

Influence of Career Self Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept on Sex-Typed Career Choice of Senior High School Students

¹Thomas Agyemang*, ²Augustine Adjei, ³Samuel Agyemang (EdD)

¹MPhil. University of Education, Winneba. Ghana W/A

²MPhil/Med. Offinso College of Education. Ghana

³Bia Lamplighter College of Education, Sefwi Debiso. Ghana W/A

Abstract

This study examined the influence of Career Self-Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept on Sex-Typed career choices of students in the Asante Akim North Municipality. The descriptive, survey design using the quantitative approach was adopted for the study. Eight hundred (800) final year Senior High School Students made up of five hundred (500) males and three hundred (300) females from the Asante Akim North Municipality were selected for the study using opportunistic and purposive sampling methods. Data were analyzed using various analytical techniques including multiple regression and t-tests. Among the present study findings were that Career Self-Efficacy was found to have more influence on the students' Choice of Sex-Typed Career than Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept. The present findings also suggested that the female students chose significantly more female-dominated Careers than their male counterparts. Similarly, students from female-dominated families chose more female-denominated careers than those from male-dominated families. Among the recommendations was that since it was found that students in the present study appeared to sex-stereotype careers, more guidance and counselling co-ordinators should be trained in order to counsel students to choose career according to their abilities and not their sex. The findings are discussed in relation to previous findings and recommendations made based on the present findings.

Keywords: Senior High School (S.H.S), Statistical Package for Services Solution (S.P.S.S), Self-efficacy, Career self-efficacy, Self – Concept, Career Self – Concept, Gender role stereotype, Sex- typed Careers, Gender mainstreaming, Discrimination, Male dominated family, Female dominated family, Traditional male dominated occupation, Traditional female dominated occupation, Career exploration, Gender Role, Gender stereotyping, Sex, Gender, G.E.S.

Background of the Study

Researches on gender stereotyping have documented people's belief that the typical traits and behaviours of men and women differ (Berndt & Heller, 2007; Cejka & Eagly, 2008). Some investigators have proposed theories in support of the belief that gender role stereotypes are socially constructed (Eagly, 2007; Bryant, 2003; Harris & Firestone, 2010). Other research conducted in the area of differences between men and women is evolutionary or biologically based. This school of thought suggests that innate differences between men and women are the basis of social stereotyping (Rhoads, 2004; Lippa, 2002). When comparing career preferences of men and women, stereotyping is believed to have an effect on career choice (Bodenhausen & Wyer, 2005; Farmer & Waugh, 2009). This is known as sex-typed occupations or careers. Santrock, (2006) defined self-efficacy as "an individual's feeling of adequacy, efficiency and competency in coping with life". The perception of appropriate roles for men and women is one of the variables that may also affect career choice (Bryant, 2003; Harris & Firestone, 2010; Eagly, 2008). In women's achievement and roles, Eccles (2009) describes how beliefs about gender could affect men and women's different career choices through gender-role socialization of personal and professional values. Such beliefs can lead others to pressure males and females into different social roles.

Self-efficacy is commonly defined as the belief in one's capabilities to achieve a goal or an outcome. Students with a strong sense of efficacy are more likely to challenge themselves with difficult tasks and be intrinsically motivated. These students will put forth a high degree of effort in order to meet their commitments, and attribute failure to things which are in their control, rather than blaming external factors. Career Self-efficacy is another researched mediator of the relationship between a person's ability and his or her choice of various careers (Hackett & Betz, 2009). Career Self-efficacy expectations will impact the initiation of behaviour, the amount of effort expended on a task, and the degree of persistence on a task in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences (Bandura, 1999). Male and female vocational choices may result from their different but equally important goals for their lives as well as their expectations to be able to successfully execute required behaviours for their career choice.

Career Self- efficacy is commonly defined as the belief in one's capabilities to achieve a career goal or a career outcome. Students with a strong sense of Career Self-efficacy are more likely to challenge themselves with difficult tasks and be intrinsically motivated. These students will put forth a high degree of effort in order to meet their commitments, and attribute failure to things which are in their control, rather than blaming external factors. Career Self-efficacious students also recover quickly from setbacks, and ultimately are likely to achieve their personal Career goals. Students with low Career self-efficacy, on the other hand, believe they cannot be successful and thus are less likely to make a concerted, extended effort and may consider Career challenging tasks as threats that are to be avoided. That is, students with poor Career self-efficacy have low aspirations which may result in disappointing Career and academic performances becoming part of a self-fulfilling feedback cycle (Margolis & McCabe, 2006).

Gender stereotypes are generalized beliefs about the characteristics and qualities attributed to men and women in society (Eagly, 2008). Gender is distinct from sex as sex is ascribed to biology, anatomy, hormones, and physiology and gender as constructed through social, cultural, and psychological means (West & Zimmerman, 2011). In general, men are characterized as aggressive, risk-taking, decisive, and autonomous (agentic attributes), whereas women are characterized as kind, caring, relational, and humble (communal attributes) which translates into gender stereotypes of male and female. Expectations and beliefs concerning the qualities that men and women have often dictate to the type of jobs that are considered appropriate for them, leading to a situation in which the requisite characteristics for some jobs are defined in terms of gender, such as 'men's work or women's work' (Heilman, 2007). For example, we hear more often about "male mechanics" and "female kindergarten teachers" than vice versa as gender stereotyping reinforces the belief that kindergarten teachers require characteristics associated more with women, than with men. According to Marlow, (2002) evidence suggests that gender stereotyping is present as on qualities believed to be necessary to succeed in business. It has also been reported that there is gender bias with regard to the assessment of leadership in organizations (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2007). Hence it is relevant to ask how gender stereotyping is playing a role in the assessment of leadership roles in organizations. Though leadership is a widely researched topic in organizational literature, surprisingly there is lack of research to suggest whether perception of leadership from the gender angle influences leadership roles in organizations. This study is being proposed to be undertaken to fill this gap.

Gender and its effect on career choice has long been a research interest. However, while most high status, high salary occupations are skewed to higher male participation; academic studies on gender-typed career choice are concentrated on females' lower participation in careers in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM); and female students' self-efficacy in mathematics and science. While females are viewed as the oppressed gender, and those who have brave social obstacles to join a male-dominated career are social pioneers, who are celebrated with respect from their peers as those who attain high social status – males in female-typed occupations and male students' career aspirations in female-typed careers are rarely addressed in the academic spotlight. This phenomenon may be due to the assumption that males who engage in female-typed occupations choose to do so at their own peril for internal rewards rather than salary and status.

Article 25, section 1 of the 1992 Ghana constitution on fundamental human rights and freedom explicitly state that's all persons have the right to equal educational opportunities and facilities and with a view to achieving the full realization of that right. Article 17, section 2 also states that is, a person shall not be

discriminated against on grounds of gender, race, colour, ethnic origin, religion and creed on social or economic status. The Ghana constitution abhors discrimination of all forms; hence in the provision of education to its citizens, government ensures that one does not discriminate against any gender.

Non-discrimination education benefits both boys and girls. Thus, it ultimately contributes to equal relationship between men and women. To this end, the creation of educational and social environment in which girls and boys are encouraged to achieve their full potential in order to choose a career without any bias, and respecting their freedom of thought. Conscience and culture is very crucial. Socialization and education resource, both human and material, must promote non-stereotyped image of women and men as a way of addressing the issues of inequalities between men and women. It is the common knowledge that in many communities and traditional settings the world over, the sexes-male and female are markedly differentiated not only by their biological make up and appearance, but also by the roles each is expected to play in the society. Gender roles are the parts society assigns people to play in the drama of life according to whether we entered this life as a baby girl or baby boy. This situation is buttressed by societal value system, which tends to reinforce the learning of roles and practices regarded to be gender appropriate and on the other hand discourage members in roles considered to be gender inappropriate. For instance, male gender roles are packed with norms such, as boys don't try to cry, male must not be emotional. Female gender roles on the other hand are packed with norms such, as girls should be sweet, gentle and nice.

Women are not expected to be aggressive; they are expected to be emotional and tender women; should let the men take the lead. (Scanzoni& Scanzoni, 2000). Langlors and Downs (2003) boys receive strong negative response from their fathers when they engage in cross gender behaviour. To ensure that individual develop gender identity and engage in the appropriate gender roles the society deliberately socialize their members according to the gender socialization. According to Zimbardo, (2005) gender socialization begins at birth and progresses throughout the individual's life until adulthood when he or she would have been fully socialized. Boys during childhood are given more freedom to explore and go a distance from home while girls are encouraged to stay closer to their mummies and carry out more supervised activities within the home such as cooking, washing, sweeping and a host of others (Fagot, 2000, Sagert & Hart, 2001).One would have expected that schools such as agents' education, enlightenment, cultural modification and reformation, would act differently in terms of gender stereotyping, especially in the wake of call for gender equality and women empowerment in recent times. On the contrary, most school practice for a long time now seem to have covertly and/or overtly promoted gender stereotyping, male dominance and superiority with a resultant effect on the choice of subject which eventually leads to the choice of career/vocations boys and girls make. Van-Allen (1996) cited in Pra (2009) has traced the beginning of gender stereotyping in education in Ghana to colonialism. He indicates that:

When they needed literate Africans to form a supportive, mediating structure for colonial government, they sought young boys for schooling. Even when girls were sent to missing school, they often were not taught the same subjects. Girls were taught some domestic science and Bible in vernacular at Girls Training Centers. (p.82)

While the girls were encouraged to do needle work, the boys were also encouraged to pursue higher education and were also sent to overseas to study (Graham, 2003). That is girls' education continues to be oriented towards teaching them to be better house keepers and mothers. Van-Allen then sees gender stereotyping in education in Africa as resulting from European and traditional values that discriminate girls' education (Pra, 1992). At independence the picture was not different even with the advent of the trust schools (Ghana National, Tema secondary school, Accra girls and significant others). Although it was not a policy of the Ghana education service to differentiate subject and careers on masculine/feminine lines there were implicit or convert pressures from parents, guardians, teachers, head-teachers, peers and the society to conform to the societal norms. For instance, in many schools in Ghana, the highest of prefectural role is most often than not the exclusive prerogative of boys, while girls only subordinate with the role of girls' senior prefect. Positions of agriculture, dining hall, sports and compound overseers/prefects have also often gone to boys while girls are given the role of health prefects and girls' sports prefects. Professions like medicine, law, engineering, farming, fishing are referred to as masculine jobs while dressmaking, home science, catering, weaving, pottery, nursing, secretaryship, trading and

teaching are regarded as feminine jobs. Consequently, while boys are encouraged to choose courses like mathematics, physics, medicine, law etc., girls are discouraged either consciously or unconsciously from choosing such designated male courses and to choose and pursue home economics, nursing, secretarial course and others which are considered feminine. To aggravate the plight of female, the course for professions so designated as masculine have seemingly enjoyed an undue superiority and high esteem and have attracted higher remuneration than those designed as feminine course/professions.

In Scotland, women are not expected to seek high-income jobs and sometimes it is felt that it is not necessary for women to be highly educated or to take jobs outside their homes. Even when they do take jobs outside their homes, there persists a marked disparity in the incomes they earn compared with their male counterparts, (Feldmen, 2004). According to Feldmen (2004) women generally earned around 60% of what men earn for the same job they did in the past. As late as year 2000, women were estimated to be earning up to 74% of what men earn for the same job that both sexes did; a clear case of discrimination against women, though this is not clearly the case in Ghana. Feldman continues by noting that women are paid less than men throughout the world due perhaps to low access to higher education, higher paying jobs and leadership positions. Nonetheless, a good number of women in Ghana as well as other countries have proven to be good leaders or managers. Example in Ghana include, Prof Naana Opoku-Agyemang University of Cape Coast Vice-Chancellor, Mrs Gifty Afenyi Dadzi, (Prayer Director of Aglow International Fellowship Ghana) Dr. (Mrs) Mary Grant, Dolphin, (1st Women Pro-vice of University of Ghana), Mrs. Agyeman, Elizabeth MP for two continuous terms, Justice Joyce Adeline Banford, Speaker of fourth parliament of the fourth republic of Ghana, Justice Akua Kuenyehia Panel judge of ICC, and Mrs. Justice Georgina Wood, Chief Justice. In Ghana, in spite of a good number of female achievers, some of who have been mentioned earlier, females do not seem to have any better treatment. Oftentimes most women are portrayed as incompetent, witches and as people using unorthodox and unscrupulous means other than possession of the requisite leadership and managerial acumen. Consequently, whereas a good number of females begin schooling at the basic level, a great number drop out before they get to the highest level. Even when they continue as in the case of the persevering ones, the tendency to choose careers that have been stereotyped 'feminine' is usually high.

Statement of the Problem

Gender equality or fairness means visibility employment and participation of both sexes in all spheres of public and private life. Education is a key target for gender equality as it involves the ways in which societies transform norms, knowledge and skills system and all elements of the system (teachers, schools, textbooks, research institution and significant others) empower both girls and boys to take care in counter, balancing the existing gender hierarchies. Another important target for gender equality is the individual's economic independence, which focuses on career choice. This leads to securing a job, equal pay, equal access to credit, and equal conditions on the labour market and institution of assets that take into account gender difference in private life. Socio-cultural stratification, gender-role stereotype and low education can largely account for the low participation of women in all fields of life. For instance, according to a population Bulletin published in Caro (1995), women are less educated than the men in the whole world, two-thirds of the world's 960 million illiterate adults are women, 70 of the 180 million children not enrolled in schools are girls, yet girls are less likely than boys to be enrolled in schools in many countries across the world. Since society classifies certain roles to be suitable for men and others for women (Zanzetta, 2001), it becomes difficult for women to cross work or job boundaries.

Despite gender role changes in recent years, there is consensus about what masculinity and femininity involves..... (Fauris & Wade 2005; Lengerman & Wallace, 2006). This situation is perceived as a result of gender role-stereotyping both at home and in school and the expectation of the society for the female which tends to influence the subject or course option of both boys and girls in school. Gender mainstreaming in and out of schools practice is considered significant because stereotyping of gender roles in schools may tend to influence the choice of subject and course options between boys and girls. This also may lead to career choice and imbalance in occupational distribution of males which will go along a way to affect the economic independence of females in general. Judging from the aspiration of Ghana's Vision 2020 Document, which seeks to make the country a middle income country in the year 2020, it is imperative that girls and women participate fully and equally in national development. It is against this background that the

Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme has placed special emphasis on girl's education. This is because girls are confronted with peculiar problems both within and outside the school which requires special attention. From the above reference, it could be realized that a lot of articles have been written on gender, career self-efficacy and career self-concept but most of these are foreign to Ghana background. Also there is no literature or empirical studies that investigate how girls end up choosing their careers. It is for this reason that this research is focused on investigating the influences of career self-efficacy and gender stereotyping on sex-typed career choices of Senior High Students in the Asante Akim North Municipality.

Purpose of the Study: Investigate the influence of gender stereotyping, career self-efficacy and Career Self-Concept on sex-typed career choices.

Research Hypotheses

1. The study will test the hypothetical multivariate model in which students' Career Self-Efficacy, Career Self-Concept and Gender Stereotyping are assumed to influence their Sex-Typed Career Choice.

The study will also test the following bivariate hypothesis

1. Males will have higher Career Self-Efficacy than female students
2. Males will have higher Career Concept than female students
3. There will be a significant difference between male and female students with respect to Sex-Typed Career Choice.
4. There will be a significant difference between students from male dominated families and those from female dominated families with respect to Sex-Typed Career Choice.

Significance of the Study/Justification for the study

Data from the study when made available will help parents, teachers and counsellors to be aware of how Gender Stereotyping, Career Self-efficacy and Career Self-Concept influence career choices. This will help change societal attitude and cultural orientation on Gender Stereotyping and career decision, prevailing in the Asante Akin North Municipality and thereby find ways of improving their services to help the adolescents in the Senior High Schools. It is envisaged that the study will enable parents and teachers of adolescents to be also aware of the extent to which they influence their children's self-efficacy or the importance in developing the Self efficacy, Career-Self Concept and gender stereotyping of the adolescent. This will enable teachers to facilitate adolescents' normal academic growth and development in their schools and also helping the parents to be enlightened about their obligation towards the needs of their adolescents. The study will also contribute to existing literature on career self-efficacy and gender stereotyping on career choice especially in Ghana and the world over. Findings of the study will be useful to women Organizations and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's) who will be interested in gender issues to enable them to have facts from the scientific point of view to carry out their respective projects.

Gender Awareness

Bussey and Bandura (1999) stated that: *Gender development is a fundamental issue because some of the most important aspects of people's lives, such as the talent they cultivate, the conceptions they hold of themselves and others, the socio- structural opportunities and constraints they encounter, and the social life and occupational paths they pursue are heavily prescribed by societal gender-typing (p.677)*

Young children look for gender cues and wonder who should and should not do certain activities. There are many cues in the world as to what is appropriate and what is not appropriate, and children are quick to notice these (Martin & Ruble, 2004). Children learn from a young age that secretaries are females and business executives are males (Berk, 2000). These beliefs lead children to make choices as to their future careers. As Bandura, Barbaranelli, Capara and Pastorelli (2001) assert that: As early as kindergarten, children have views of what it means to be a boy or a girl. Trepanier-Street and Romatowski (1999) assert that early childhood is when children build their schema concerning gender and internalize what it means to be male or female. At this stage, children also develop gender attitudes about toys, activities, and occupations. Stroehel, in (1999), found that girls in kindergarten appear to have developed notions of gender roles. When asked who could be a fire fighter or astronaut, seventy-five percent of the girls said that only boys should be because they are braver and stronger. The author of the study found that children from lower socio-economic

status background were even more stereotypical in their answers. The explanation given was that these children had a lack of exposure to adult role models in those areas. In the 21st century, many of the barriers to women have been reduced or eliminated. There is greater acceptance of females entering traditionally male careers. Some have hypothesized that the reason women are still underrepresented in traditionally male careers is the continued stereotyping of careers. Examples of powerful men and supportive women still exist in movies, television, and children's books (Mendez & Crawford, 2002). Mendez and Crawford's study compared gifted boys and girls in early adolescence. They found that girls showed more flexibility in their career goals, and were able to see a wider range of careers available to them than their male counterparts were. The authors attributed the results to the fact that males are already in more powerful careers and would not have a desire to branch out into the less powerful traditionally female careers, whereas females would like to broaden their scope of careers into ones already held in high-esteem by males.

Gender Development

There are different theories concerning gender development as it relates to occupational choice. Included in these are the cognitive-development theory, the gender schema theory, and the social cognitive theory. This section explains some of these theories in brief. The cognitive-development theory posits that children develop their views of gender by what they experience around them. At approximately 6 or 7 years of age children understand that gender is permanent, called gender constancy after which they try to behave in ways that are related to the conception they have of that gender (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). According to the cognitive-development theory, much of what children do is done to confirm the identity of their gender. This theory assumes children are actively looking for ways to find meaning of the social world in which they live by using the gender clues around them. By age five they have many stereotypes about gender. They use these stereotypes to direct their own behaviour and to judge those around them (Martin & Ruble, 2004). The thought is that when a child realizes that he is a boy, he desires to do boy things. For example, if he sees himself as male, he will play traditionally male games such as football, war, and the like. When a child sees herself as a girl, she only desires to do girl things. If she sees herself as female, she will play house, dolls, and other traditionally female games. Children follow these patterns partly to ensure themselves that they are the gender they determined they are. The gender schema theory is not much different from the cognitive developmental theory. The main difference is that in the gender schema theory, children do not need to understand gender constancy, but instead realize that they are boys or girls. After children develop a schema for gender, they follow behavioural expectations (Martin & Ruble, 2004). Children match their gender to roles they see around them and have the desire to be like others of the same gender. Using the example of girls playing with dolls, if a girl knows that dolls are for girls to play with, and that she is a girl, then she will realize that dolls are for her. The information children receive, either intentionally or not, is then assimilated into their perceptions about gender roles (Ochman, 2003).

In the social cognitive theory, gender development occurs through different influences. One of these is the influence of modeling. Much information about gender and how it is portrayed is learned through the modeling of parents, peers, and other significant persons in educational, occupational, and mass media arenas. Models offer examples of what is considered appropriate for members of the same gender. Another way gender development occurs is through the responses of others to the actions of the first. Since gender appropriate behaviour is valued in society, the responses from others regarding behaviour is a strong source of enforcement of proper gender behaviour (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Some enforcement may be praise, approval, and reward if the children behave traditionally, or discipline if they behave as the opposite gender. The more people and groups children interact with, the more they display diverse gender related behaviour. After looking at these and other career development theories, Kerka (2009) concluded that:

Self-perception, racial identity, role models, and experiences of sexism influence career development, including references in school and books. "Gender labeling takes on considerable importance because a great deal depends on it. It highlights gender not only as an important category for viewing the world, but also as the basis for categorizing oneself. Once such self-categorization occurs, the label takes on added significance, especially as children increasingly recognize that the social world around them is heavily structured around this categorical differentiation. (p.44) One's gender status makes a big difference. It carries enormous significance not only for dress and play, but the skills cultivated, the occupations pursued,

the functions performed in daily life and the nature of one's leisure pursuits and social relationships" (Bussey & Bandura, 1999).

Gender Stereotyping

The women's movement in the 1970's was the historical event that brought gender stereotyping to the attention of the public (Craft, 2001; Turner-Bowker, 2006). Craft asserts gender stereotyping has occurred for as long as children's literature has been around. Since the sixteenth century, some were aware of the stereotypes portrayed by different characters. However, since then, views, as a society have changed, and as a society, psychologists see the danger of expecting certain behaviours of males, and other behaviours of females. Since males and females learn about masculinity and femininity as they grow, Craft felt it was important to have non-sexist literature for children and believed it was important for children to understand they have equal opportunities despite their gender. Craft further asserts that books become acceptable to children and to what they are exposed in books affects what they will do in their lives. In 2003, Ashby and Wittmaier found the importance of role models in books read by children. Girls who heard stories with women in traditional roles showed a tendency to give traditional responses to questions posed. The girls preferred pictures of women in traditional roles and found traditional female careers more appealing. However, girls who heard stories about nontraditional women were more likely to choose pictures of women in non-traditional careers. In 1994, there was evidence that occupations tended to be viewed by children in a gender appropriate manner (Crabb & Bielawski, 2006). Research found that both girls and boys knew that dolls, kitchen supplies, and domestic activities were for girls and construction, transportation and military equipment were for boys. Though male characters in books used more household items than in earlier studies, females did not increase their use of transportation, construction or military items. Crabb and Bielawski (2006) were concerned that stereotyping may affect skills related to technology and other gender-linked preferences. When children read about people in non-traditional careers, they are less likely to limit themselves to stereotypes (Sadker & Sadker, 2004). Furthermore, characters in books can influence readers almost the same as actual people in the children's lives (Weaver, 2004). Reid (2007) found elementary school males held more stereotypic views towards occupations than girls did. She surveyed 180 girls and 200 boys in first, second, and third grades, asking them which jobs on a list of 39 can be held by men, women, or both. The top three stereotyped careers for females were nurse, daycare worker, and secretary. For males, they were logger, carpenter and automobile maintenance. She could not determine whether the stereotyping was a reflection of gender roles in society at the time, or not.

In contrast, she did determine that boys offered more stereotypical answers than girls did and girls showed more tolerance of males in non-stereotypical roles than the boys themselves did. It was the same year that Rudman (1995) offered some suggestions on how to make books gender-neutral or androgynous. One suggestion included showing characters with their own personalities, irrespective of their gender. Other suggestions included: females should not always be the weaker or more delicate of the two genders, and language as well as occupations should be gender-free. In 1996, Witt used the BEM Sex Role Inventory, which categorizes individuals according to their gender roles, in a content analysis of reading texts from six different publishers. She found that males in the texts were portrayed as mostly masculine with very few feminine traits. However, females were shown exhibiting a wide range of traits, providing characters that are more balanced. Witt suggested the prevailing thought of the publishing world was that male characters are only appealing when they exhibit traditional traits. In the same study, she found that traditional female traits were not as integral to male or female characters. In the majority of textbooks studied, neither gender portrayed a majority of traditional feminine traits. Between the ages of three and eight children gather a large amount of gender role information and children's literature is one resource for learning about the differing roles of males and females (Wellhausen, 1996). Often children's literature is used to teach children what is, and is not acceptable in society (Goss, 1996). In 1996, Turner-Bowker stated that texts have been used as a method of acquisition for gender stereotypes. It is in these texts that authors have portrayed girls with few characteristics, and usually as secondary characters, while males were presented in central roles holding occupations outside of the home as decision-makers and heroes.

Ochman (2003) found it important that society does not disregard traditional roles in children's literature, stating that it is important to boys that male characters are shown and retain power but still exhibit both masculine and feminine qualities. Males need to keep their high self-esteem, but also have high self-esteem

when displaying traditional feminine traits. Females' self-concept increased when they were exposed to a strong female in the story, which Ochman attributed to girls identifying with other girls who are capable and strong. It is a concern that all children know the right to be treated equal regardless of their gender. Singh (1998) acknowledges that children's literature is important for transmitting society's culture to the children including gender roles. She further asserts that gender portrayal in children's books add to the view children have of themselves and their ability to contribute to the society. Through literature, children can challenge stereotypes to re-examine their beliefs and adopt a more non-stereotypic view of gender.

In the same year, Narahars (1998) researched kindergarten teachers and found that many of the books they were reading to their students had more males in central roles than females. The results led her to suggest that in-service training should inform teachers about hidden biases in literature for children. Sadker (2004) found boys are stereotyped more rigidly than females. Males who showed an interest in a traditionally female field encounter pressures to change, with three out of four males claiming they were sexually harassed, taunted and had their masculinity challenged. It was found that fewer males were entering the field of elementary education than when Title IX, which stated that that no person would be excluded, denied, or discriminated against in educational programs because of their gender, first came into effect in 1972. Powell, Gillespie, Swearingen and Clements, published a study in 1999 to discuss the history of gender roles in Newbery Books. While stating that books containing stereotypes can still be used in the classroom, they found it important for male characters to reflect the changing roles of society as much as females do, for at one time, traditional roles were the norm and we need not edit history.

Societal Expectations That Lead to Gender Stereotyping and Career Choice

Dembo (2003) found out that societal expectations could impose limits on achievement and vocational success for the different sexes. In Ghana and the world over, these societal expectations dictate very different roles and responsibilities for men and women (father and mother) to the effect that fathers train their sons in vocations and career, while leaving that of their daughters for mothers. This point is buttressed by Boadu-Ayebofoh (2001) who writes on the topic 'is it a curse to be a girl Boadu-Ayebofoh points out that even urbanization has not helped much to eliminate this bias against girl-children to the extent that some people in their own anachronisms believe that if boys perform traditionally girl child reserved tasks, they become timid, sheepish and idiotic". The publications continue that gender stereotyping begins from the very day that the girl child is born throughout her passage of life. Girls are molded to provide services to their male counterparts, even to the level of unquestioned obeisance and service and servitude. The prejudice is so entrenched that it becomes difficult to convince a girl that brothers are no superior.

Parental Influence on Gender Stereotyping

Parents' actions play a central role in their children's role socialization. Parent's choice and attitudes about toys, clothing, activities and playmates can shape their children's sense of themselves. A study by Segal (1987) cited by Vokeh (1990) reveals that fathers especially encourage traditional sex-roles in their children by treating sons and daughters differently. For example, fathers typically regard their baby boys as stronger as and harder than their baby girls whom they regard more fragile and more in need of protection. In keeping to these perceptions, parents encourage more physical play, independence and exploration in their sons but are more gentle and affectionate to their daughters. Inductive of this fact is boys learn 'masculine' roles from the fathers while girls learn 'feminine' roles from the mothers in society. A study by Palmer, (1997) as cited in Scanzoni and Scanzoni, (2000) indicated, that parents desire the gratification that comes with having their children identification with them and look up to them for guidance and support. Thus, when children do not identify with their parents and reject them as role models, the parents feel punished-not only by their children's repudiation of their example but also by the disapproval of parents peers (their reference group). Smutny, (2007), gender stereotypes in home, television, movies, books and the toy and fashion industries pose obvious challenges to girls' healthy psychological development. He therefore suggested some support strategies for parents against gender stereotyping at homes. Smutny (2007), parents can begin early to nurture freedom from stereotyped expectations. Provide toys that reflect the full range of children's plan and allow girls to watch TV programmes and movies that provide a balanced mix of stories with men and women characters in positive traditional and non-traditional roles.

Occupational Gender Stereotypes

Shinar (2001) examined the nature of sex stereotypes of occupations among college students. Sex stereotypes of occupations are defined as the perception that an occupation is particularly appropriate for women versus men and vice versa, regardless of the actual percentages of men and women employed. To explore the subjective reality of college men and women regarding their views of occupations as masculine or feminine, Shinar asked undergraduate students to rank a list of occupations on a 7-point scale representing the degree to which they perceived the occupations as masculine, feminine, or neutral. Shinar divided 120 subjects (60 males and 60 s) into three groups. Each received different instructions for ranking the list of occupations.

Group 1 (“vague instructions”) participant were instructed to evaluate the occupations on a continuum as being masculine, neutral, or feminine without any additional structure provided to guide their rankings. After completing their rankings, the participants in this group were asked to indicate the potential bases upon which they made their judgments related to: the proportion of men and women employed in the occupation; the personality traits matching the occupation, the physical capabilities required for the occupation; or some “other” factor. Group 2 participants were asked to consider their perceptions of the proportion of men and women employed in the occupations regarding their rankings. They were told that occupations in which there were a greater number of men than women would be considered “masculine occupations”, those with a greater number of women than men would be “feminine occupations”, and those with roughly equal numbers of men and women would be considered “neutral occupations”. Group 3 participants were asked to consider their perceptions of “sex-related attributes” associated with each occupation regarding their rankings. They were told that occupations could be described as feminine, masculine, or neutral related to personality characteristics of the people employed in them. Feminine occupations could be identified by predominantly associated feminine traits and masculine occupations could be identified by predominantly associated masculine traits. Occupations with no masculine or feminine-specific traits were to be considered neutral.

Shinar (1975), her results, “indicate that sexual stereotypes of occupations are clearly defined and held in agreement by both college men and women” (p. 108). She went on to link the extent of sex typing of occupations to occupational stereotyping and sex role stereotyping. She hypothesized that sex typing of occupations is influenced by both occupational stereotypes and sex role standards. Shinar extended this line of thinking in noting that sex stereotypes of occupations, “seem to be a self-perpetuating and self-promoting system in that the proportion of men and women in various occupations parallels the traditional beliefs about the sex-related attributes required to perform those jobs” (p. 110). Anker (2001) listed positive, negative, and other stereotypes, “showing how closely the characteristics of ‘’ occupations mirror the common stereotypes of women and their supposed abilities” (p.139). Anker listed positive stereotypes (e.g., a caring nature, skill and experience in household-related work, greater honesty) tied to careers such as: nurse, doctor, social worker, and teacher. His list of negative stereotypes (e.g., disinclination to supervise others, lesser physical strength, lesser ability in science and mathematics) reportedly disqualifies women from careers such as: manager, construction worker, physical scientist, and police officer. Regarding “other” stereotypes, Anker noted women are associated with, “greater willingness to take orders, greater docility and lesser inclination to complain about work or working conditions, lesser inclination to join trade unions, greater tolerance of monotonous/repetitive work; greater willingness to accept lower wages and less need for income; and greater interest in working at home” (p. 139). According to Anker, these stereotypes are associated with more general characteristics typical of occupations (e.g., low pay, high flexibility, low status, and less decision-making authority).

Ruble et al, (2001) suggest that there have been changes in sex roles in American society, and women are more likely to consider roles other than those of wife and mother. However, they also noted that sex bias is still operating in the world of work, in light of blatant examples of discrimination, subtler forms of bias, and the on-going discrepancy between incomes for women and men. The authors note a strong societal tendency to stereotype women and men according to particular dispositional qualities. They also suggested that gender stereotypes may be associated with women’s experience of discrimination at work and with people’s views of appropriate work for women versus men. The authors cite the distribution of men compared to women in a job category as a major determinant of “occupational sex typing”

Religious Views on Gender Stereotyping

Gender stereotyping cuts across various religious sects, in this review the following religious views will be discussed: Christianity, Islamic, and African traditional religion.

The Christian Religion

By observation, it is a common belief in the Christian religion that, women should be submissive and submissive to men and that they were created to serve the needs of men. This belief is informed and endorsed by the creation story. In this story, Adam was created first and from him a rib is taken to produce Eve-his help mate'. This creation story also states that men shall rule over the women (Genesis 2:18-25). In the temptation story involving the serpent and the forbidden fruit, in which God cursed man and woman, "unto the woman God said, I will greatly multiply thy sorrow and thy conception; in sorrow thou shalt bring forth children; and thy desire shall be to thy husband and shall rule over thee (Genesis 3:16). This is another stereotyping. In the New Testament gender stereotyping comes to play in 1 Corinthians 11:3-9, when Paul was exhorting the Corinthians that women should be submissive to men because men were not created for women, but the woman for the man. In the book of Ephesians, the Apostle Paul again exhorted women to be submitting to their husbands because "the husband is the head of the wife." (Ephesians' 5:22-23). Another stereotyping in the church is seen in Corinthians' 14: 34-35. Here the scripture state that: Let your women keep silence in the churches: for it is not allowed unto women to speech, but they are commanded to be under obedience as also saith the law. And if they will learn anything, let them ask their husbands at home. For it is a shame for women to speak in the church." 1 Timothy 2:11-15 also stated that "let the women learn in silence with all subjection. But I suffer not women to teach, nor to take authority over the man, but to be silence..... (p.201)

Islamic Religion

The Islamic holy book (the Qur'an) is a one that all human beings are equal before Allah, irrespective of sex, race or creed. (sura iv) Notwithstanding the Qur'anic stance on gender issues, cultural practices in many Islamic societies (both ancient and present) have lived much to be desired. Going by the above, it is to be expected that actions and practices in Islam should be in fairness to all manner of pensions. The Qur'an in Sura iv 1- 4 clearly deals with such social problems (specifically inheritance). In the above Sura, all human beings are one, and their mutual rights must honour each other. The Sura goes further to suggest that: "... and after death, due distribution should be made in equitable share..." sura iv (Nigaa). On the contrary, when a man dies and leaves behind a family, the sons inherit the deceased's estate. The daughters and widow brushed aside thus ignoring the injunction of the holy book.

Traditional Religion

Literature is hard to come by stereotyping in the tradition set up. Data available is mostly oral transmission that is not always accurate and they differ from one traditional to another. However, certain practices cut across most cultures. Some of these are:

- ❖ Women are secluded from the main house during their menstruation.
- ❖ Women are not allowed to be present during sacrifices.
- ❖ They are not allowed to handle certain things during traditional/religious leader's rites; men perform all rituals except older women (those who have passed menopause).

These and other practices in the African culture are clear indications that society clearly spells out what roles the women should play and those that the man should also play in the society. Any of the sexes that deviate from these norms faces severe punishment from either faces severe punishment from either the gods or the disapproval from the members of the community.

The Influence Textbook Reading on Gender Stereotyping and Career Choice

Fox (1999) point out that, everything we read constructs us, make us who we are by presenting our image of developing children's language skills. Books play a significant part in transmitting a society's culture to children. Gender roles are important parts of society's culture that transmit to children all over the world how genders are portrayed in children's books thus contributing to the image children develop of their own roles and that of their gender in society. Gender bias exists in the content, language and illustrations of a large number of children's books (Jett-Simpson & Masland, 1993). This bias may be seen in the extent to

which a gender is represented as the main character in children's books and how that gender is depicted. Numerous studies analyzing children's literature find the majority of books dominated by male figures. For example, Ernst (1995) did analysis of the little of children's books and found of male names represented nearly twice as they often as female names. She also found that even books with female or gender-oriented names in their titles, in fact, frequently revolve around a male character. Many classic and particular stories where girls are portrayed usually reflect stereotypes of masculine and feminine roles. Children's books frequently portray girls as acted upon rather than active (Fox, 1993). Girls are represented as sweet, naive, confronting typical describe as strong, adventitious, independent and capable (Ernst, 1995; Jett-Simpson and Mashal, 1993).

In Ghana, the picture is not different. At the series of the District Girls Education Offices' (DGEO) training sessions organized in 1999, the group was asked to analyses gender bias in JSS curriculum. They found out that gender bias exists in our school curriculum (Gender Matter, 1999). According to the group the following are some of the gender bias that was portrayed in our textbooks:

- ❖ Girls like games that are less energetic
- ❖ Men have time to relax
- ❖ Intelligence is associated with boys
- ❖ Caring for babies is a woman's duty
- ❖ Boys and girls can't play together
- ❖ Law enforcement is for men
- ❖ Trading is for women
- ❖ Men are more technically included than females

African writers of literature books which are being used in our secondary schools are not left out in this stereotyping. For instance, in Things Fall Apart, written by Chinua Achebe, the main character, Okonkwo reinforces stereotyping when he wished daughters were the son Ikemefuna to take after him. Again, in African Child, written by camera laryea, to prevent family or clean careers from extinction the male child was compelled to perpetuate the family tradition or career by taking after his father (e.g., Blacksmithing, carpentry, fishing).

Career Development in Children

Helwig (2004), comments that for many years, career development in children has been viewed as an important part of the educational process. He also conducted a longitudinal study to research career development of students. He began with 208 second graders and collected data for ten years, ending in twelfth grade. All the students could name occupational aspirations in second grade, and by the time they were seniors in high school, almost half of the students had expectations similar to their original choices. However, the other half named choices never mentioned the previous ten years. Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, (2001). stated: The choices made during the formative periods of development shape the course of lives.

Such choices determine which aspects of their potential people cultivate, and which they leave undeveloped. The self-development during formative periods forecloses some types of options and makes others realizable. Among the choices that affect life paths, those that centred on career choice and development are, therefore, of special import for the reasons given. (p.46).

Gottfredson, (1996) agrees with the assertion that once some careers have been eliminated from the child's mind as a career option, they are not likely to be considered again. Though school career educational programs have traditionally involved high school students, it is now an integral part of elementary and middle school programs (Murrow-Taylor, Folz, Ellis, & Culbertson, 2009). One of the objectives in working with young children in career education is increasing children's awareness of occupations (Harkins, 2007). Career theory holds that children first recognize the difference of size and power between adults and themselves between the ages of three and five. It is at that age children realize that adults hold an

occupational role. By the time children are six to eight, they start to categorize jobs by gender and to eliminate careers that do not seem appropriate for their own gender (Trice & Hughes, 1995). Research by (Sellers, Satcher, & Comas, 1999). Shows that gender plays a critical role in occupational choices of children, even up to the age of 11. The study conducted with third and fourth grade students, using a children's sex-role inventory, determined that children may not have a firm understanding of themselves as masculine or feminine, but tend to select professions along gender lines. Wahl and Blackhurst (2010) propose that effective career guidance should dispel gender related occupational stereotypes, and make students aware of alternative potential occupations.

Many children have little knowledge about occupations, but literature can expand the children's knowledge base (Harkins et al, 2001). As far back as 1975, Doss, stated that career education is being emphasized in a child's life early in his educational career. Though some may believe 7-year olds are too young to think about careers, Harkins (2007) argues that is not so, and that children can think about their interests and abilities at a young age. To prepare children to make decisions regarding careers, and because it takes a long time to build career concepts, this education should begin in the primary grades (Harkins, 2007). It has also been found that gender in six to eight year-old children is related to career development and occupational choice. (Gottfredson, 1996 & Phipps, 1995). Harkins (2007) stated career decisions begin in early childhood during early elementary grades and acknowledges that work-readiness concepts take time to build. Bussey and Bandura (1999) as well as Cushmir (1990) purport that role socialization occurs partly through seeing rewards and punishments that others receive when either adhering or not adhering to society's norms. These others can be real people or characters in books (Diekman & Murnen, 2004). Ediger (1999) mentions that elementary students become knowledgeable about career exploration and it important for them to do so. Ediger's comment becomes increasingly important since appropriate career development should help students to reject gender based occupational stereotypes, and can be done with stories whose characters hold non-traditional jobs (Wahl & Blackhurst, 2010). Goss (1996) makes many observations about gender bias and the effects it has on children. Stories, along with television, movies, other people, and books have been in use for a long time to instill community values in children. "The role models in many children's books continue to perpetuate stereo-types of behaviour and actions that do not match the reality of today's world" (p. 1). She concludes that when books only present traditional roles of male and female characters, children develop a distorted view of what they can do or be in the world by stating:

Books alone cannot change children's attitudes; however, they can help children expand their views of themselves and their world. They can help to open new horizons and point the way to a wider variety of possibilities for behaviours and career options for both males and females. It is important for all children to be exposed to books with a balance of gender roles so characters they identify with, the ones they lose themselves in, are suitable models to help them prepare for the realities of the future world (p. 11).

Powell, Gillespie, Swearingen and Clements (1998) support Goss belief by stating, "Books are one way of experiencing vicariously things we may not otherwise encounter. Role models and even favourite characters in books may influence readers (p.42)." Other authors have found that literature can inspire children's interest in the area of career guidance (Harkins, 2001), and shape children's gender role beliefs (Creany, 1995). Stroehel (1999) believes that if children do not have non-traditional career role models, characters in literature will suffice. Most women work in occupations that are predominately held by women, and most men work in occupations held predominately by men. This has occurred since the earliest human societies when men went out to hunt and women gathered (Preston, 1999). If the trend is to change, one must realize that career development is a lifelong process and gender-role stereotyping has an influence on occupational choice (Harkins, 2001). In 1993, Bauer pointed out that overt sexism has been a concern of publishers, teachers, and writers, while Craft (2001) mentioned that children learn the definitions of masculinity and femininity as they grow. Furthermore, these stereotypes are based on society, and if we, as a society want children to see many different occupations and role options, not limited by stereotypes, it is important to expose them to non-stereotypical models (Sellers, Satcher, & Comas, 1999).

Some people do not have the opportunity to make career choices under optimal conditions. Economic needs, educational limits, lack of support by family, and gender discrimination may stop some from seeking certain careers (Albert & Luzzo, 1999). As an example, a male may find that there are few males in a certain career; therefore, he may choose another option. Helwig (1998) found through previous research that boys are more likely to hold stereotypical views towards occupations than are girls. Albert and Luzzo (1999) further assert even if a perceived barrier in regards to race or gender is not actually true, it still may cause a person not to enter that career. In order to reduce perceived barriers by presenting non-stereotypical models, one can use high quality, age appropriate children's books (Trepanier-Street & Rotowski, 1999; Harkins 2001). The likelihood that books shape gender-role attitudes was the reason Creany in 1995 mentioned the importance of non-sexist literature for children. Bandura (1999) would agree since he sees the school as a place where children learn their self-beliefs and knowledge that lead to their occupational efficacy. Children between the ages of 4 and 14 engage in fantasy play to explore life roles and explore different areas of interest and abilities. They become more concerned with their future and take more control over their own lives. Children are focused on their school performance and are learning adaptive behaviours, time management, and social skills (Clark, 2011).

Career Self-Efficacy Theory

In 1977, Alfred Bandura developed a theory of self-efficacy, which has been widely recognized as a practical way of understanding the link between self-talk and behaviour. Career Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's level of confidence in and beliefs about his/her capabilities to successfully carry out courses of action, perform given behaviours, accomplish given tasks, and attain desired performance outcomes (Bandura, 1977, 1993, 1997; Buchmann, 2003; Betz & Hackett, 2005; Betz and Taylor, 2007; Lent, et al., 2008; Nesdale and Pinter, 2010). Career Self-efficacy is defined as a person's beliefs and confidence concerning his or her ability to successfully perform a given career or behaviour Bentz (2010). In other words, beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to a given behaviour. Such beliefs in their efficacy influence the courses of action people choose to pursue, how much effort they put, how long they persevere in the face of obstacles, their resilience to adversity, whether their thought patterns are self-aiding or self-hindering, how much stress they experience in coping with taxing demands and the level of accomplishments they realize, (Bandura, 1995) Career Self-efficacy can ultimately determine whether an individual will choose to perform or refrain from performing a task or career (Bandura, 1977, 1982). In fact, people's beliefs about their capabilities are often central to how they interact with the world (Sterrett, 1998). Career Self-efficacy is therefore an important factor in understanding how people develop confidence and perceive their abilities in relation to career. Career Self-efficacy beliefs influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave (Bandura, 1993). In Bandura's (1977, 1986) model of social learning he describes self-efficacy as a cognitive structure created by the cumulative learning experiences in a person's life.

Career Self-Efficacy

In 1981, Hackett and Betz developed a theory of career self-efficacy by applying the concept of self-efficacy to career-related behaviours. Career self-efficacy beliefs can lead to avoidance of or motivation toward career behaviours (Betz & Taylor, 2007). Low career self-efficacy can cause people to procrastinate making career decisions, and may delay them from following through with a decision once it has been made (Betz, 2009). Even if a low career self-efficacy belief is based on a realistic and accurate assessment of an individual's capabilities or past experiences, it often leads to a lack of full awareness of his or her potential to successfully pursue different careers (Betz & Hackett, 2009). On the other hand, those who have high career self-efficacy tend to visualize success for themselves and seek positive support and outcomes for their career ambitions (Bandura, 1993). In general, the higher the career self-efficacy, the greater the career goals and challenges people will set for themselves, and the stronger their commitment will be to them (Bandura, 1993, 1997). As a result, low career self-efficacy beliefs should be challenged and improved, whereas high career self-efficacy should be supported and reinforced. Additionally, career self-efficacy is considered essential to successful job performance, and can greatly influence work behaviours regardless of knowledge and skill (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Dawes, et al.; Giles and Rea, 1999; Niles and Sowa, 1992). Nesdale and Pinter (2000) are of the view that across diverse cultures career self-efficacy was a significant predictor of an individual's ability to continually find employment. Career self-efficacy has also been found to be one of

the best predictors of many beginning career behaviours, such as job searching (Niles & Sowa, 1992). Past research has found that career self-efficacy beliefs do indeed have a strong influence on career exploration and employment outcomes.

Career Self Concept

Perera (2006), Self-Concept is what you understand about yourself. It is not the same as self-image or consciousness. It includes: your social character or abilities, your physical appearance and your body image and your thinking which includes your understanding about a career. For Doyle (2005) the self is a complex process of gaining complete self-awareness. We develop a concept of who we are through our interactions with others. Also the Daily (November 13, 2003) defines self-concept as a combination of self-esteem and what's known as "mastery," that is, the extent to which a person feels in control of events in his or her life. Again, the career self-concept is the accumulation of knowledge about the self and career, such as beliefs regarding personality traits, physical characteristics, abilities, values, goals, and roles in relation to career. According to a new study based on data from the National Population Health Survey cited by Daily (November 13, 2003) adolescent girls tend to have a lower self-concept than boys and are particularly susceptible to the effects of that perception. A positive self-concept (a sense of self-worth and a feeling of control) appears key to developing good mental and physical health.

Career Exploration

In the early 1960s, the original theory of career exploration was developed (Jordaan, 1963). The importance of career exploration has become more valued in recent years as interest has grown in this area due to its significance to the careers process, resulting in many new directions of theory and research (Bartley & Robistschek, 2000; Blustein, 1997). The historically based view of career exploration as being simply a form of information seeking to gain occupational knowledge has been widely reconsidered (Blustein, 1992, Taveira & Moreno, 2003). Career exploration is now viewed as an essential part of career development, and an important element in career decision-making (Taveira et al., 2003). Career exploration can be defined as a complex process individuals engage in to obtain and enhance self and environmental knowledge, and to ultimately attain career goals (Taveira & Moreno, 2003).

Sex-Typed Career Choice

Researchers have claimed that differences in women's and men's job search methods and social networks link women to positions filled with other women and men to positions filled with other men (Drentea, 1998; Hanson & Pratt, 1991; Huffman & Torres, 2001; Leicht & Marx, 1997; Marsden & Gorman, 2001; Marx & Leicht, 1992; Mencken & Winfield, 2000; Straits, 1998; Torres & Huffman, 2002). Although these accounts of sex traditional employment have merit, they are incomplete. First, they ignore the underlying assumptions about gender appropriate job assignments embedded in organizational design, practice, and logic that ultimately produce sex segregated workplaces (Acker, 1990 & Burton, 1991). Likewise, they fail to recognize that gender assumptions govern organizational policies, practices, images, ideology, and power arrangements (Acker, 1990 & Burton, 1991). This gendered structuring of organizations was evident in the recently restructured banks studied by Skuratowicz and Hunter (2004). When introducing newly created positions to bank workers, bank management used signs, photographs, and videos that depicted men as prestigious personal bankers and women as customer relations managers, positions with lower pay and no supervisory power. In this bank, management used gendered images to convey who is appropriate for which jobs. These banks are not an exception; rather, it is the norm that organizational practices and institutional policies are gendered (Steinberg, 2003). The failure to account for the gendered structure and logic of organizations or, more important, how organizations invoke gender through their practices and structures (Britton, 2000,) limits researchers' ability to explain and ultimately reduce sex traditional employment.

Traditional employment in terms of sex differences in an applicant's job search methods or worker and employer preference is their silence on the specific practices that link women and men to sex traditional occupations (Reskin, 2002 Reskin & Bielby, 2005). The barriers to women's and men's movement out of traditional jobs are not only supply related or linked to employers' gender bias, but recruitment and outreach practices that do not seek a broad range of potential workers also affect this movement (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995, Sturm, 2001). For example, research conducted with the goal of identifying whether differences in women's and men's job search strategies affect their employment cannot detect if an

employer's job search practices restricted access to information about job openings to applicants of a certain sex. In addition, as Miller and Rosenbaum (2000) explain the unequal treatment of job applicants can arise from an employer's choice of hiring procedures rather than from intentional biases, so studying employer attitudes and preferences may not further our understanding of sex traditional employment. The approach to studying the determinants of sex traditional employment differs from existing research on the employment process in general and specific research on occupational sex segregation.

Even if an employer prefers to hire workers into sex traditional positions and women's and men's social networks tie them to sex traditional occupations, organizational practices and arrangements can reduce or magnify the extent to which these factors affect sex traditional occupational placement (Reskin & McBrier, 2000). In other words, organizational practices affect employment outcomes by permitting or restricting an employer's knowledge of an applicant's sex, affecting the extent to which an employer can use an applicant's sex as a salient source of information about the applicant's performance or behavior, limiting or allowing employer favoritism and discretion in hiring decisions, and (d) creating or dismantling employment barriers, including knowledge about job openings, for applicants of a certain sex (Reskin, 2002 Reskin & Bielby, 2005). To demonstrate, because it is characteristically casual and unregulated, recruitment via current employee referrals grants employers discretion to consider an applicant's sex when hiring and gives him or her license to rely on sex stereotypes when evaluating the applicant. At the same time, recruitment through current employees automatically disadvantages applicants with no personal ties to a workplace. Formal recruitment and screening criteria can undermine the effect of personal networks on traditional occupational placement by opening the search to a broader applicant pool. After Home Depot implemented an automated hiring and promotion system that eliminated managerial steering of the applicants into certain jobs and reduced the use of current employees to generate referrals, the number of female managers and workers in typically male jobs at the store rose dramatically (Sturm, 2001). Just as practices to locate and hire workers affect employers' discretion to rely on sex stereotypes during the hiring process, so can features of workplaces. Although the actual features of workplaces do not themselves determine employment outcomes, workplace features can challenge the extent to which gendered organizational logic shapes employment outcomes work and occupations / August 2005 (Britton, 2000). For example, the formal rules and policies of bureaucratic workplace settings have been found to affect employment outcomes, mainly by limiting employers' ability to act on their stereotypes and biases (Reskin, 2003).

To explicitly examine sex traditional employment with an eye toward how organizational practices and policies contribute to it, the present analyses offer a more complete investigation of sex traditional employment than previous research (Johnson & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2004; Skuratowicz & Hunter, 2004) Sex employment is one of the most common features of U.S. workplaces (Jacobs, 1999, Reskin, 2003). The employment of women and men in different occupations is more than a pattern of physical separation of the sexes at work; it is one of the major contributing factors to economic sex inequality. Male-dominated occupations offer higher pay, provide more benefits, greater promotion opportunities, and a broader scope of authority than equally skilled female-dominated occupations (Baron & Bielby, 2000; England, 2005; Nelson & Bridges, 2007). The first centers on organizational practices to explain sex traditional employment, whereas the last three accounts focus on other demand-side features as explanations. How employers recruit and screen applicants is particularly important for sex-based employment because staffing practices can either permit or reduce the influence of employers' and applicants' preferences and job applicant networks on job assignment (Reskin & McBrier, 2000). Although no particular theory directly addresses the salience of staffing practices for employment outcomes, evidence from previous research suggests they play a significant role in employment outcomes (Reskin et al., 2000). Informal network recruitment, namely employer reliance on current employees to generate contacts, facilitates employer discretion and exposes the hiring process to the stereotyping and favoritism that tend to accompany discretion. Employers frequently use informal recruitment to locate potential workers (Marsden & Gorman, 2001). Employers rely heavily on current employee contacts to find workers because the search method is relatively inexpensive (Marsden & Gorman, 2001, Reskin & McBrier, 2000), current employees allegedly produce better applicant-position matches than open searches (Fernandez et al., 2004), and employers believe informal contacts are more efficient at locating potential jobholders than formal procedures (Marsden & Gorman, 2001) Although the reliance on current employees to generate referrals

may benefit employers, this recruitment strategy can bias the hiring process against applicants in nontraditional sex groups and maintain sex traditional employment (Fernandez & Fernandez-Mateo, 2004; Menchen & Winfield, 1999). Because individuals tend to have same-sex contacts (McPherson, et al, 2001) and women know contacts in a smaller range of occupations than men (Campbell, 1988), referrals from current employees in female-dominated occupations typically generate female applicants, whereas employee referrals in male-dominated occupations produce male applicants (Marsden, 1994; Marsden, 1996; Marsden & Gorman, 2001; Mencken & Winfield, 1999; Miller & Rosenbaum, 1997; Mouw, 2002; Reskin & McBrier, 2000 & Torres & Huffman, 2002). Thus, employers' use of informal network recruitment methods will increase the odds an employer makes a sex traditional hire. I also expect that the effect of employers' uses of informal recruitment on the odds she or he makes a sex traditional hire will depend on the share of an establishment's workforce that is already in traditional occupations. To demonstrate, if Establishment A's clerical workforce is 45% female and Establishment B's clerical workforce is 90% female, informal recruitment to generate a greater share of female referrals for female-dominated occupations in the latter establishment. In other words, the odds an employer makes a sex traditional hire will be greater in establishments with a greater share of sex traditional workers. Formal recruitment and screening practices, on the other hand, can prevent employers from using an applicant's sex as a source of information during the hiring stage, minimize employers' differential treatment of male and female job applicants (Reskin, 2003), and reduce an employers' ability to base hiring decisions on sex stereotypes (Perry et al., 1994).

Hypothetical Model

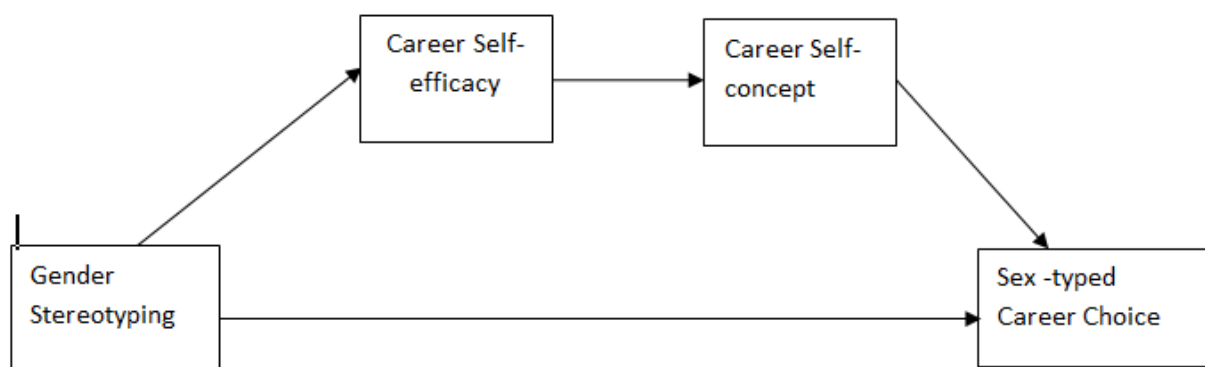


Figure 1: A Model showing the influence of Gender Stereotyping on Career Self Efficacy, and Sex Typed Career Choice.

Figure one (1) is what guided the researcher for the study and is a complete model to guide the study. This model indicates that the Gender Stereotyping of an adolescent will influence his or her career Self- Efficacy and Career Self- Concept which will in turn determine the Sex- typed careers. For example, careers such nursing and teaching are said to be dominated by females. Again this model indicates that Career Self- Efficacy and Career Self-Concept will mediate between the Gender Stereotyping and Sex-Typed Career Choice of students.

Research Design

A research design according to Creswell, (2009) is the plan which the research study follows. It is a series of advanced decisions that, taken together, make up a master plan or model for a research study. Ofori and Dampson, (2011) further to state that it is a stated structure and process of conducting a research project, detailing the plan and method for systematically and scientifically obtaining the data to be analyzed. The Cross-Sectional Survey was adopted. It is a quantitative approach which uses statistical method of data analysis to study random samples so that findings can be generalized beyond the sample to the population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). Zikmund (2007), research design is a master plan specifying the research methods and procedures. To Creswell, (2009), research design is a detailed plan, which the researchers use to guide and focus the research. The Cross-Sectional Survey Design was chosen because in considering the purpose of the study, hypothesis testing and the magnitude of the target population, it will be the most appropriate design which will lead the researcher to achieve the purpose and to also draw meaningful conclusions from the study and extensive data will be collected at one point in time and it is very economical (Gall & Meredith, 2003). Again data could be collected from a cross section of a population in a

short time and then results generalized to represent the entire population of the study (Creswell, 2009). The Cross-Sectional Design was used to collect data on many variables, such as large number of subjects, dispersed subjects, attitudes and behaviours, answers questions on who, what, when, where, generates hypotheses for future research, and data are useful to many different researchers (Babbei, 1990; Fowl, 2002). For the quantitative approach, off sheaf questionnaires by Bem's Sex Role scale (1974), Benevolent Sexism Scale (Glick & Fiske, 2007) and the researcher's own written questions were used based on the research topic. The culture of the people for the present study was also used and it offered the researcher the opportunity to access information from a larger sample of individuals. Finally, questionnaires are simply not suited for some people. For example, a written survey to a group of poorly educated people might not work because of reading skill problems. More frequently, people are turned off by written questionnaires because of misuse. On the contrary, increased cost with more subjects, cannot establish cause and effect, difficult to rule out rival hypotheses and static, time bound. In spite of these disadvantages, the cross-sectional design will be considered the most appropriate for finding the influence of career-efficacy and gender stereotyping on sex-typed occupations as career choices among SHS Students in the Asante Akim North Municipality.

Study Area/Location

This study was carried out in six (6) Senior High Schools in the Asante Akim North Municipality of the Ashanti Region namely, Konongo Odumase Senior High School, Agogo State Senior High School, Collins Commercial Senior High School, Owereman Senior High School, Konongo Wesley Senior High School and Konongo St. Mary Girls Senior High School. The municipality is mountainous area especially Agogo. The Municipality is situated between the Eastern Region, Kumawu and Juaso. Konongo is the municipal capital which is about forty kilometers from Kumasi the Regional capital. The main language spoken in the area is Asante Twi and the Christianity is the dominant religion practiced by the inhabitants. However, there are a few who prefer the traditional religions and migrants from the Northern part of the country who also identified themselves to the Islamic religion. The municipality is predominantly occupied by peasant farmers, small scale business operators and small scale miners. The researcher's familiarity of the study also influences its choice for the study.

Population Description

Ordinarily, the term population refers to a group of people inhabiting a specified geographical location. The American Heritage Dictionary (2007) defines population as a set of data consisting of all conceivable observations of a certain phenomenon. It could be finite and infinite. In educational research, the type of population used is the target population. Borg & Gall (2000) state that target population is all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which we wish to generalize the results of our research. It has the advantage of saving time and expense of studying the entire population. The target population was all Form Four (4) final year Senior High School students (SHS) in the Asante Akim North Municipality. The form four (4) final years were chosen because they are about to get to the world of work. Again they are they have also spent much time in the school and as a result they can respond to the questionnaire with without little help. The total population for SHS students in the Municipality is 7,323: 4206 Males and 3117 Females. There are more male than female according to the total enrolment.

Table.1: Distribution of population by Sex and School

Name of School	Boys	Girls	Total
Konongo Odumase SHS	1666	1074	2740
Agogo State SHS	1078	911	1989
Collins Commercial SHS	873	675	1548
Owereman SHS	396	304	700
St. Mary Girls SHS Konongo	-	13	13
Wesley SHS Konongo	193	140	333

Total	4206	3117	7,323
-------	------	------	-------

Source: Asante Akim North Municipal Education Office (2020)

Instrumentation and Data Collection

The instrument used is (Appendix 2) a 5-scale questionnaire (Likert scale) as described by Best and Khan (1996). All the instruments are constructed taking into cognizance the literature review and especially the research hypotheses. It can equally be useful as follow-ups to certain respondents to questionnaires and also to pursue in-depth information around a topic. The questionnaire (Likert) was used to investigate the influence of Career Self-Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping, and Career Self-Concept on their Sex-Typed Career Choice. According to Ofori and Dampson (2011) Likert scales determine what an individual believes, perceives, or feels about self, others, activities, institutions, or situations. The direction of scoring for all the scales is that, the higher the respondent score, the better his/her understanding on Gender Stereotyping, Career Self Concept and Sex-Typed Career Choice factors. The distribution of the questionnaire was as follows, biographic had fourteen 14 Statements 1-14, 10 statements on Career Self-Efficacy, ten statements on Gender Stereotyping, 10 on Career Self-Efficacy and 22 statements on Sex-Typed Career Choice. The set of questionnaires used for the present study were adopted from Bem's Sex Role scale (1974), Benevolent Sexism Scale (Glick & Fiske, 2007) and the researcher's own written questions based on the research topic and the culture of the people. The questionnaire consists of three (3) sections A, B, and C. Section A consist of eight questions on demographic information about the student, parent, and his or her family; it is made up of 14 questions or items which were to provide background information about respondents whose views were expressed in the study. Section B of the questionnaire was designed to record the impressions and beliefs of male and female student's respondents in respect to their career choice. It was made up of 10 Statements. Section C of the questionnaire was also designed to record respondent's career self-efficacy which was made to tap respondents' belief on how they can master a career typed and produce a positive outcome, was made up of 22. Again, nine (9) statements on Sex-Typed Career Choice of the questionnaire was also designed to record how respondents choose, their career with respect to their gender. The 52 closed- ended statements to which respondents were to show their degree of responses that is Strongly Agree (1) Agree (2) Uncertain (3) Disagree (4) and Strongly Disagree (5) Strongly Agree ticked on a statement means that the respondent will have the highest score five (5) on a statement Agree goes with a scores of four (4), Uncertain goes with a score of three (3), disagree two while Strongly Disagree is the fewest score of one (1) on the statement. The main benefits of questionnaire are its low cost, as well as saving the researcher time and effort as data collection tool, (Ofori & Dampson, 2011). Questionnaire was used because it is believed that at the SHS Four (4) students could read and understand simple questions and respond to them.

Data Collection Procedure

The study was conducted in Konongo Odumase SHS, Agogo State SHS, Collins Secondary Commercial School, Owereman SHS, St, Mary Girls SHS Konongo, and Wesley SHS Konongo respectively all in the Asante Akim North Municipality. A sample size of 800 respondents was selected for the study. Before the study letters from the researcher's department were sent to the various headmasters at the school to seek permission. Students who participated in the study and completed the 52 item questionnaire gave their consent before taking part. The researcher's presence also helped to clarify issues, when the need arose.

Validity

The main aim was to assess the construct validity of the 52 questions on Ghanaian subjects using factor analysis. The factor analysis was used to check the construct validity of the questionnaire. In many ways factor analysis can be regarded as one way of assessing the construct validity of a questionnaire since it is the method of selecting only the indicators or items that tap the concept the researcher is trying to measure in an attempt to improve its construct validity (Ofori & Dampson, 2011). Factor analysis reduced the number of indicators by selecting only those indicators which actually give an accurate measure of the concept the researcher is trying to measure.

Reliability

There are several methods of finding the reliability of the questionnaire such as Test-retest, Split Half and Cronbach's alpha but for the purpose of this study the, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used as it is the most appropriate method for computing reliability. In assessing the reliability of the four factors of the current study, career self-efficacy, gender stereotyping, career self-concept and sex typed career choice were run differently (Field, 2005;Kline, 2002) cited in Ofori & Dampson, 2011) recommended that alpha of .80 or higher. However, Ofori & Dampson (in press) Accepted the value of reliability being good at .60. Reliability refers to the consistency of measurement. It is an important indicator that determines a good quantitative research instrument. It equally refers to the consistency, constancy or dependability, accuracy and precision with which an instrument measures the attributes it is designed to measure. In addition to these, reliability refers to the consistency, stability, predictability, accuracy, dependency or trustworthiness of the scores obtained; how consistent they are for each individual from one administration of an instrument to another and from one set of items to another (Kumar et al., 2008).

Table 2: Reliability of Instruments using Cronbach's Alpha

<i>Scales</i>	<i>Cronabachs Alpha</i>	
Gender Stereotyping	0.78	9
Career Self Efficacy	0.77	4
Career Self Concept	0.78	4
Sex-Typed Career Choice	0.72	4

Source: Field Study, 2020

The table 2 above shows the reliability statistics of the various constructs of the questionnaire. It shows the number of items and its Cronbach alpha. The table shows that the gender stereotyping had an alpha coefficient of 0.78 on 9 items; Career Self Efficacy had the alpha co-efficient of 0.77 on 4 items. Career Self Concept had alpha co-efficient of 0.78 with 4 items. On the other hand, Sex-Typed Career Choice also had an alpha co-efficient of 0.72 on 4 items. Components with Cronbach's Alpha equal or greater than 0.6 testify of a good internal consistency making them reliable. Generally, reliability is good when Cronbach's Alpha is greater than 0.5 (Ofori & Dampson, 2011)). It shows that the components could be judged as reliable. On the other hand, Bem (1981) had a Coefficient alpha of .75, Rudman & Kilianski, (2000), alpha .77. Benevolent Sexism(Glick & Fiske, 1996) had alpha .68on Gender Stereotyping. On Career Self-Efficacy, Hartman (2006) had an alpha of .70. Comparing the alpha values above to that of the researcher, it is clear that there are same differences, this indicated that the various researches was conducted on different cultural by on backgrounds and different respondents.

Pilot Study

The questionnaire was piloted to test its validity and reliability. For testing the reliability of the questionnaire the test-retest method was employed. The instrument was tested on a group of one hundred (100) Form Four (4) neutral sample Senior High School Students in the Kumasi Municipality and the data was recorded. The exercise was repeated on the same sample a fort-night later and again coded. The first data were correlated with the second data which yielded an r of .80. Since the questionnaire yielded a Pearson's r of .80 for the test retest the questionnaire can be regarded as highly reliable (Kline 2002).

Data Analysis Procedure

After sorting out the questionnaires, the data were computed and analyzed with the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. The statistical analysis such as frequencies and percentages, mean and standard deviations, multiple regression and independent t-test were used according

to respective hypotheses of the study. The purpose of multiple regression is to predict a dependent variable (Sex - Typed Career Choice) from a combination of independent/predictor variables (career self-efficacy and gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Efficacy). Independent sample t-test was used to determine whether differences exist with regard to the career self-efficacy, Gender Stereotyping, Career -Self Concept and Sex-Typed Career Choice experienced by Males and Females.

Table 3: Distribution of Sample by Sex and School

Name of School	Boys	Girls	Total
Konongo Odumase SHS	200	150	350
Agogo State SHS	150	60	110
Collins Commercial SHS	100	40	140
Owereman SHS	30	35	65
St. Mary Girls SHS Konongo	-	08	08
Wesley SHS Konongo	20	07	27
Total	500	300	800

Source: Field Study, 2020

Distribution of Respondents Programs or Courses Offered

Concerning the participant’s programmes or courses offered, Table 4.2 below illustrates that 289 males (36.14) and 114 females (14.26) offered General Arts, males 16(2.02) and female 30(3.78) offered Business, males 93 (12.28) and females 45 (5.63) offered elective Science, 4 males (0.50) and 12 females (1.50) also offered home economics, while 117 males (14.63) and 75 females (9.37) also offered agricultural science. There distribution shows that there were more males than the females. The distribution shows that most of the male students read Elective Science and Agriculture Science while most of the female students also read Home Economics and Business

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents Programs or Courses Offered

Factors	Frequency				
General Arts	403	289	36.14	114	14.26
Business	46	16	2.02	30	3.78
Elective Science	143	98	12.28	45	5.63
Home Economics	16	4	0.50	12	1.50
Agric Science	192	117	14.63	75	9.37
Total		800			

Source: Field Study, 2020

Sex Distribution of Respondents

Table 4.3, shows the sex distribution of respondents. As seen in the table, 500 (62.60) were male and 300 (37.40) were females. This distribution appears that there are more males than the female students.

Table 5: Sex Distribution of Respondents

Sex	Frequency	
Male	500	62.6
Female	300	37.4

Total	800
--------------	------------

Source: Field Study, 2020

Distribution of Respondents family

Distribution of respondents' family type was investigated in the study because they provided useful insights into the students' career choice. Table 4.40 below indicates that 557 of the respondents representing 69.62% reported that they had more males than female in their family, while 243 of them representing 30.38%, also indicated that they had more females in their family than males.

Table 6 Distribution of Respondents family

Family Typed	Frequency	Percentage
More Males than Females	557	69.62
More Females than Males	243	30.38
Total	800	100

Source: Field Study, 2020

Distribution of Respondents Factors to Consider When Choosing a Career

The factors the students consider when choosing their career was analyzed. The findings revealed 214 males (26.75) and 130 females (16.25) of the respondents reported that they choose their career in order to make extra money, 145 males (18.11) and 64 females(7.99) also indicated that they choose their career based on the fact that they will be privileged to travel outside the country, males 71 (8.85) and females 50 (6.24) reported that they selected their career because of prestige, while males 6 (0.76) and females 9 (1.14) indicated that they choose their career because of the employees uniform. The distribution shows that most of the male and female students will choose their career in order to make extra money and prestige.

Table 7 Factors to consider when choosing a career

Factors	Freq	Male	%	Female	%
Prestige	121	71	8.85	50	6.24
Uniform	15	6	0.76	9	1.14
Fringe benefits	32	15	1.88	17	2.12
Potential to travel outside	209	145	18.11	64	7.99
Potential to make extra money	344	214	26.75	130	16.25
Opportunity to meet people	79	50	6.26	29	3.64
Total	800	500	62.61	300	37.39

Source: Field Study, 2020

Respondents' Career Choice

With regard to the respondents future occupation, out of 800 study respondents, Table 4.6 below indicates that 365 of them representing 11.37% males and 34.26% females claimed that they prefer to become teachers, 5% males and 20% females indicated that they would like to be nurses, 85 of the respondents representing 8.75% males and 1.87% females ticked doctors, 74 of the respondents representing 6.84% males and 2.36% females indicated security services, again 73 of the respondents representing 1.75% males and 7.35% female also ticked engineer, while 3 of them representing 0.13 % males and 0.27% females indicated that they prefer to be secretaries. From the distribution more female students chose careers such as

nursing, teaching and secretary while the male students also chose careers such as the security services, engineering, and medical doctors.

Table 8: Distribution of Respondents Career Choice

Occupation	Frequency	Male	%	Female	%
Engineer	73	14	1.75	59	7.35
The Security Services	74	55	6.84	19	2.36
Doctor	85	70	8.75	15	1.87
Teacher	365	91	11.37	274	34.26
Nurse	200	40	5.00	160	20.00
Secretary	3	2	0.13	1.0	0.27
Total	800	500	56.87	300	43.13

Source: Field Study, 2020

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis tested a multivariate model in which students' Career Self-Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping, and Career Self-Concept are assumed to influence their Sex-Typed Career Choice.

Regression analysis using the forced entry method was performed using SPSS to assess the relative contribution of Career Self-Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept in the prediction of the extent to which students would choose a Sex-Typed Career. Table 8 displays unstandardized (b) and standardized (beta) regression coefficient, the multiple correlation coefficients (R), adjusted (R²) and the value of (t) and its associated p-value for each variable that entered into the equation. As shown in Table 4.8 below, career self-efficacy, gender stereotyping and career self-concept collectively explain 2% (adjusted R² = .02) of the variance in sex-typed career choice. Based upon the order of entry chosen for the present sample, it would appear that Career Self-Efficacy explained the bulk of the variance in sex-typed career choice (beta = -.15, t = -4.240, p = 0.000) and was the best predictor of sex-typed career choice. As it can be seen in Table 8 below, the contribution of Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept were not statistically significant at the 0.05 level. However, Career Self-Concept (beta = -.05) was a better predictor of Sex-Typed Career Choice than Gender Stereotyping (beta = -.02). In summary, it would appear that Career Self-Efficacy emerged as the best single predictor of the extent to which students in the Asante Akim North Municipality choose Sex-Typed Career.

Table 8: Forced entry regression of Career Self-Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept on Sex-Typed Career Choice career choice (n=21)

Variable	b	Beta	R	R ²	t	Sig. (t)
Step 1						
Constant		3.41		-.1517.853	.000	
Career Self Efficacy	-.10	-4.240	.000			
Gender Stereotyping	-.02	-.02	.498	.619		
Career Self Concept	-.04	-.05	-1.290	.197	.05	

Hypothesis Two.

The second hypothesis tested the assumption that male students will have higher Career Self-Efficacy than their female counterparts. Table 4.8 presents the results of the independent samples test performed. As can be seen in Table 9 comparison of the means of the two groups suggest that the males have higher Career Self-Efficacy (mean=3.70) than their females (mean=3.55). To test whether the difference in the mean Career Self-Efficacy between the two groups is statistically significant, an independent samples t-test was performed. The results of this test (Table 9) revealed that there was statistically significant difference in the

mean Career Self-Efficacy between the two groups ($t = 2.56$, $df = 798$, $p = 0.5$ one tailed).indicating that the males have higher Career Self-Efficacy than their female counterparts Therefore the study hypothesis that male students will have higher Career Self-Efficacy than the female students is accepted and the null hypothesis that there will be no significant different in Career Self-Efficacy between male and female students rejected.

Table 9: Summary statistics and independent samples t-test on male and female with respect to career self-efficacy

Groups	Mean	SD	N	t	Df	Sig.(1-tailed)
Male	3.70	.81	500			
	2.563	798	.05			
Female	3.55	.77	300			

Hypothesis three.

The third hypothesis generated for the current study tested the assertion that the male students will have higher Career Self-Concept than their female counterparts. Table 10 presents the results of the independent samples t-test preformed. As can be seen in Table 10, comparison of the means of the two groups suggest that the females have higher Career Self-Concept (mean=3.40) than their female counterparts (mean=3.37). To test whether the difference between the two groups is statistically significant, an independent sample t-test was performed. The results of the t-test (Table 10) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in the mean Career Self-Concept between the two groups ($t=.115$, $df=798$, $p=.45$ one tailed) Therefore the study hypothesis that male students will have higher Career Self-Concept than the female students is rejected and the null hypothesis that there will be no significant difference on Career Self-Concept between the male and female students accepted

Table 10. Summary statistics and independent samples t-test on male and female with respect to career self-Concept.

Groups	Mean	SD	N	t	Df	Sig.(1-tailed)
Male	3.37	.70	500			
	.115	798	.45			
Female	3.40	.70	300			

Hypothesis Four

The fourth hypothesis tested the assumption that there will be a significant sex difference with respect to Sex-Typed Career Choice. **Table 11** shows that there are differences in the groups' means (males students = 2.85, female students = 2.90). To test whether the difference between the two groups means is statistically significant, an independent samples t-test was performed. As shown in Table 4.9, the results of the t-test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female students with respect to Sex-Typed Career Choice ($t = 3.239$, $df=798$, $p= .005$) indicating that the female students choose significantly more Sex-Typed Career Choice than their male counterparts.

Table 11: Summary statistics and independent samples t-test on male and female students with respect to sex-typed career choice

Groups	Mean	SD	N	t	Df	Sig.(1-tailed)
Male	2.85	.53	500			
	-3.239	798	.005			
Female	2.90	.54	300			

Hypothesis Five

The fifth hypothesis generated for the study tested the assertion that students from female dominated families will choose significantly more Sex-Typed Career than those from the male dominated families. As

can be seen from Table 12, comparison of the means of the two groups reveals that the students from female dominated families have chosen more higher Sex-Typed Career (mean=3.79) than their counterparts from male dominated families (mean=3.56). To test whether the difference in the mean Sex-Typed Career Choice between the two groups is statistically significant an independent samples t-test was performed. The results of the t-test revealed that there was statistically significant difference in the mean Sex-Typed Career Choice between the two groups ($t=6.842$, $df=798$, $p=0.000$) indicating that the students from female dominated family chose significantly more Sex-Typed Career than those from male dominated family. Therefore, the study hypothesis is accepted and the null hypothesis rejected. Table 12 Summary statistics and independent samples t-test on male and female dominated families with respect to sex-typed career choice.

Table 12 Summary statistics and independent samples t-test on male and female dominated families with respect to sex-typed career choice

Groups	Mean	SD	N	t	Df	Sig.(1-tailed)
Male	3.56	.49	500			
-	6.842	798	0.000			
Female	3.79	.41	300			

Source: Field Study, 2020

The relative importance of Career Self-Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept in choosing Sex-Typed Career

The finding that Career Self-Efficacy was the most predictive of the students' Sex-Typed Career Choice, then their Career Self-Concept and Gender Stereotyping appears to support previous studies. For example, Bandura (1993) have suggested that those who have high Career Self-Efficacy tend to visualize success for themselves and seek positive support and outcomes for their Career ambitions, Bandura (1993) added that the higher the Career Self-Efficacy beliefs of students the greater the career goal and challenges students will set for themselves, and the stronger their commitment will be for them. Additionally, Career Self Efficacy is considered essential to successful job performance and can greatly influence work behaviours regardless of knowledge and skills (Bandura, 1977, Dawes, et al, 2008). Again, Nesdale and Pinter (2000) posit that across diverse cultures career Self-Efficacy was a significant predictor of an individual's ability to continually find employment. According to Niles and Sowa, (1992) Career Self-Efficacy has also been found to be one of the best predictors of many beginning career behaviours, such as job searching. In addition, emotional arousal is theorized to impact career self-efficacy in both a positive and negative way (Bandura, 1982). In general, if an individual's background has involved successful and positive experiences, in which career self-efficacy has been raised and strengthened, he or she is more likely to develop a higher level of expectations, increased self-confidence, and enhanced performance towards that career domain (Sterrett, 2008; Super, 2005). Although direct relationship between Career Self-Efficacy and Sex-Typed Career Choice has not been found, the fact that the present study has found this relationship is not surprising. This is because, Career Self-Efficacy can motivate towards Career behaviours (Betz & Taylor, (2001). In this case, it can motivate students not to only choose a career but also one that is Sex-typed. However, it is surprising that Gender Stereotyping did not make any contribution to the explanation of the variance in Sex-Typed Career Choice. This is because attitudes are expected to influence behaviour and therefore one would expect attitudes toward gender in the form of Gender Stereotyping to influence the students Sex-Typed Career Choice. A probable reason why Gender Stereotyping did not significantly influence the students' Sex-Typed Career Choice was that, these days more females are leaving the traditional female careers and entering into the traditionally male careers like engineering, medicine, law and farming. However, males are ready to enter into the traditionally feminine careers, yet like nursing, catering, pottery and secretaryship are reserved for women as posited by (Baron & Bielby, 2000; Nelson & Bridge, 2007). In such a situation the analysis will not detect a significant influence. On the other hand, it is not surprising that Career Self-Concept did not influence the students' Sex-Typed Career Choice because Career Self-Concept is rather the

accumulation of knowledge about the self and career such as beliefs regarding personality traits, physical characteristics, career abilities, values, goals and attitudes towards sex. This is consistent with Doyle,(2005).

Sex difference in Career Self-Efficacy

Career Self-Efficacy is defined as a person's ability and confidence concerning his or her ability to successfully perform a given career. This is therefore an important factor in understanding how people develop confidence and perceive their abilities in relation to careers. The finding of the second hypothesis was that, the male students had higher Career Self-Efficacy than their female counterparts. This supports Hackett and Betz,(2009) who posited that, socialization brings differences between men and women in Career Self-Efficacy for traditional male and female careers. Again Career Self-Efficacy can ultimately determine whether an individual will choose to perform or refrain from a career (Bandura, 1998). Another reason for the significant finding may be because of cross diverse cultures which are a major predictor on an individual's ability to continually find employment (Nasdale & Pinter, 2000).

Sex difference in Career Self-Concept

Again, the findings from the third hypothesis suggested that Sex has no effect on Career Self-Concept beliefs. The fact that the present study did not find a relationship is not surprising. This is because Career Self-Concept is the accumulation of knowledge about the Self and Career such as beliefs regarding personality traits, physical characteristics, abilities values, goals and roles in relation to career rather than attitudes towards Sex

Influence of Primary and Secondary Socialization on Sex-Typed Career Choice

The present findings from the fourth and fifth hypotheses were that the female students chose more Sex-Typed Careers than their male counterparts. Again students from female dominated families chose more Sex- typed Careers than their male counterparts, suggesting that, the fact that they are from female dominated families influenced them to choose female dominated occupations. In other words, the female students chose more female dominated careers than their male counterparts. Sex- typed Careers refer to the types of careers that are dominated by specific sex-type. The finding of the fifth hypothesis was that, students from female dominated families chose more Sex-Typed Careers than those from male dominated family. The fact that, the present study has found this relationship is not surprising. This is because, most men work in occupations that are predominately held by men, and most women work in occupations held by women. This occurred since the earliest human societies, when men went out to hunt and women gathered, Preston, (1999). Another probable reason why female students chose more Sex-Typed Careers than those from the male counterparts was that, male dominated families especially fathers encourage traditional sex-roles in their children by treating sons and daughters differently. For example, fathers typically regard their baby boys as stronger as and harder than their baby girls whom they regard more fragile and more in need of protection which was in consistency with Vokeh (1990).

Summary of Study Findings

The following findings were made from the data analysis.

1. It was found That Career Self-Efficacy explain the bulk of the variance in Sex-Typed Career Choice and that Self-Efficacy emerged as the best single predictor out of Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept with regard to Sex-Typed Career Choice.
2. Generally, the impact of Career Self-Efficacy was more on the male students than on the female students.
3. Again female students are influenced more by their sex when it comes to Sex-Typed Career Choice than their male counterparts.
4. Sex had no effect on the students' Career Self-Concept, for this reason both male and female students had similar view of the beliefs that constitute the variance of students Sex-Typed Career Choice.
5. Students from female dominated family had more Sex-Typed Careers than their male counterparts. As most women work in occupations that is predominately held by women, and most men work in occupations held by men. This occurred since the earliest human societies when men went out to hunt and women gathered.

Conclusion

One of the values of conducting research is that close examination of a singular setting can yield insights into the subtleties of social reality often missed in more generalized quantitative research. This research studied the influence of Career Self-Efficacy, Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept of on Sex-Typed Career Choice of Senior High School students in the Asante Akim North Municipality. It also investigated whether there were sex differences in these concepts.

It was evident from the present study that; families perpetuate Gender Stereotyping among their children by encouraging them to choose careers that are suitable to their gender.

Again, it was realized that Career Self-Efficacy was the better predictor of Sex-Typed Career Choice but the contributions of Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept were not statistically significant.

On the issue of Career Self-Efficacy, the male students had a higher Career Self-Efficacy than their female counterparts. Most of the female students chose careers that are related to their Sex as their future profession as most of the female students chose nursing as their future profession. Again fewer females chose engineering as their future profession as against more of their male counterparts.

More so, there was no statistically significant difference between male and female students with respect to Career Self-Efficacy.

It is rather sad to note that even though the six (6) schools visited have school counsellors who are expected to promote psychological, social, emotional and vocational development support to both teachers and students, the teachers hardly refer problem students to these counsellors, probably because of the fact that the teachers are not very much aware of the roles and functions of the school guidance and counselling officers.

Furthermore, it is hoped that the findings of the study will enlighten educational administrators on acceptable and recommended administrative style that can create a conducive environment devoid of student vocational problems. Despite the numerous research work conducted on students' Sex-Typed Choice in foreign countries, there is apparently lack of empirical studies in Ghana relating to this area of study. Apart from adding to the research on Sex-Typed Career Choice, the study would also provide the basis for other prospective researchers into other domains of the students Sex-Typed Choice not covered in this research.

Recommendations

Guidance and Counselling remains the most responsive method of catering for the career needs of today's youth, it also prepares them for a well-planned future career as they develop healthy personality and hence grow to understand life's problems and better prepares them to find most lasting solutions to their career needs as posited by Ngozi, (2004). Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made to curb the persistent variations in the results of Sex-Typed Career Choice of students in the Asante Akim North Municipality of Ghana.

1. It was observed that Career Self-Efficacy explains the bulk of the variance in Sex-Typed Career Choice and that Self-Efficacy emerged as the best single predictor out of Gender Stereotyping and Career Self-Concept with regard to Sex-Typed Career Choice. This means that counsellors should counsel students to understand their Career Self-Efficacy so as to prevent the issue of students going in for Sex-Typed Career Choice but rather go in for careers that are in consistence to their potentialities.
2. Generally, the impact of Career Self-Efficacy was more on the male students than the female students. Couple with this, counsellors should assist the female students to also develop equal Career Self-Efficacy abilities so as to reduce the problem of Sex-Typed Career Choice in the Municipality.
3. Sex had no effect on the students' Career Self-Concept, for this reason both male and female students had similar view of the beliefs that constitute the variance of students Sex-Typed Career Choice. These calls for the educational authorities to intensify their plan activities that would aid at informing students on self and career such as personality traits, physical characteristics, goals, and roles in relation to career.

4. Again female students are influenced more by their sex when it comes to Sex-Typed Career Choice than their male counterparts. In this regard, there would be the need for school authorities to design programmes that for the students that would prevent or reduce the issue of Sex-Typed Career Choice. Furthermore, parents and other guardians should be educated on the need to respect students' career interest and needs.
5. Students from female dominated family had more Sex-Typed Careers than their male counterparts. As most women work in occupations that is predominately held by women, and most men work in occupations held by men. This occurred since the earliest human societies when men went out to hunt and women gathered. Counsellors in the various schools should occasionally invite parents to the school and be briefed on their wards career interest in other not to encourage traditional sex-roles in their children by treating their sons and daughters differently as some fathers regards their baby boys as stronger and harder than their baby girls whom are regarded more fragile and more in need of protection.

This study therefore recommends that, more counsellors be trained and if possible all schools should be provided with trained and qualified counsellors to take pragmatic steps in merging theory and practice of guidance and counselling for better outcomes. But to achieve these, the government should provide the needed logistic and facilities to enable the school counsellors to assist students in vocational, educational and socio-personal problems rather than the lip-service in promoting guidance and counselling. Again during Parent Teacher Association (P.T.A.) meetings, counsellors should take the advantage to educate the parents and guidance the need to prevent Sex-Typed Career Choice.

Acknowledgement: Mrs. Rose Adjei, Dominic Adom-Adjei, Herbert Adom-Adjei and Diana Adutwumwaa

References

- [1.]Achebe, C. (1996). Things fall apart. Heinemann Educational Pub. U.S.A
- [2.]Akoben, K. (2002). Discrimination against women. The Ark Foundation, 3, 12-16.
- [3.]Alice, M. (1996). Hypatia's heritage; A history of women in science from antiquity through the nineteenth century. Boston; beacon press
- [4.]Alvermann, D. (1996). The gendered language of test and classrooms; Teachers and students exploring multiple perspective and interpretation Georgia: College Park,MO.
- [5.]America Association of University of Women (AAUW). (1991) Short-changing girls. Short-changing American. A nation-wide poll to assess self-esteem national Experiences, interest in maths and science, and career aspirations of girls and boys Age 9-15. Washington DC.
- [6.]Ameyaw-Akunfi, C. (2001). Eve and Adam, the gender development institute. Quarterly Newsletter. 3 Accra: Cantonments.
- [7.]Ary, D., Jacob, L. C & Razavieh, A (1985). Introduction to research in education. New York: Rinehart and Winston.
- [8.]Danyamator A. G. (1999) the Influence of Gender Stereotyping on Career Choice. A Study in Senior Secondary Schools in the Cape Coast Municipality. Unpublished M.Phil. Thesis, University of Cape Coast
- [9.]Banks, J. S (1994). Building the gender gap: self-concept in the middle grades New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- [10.] Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- [11.] Barauch, G.(1974). Maternal career orientation as related to parental indifference in College women. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 2, 173-179
- [12.] British Broadcasting Corporation English Dictionary (1991). London: BBC English and Harper Collins Pub, Ltd.
- [13.] Bianchi, S M. & Spain, D. (1996). American Women in transition. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- [14.] Bielby, T & Baron, N. (1986). Men women at work: sex segregation and statistical

- discrimination. *American Journal of Sociology*, 61, 759-799.
- [15.] Biklen, S.K. (1995). *School work: Gender and the cultural construction of teaching*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [16.] Boadu-Ayebofo, y. (2001, May 25th). Is it a curse to be a girl, *Daily Graphic*. (14224).
- [17.] Bordin, E S. (1943). A theory of vocational interest as dynamic phenomena *Journal of Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 2, 47—65
- [18.] Brown D., Brooks L. (1990). *Career choice and development* (2nd ed). San Francisco Jossey- Bass Publication.
- [19.] Bryne, E. M. (1991) *Investing in women: Technical and scientific training for economic Development*. ILO Training Discussion Publication, 62, Geneva.
- [20.] Buford, S. (1966). Vocational development. Ten propositions in search of a theory *Personal and Guidance Journal*, 44, (6), 611-616
- [21.] Calvert, A. (1979). *Girls and Apprenticeships*. T. A.F.E. Service Report, Canberra, Austerial.
- [22.] Cegelka, P. T., Omeving, C. & Larimore, D. L. (1974). Effects of aptitude and sex on Vocation interest. *Measurement and Evaluation in guidance* 106 - 111
- [23.] *Constitution of the Republic of Ghana*. (1992). Accra: Ghana Publishing Corp.
- [24.] Date-Bah, E. (1976). Ghanaian women in academia: Africa women in a new Occupational role. *Ghana Journal of Sociology*, 12, (1) 33-45
- [25.] Debold, E. (1979). Helping girls survive the middle grades. *Principal*, 74,22-24
- [26.] Dipboye, W.J. & Anderson, W. F. (1959). The ordering of occupational values by high school freshmen and seniors. *Personal and Guidance Journal*, 6, 121- 124
- [27.] England, P & McCreary, L. (1987). *Inequality in paid employment*. Sage: Newbury Park, calf.
- [28.] Ernst,S.B. (1995). Gender issues in books from children and young adults. In S. Lehro(Ed). Batting dragons: issues and controversy in children’s literature,Portsmouth: H
- [29.] Evans. K. (1996). Creating spaces for equity. The role of positioning in peer led literature discussions *Language Arts*. 73 (3), 194-202.
- [30.] Fagot, B. V. (1997) Sex differences in toddlers and parents’ reaction. *Developmental Psychology*, 10,554-558.
- [31.] Farmer, H. S. (1997). Diversity and women’s career development. Thousand Oaks,CA:Sage.
- [32.] Feldeman, D.C. (1986). *Managing career in organizations*. Glenview. I.L.: Scott, Foresmen.
- [33.] Fox, M. (1999). Men who weep, boys who dance. The gender between thelines in children’s literature. Language Art, 70,(2) , 84-88.
- [34.] Frankel,J.R.& Wallen N.E. (2000) How to design and evaluate research in education (4th ed). New York: McGraw – Hill Inc.
- [35.] Gray, L.R. (1992).Educational research for analysis and application (4th ed) New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- [36.] Gesinde, S.A. (1976). Parterns of occupational preference of some Nigerian Secondary School students. An unpublished paper University of Ibadan: Ibadan.
- [37.] Ghana Education service (1998). *Gender matters*. A publication from the girls’ education unit. Issue 1 Author.
- [38.] Gibson, R.L. & Michel, M.H. (1990). *Introduction to counselling and guidance* (3rd ed). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company
- [39.] Ginzberg, E. (1984). Career development. In D Brown, L, Brooks. *Career choice and Development: Applying contemporary theories to practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Gottfredson, L.(1981). *Circumscription and compromise: A development theory of Vocational aspirations*. (Monograph). *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 28, 245-579.
- [40.] Graham, C.K.(1976). *The history of education in Ghana*. Accra-Tema:Ghana Publishing corporation
- [41.] Griffin, G. (1997). Teaching as a gender experience. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 48, 7-8.
- [42.] Rice E.P. (1984). *The adolescent: Development, relationship and culture* (4th ed) New York: Routledge.
- [43.] Rubin, J.A Provenzeno.F J. & Luria, A.(1974). The eye of the beholder: Parents’ Views on sex of new borns. *American Journal of Orthosychiary*, 44, 512-519.

- [44.] Rudman, M. (1995). Children's literature: An issues approach (3rd Ed). New York:Longman.
- [45.] Sadkere, M., Sadker, D. & Kleins. (1991). The issue of gender in elementary and Secondary education. *Review of Research in Education*, 17, 309-315
- [46.] Saegert, S. & Hart, R. (1994). *Failing at fairness: How America schools cheat girls*. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- [47.] Sadker, M., Sadker, D. & Kleins. (1991). The issue of gender in elementary and secondary education. *Review of Research in Education*, 17, 309- 315
- [48.] Saegert, S. & Hart, R., (1976). The development of sex differences in the environmental competence of children. In P. Burnett (Ed). *Women in Society*. Chicago; Maaroufa press.
- [49.] Saviskas M.L.(1997). Adolescents career development in social context. *National Career Development Association Quarterly*, 45, No 4
- [50.] Scanzoni L. D. and Scanzini J (1988). *Men, women and change sociology of marriage and family* (3rd ed). New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc
- [51.] Seifort, R. L. & Hoffnung, J R (1991) *child and adolescents development* (2nd ed) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company.
- [52.] Sherf, R S. et al (1997) *applying career development theory to counselling* 2nd ed Pacific Grove, CA. Brooks/Cole.
- [53.] Sherzer Bruce (1985). *Career planning, freedom to choose* (3rd ed). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- [54.] Shertzer.B and Stone, S. C. (1976). *Fundamentals of guidance* 3rd ed. Boston:Houghton Mifflin Company.
- [55.] Smutny, J. F. (1995). Mixed messages. What are telling our gifted girls? *PTA Today*, 20,4, 30-31.
- [56.] Sosanya, M. S. (1980). A survey of vocational interests of some selected Nigerians Adolescents. An unpublished Bachelor of Education Project work, Department of Guidance and counselling. University of Ibadan: Ibadan
- [57.] Stitt-Gohdes, W. L. (1997). *Career development issues of gender, race and class* Columbus: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Development
- [58.] Stone, L. (1994). Towards a transformational theory in teaching. In L. Stone (Ed). *The Education Fememinism Reader*. New York: Routledge.
- [59.] Super. (1990). A life span, life-space approach to career: development. In D. Brown.L Brooks. *Career Choice and Development* (2rd ed). San. Francisco.CA: Jossey- Bass.
- [60.] Suttana, R. Gender, schooling and transformation, evaluating liberal feminist Action in education. *New Zealand Journal of education Studies*, 2, 5-25. New Zealand. Temple, C. (1993). What if "beauty" has been ugly? Reading against the grain of gender bias in children's books *Language Arts*, 70(2) 89-93.
- [61.] *The Holy Bible-King Janes version*. (1984). Michigan. Zondervan Pub. House.
- [62.] *The Holy Qur-an- Text Translation and Commentary* (1983) Maryland. Amana Corp
- [63.] Vorkeh, E. K. (1983). *Career guide for Africa. A ready reference for students, teachers and parents*. Woreester. : Square One Publication. Saga House
- [64.] Walsh, M. R. (1977). *Doctors wanted: No women need apply*. new Haven, CT: Yale University Press
- [65.] Yuh, E. N.(1980). Some correlates of vocational orientations of some selected Nigerian secondary students. An unpublished master of education thesis, University of Ibadan: Ibadan
- [66.] Zimbardo, P. (1992). *Psychology and life* (13th ed). New York: Harper-Collins.
- [67.] Zunker, V. K. (1994). *Career counselling applied concepts of life planning* (4th ed)California: Brooks/Cole Pub. Co.
- [68.] Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). **Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior**. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- [69.] Ajzen, I. (1991). **The theory of planned behaviour**. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211.
- [70.] Aladejana, F O. (2002) **Gender equality in science classroom: Curriculum implications for sustainable development**. *Nigerian Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 9 (2): 85-91
- [71.] Azikwe, U. (2002) **Mainstreaming in the curriculum for sustainable educational**

development. *Nigerian Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 9 (2): 100-121

- [72.] Calvanese, M. M. (2007) Investigating gender stereotypes in elementary education. *Journal of Undergraduate Psychological Research*, 2, 11-18
- [73.] Cahill, B., & Adams, E. (1997). **An exploratory study of early childhood teachers' attitudes toward gender roles.** *Sex Roles*, 36 517-529.
- [74.] Dambrun, M., Duarte, S., & Guimond, S. (2004). Why are men more likely to support group-based dominance than women? The mediating role of gender identification. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 43, 287-297
- [75.] Diekman, A. B & Eagly, A. H (2000) Stereotypes as dynamic constructs: Women and men of the past, present and future. *Personality and social psychology Bulletin*, 26, 1171-1188
- [76.] Eagly, A. H & wood, W. (1991) Explaining sex differences in social behaviour: A meta-analytic perspective. *Personality and Social Psychologist* 17, 306-315
- [77.] Eagly, A. H., & Mladinic, A. (1989) Gender Stereotypes and Attitudes Toward Women and Men. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 15 (40): 545-558
- [78.] Eccles, J. S., Barber, B., & Jozefowicz, D. (1999). Linking gender to educational, occupational, and recreational choice: Applying the Eccles, et al. Model of achievement-related choices. In W. B. Swann, J. Langlois, & L. A. Gilbert (Eds.), *Sexism and stereotypes in modern society* Washington, DC: **American Psychological Association**. pp. 153-192.
- [79.] Erinosh, S. Y. (1994) **Girl and Science education in Nigeria**. Report of a study prepared for the Rockefeller foundation. Monograph series, Anglo International, Nigeria Press
- [80.] Erinosh S.Y (1997) **Female Participation in Science: An analysis of Secondary School science Curriculum Materials in Nigeria**. A bridged research report No.29, Nairobi Academy of Science Publisher
- [81.] Erinosh S.Y (2005) **Women in Science**. An Inaugural lecture delivered at Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye. Sept 13, 2005
- [82.] Etim, J. S. (1988). Sex Role Portrayal in Books Used in Nigerian Secondary Schools. *Journal of Reading*, 31, 5: 422-457
- [83.] Fiske, S. T. (1993). Social cognition and social perception. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44, 155-194
- [84.] Fukada, H., Fukada. S., & Hicks, J. (1992) Stereotypical attitudes towards gender-based grade-level assignment of Japanese elementary school teachers. *The Journal of Psychology*, 127, 345-351
- [85.] Fung, A., & Ma, E. (2000). **Formal vs. informal use of television and gender-rote stereotyping in Hong Kong**. *Sex Roles*, 42, 57-81.
- [86.] Gencer, A. S., & Cakiroglu. (2007). Turkish pre-service science teachers' efficacy beliefs regarding science teaching and their beliefs about classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 664-675.
- [87.] Gray, C., & Leith, H (2004) **Perpetuating gender stereotypes in the classroom: a teacher perspective** *Educational Studies*, 30, (1): 3 – 17
- [88.] Gottfredson, L. S. (1996). Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise. In D.
- [89.] Brown, L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (3rd ed., pp.179-232). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- [90.] Gottfredson, L. S. (2005). Applying Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise in career guidance and counseling. In S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Careerdevelopment and counseling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 71-100). NewYork: Wiley.
- [91.] Gottfredson, L. S., & Becker, H. J. (1981). A challenge to vocational psychology: How important are aspirations in determining male career development? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 18, 121-137.
- [92.] Good, T. L., & Brophy, J. E. (1994). **Looking in classrooms (6th edition)**. New York: Harper Collins.
- [93.] Gupta, A. F. & Sue, Y. L. (1990). **Gender Representation in English Language Textbooks Used in the Singapore Primary Schools.** *Language and Education*, 4, 1: 29:50

- [94.] Hall, C. S., Lindzey, G., & Campbell, J. B. (1988). **Theories of personality (4th ed)**. New York: Wiley.
- [95.] Hallam, S., & Ireson, J. (2003) Secondary school teachers' attitudes towards and beliefs about ability grouping. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73 (3): 343-356
- [96.] Hoang, T. N. (2008) The effect of grade level, gender and ethnicity on attitude and learning environment in mathematics in High school. *International Electronic Journal of Mathematics Education*, 3(1): 48-59
- [97.] Ahrens, J.A. & O'Brien, K.M. (1996). predicting gender-role attitudes in adolescent females: Ability, agency, and parental factors. *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 20, 409-417.
- [98.] Bem, S.L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 42, 155-162.
- [99.] Chusmir, L.H. (1990). Men who make non-traditional career choices. *Journal of Counselling & Development*, 69, 11-16.
- [100.] Falkenbert S.D., Hindman, C.D., & Masey, D. (1983). Measuring attitudes toward males in society. Unpublished manuscript, Eastern Kentucky University.
- [101.] Feather, N.T. & Said, J.A. (1983). Preference for occupations in relation to masculinity, femininity, and gender. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 22, 113-127.
- [102.] Jome, L.M. & Tokar, D.M. (1998). Dimensions of masculinity and major choice traditionality. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 52, 120-134.
- [103.] McCandless, N.J., Lueptow, L.B., & McKee, M. (1989). Family socioeconomic status and adolescent sex-typing. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 51(3), 627-635.
- [104.] Rojewski, J.W. & Yang, B. (1997). Longitudinal analysis of select influences on adolescents' occupational aspirations. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 51, 375-410.
- [105.] Brien, K.M. (1996). The influence of psychological separation and parental attachment on the career development of adolescent women. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 48, 257-274.
- [106.] Brien, K.M. & Fassinger, R.E. (1993). A causal model of the career orientation and career choice of adolescent women. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 40(4), 456-469.
- [107.] 'Brien, K.M., Friedman, S.M., Tipton, L.C., & Linn, S.G. (2000). Attachment, separation, and women's vocational development: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 47(3), 301-315.
- [108.] 'Brien, K.M., Gray, M.P., Tourajdi, P.P., & Eigenbrode, S.P. (1996). *The operationalization of women's career choices*: The career aspiration scale. Unpublished manuscript, University of Maryland.
- [109.] Strange, C.C. & Rea, J.S. (1983). Career choice considerations and sex role self-concept of male and female undergraduates in non-traditional majors. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 23, 219-226.
- [110.] Werrbach, G.B., Grotevant, H.D., & Cooper, C.R. (1990). *Gender differences in adolescents' identity development in the domain of sex role concepts*. *Sex Roles*, 23(7-8), 349-362.
- [111.] Wulff, M.B. & Steitz, J.A. (1997). *Curricular track, career choice, and androgyny among adolescent females*. *Adolescence*, 32(125), 43-49.
- [112.] Bandura. A. (1982). *Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency*. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122-147.
- [113.] Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*.
- [114.] Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. Bandura, A. (1993). **Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning**. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117-148.
- [115.] Bandura, A. (Ed.) (1995). *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [116.] Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- [117.] Caprara, G. V., Scabini, E., & Sgritta, G. B. (2003). The long transition to adulthood: An Italian view. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *International perspectives on adolescence* (pp.71-99). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- [118.] Hackett, G. (1995). **Self-efficacy in career choice and development**. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 232-258). New York: Cambridge University Press.

- [119.] Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). **Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes:** A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 38, 30-38.
- [120.] Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 543-578.