **own annual** income level:

- Less than \$20,000   
 \$20,000 - \$29,999   
 \$30,000- \$39,999   
 \$40,000 - \$49,999  
 \$50,000- \$59,999   
 \$60,000- \$69,999   
 \$70,000 - \$79,999   
 \$80,000- \$89,999  
 \$90,000 - \$99,999   
 \$100,000- \$109,999   
 \$110,000- \$119,999   
 Above \$120,000

3. Please report your **family annual** income level:

- Less \$40,000   
 \$40,000 - \$59,999   
 \$60,000- \$79,999   
 \$80,000 - \$99,999  
 \$100,000- \$119,999   
 \$120,000- \$139,999   
 \$140,000 - \$159,999   
 \$160,000- \$179,999  
 \$180,000 - \$199,999   
 \$200,000- \$219,999   
 \$220,000- \$239,999   
 Above \$240,000

**(last section to be continued in the next page)**

## 第七部分

在过去的6个月里，您经常会感到…

	从不						总是
1. ...充满活力?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ...精力充沛?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ...疲倦?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ...累?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ...有足够的精力去做想做的事情?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. ...紧张?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. ...绝望?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ...不安或烦躁?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. ...太沮丧以至于什么都不能让您愉快起来?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. ...做每一件事情都很费劲?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. ...自己没有价值?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

您有以下的问题吗?

	从不						总是
12. 您很难入睡.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 您晚上会醒来几次.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 您睡不好.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 您早上醒来时觉得很疲倦.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## 第八部分

当您想到您的工作时，以下形容词在多大程度上代表您的感受，请选择。

	Not at All					Very Much					
(a) 高兴的	1	2	3	4	5	(f) 热爱的	1	2	3	4	5
(b) 骄傲的	1	2	3	4	5	(g) 有乐趣的	1	2	3	4	5
(c) 担心的	1	2	3	4	5	(h) 讨厌的	1	2	3	4	5
(d) 羞愧的	1	2	3	4	5	(i) 难过的	1	2	3	4	5
(e) 生气的	1	2	3	4	5	(j) 厌恶的	1	2	3	4	5

## 第九部分

1. 您的最高学历:     小学         中学         初级学院、高中  
                               理工学院     大学         其他，请指明: \_\_\_\_\_

2. 请问您个人每年的收入是:

<input type="checkbox"/> 少于 \$20,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$29,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000- \$39,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$49,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000- \$59,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000- \$69,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 - \$79,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000- \$89,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$90,000 - \$99,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000- \$109,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$110,000- \$119,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$120,000 以上

3. 请问您全家每年的收入是:

<input type="checkbox"/> 少于\$40,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$59,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000- \$79,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 - \$99,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000- \$119,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$120,000- \$139,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$140,000 - \$159,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$160,000- \$179,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$180,000 - \$199,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$200,000- \$219,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$220,000- \$239,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$240,000 以上

(最后一部分在下页继续)



## SECTION J

1. Age \_\_\_\_\_
2. Ethnic Group:  Chinese  Malay  Indian  Eurasian  Others, please specify \_\_\_\_\_
3. Religion:  Christian  Buddhist  Taoism  Muslim  Hindu  Others, please specify \_\_\_\_\_
4. Please indicate what percentage of the living/household expenses  
a) you are responsible for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
b) your spouse is responsible for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
c) others, specify \_\_\_\_\_, for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
d) others, specify \_\_\_\_\_, for \_\_\_\_\_ %  
(Total of the above must add up to 100%)
5. Please state the industry you are in: \_\_\_\_\_ Your job title: \_\_\_\_\_  
  
You have worked \_\_\_\_\_ years in the current company and \_\_\_\_\_ years in this industry.
6. How many hours do you work in an average week? \_\_\_\_\_ hours/day and \_\_\_\_\_ days/week.
7. How stressful is your current job? **Not at all Stressful** **Extremely Stressful**  
1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

## 第十部分

1. 年龄 \_\_\_\_\_
2. 种族:  华族  马来  印度  欧亚  其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_
3. 宗教信仰:  基督教  佛教  道教  穆斯林  印度  其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_
4. 请指出你们家收入来源的百分比:  
a) 您的贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
b) 您丈夫的贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
c) 其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_, 贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
d) 其他, 请指明 \_\_\_\_\_, 贡献 \_\_\_\_\_ %  
(以上几项相加必须等于 100%)
5. 您目前工作的行业是: \_\_\_\_\_ 您的工作头衔是: \_\_\_\_\_  
您在目前的公司工作几年了? \_\_\_\_\_ 年。您在目前的行业工作几年了? \_\_\_\_\_ 年。
6. 您每天工作几小时? \_\_\_\_\_ 小时。每周工作天? \_\_\_\_\_ 天。
7. 您的工作压力大吗? **一点儿也不** **压力非常大**  
1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

**Please check that you have completed all the items in this survey. Please be assured that the information you provided will be confidential and used for research only. Thank you!**

请您仔细检查您是否回答了全部的问题。请相信您所给的答案都将严格保密和仅仅用于研究的用途。非常感谢!