

**VALUE ORIENTATION AND PERSONALITY
DIMENSIONS OF STUDENTS PURSUING DIVERSE
ACADEMIC DISCIPLINES**

A THESIS

SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Submitted by

LOVLEEN

Regn, No. 951010005

Supervisors

Dr. SANTHA KUMARI

Professor & Head

Dr. SIMERPREET AHUJA

Assistant Professor

School of Humanities and Social Sciences



THAPAR INSTITUTE

OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY

(Deemed to be University)

**SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
THAPAR INSTITUTE OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY,**

PATIALA -147001

PUNJAB- INDIA

March 2018

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled "VALUE ORIENTATION AND PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS OF STUDENTS PURSUING DIVERSE ACADEMIC DISCIPLINES" is an original piece of work done by me for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology. I also declare that this thesis or any part of it has not been submitted by me for the award of any degree, diploma, title or recognition before.

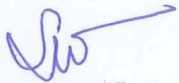
Patiala

28.03.2018

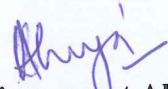

Lovleen

CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that this thesis entitled "VALUE ORIENTATION AND PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS OF STUDENTS PURSUING DIVERSE ACADEMIC DISCIPLINES" is record of bonafide study and research carried out by Lovleen under my supervision and guidance for the partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The results embodied in the thesis have not been submitted to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree, diploma, title or recognition.



Santha Kumari
Professor & Head
(Thesis Supervisor)
Thapar Institute of Engineering &
Technology, Patiala



Simerpreet Ahuja
Assistant Professor
(Thesis Supervisor)
Thapar Institute of Engineering &
Technology, Patiala

Patiala
28-03-2018

*Dedicated To
My Parents*

*Who remained a source of
Determination and Strength
throughout the Journey*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

An ambition to pursue my education in Psychology this far has been with me since my school days. With the blessings of 'Almighty', this dream is turning into reality. On this fortunate day I would like to thank some of the people whose hearts and hands have touched the pages of my work.

My Supervisor: Dr. Santha Kumari, I have come to know you as a woman of wisdom, insight, and strength. I respect your principles and values that have always motivated me to pursue my work. Thank you for your rich guidance, for the words of encouragement, for your voice of reason, for the knowledge you export selflessly, and for your unconditional support throughout my journey of research.

My second Supervisor: Dr. Simerpreet Ahuja, you have guided and carried me through the many days of self-doubt. Whenever I was unable to find my way, you were there for me; you lifted me up whenever I was weak, and gave me the perseverance to follow my journey to the finish line. I have always admired your sturdiness, commitment, and attitude towards life. Your encouragement and wholehearted support has kept me focused and going through it all.

The faith and confidence you both always had in me was the constant source of my motivation. Working under the guidance of mentors like you was a true privilege. It not only made my journey of PhD a delightful and much valued experience, it helped me grow as a person. Your teachings will remain with me throughout my life.

I express my sincere gratitude to Dr. O.P Pandey, Dean R & SP for his cooperation and guidance. I sincerely thank Mr. Pardeep Singla for his kind concern and support in completion of my work. I really appreciate all the Head of the institutes for their cooperation, permission, and generous help in providing the relevant information during my data collection. Thanks to all the subjects who have participated in the study. I am thankful to my thesis committee members: Dr. Gurvinder Kaur, Dr. Hitashi Lomash, and Dr. A.K Dhingra. I am also thankful to all the members of my department, School of Humanities and Social Sciences, especially Mrs. Navdeep Dhillon, for proof reading my work at a single request.

Next, I would owe my thanks to my family- My parents Dr. S.R. Sharma and Mrs. Suman Sharma. Papa and Mumma, you both have been a constant support in pursuing and accomplishing my dream of getting a doctorate degree. You have always been the pillars of my strength and inspiration. My extended family is worth special mention. My parents- S. Ajaib Singh and S. Daljeet Kaur, Thank you Papa-

Mumma, for understanding the importance of this accomplishment for me and for allowing me the time and space to complete it. Your bountiful blessings have helped me in the fruition of this strenuous task.

My Grandfather- Mr. M. P. Duggal: Nana ji you deserve far more credit than I can ever give you for being a source of my inspiration, strength, commitment, and hard-work. Thanks to my dear brother, Dr. Karan Sharma and Bhabi, Dr. Kamal Sharma for your extended encouragement and love throughout this period. My brother in law and sister in law- Dr. Harmilap Singh and Mrs. Ramandeep Kaur, I am grateful for your prayers and support. Special thanks to the kids- Ishrat and Surkhab, both of whom are incredibly dear to me. Their positive energies have always been a motivator for me.

Special thanks to My Husband- S. Pritpal Singh, I cannot even imagine this journey without your reinforcement, constant reassurance, patience, companionship and in fact your very presence. You are my best critic, my time-keeper, my motivator who has been there since day one to keep my spirits high. You have helped and inspired me every inch I have travelled, every step of the way.

My Daughter- Gulmeher Berring, the most precious gift from God. The motivation to spend more time with you literally made me achieve this otherwise insurmountable task. Your smile has been a stress reliever for me during the difficult times. Thank you for being a good baby by understanding the time constraints of your Mom especially in the last days of my work. When you will grow up, you will understand the value of your love that kept me strong through this journey.

My dependable friend- Dr. Shubhdip Kaur, I cannot thank you enough for keeping me sane through many a day. Your faith in me, never ending encouragement, physical and moral presence in the need of hour, in every way 'you' only made me strove harder to complete my doctorate.

I extend my thanks to my teachers who have provided me a strong foundation so that I could reach here. My office mates need a special mention for cooperating with me while I was completing my research. Thanks to my near ones and dear friends whose names I could not mention here individually, for being there for me at different stages of my doctoral work. I am forever grateful for your love and blessings. Thank you all once again for helping me achieve this milestone in my life.


Lovleen

ABSTRACT

VALUE ORIENTATION AND PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS OF STUDENTS PURSUING DIVERSE ACADEMIC DISCIPLINES

Personal values and personality dimensions have been a main subject of concern for researchers since long. Theoretical and empirical research provides the evidence regarding influence of personal values and personality dimensions in the decision regarding career. The major objective of the present study was to compare personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of male and female students studying in Arts/Humanities (A/H) and Business/Technical (B/T) academic fields. The study was conducted in India, with the sample of 1200 students in the age range 18-25 years (for total sample, $M = 21.5$, $SD = 2.9$; for males, $M = 21.1$, $SD = 2.7$; for females, $M = 20.5$, $SD = 2.1$), drawn from various educational institutions of Punjab. The sample included 600 students from A/H field (300 males and 300 females) and 600 students from B/T field (300 males and 300 females).

Intrinsic and extrinsic personal values were measured by Aspiration Index (AI) which yielded two dimensions of scores: Importance and Likelihood. Importance of values indicated the amount of priority they place on a specific value, while likelihood of values indicated the expectancy of occurrence of those values and goals in their future. Personality traits of extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism were measured by using Eysenck Personality Questionnaire- Revised (EPQ-R). Self-esteem was measured by using Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES).

The present research employed personal values: importance, personal values: likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem as independent variables (predictors) and choice of academic discipline as dependent (criterion) variable.

Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), and t-test were used to compare the scores of students on personal values, subscales of personal values, and personality dimensions for the two academic fields and to analyse gender differences. Binary logistic regression was carried out to identify the best predictor among personal values and personality dimensions of the choice of academic discipline in males and females.

The results revealed that A/H students had more inclination towards intrinsic values such as self-acceptance, community feeling and affiliation, while B/T students were more oriented towards extrinsic values such as financial success, attractive appearance, and social recognition. Similar pattern of results emerged for the Importance and Likelihood of values. A/H students scored highest on the value of on subscale- affiliation (importance) and B/T students scored highest on subscale- financial success (importance) value A/H students were found to be high on extraversion, low on psychoticism and neuroticism and vice versa for B/T students. A/H students had higher self-esteem in comparison to B/T students.

The results also indicated gender differences. Females had more intrinsic value orientation whereas males had more extrinsic value orientation. Overall, females had highest score on value subscale-affiliation (importance), while males had highest score on subscale- financial success (importance) value. Females also scored high on extraversion and low on neuroticism and psychoticism as compared to males. Females had higher self-esteem than males.

Among the personal values studied, Extrinsic values: Importance emerged as the best predictor of B/T academic choice and Psychoticism emerged as the best predictor among personality dimensions for B/T academic discipline. And among all the variables studied, Extrinsic values: Importance (subscale-financial success) came out to be the best predictor of B/T academic discipline. Extrinsic values: Importance and Extrinsic values: Likelihood emerged as the best predictors of B/T academic field in males and females respectively.

Findings are explained in terms of self-determination theory and changing academic choices leading to possible shift in value orientation and personality dimensions of Indian youth. The present study advances previous findings on two counts: (i) The present study involved students belonging to completely different educational domains and (ii) The study compared the students from the different domains on grounds of value orientation, personality dimensions and self-esteem to explore the effect these variables on students' career related decisions.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER: 1 INTRODUCTION	1-9
1.1 Overview	1-2
1.2 Motivation for the Study	2-5
1.3 Objectives of the Research	5
1.4 Hypotheses	6-8
1.5 Organization of the Thesis	8-9
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	10-37
2.1 Curriculum and Career Choice	10-11
2.2 Gender Differences and Career/Curriculum Choice	11
2.3 Personal Values	12
2.3.1 Personal Values and its Theories	12-13
2.3.2 Self Determination Theory- Intrinsic and Extrinsic Values	13-15
2.3.3 Relationship between Personal Values and Human Behavior	15-17
2.3.4 Personal Values and Curriculum / Career Choice	18-20
2.3.5 Gender Differences: Personal Values and Career/Curriculum Choice	20-23
2.4 Personality	23
2.4.1 Personality and its Theories	24-25
2.4.2 Eysenck's Personality Theory	25-26
2.4.3 Personality and Career/ Curriculum Choice	26-28
2.4.4 Gender Differences: Personality and Career/Curriculum Choice	28-29
2.5 Self-Esteem	29
2.5.1 Self-Esteem: Theories and Relation to Human Behavior	29-30
2.5.2 Self-Esteem and Career/ Curriculum Choice	30-31
2.5.3 Gender Differences: Self-Esteem	31-32
2.6 Career/Curriculum Choice: Interrelationship between Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem	32-35
2.7 Changing Patterns: Career/Curriculum Choices, Personal Values, and Personality Dimensions	35-36
2.8 Conclusion	37

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	38-43
3.1 Research Design	38-39
3.2 Participants	39
3.3 Instruments Used for the Data Collection	39-42
3.4 Procedure	42
3.5 Statistical Analysis	43
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS	44-69
4.1 Descriptive Statistics	44
4.1.1 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Students of A/H and B/T Fields	44-46
4.1.1.1 Mean, SD, and t-values of Subscales (Aspiration Index) of Students of A/H and B/T Fields	46-48
4.1.2 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males and Females	48-49
4.1.2.1 Mean, SD, and t-values on Subscales (Aspiration Index) of Males and Females	49-50
4.1.3 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males of A/H and B/T Fields	51-52
4.1.4 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Females of A/H and B/T Fields	52-56
4.2 Correlation between REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	57
4.3 Binary Logistic Regression	57-58
4.3.1 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	58-59
4.3.2 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Subscales of Aspiration Index	59-60
4.3.3 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	60-61

4.3.4	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	61-62
4.3.5	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	62-63
4.3.6	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	63-64
4.3.7	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	64-65
4.3.8	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Fields of Females by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	65-66
4.3.9	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Fields of Females by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	66-67
4.3.10	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Fields of Females by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	67-68
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION		70-88
5.1	Discussion	70
5.2	Comparison of Personal Values of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields	70-73
5.3	Comparison of Personality Dimensions of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields	73-75
5.4	Comparison of Self-Esteem of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields	75-76
5.5	Best Predictor of the Choice of Academic Field amongst Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem in Students	76-78
5.6	Gender Differences in Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, Self-Esteem, and Choice of Academic Field	78-79

5.6.1	Gender Differences in Personal Values for A/H, and B/T Fields	79-80
5.6.2	Gender Differences in Personality Dimensions (P, N, E, SE) for A/H and B/T Fields	80-83
5.6.3	Best Predictor of Academic Choice amongst Personal Value, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem in Males and Females	83-84
5.6.4	Comparison of Personal Values and Personality Dimensions of Males of A/H and B/T Academic Fields	84-85
5.6.5	Comparison of Personal Values and Personality Dimensions of Females of A/H and B/T Academic Fields	85-88
CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS		89-94
6.1	Summary	89-91
6.2	Significance of the Study	91-92
6.3	Conclusion	92-93
6.4	Implications	93
6.5	Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research	93-94
Publications from the Current Investigations		94
References		95-121
Appendices		i-ix
Annexure		x

LIST OF TABLES

Table No.	Name of the Table	Page No.
1	Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields (N = 600)	45
2	Mean, SD, and t-values of Subscales (Aspiration Index) of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields (N = 600)	47
3	Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males and Females (N = 600)	48
4	Mean, SD, and t-values on Subscales (Aspiration Index) of Males and Females (N = 600)	50
5	Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males of A/H and B/T Fields (N = 300)	51
6	Mean, SD and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Females of A/H and B/T fields (N = 300)	53
7	Correlation between REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem (N=1200)	57
8	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	58
9	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	59
10	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Subscales of Aspiration Index	59
11	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Subscales of Aspiration Index	60
12	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	60
13	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Psychoticism,	61

	Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	
14	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	61
15	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	62
16	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	62
17	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	63
18	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	63
19	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	64
20	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	64
21	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	65
22	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	66
23	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood	66
24	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	67

25	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	67
26	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	68
27	Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem	68
28	Statistical Analyses Supporting Various Hypotheses	69

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No.	Name of the Figures	Page No.
1	REVO Importance Scores of Males & Females of A/H & B/T fields	54
2	REVO Likelihood Scores of Males & Females of A/H & B/T fields	54
3	Psychoticism Scores of Males & Females of A/H & B/T fields	55
4	Neuroticism Scores of Males & Females of A/H & B/T fields	55
5	Extraversion Scores of Males & Females of A/H & B/T fields	56
6	Self-Esteem Scores of Males & Females of A/H & B/T fields	56

List of Frequently Used Abbreviations

A/H	Arts/ Humanities
B/T	Business/Technical
SDT	Self Determination Theory
AI	Aspiration Index
EPQ-R	Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised
RSES	Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale
REVO	Relative Extrinsic Value Orientation
SAI	Self-acceptance Importance
SAL	Self-acceptance Likelihood
AFI	Affiliation Importance
AFL	Affiliation Likelihood
CFI	Community FeelingImportance
CFL	Community FeelingLikelihood
FSI	Financial SuccessImportance
FSL	Financial Success Likelihood
AAI	Attractive Appearance Importance
AAL	Attractive Appearance Likelihood
SRI	Social RecognitionImportance
SRL	Social Recognition Likelihood

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Young adulthood, the important period from late teens through the twenties is the spring time of life with highest energies. Standing on the threshold of budding youth, young adults cherish splendid visions, colourful dreams, and buoyant hopes. This critical time of developmental change brings forth an array of important life challenges such as identity exploration, focus on self, changing priorities, and decision about future career (Arnett, 2000; Padilla-Walker, Barry, Carroll, Madsen, & Nelson, 2008). In this phase of critical development, individuals make important choices, adapt, internalise them, and define the transition into their adulthood (Niemic, Ryan, & Deci, 2009). It is a brief period for transition into adult life when young people choose their educational streams, get trained, and lay foundation for their future lives (Arnett, 2000).

In the past few decades, the changing environmental scenario has affected the decisions of youth worldwide. The preferences, priorities, and motives of the growing minds are going through a transition phase (Kim, Kasser, & Lee, 2003). This gradual change has led to a strong impact on one of the most important decision regarding their future careers (Parikh & Shah, 1991). Factors such as interest, aptitude, culture, environment, socio-economic status, and gender roles guide this crucial decision. The relative stability of both personal values and personality traits across time and context makes them useful psychological constructs affecting human behavior (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002). The present study endeavours to investigate the role of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem on choice of academic discipline among youth.

Personal values are those standards, desirable qualities, or principles that individuals set for themselves to live by. Our values are important to us as the ideas and beliefs we hold influence our life course. Values are broad psychological constructs with important implications for both motivated behavior and personal well-being. Personal values direct our behavior across extended period of our lives (Niemic et al., 2009). They are the driving force which influences individual's

actions and reactions (Sheldon, Gunz, Nichols, & Ferguson, 2010). They vary from individual to individual; orienting them towards the world and influencing their environmental perceptions (Sheldon et al., 2010).

Personality is a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences their cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006). Personality includes the stable behavior patterns a person shows across situations or the psychological characteristics of the person that lead to those behavior patterns (Mc Crae & Costa, 2003).

Self-esteem is an overall affective evaluation of one's own importance or value time (Leary & Downs, 1995). It is an essential cornerstone of positive attitude towards life because it affects how one thinks, acts, and even how one relates to other people and allow the individual to live life to his/ her full potential (Leary & MacDonald, 2003).

There is a plethora of information related to the influence of values, personality attributes, and self-esteem on human behavior (Branden, 1995; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Roy, 1995). It would be beneficial to study the effect of these factors on education and career related decisions of students. The curious and self-motivated youth are capable of making potential impact on the future of a nation; it is very appropriate and essential to understand the role of behavioral constructs in youths' major decisions. Their energies need to be channeled in the right direction in order to make the most out of their capabilities. A career decision guided by a fully functional value system and a balanced personality, and self-concept can accelerate the pace of overall human development.

1.2 Motivation for the Study

The present study is unique in its approach as it attempts to study the most active and creative age group of human development to ascertain the cumulative effect of this young group's intrinsic as well as extrinsic personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem, together on the most vital decision of their life that is curriculum choice. Several studies in the past have examined the relationship between values and personality with vocational choice separately (Barrick, Mount, & Gupta, 2003;

Barrick & Mount, 1991; Berings, De Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004; Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006). Parks and Guay (2009) have proposed that personality and values affect the goal accomplishment through multiple mediating processes which include goal content and the efforts one puts in pursuing that goal. Thus, both personality traits and personal values give important contribution in the career related choice too. Therefore, it is important to ascertain the effects of these variables together on a life changing decision.

Values are what individuals believe they ought to do and intentional goals available to their consciousness, whereas personality is what individuals naturally tend to do, regardless of their intention (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994; Parks & Guay, 2009). Personal values are a result of gradual environmental and social interaction while personality is relatively stable, influenced by both heredity and environment. These constructs address the interaction of nature and nurture (Olver & Mooradian, 2003). One's self-worth develops through achieving personal values and developing specific personality traits (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002). The literature review presented in Chapter 2 indicates that most of the studies indicate the relationship between work values, personality traits based on the five factor model (FFM) and Holland's six codes of vocational interest (RAISEC: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional) (Berings & Adriaenssens, 2012; Berings et al., 2004; Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006). These studies have reported the association between extraversion, people-oriented values, and social vocational interests. There is a paucity of comparative studies related to self-esteem of students pursuing different curriculum fields. The present study investigates the impact of differences in core personal values leading to different academic choices for future careers. The present study examines intrinsic and extrinsic value orientation of the students based on Self-determination theory (SDT) (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). It also purports to explore the role of personality dimensions such as extraversion, psychoticism, neuroticism, and self-esteem of students in the choice of Arts/Humanities (A/H) and Business/Technical (B/T) educational courses. As there is lack of comparative studies related to self-esteem. An attempt is also made to identify the role of self-esteem in career choice.

With the large scale economic development and technological innovation an overall cultural change has been witnessed all over the world. This change has affected the priorities, goals, values, and choices of the young generation (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2005a). Industrialization, women's liberation, and increased opportunities for them for higher education and jobs are further leading to a change in gender roles and stereotypes (Inglehart & Baker, 2000). Modernization and economic development are associated with a systematic change in the basic values (Inglehart & Baker, 2000). Studies have revealed that individuals involved in non-traditional or sex atypical careers express different set of stable behavioral patterns than individuals involved in traditional or sex typical careers (Galbraith, 1991; Lemkau, 1983). Self-esteem is an essential part of one's personality, which is also being influenced by such factors (Brown & Marshall, 2006).

Most of the studies on value orientation related to SDT have been conducted on the western societies. There is a paucity of such research in Indian culture. The present study attempts to explore the prevailing trend of intrinsic and extrinsic values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem in relation to the curriculum choices in the Indian context. It aims to understand the changes and gradual transition taking place in the traditional value system of students. Moreover the study investigates the role of importance of personal values as well as the likelihood of attainment of those values in choosing a particular academic stream. The study also attempts to explore gender differences in terms of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Lynn & Martin, 1997; Zuckerman, 1985).

Recently, there has been an upsurge of interest in the selection of sex atypical academic disciplines by both males and females. Unlike earlier times, women now aspire for male dominated professions (Parikh & Sukhatme, 2004) while males do not hesitate anymore to step into the feminine careers (Chusmir, 1990). These changes in choice of career and academic fields are expected to be associated with a change in the value patterns as well as basic personality dimensions of young males and females.

(terms academic disciplines and academic fields have been used interchangeably).

This backdrop calls for an investigation of the differences in personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of students opting for traditional versus non-traditional academic choices. The study also takes into consideration the narrowing down of gender differences and current trends in personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem in various academic areas. There is dearth of literature in the field of collaborative comparative study of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of Indian students; hence there is a need to investigate students of A/H and B/T academic fields in terms of the afore mentioned psychological constructs. The present study also tries to explore the reasons and suggests future scope of research.

The present study advances previous findings on two counts: (i) The present study involved students belonging to completely different educational domains and (ii) The study compared the students from the different domains on grounds of value orientation, personality dimensions and self-esteem to explore the effect these variables on students' career related decisions.

1.3 Objectives of the Research

The present research has the following five principal research objectives:

- 1 To compare the value orientation of students of Arts and Humanities field, and Business and Technical field.
- 2 To compare the personality dimensions of students of Arts and Humanities field, and Business and Technical field.
- 3 To compare the self-esteem of students of Arts and Humanities field, and Business and Technical field.
- 4 To study the impact of value orientation, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of students on their choice of academic disciplines.
- 5 To compare the value orientation, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of males and females from different academic disciplines.

1.4 Hypotheses

Individuals who choose educational fields such as psychology and education are more focused towards intrinsic values such as contributing to community and helping others (Davey & Lalande, 2004; Vansteenkiste, Duriez, Simons, & Soenens, 2006), whereas individuals in engineering have more concern for extrinsic values such as wealth accumulation and image (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002). These findings indicate that people from different academic disciplines have differences in their value orientation. On the basis of above premises the following hypothesis was formulated.

H₁ Students of Arts and Humanities fields show higher Intrinsic values as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.

There are differences in personality traits of individuals pursuing different professions (Roy, 1995). Studies demonstrate that individuals who strongly emphasise goals such as financial attainment and earning fame, experience depression and anxiety (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). Business students have also been reported to be high on distress and anxiety (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002). Ripski, Lo Casale-Crouch, and Decker (2011) reported high extraversion in the students of education. It is assumed that students belonging to two completely different educational streams such as A/H and B/T will also display different personality characteristics. In view of the above facts, the following hypotheses were forwarded.

H₂ Students of Arts and Humanities fields are higher on Extraversion as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.

H₃ Students of Arts and Humanities fields are lower on Neuroticism as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.

H₄ Students of Arts and Humanities fields are lower on Psychoticism as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.

Stress has been reported to be associated with lower self-esteem (Le Rouge, Nelson, & Blanton, 2006). People who prioritise materialistic aspirations and extrinsic value orientation have been reported to have lower self-esteem (Kasser & Kasser, 2001; Kasser & Ryan, 1993). On the other hand, intrinsic values are significantly associated with high self-esteem (Chan & Joseph, 2000). Environments provided by A/H and B/T fields are very different from each other. Stress and competition involved in B/T and social involvement in the A/H streams would probably lead to

differences in self-evaluation by students of these two fields. Based on the above, following hypothesis was proposed.

H₅ Students of Arts and Humanities fields show higher self-esteem in comparison to the students of Business and Technical fields.

Studies indicate an association between personal values, personality traits and self-esteem. Clark and Schroth (2010) reported a difference in personality characteristics of intrinsically and extrinsically oriented individuals. Chan and Joseph (2000) found an association between high self-esteem, high intrinsic values, low extrinsic values, and high extraversion. Studies show that values and personality have an effect on the career choice of individuals. Berings et al. (2004) studied work values and personality traits as predictors of vocational interests. Based on the above, the following hypothesis was stated.

H₆ Personal values, personality dimensions and self-esteem of an individual affect the choice of academic discipline.

Mostly, women give more importance to maintaining meaningful and intimate relationships, contributing to community, and working for the betterment of society (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). They aspire to live a meaningful life and learn new things through personal growth. Basically, females believe in satisfaction of basic psychological needs (Beutler, Beutler, & Mc Coy, 2008). On the other hand, most of the males primarily focus upon materialistic needs like being financially successful and owning expensive things. They give priority to becoming popular, maintaining a public image, and being admired (Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). Based on these premises, the following hypothesis was postulated.

H₇ Females are more strongly oriented towards intrinsic values as compared to males.

Studies show that males and females exhibit different personality characteristics (Feingold, 1994; Goodwin & Gotlib, 2004). Females are reported to be more emotionally stable and community oriented (Chan & Joseph, 2000). Studies also show that gender differences exist in terms of self-esteem (Sahlstein & Allen, 2002). Females have been reported to be intrinsically oriented (Kasser & Ryan, 1993) while intrinsically oriented individuals have been reported to be emotionally stable (Chan & Joseph, 2000), social (Clark & Schroth, 2010) and having high self-esteem (Kasser & Kasser, 2001). Based on these premises, the following hypotheses were formed.

H₈ Females are higher on extraversion as compared to males.

H₉ Females are lower on neuroticism as compared to males.

H₁₀ Females are lower on psychoticism as compared to males.

H₁₁ Females have higher self-esteem as compared to males.

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is presented in six chapters. Chapter 1 is the introductory chapter that provides the background to the research and the major aspect under investigation.

Chapter 2 provides the review of the literature. It includes the prior studies related to the relationship of academic and career choice with personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. It also covers the studies related to the existing gender differences in personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology and design of the study. This chapter gives a description of the targeted sample, the instruments used, and the procedure for the investigation.

Chapter 4 comprises results of statistical data analysis that includes descriptive statistics, t-test, correlation, and binary logistic regression analysis. Mean, Standard Deviation (SD) were used to compare the academic disciplines and gender on different variables studied. Binary logistic regression analysis was computed to investigate the effect of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem on the academic choice of males and females. It also includes the results of binary logistic regression analysis to find out the best predictor of academic choice of males and females amongst all the variables.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the results of the differences personal values, personality dimensions of the young adults pursuing two academic fields. It also explains the effect of personal values, personality dimensions and self-esteem on academic choice. It also discusses the gender differences in terms of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem and career choices.

Chapter 6 gives a conclusion of the study presented together with the implication of the research findings, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research.

A comprehensive list of references used, annexures, appendices related to the research methodology, and design completes the thesis.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research suggests that the transition to young adulthood is one of the most active time-frames that involve heightened exploration of identity and personal aspirations (Padilla-Walker et al., 2008). According to Arnett (2000) emerging adulthood represents a developmental phase of life when individuals construct their personal as well as professional goals and make most important decisions regarding the shape and content of their life course. This major decision includes the career choice, which further shapes the future of an individual. This topic has been of interest to various researchers since long. In this chapter an effort has been made to summarize the various theoretical frameworks and research outcomes already explored in the domains of research topic under investigation. All these opinions, viewpoints, and research outcomes have guided the hypotheses formulation and subsequent stages of this present study.

2.1 Curriculum and Career Choice

Coupland (2004) suggests that career decision-making process is unique to each individual and is rooted in their career identity, which involves one's experiences, skills, interests, values and goals. It is a process of decision-making that involves the development of ego-identity over the lifespan (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Various researchers and theorists have tried to investigate the process of career development and the contribution of career choice in the development of career. Career development theories give several viewpoints regarding the determinants of career choice. Some of the theories of career choice are as follows.

Hexagonal theory of vocational interests developed by Holland (1997) suggests that individual personalities flourish and develop in those career environments where there is a fit between the personality characteristics and occupational environment. He classified jobs and career environments by the types of personalities flourishing in them. People choose jobs where they can be around other people who match their own personality characteristics. Holland also described six personality types which are compatible with different types of jobs. These personality

types are- Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. According to career theory of Parsons (1909), the choice of a vocation depends upon three things: an accurate knowledge of yourself, thorough knowledge of job specifications, and the ability to make a proper match between the two. Super (1980) emphasised the importance of the development of self-concept which changes over time and develops as a result of experience. People seek career satisfaction through work roles in which they can express themselves, implement and develop their self-concepts. The basis of Social learning theory (Krumboltz, 1994) is that individuals pick their careers as a result of experiences and influences they have had in their life. According to Krumboltz (1994), genetics, environment, and learning experiences play a role in career choice.

2.2 Gender Differences and Career/Curriculum Choice

There is plethora of information on existence of gender differences in behavioral outcomes. Differences in the biological make-up, socio cultural upbringing, and various other factors collectively ensue in the different ways men and women behave and act. Several lines of research evidence indicate gender differences in terms of career or curriculum choice. Jones, Howe, and Rua (2000) found significant gender differences when students were asked about their future jobs. Females desired to help others through their work and even rejected physical science due to the same reason. In contrast, males wanted to control others along with inventing new things, having an easy job, becoming famous and earning lots of money. Roberts and Robins (2000) found gender differences while linking work and life goals. They observed that women endorse social goals and were ready to sacrifice highly paid jobs to choose helping professions instead. Females are more likely than males to give value to intrinsic rewards more than extrinsic rewards while making a career choice in a profession such as teaching (Huat See, 2004). Males have a preference towards conventional and investigative vocational interests while females like to go for social and artistic vocational interests (Kiani, Hassan, & Irfan, 2013). Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, and Parasuraman (1997) supported that it is not due to work and family responsibility that women step out of public accounting, but they do not desire to get promoted to prestigious posts unlike men. Contrary to males, females do not give much priority to status and financial rewards in their careers.

2.3 Personal Values

2.3.1 Personal Values and its Theories

Personal values are the inherent belief system that guides a person's actions and behaviors (Karuppaiya, 2007). Personal values are those standards, desirable qualities, or principles that individuals set for them to live by. Our values are important to us as the ideas and beliefs we hold are special. Values are broad psychological constructs with important implications for both motivated behavior and personal well-being. They are driving force of individuals which influence their actions and reactions. Since values vary from individual to individual, they are "personal" and can include many things. So, there are individual differences in value orientations.

Values have been classified in many ways by various researchers. An important classification done by Rokeach (1973) suggests two types of values: Instrumental and Terminal. He also developed the Rokeach Value Survey which contains 18 individual items for each of the two value systems. Terminal Values refer to desirable end-states of existence. These are the goals that people would like to achieve during their lifetime. Instrumental Values refer to preferable modes of behavior, or means of achieving the terminal value.

Another widely accepted value model, suggested by Schwartz (1992), consists of 10 human value types. These are ordered along two major dimensions: openness to change vs. conservation and self-enhancement vs. self-transition. Schwartz's 10 values are achievement, benevolence, conformity, hedonism, power, security, self-direction, stimulation, tradition, and universalism.

Hartman (1967) introduced the concept of systematic values such as standards, ideals, and norms, which he believed were an important addition to the previously studied intrinsic and extrinsic values. He developed an inventory measure these values. His view differentiated between what people value and how people value. Another viewpoint regarding values suggests that individual's philosophy is grounded upon the values or basic convictions that they hold about what is and is not important in life (Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey, 1960). Allport- Vernon- Lindzey values scale, based on this viewpoint, outlines six major value types: theoretical (discovery of

truth), economic (what is most useful), aesthetic (form, beauty, and harmony), social (seeking love of people), political (power), and religious (unity).

2.3.2 Self Determination Theory- Intrinsic and Extrinsic Values

A very important classification of values that lays the foundation of the present research is that of intrinsic and extrinsic values. The concept of intrinsic and extrinsic values has emerged from the Self Determination Theory (SDT), developed by Deci and Ryan in 1980s. It is a theory of human motivation and personality, concerned with people's inherent growth tendencies and their innate psychological needs. The theory postulates that human beings possess a natural urge to develop a coherent and integrated sense of self (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Interplay between extrinsic forces acting on persons and intrinsic motives inherent in human nature are included in the territory of SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2002). According to Kasser and Ryan (1993), SDT has an organismic dialectical approach which assumes that people are active organisms, with evolved tendencies toward growing, mastering ambient challenges, and integrating new experiences into a coherent sense of self.

SDT comprises five mini theories: cognitive evaluation theory, organismic integration theory, causality orientation theory, basic psychological need theory, goal contents theory. Cognitive evaluation theory revolves around 'intrinsic motivation' to seek out challenges and new possibilities. It also focuses on the effects of autonomy and competence, on intrinsic motives. Individuals with intrinsic motives are more autonomous and have high need for competence. Organismic integration theory elaborates the topic of 'extrinsic motivation', the behavior that is instrumental and aims towards the extrinsic outcomes. It introduces the concept of 'Internalisation', which can be explained as an active attempt that transforms the extrinsic motive into personal values and also assimilate the external motives into the intrinsic ones. Individuals having high extrinsic value orientation are extrinsically motivated towards external outcomes. Causality orientation theory, which suggests three types of orientation, addresses the concept of individual differences in tendencies to orient towards environment and regulate behavior in various ways (Deci & Ryan, 1985b). Three types of orientation are: autonomy, control and impersonal. An autonomous person acts out of interest and is least controlled by extrinsic rewards. Control

oriented people are influenced by external rewards and approval, and perform tasks because they 'should'. Impersonal orientation is characterised by anxiety regarding being incompetent. An intrinsically oriented individual is autonomous, competent and least controlled by external rewards. Basic psychological need theory proposes that there are three types of psychological needs related to psychological health and wellbeing. These needs are named as autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy means that an individual is in charge of one's own actions and freedom to choose the tasks to perform. Competence is the ability to perform tasks adequately under one's control. Relatedness is the need to be included as a part of the group and feel secure. Thwarting of these needs leads to negative effect on a person's wellness. Fulfillment of these basic needs leads to intrinsic value orientation in individuals.

Goal contents theory is the last mini theory of SDT which focuses on the life goals, the long term goals people use to guide their activities. Goals fall into two categories: intrinsic goals and extrinsic goals (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). These goals are also referred to as aspirations and values, since an individual's values are revealed in aspirations and goal orientations. Subsequently, Kasser and Ryan (1996) suggested seven life goals. They hypothesized that three of them, wealth and material possessions, social recognition and fame, and image or attractiveness, would represent extrinsic goals. The rest of four would represent intrinsic goals including personal growth, affiliation and intimacy, contributing to one's community, and physical health. Kasser and Ryan (1993) developed a tool called Aspiration Index for the measurement of value orientation of individuals.

Intrinsic value can be defined in many contexts. For instance, intrinsic value is that, which a thing has "in itself," or "for its own sake", or "as such," or "in its own right". It stems from internal, personal factors such as interests and enjoyment or curiosity. Intrinsically oriented individuals are centred on meeting basic human needs in ways that engender individual growth; these orientations include personal growth, relationships and community feeling. These values are satisfying in their own right, as they are directly linked to psychological needs and reflect basic growth tendencies. Intrinsic values are thought to be inherently satisfying to pursue, as they are directly relevant to important psychological needs such as autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985a, 2000). Intrinsic aspirations focus on cultivating

relationships with family and friends, giving back to the community, promoting physical and emotional health, and fostering autonomy and self-regard.

Extrinsic values can be explained in terms of the importance placed on making money, financial success, physical attractiveness, and fame/popularity. Unlike intrinsic values, extrinsic values are directed by observable external factors such as rewards, punishment, and peer-parental-pressures. Thus, the pursuit of extrinsic goals places an individual in the tenuous position of dependence on others' judgments. Individuals' lives are guided by the values they set for themselves for the whole life ahead. Similarly, as mentioned earlier young adults also set some goals in their lives based on their value systems. Young adults' vocational choice is also determined by their personal values (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

The ideas expressed in SDT are consistent with various personality theories. Rogers (1963) suggested that goals and values are organismically based and are associated with an individual's psychological health. Fromm (1976) emphasized that attaching more importance to 'having' rather than 'being' ultimately leads to personal alienation. 'Having' orientation is related to possessions and 'being' orientation is related to personal growth as reflected in intrinsic values (Kasser & Ryan, 1996). Maslow (1971) viewed that there is an overlap between the intrinsic values and being-needs, which are also referred to as B-needs. Due to B-needs, people progress farther than the basic needs and help in the satisfaction of top most needs in the hierarchy including self-actualization. Extrinsic goals on the other hand are contingent upon other's approval, and may lead to distress and lower wellbeing (Maslow, 1954). The concept of self-actualization, according to Maslow (1971), is the realization of one's full human potential. In the same line, intrinsic values have been reported to be congruent with innate human tendency of self-actualization and self-growth (Kasser & Ryan, 1996).

2.3.3 Relationship between Personal Values and Human Behavior

Personal values play a very important role in guiding human behavior at every stage of life (Niemic et al., 2009). A large number of studies have been conducted to understand the interplay between values and several behavioral outcomes. According to Deci and Ryan (2008), personal aspirations describe the degree to which the basic needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy are being satisfied or thwarted.

These needs are fulfilled through achieving intrinsic goals. In contrast, extrinsic values do not satisfy the basic needs directly; extrinsic values either interfere with the need satisfaction, or only provide substitute and indirect compensation to fulfil those needs (Deci & Ryan, 1991; Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004; Ryan, 1995). When basic needs are thwarted, people move towards extrinsic values to gain external worth.

Substantial research demonstrates that individuals with high intrinsic value orientation show evidence of greater vitality, wellbeing, self-esteem, self-actualization, self-acceptance, and happiness (Chan & Joseph, 2000; Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002), greater goal attainment, enhanced wellbeing, and engagement in meaningful activities (Sheldon & Kasser, 2001). Individuals endorsing intrinsic values rather than extrinsic values are more deeply engaged in learning activities, with better conceptual learning, and higher persistence (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). Those students who had high extrinsic values view their education as a stress, while students with intrinsic values view their education as an opportunity to engage in personal growth and learn skills to help change the world (Henderson- King & Mitchell, 2011). Intrinsically oriented individuals are happier than extrinsically oriented individuals (Brown & Kasser, 2005; Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008). Sheldon, Ryan, Deci, and Kasser (2004) also linked endorsement of intrinsic values with high happiness expectancy. Intrinsic pursuits also enhance the quality of relationships (Sheldon & Kasser, 2001). However, individuals holding extrinsic goals believe it as a way to achieve happiness though they are actually reported to be less happy than the individuals with intrinsic goals (Schmuck, Kasser, & Ryan, 2000; Sheldon et al., 2010). Kasser (2003) found that people who strongly value community feeling and affiliation relative to other extrinsic values, report lower depression and anxiety along with high levels of vitality and self-actualization.

Extrinsic goals are dependent upon approval of others, and paying undue importance to them may lead to distress (Kasser & Ryan, 1996), threatened security (Kasser & Sheldon, 2000), to strained relationships (Beutler et al., 2008), reduced focus on growth and ultimately more concentration on money, image, and status (Maslow, 1954; Sheldon & Kasser, 2008). Feelings of insecurity and exposure to materialistic social models are two important causes behind adopting extrinsic aspirations (Kasser, Ryan, Couchman, & Sheldon, 2004). Extrinsically oriented

people report problem such as lower global adjustment, mental health, lower social productivity, behavioral disorders (Kasser & Ryan, 1993), low quality of life, conflicting relationships, greater drug use (Kasser & Ryan, 2000), and more chances of substance abuse (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). Studies reveal that extrinsic goals can be instrumental in fulfilling basic needs but over emphasis on them results in negative wellbeing (Bauer, Wilkie, Kim, & Bodenhausen, 2012; Sheldon et al., 2004). In contrast, researchers concluded that intrinsic values are associated with psychological wellbeing of individuals (Brown & Kasser, 2005; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Lekes, Gingras, Phillippe, Koestner, & Fang, 2010; Ryan et al., 1999; Schmuck et al., 2000; Sebire, Standage, & Vansteenkiste, 2009; Sheldon & Kasser, 2001).

An unrealistic view about expensive possessions and financial success may lead to a number of negative outcome that includes symptoms of depression, behavioral and physical problems, and psychological disorders such as personality disorders, conduct disorders, and attention deficit disorders (Cohen & Cohen, 1996), anxiety and insecurity (Ryan et al., 1999); higher emotional exhaustion (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007), psychological threat (Sheldon & Kasser, 2008), physical symptoms (Kasser & Ryan, 1996), narcissistic tendencies (Kasser, 2003), greater drug use, and more chances of substance use (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). Other findings report that individuals who consider extrinsic goals as a relatively central value experience lower adjustment (Chantara, Koul, & Kaewkuekool, 2014; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Schmuck et al., 2000), short-lived satisfaction, and lower psychological wellness even after goal attainment (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Christopher, Lasane, Troisi, & Park, 2007; Sheldon et al., 2010; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007). Similar findings have been reported across countries such as US, South Korea (Kim et al., 2003), Germany (Schmuck et al., 2000), and Russia (Ryan et al., 1999).

As the above review indicates, extrinsic values have been associated with many negative outcomes in contrast to intrinsic values. According to Kasser (2003), more the centrality of extrinsic values in one's life, more diminished is the quality of life.

2.3.4 Personal Values and Curriculum / Career Choice

Personal values are an integral part of human life effecting various important decisions. According to Weisgram, Dinella, and Fulcher (2011) personal values are an important variable of career choice. Researchers have compared individuals pursuing different education domains and professions, and have revealed differences in their value patters and goals behind their particular choices. Vansteenkiste et al. (2006) reported a difference in aspirations of business and education students. Business students were found to be focussed on extrinsic values such as earning more wealth, whereas education students were more strongly oriented towards intrinsic values, as they were more concerned with community contribution. Another study by Young (1995) reported that individuals choose teaching as a profession or education field due to altruistic reasons and intentions of contributing to society. Davey and Lalande (2004) reported that nursing, which is one of the helping professions is guided by altruistic values such as helping others and community, on the other hand choice of engineering and technical professions is guided by agentic values such as money and power.

A wide amount of research shows that business and technical streams of education and career attracts individuals who value wealth and other external rewards. Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss (1999) suggested that work values and goals are in a way expression of basic values in work settings. Judge and Bretz (1991) reported that work value plays a significant role in the decisions of job seekers. While studying the work values of teachers and education students, Ros et al. (1999) concluded that pursuing career in this field helps them attain social stability and maintain social relations and interests. Akers, Eaton, and Giacomino (2004) aimed to measure and change the value system of accounting students and found them to be more concerned with seeking personal goals while ignoring the needs and feelings of the associates. In a comparative study conducted on business economics students and three more socially oriented educational streams of health, education and social work. Work values of earnings and competition were also found to predict entrepreneurial occupational interests that are related to careers in business and management (Berings & Adriaenssens, 2012). Kasser and Ahuvia (2002) also supported the fact that business students report high materialistic values, more concern for wealth accumulation, and

image. Real estate professionals place more importance on economic values and less importance on social or religious values (Salek, 1988). Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) also emphasised the role of values in choosing the area of study. They reported that dominant value system of accounting students and managers is 'independent maximizers' (that is with high scores on competence instrumental values and personal terminal values and thinking about fulfilling one's personal goals first). It was found that next dominant value system is 'honourable egoist', which refers to individuals who seek to reach their own goals first, but they try to be sensitive to the needs and feelings of their associates (Lupart, Cannon, & Telfer, 2004).

In contrast to those in technical and professional areas of study, people engaged in arts and humanities related academic courses and jobs have a tendency to pay more attention to altruistic and social aspects. Students in psychology majors have been reported to be less likely to be affected by salary than non-psychology major students while choosing this discipline for study and job (Marrs, Barb, & Ruggiero, 2007). People who intend to pursue teaching as profession are motivated by the intrinsic rewards and are not bothered by the extrinsic rewards such as status and salary (Huat See, 2004). De Cooman et al. (2007) also concluded that teachers are motivated by intrinsic, altruistic, and interpersonal values while choosing a career in teaching, whereas education graduates who prefer non-teaching professions are attracted by individualistic work values such as exerting power.

In different studies, the correlates of value orientation of various professionals have also been reported. Vansteenkiste et al. (2006) found an association between extrinsic value orientation of business students and their lower psychological wellbeing, internal distress and more substance use. Srivastava, Locke, and Bartol (2001) also confirmed an inverse relationship between extrinsic value of money making and subjective wellbeing among business students. According to Knafo and Sagiv (2001) social work environment has a negative correlation with power and achievement values, and a positive correlation with benevolence and universalism. Business students in Singapore who had disproportionately high extrinsic values, reported lower self-actualisation, vitality, happiness, and high levels of anxiety and physical symptomatology (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002). It is evident from these studies that extrinsically oriented people in business and technical fields have to experience

those adverse outcomes associated with disproportional orientation towards extrinsic values. Sagiv and Schwartz (2000) found that power values (an indicative of extrinsic values) were associated with higher wellbeing among business students but lower wellbeing among psychology students. For psychology students, achievement values were associated with well-being. These results are actually contrary to general assumptions. However, Sagiv and Schwartz (2000) have given an explanation that when people emphasize the same values that prevail in their environment and inhabit an environment that allows them to attain the goals to which their values are directed, they are likely to experience a positive sense of well-being.

Previous research findings reveal that there are individual differences in value orientation which make people go for different academic disciplines and careers. Researchers have studied the value systems of students of business (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002), psychology (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000), education (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006), real estate professionals and management students (Salek, 1988). It is evident from the research findings that individuals who want to pursue human services and helping professions including social work, teaching, and nursing put least emphasis on power, prestige, status or competitiveness, and more importance on people and society, while the reverse is true in case of engineering, business management, mathematics, science, and technical professions (Brown, 2002; Davey & Lalande, 2004; Jozefowicz, Barber, & Eccles, 1993; Lupart et al., 2004; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000; Salek, 1988).

2.3.5 Gender Differences: Personal Values and Career/Curriculum Choice

Research evidence indicates the existence of gender differences in terms of personal values. Males have a tendency to follow extrinsic values such as wealth accumulation, earning fame, and admiration and are little concerned about social wellbeing, unlike females. Kasser and Ryan (1993) found that women are more strongly associated with community feeling, and other intrinsic values while men are more oriented towards financial success and other extrinsic values. Similar results have been found by Ryan et al. (1999) and Vansteenkiste et al. (2006) suggesting that males and females have extrinsic and intrinsic value orientation respectively. Studies report that females have higher intrinsic values in comparison to males (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Beutler et al.,

2008). Females have more orientation as well as more attainment of intrinsic goals during post-college life (Niemic et al., 2009). Kasser (2005) revealed that males are more materialistic, whereas females are more generous. In a cross cultural study conducted to examine the life goals and wellbeing of German and U.S college students, Schmuck et al., (2000) found males to be low on intrinsic values. Gifted males scored higher on theoretical, economic, and political values, whereas gifted females scored higher on aesthetic and social values (Olszewski-Kubilius, Kulieke, & Krasny, 1988). Weisgram et al. (2011) also found gender differences in personal and work values, reporting that females endorse family and altruistic values, whereas males endorse money values. They also report that the value endorsements, in turn affect the future career expectations too.

In a research study conducted by Lokes et al. (2010), North American adolescents showed gender differences in their value orientation. Intrinsic values were higher among females, and were related to wellbeing and parental autonomy-support. Chan and Joseph (2000) presented further evidence in support of the conclusion that women show intrinsic orientation, with significantly higher scores on community feeling and affiliation. This also relates to their high subjective wellbeing, self-acceptance, and self-esteem. Merkaš, Raboteg-Šarić, and Miljković (2011) examined gender differences in the ratings of aspiration scores, and observed that girls scored higher on community feeling and affiliation but boys scored higher on financial success. Intrinsic values were associated with global life satisfaction amongst females. Females give high emphasis to self-transcendence values such as benevolence and give low importance to self-enhancement values such as power (Knafo & Sagiv, 2001).

Jozefowicz et al., (1993) found a difference in the lifestyle values of males and females. Males value high status/competitiveness and material wealth more than females, whereas females put family and friends before work. In a longitudinal study, Lubinski, Schmidt, and Benbow (1996) reported different value orientations of males and females. Males were higher than females on theoretical, economic, and political values, while there was a reverse order of difference on aesthetic, social, and religious values. In a recent study, Dragica (2014) reported that females are more intrinsically oriented in terms of values and goals in comparison to males. In a longitudinal study,

Beutler et al. (2008) reported that over a period of time (from middle to high school), males become more extrinsic and females become more intrinsic.

Girls with extrinsic motives choose more math and science subjects in their higher studies than the girls with intrinsic motives. The reverse holds true for boys (Langen, Rekers-Mombarg, & Dekkers, 2006). Choice of professional and semi-professional careers by males and females respectively is guided by their aspirations and expectations of jobs (Patton & Creed, 2007). Males prefer realistic category of jobs including technical, “hands on” activities and with high anticipated earnings, whereas females chose social category, which includes helping activities and making a difference in the world (Barth et al., 2010; Davey & Lalande, 2004; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007). This is the reason why unlike men, majority of women do not opt for STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) careers, which are not perceived as helping careers. Contrary to the above, majority of males give more preference to good money and power along with the interest, which make them go for technical fields.

Females’ decision for not entering a particular field of occupation (masculine) is not necessarily due to a lack of efficacy, but due to the values associated with people and humanistic concerns (Jozefowicz et al., 1993). In the similar line, Sax (1992) reported that women find a negative association between hard science or engineering pursuits and motive of helping others. Men and women are guided by different motivators while choosing a career. Men are motivated by monetary aspect while women appear to look for ‘social good’ factor.

Ferriman, Lubinski, and Benbow (2009) found gender differences in the life and work values of youngsters over a ten year period. Men placed more value on career success, full time career, and money, to be famous, important and admired, while women placed more value on maintaining relationships with friends and family, part-time career, and giving back to the community. Also men are more career-focused and agentic, whereas women appear to be more holistic and communal in their orientation toward life. There are significant gender differences in value systems in particular occupational field also. In one of the studies conducted on real estate professionals (Salek, 1988), males scored higher on theoretical and political values while females scored higher on aesthetic values. The same study also found that both

the males and females exhibited high economic values and low social and religious values.

Males and females prioritize different aspects of work fields due to which their choice regarding the field of study also differs. Women give priority to helping professions such as health and artistic professions, whereas males have a tendency to go for high income and prestigious professions, and are thus more ambitious for taking science and Information Technology (IT) (Lupart et al., 2004; Wallace, Haines, & Cannon, 1999). Gender differences were also evident in the study of Berings and Adriaenssens (2012) where men were found to be more interested in enterprising occupations while women were more interested in social occupations. Johnson (2002) found gender differences in work values where women gave importance to social values while men emphasized extrinsic values.

Another study reports a difference in the value preferences of working and non-working women (Jalilwand, 2000). Economic and political values are more important among the working women, while social and religious values are more prominent among the women who stay at home. In terms of reported importance of values, the overall ranking from highest to lowest is- religious, aesthetic, social, theoretical, political, and economic. This ranking shows that being financially stable is important for working women, but their foremost priority still remains being altruistic. Eaton and Giacomino (2001) concluded that males score high on self-sensitive qualities and self-centred goals, whereas females have more other-sensitive goals and thus are more sensitive to others. Hakim (2006) summarized several research findings to conclude that gender differences in work orientation are linked to broader differences in life goals and relative importance placed on values, family and careers.

2.4 Personality

In psychology, the meaning of word 'personality' goes beyond the literal meaning of a mask used by actors in Greek dramas. Personality is referred to as an individual's inner self, a characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling and behaving. It is a dynamic organisation influencing the cognitions, motivations, and behaviors.

2.4.1 Personality and its Theories

Several theories give different descriptions and explanations regarding personality (McLeod, 2014). Major theories of personality are psychoanalytic theories, behavioral theories, cognitive theories, and humanistic theories. A brief account of these theories appears below.

Psychoanalytic theories describe personality as an interaction between three psychological components: *id*, *ego* and *superego* (Freud, 1961). *Id*, the unconscious part of personality, operates on the pleasure principle seeking immediate need gratification. *Ego*, conscious in nature, follows the reality principle and balances the external demands put by the *superego* and internal needs. *Superego*, which operates on the morality principle, is the conscience of personality that differentiates between right and wrong.

Behaviorists proposed that personality is the result of interaction between external environment and a person. Skinner (1972) believed that behavior is formed through reinforcement process of operant conditioning. Personality, according to the behavioristic approach, is the result of the reinforcement history that an individual goes through.

Cognitive theorists explain personality in terms of cognitive processes such as thinking, decision making and problem solving. Bandura (1977) declined the concept of unconscious and emphasised rational factors such as self-efficacy, the degree to which individuals believe in their abilities.

Humanistic theories emphasised that individuals play an important role in their behavior and personality development. Maslow (1971) believed in the individual's capability to grow and reach the level of self-actualisation.

Type theories differentiated individuals on the basis of a common collection of characteristics classified as 'types'. Perhaps, the earliest theory of personality was given by Hippocrates by characterising behavior into four types of temperaments and humours. The four temperaments were: Sanguine (blood), phlegmatic (phlegm), melancholic (black bile), choleric (yellow bile). Subsequently Sheldon classified three

body types: endomorphs, mesomorphs, and ectomorphs. Trait theories explain personality as a structure of a set of characteristic patterns called traits. Personality traits are relatively enduring and pervasive consistencies over time and situations expressed in an individual's behavior. Allport (1937) opined that personality is biologically determined at birth and environmental experience further shapes it. Allport organised personality traits into a hierarchy of three levels. First level, named cardinal traits are most powerful and dominant in an individual's behavior. Central traits, which constitute the second level, are the basic building blocks shaping one's behavior. Finally, the third level, the secondary traits appear only under specific situations. Using factor analysis, Cattell (1965) suggested 16 dimensions of personality, which he proposed are present in all persons in varying degrees.

2.4.2 Eysenck's Personality Theory

Eysenck (1947) developed a model of personality which explains personality as biologically-based independent dimensions of temperament. Eysenck (1950) used factor analysis technique to reduce behavior to a number of factors, grouped together to constitute a separate dimension. He conceptualised three categories of traits that could be measured on a continuum. These dimensions were called extraversion/introversion, neuroticism/stability and psychoticism/socialisation. Each of these consists of a number of personality characteristics. Extraversion is characterized by being outgoing, talkative, high on positive affect (feeling good). Extroverts, individuals who show high score on this dimension, readily connect with others and are generally in need of external stimulation. People towards the other end of this dimension, i.e., introversion, tend to be limited in their social interaction and often engage in solitary behavior. Neuroticism or emotionality is associated with high levels of negative affect such as depression and anxiety. Those who are high on neuroticism get anxious even under low stress, in contrast to emotionally stable individuals. People high on psychoticism trait tend to be cold and independent thinkers. They exhibit characteristics of tough-mindedness, non-conformity, inconsideration, recklessness, hostility, anger, and impulsiveness and are prone to have a psychotic episode. Individuals towards the other end of this dimension are cooperative and altruistic.

According to Eysenck's theory (1950), personality is hierarchically organised into a dimensional system with 'specific acts' at the lowest level. Next level consists of a cluster of specific responses called 'habitual response'. Then, a group of habitual responses constitute a 'trait'. The broadest level 'types'/'dimensions' are defined in terms of inter-correlations among similar traits. Initially Eysenck posited two major type dimensions of personality named Neuroticism and Extraversion; and added Psychoticism later, to be measured on a continuum.

2.4.3 Personality and Career/ Curriculum Choice

Personality traits are one of the determining factors behind choosing different areas of curriculum and career choice. Various research studies show that personality characteristics of people involved in diverse occupations and educational domains differ. Pillay (2011) reported that students of counseling, social work and psychology scored higher on empathy than the students of engineering. Worthington and Higgs (2004) demonstrated that business students have a positive outgoing personality, and have interest in economics major and thus are more likely to select a major in economics. Glicksohn and Abulafia (1998) suggested that low disinhibition is related to low psychoticism. Individuals low on disinhibition, have a limited social network, prefer solitary activities, plan before acting, are usually active and prefer challenging tasks. Mills (2006) found that mathematically talented students had higher scores on introversion, intuition, and thinking having very little social and interpersonal concerns.

Roy (1995) observed significant differences in personality traits of different professionals. Teachers were reported to be more extrovert and anxious; physicians were more intelligent, introvert and anxious, bank managers were more extrovert, relaxed, tough minded, and intelligent artists were introvert and tender minded. A study conducted by Harton and Lyons (2009) concluded that empathy is one such personality trait which contributes to the choice of helping profession such as psychology. A profession such as teaching requires more social interaction, sensitivity and to be responsive towards others (Sikula, Buttery, & Guyton, 1996). These characteristics are present in individuals with high extraversion (Ripski, Crouch, & Decker, 2011). Sujata (2005) conducted research on undergraduate students of agriculture, marketing, and home Science degree. The results revealed that students

differed significantly on various Cattels's personality factors. Marketing students were found to be more outgoing, enthusiastic and sensitive. Students of agriculture were more extrovert and independent. Home science students were mild, shy, and socially aware.

Several studies indicate that personality factors influence vocational interests of individuals (Barrick et al., 2003; Berings et al., 2004; Rottinghaus & Zytowski, 2006). The interplay between personality types and Holland's occupational interests has been the subject of several recent studies giving an evidence of a relationship between personality traits and job preferences (Holland, 1997). Individuals have a tendency to look for occupations that are congruent with their personality dispositions, and that allow them to utilize their skills and qualities, ultimately leading to success and satisfaction in life (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). Berings et al. (2004) found a relationship between personality traits and work values and their contribution towards vocational choice. It was observed that extraversion is related to people oriented values and openness predicts social interests. Neuroticism was also found to be a predictor of earnings and competition (Berings et al., 2004). Costa, Mc Crae, & Holland (1984) also supported the role of personality traits in vocational choice by reporting that extraversion trait is associated with social interests. Similar results have been reported by several other researchers (Barrick et al., 2003; De Fruyt & Mervielde, 1997; Gottfredson, Jones, & Holland, 1993; Larson, Rottinghaus, & Borgen, 2002). Ackerman & Heggested (1997) and Kiani (2010) further support that extroverts have a preference for social vocational interests such as teaching.

Lakhal, Frenette, Sévigny, and Khechine (2012) observed that neuroticism was a predictor of 'thing oriented' business majors which focuses on finances and operation management. Hussain, Abbas, Shahzad, and Bukhari (2012) also proposed that people scoring low on extraversion are most likely to succeed in engineering professions. In a very recent study carried out on undergraduate students of Kenya, Kemboi, Kindiki, and Misigo (2016) compared personality profiles of various students from different educational disciplines. They found a significant relationship between students' personality and their career choice. The dominant personality type in investigative careers such as bachelor of sciences was 'investigative type', while

‘social personality type’ was dominant amongst the students with social career choice such as bachelor of arts.

2.4.4 Gender Differences: Personality and Career/Curriculum Choice

Research evidence has portrayed different pictures of gender differences in terms of personality traits. Women have been found to be high on neuroticism in a number of research studies (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae 2001; Feingold, 1994; Goodwin & Gotlib, 2004; Lynn & Martin, 1997; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). In a meta-analytical study of 37 nations, Lynn and Martin (1997) reported that men had high psychoticism scores in comparison to women. Some other studies also replicate these results (Furnham & Cheng, 1998; Martin & Kirkcaldy 1998). Mixed results are found in case of extraversion. In studies conducted by Feingold (1994), and Goodwin and Gotlib (2004) females scored high on extraversion. Results obtained by Kiani (2010) were also in same line; females scored higher on the scale of extraversion and thus, preferred teaching profession. In contrast, males were low on extraversion trait and reported engineering as the most preferred profession (Kiani, 2010). Lynn and Martin (1997) did not find significant gender differences in terms of extraversion scores. However, they found Indian men to be higher on psychoticism. Women reported higher extraversion scores across 55 cultures including India in a study conducted by Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, and Allik (2008)

Differences in their personality traits make men and women choose different fields of study and work. A research finding by Rottinghaus, Lindley, Green, and Borgen (2002) suggests that women are more extroverts in comparison to males. They also concluded that women are more interested in social dimensions of work, while men are more likely to be interested in outdoor and scientific works. Berings and Adriaenssens (2012) found different set of personality traits in adolescent boys and girls. Girls were found to be high on agreeableness personality trait and had a preference for social occupations, while men preferred enterprising occupations. Lakhal et al. (2012) found that among business students, males’ choice of ‘thing oriented’ business majors was predicted by neuroticism which focuses more on financial matters, while females chose person oriented majors related to human relationships.

Research findings of Sujata's (2005) study also gave evidence for gender differences in terms of personality factors. Boys were more outgoing, enthusiastic, sensitive and imaginative compared to girls, whereas the girls were more tough minded and controlled compared to boys. Olszewski-Kubilius et al. (1988) found gender differences in the personality dimensions of gifted adolescents which in turn affects their career choices in future. Males prefer intellectual and leadership oriented careers. Though females also have leadership characteristics, they need assistance in integrating those aspects of their personalities to maximize their leadership potential. Gifted males are more dominant and give much less weight to their feelings in making judgments than do the sensitive gifted females. These differences in personality dimensions make them choose different career fields.

2.5 Self-Esteem

2.5.1 Self-Esteem: Theories and Relation to Human Behavior

Self-esteem is crucial and is a cornerstone of a positive attitude towards living. It is very important because it affects how one thinks, acts and even how one relates to other people, allowing the individual to live life to full potential. Self-esteem can be understood as the amount of importance individuals give to themselves and value they hold. It is an affectively and cognitively laden self-evaluation (MacDonald & Leary, 2012). Self-esteem is sometimes referred to as a personality variable that represents the way people generally feel about themselves (Brown & Marshall, 2006). It makes a person competent to cope with the basic challenges of life. Both high and low self-esteem are associated with strong emotional reactions leading to major ups and downs in one's life. Self-esteem is a component and a broader representation of self-concept, along with its sum of evaluations across most striking attributes (Blascovich & Tomanka, 1993). It is related to how individuals generally feel after evaluation of their experiences with acceptance and rejection over time (Leary & Downs, 1995; Leary & MacDonald, 2003).

Sociometer theory (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Leary & Downs, 1995) suggests that self-esteem is an evolutionary adaptation that emerged to monitor a person's relational value to others. To maintain one's self-worth, it is essential that a person is considered important by others and gain back emotional and social support.

According to the terror management theory, as explained by Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, and Schimel (2004) individuals strive for high self-esteem because it provides a buffer against the anxiety regarding one's mortality. However, SDT portrays it differently. Concepts of 'state self-esteem' and 'trait self-esteem' (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001) offer another viewpoint of self-esteem. Trait self-esteem represents the overall level of stable self-worth over a period of time. In contrast, state self-esteem refers to the one affected by an individual's current situation and environmental context. Ryan and Deci (2004) opine that self-esteem arising from underlying threat and anxiety is the contingent self-esteem. True self-esteem results from the satisfaction of basic needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness. Deci and Ryan (1995) also reported that healthy self-esteem originates from personal growth and achievement rather than social approval.

Rosenberg (1972) defined self-esteem as individuals' set of thoughts and feelings about their importance, as a stable sense of personal worthiness. Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSES) is the most widely used self-report measure for assessment of global self-esteem (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1993). Researchers suggest that there are two dimensions of RSES based on positively worded and negatively worded items representing two aspects of self-esteem: positive and negative (Ang, Neubronner, Oh, & Leong, 2006; Owens, 1994). Several theorists suggest that self-esteem affects individual decisions in a variety of contexts. Branden (1995) explains self-esteem as a disposition of experiencing oneself as competent enough to face the basic challenges of life and being worthy of happiness. In his book, 'The six pillars of self-esteem', he proposed six components of self-esteem, which are living consciously, self-acceptance, self-responsibility, self-assertiveness, purposeful living, and personal integrity. One's self esteem becomes high when one wins a contest, solves a problem, or gains acceptance to a social group, and falls with corresponding failures. It has been reported that post-failure, high self-esteem individuals experience less emotional distress in comparison to low self-esteem individuals (Kernis, Brockner, & Frankel, 1989; Moreland & Sweeney, 1984).

2.5.2 Self-Esteem and Career/ Curriculum Choice

Self-esteem influences the work behaviors of professionals and performance of students. Makikangas, Kinnunen, and Feldt (2004) and Janssen, Schaufeli, and

Houkes (1999) found that low self-esteem was linked with more burnout at work such as exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced accomplishment. Studies also report a link between high levels of stress and low self-esteem (Hudd et al., 2000; Le Rouge et al., 2006). Existing evidence also suggests that high self-esteem is related to better job performances, job satisfaction, and lower stress levels of individuals at work (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi, 2007). Patton, Bartrum, and Creed (2004) concluded that self-esteem predicted career planning and exploration in students. External locus of control is associated with low self-esteem in students (Abouserie, 1994). Michie and Bray (2001) found a positive relationship between self-esteem and entrance of students in higher education for social stimulation and social contacts. High self-esteem has been associated with effective career decision making (Mahadi, Ph'ng, Hasan, & Ariffin, 2015). In contrast, individuals with low self-esteem face difficulty in making career decisions (Ali & Shah, 2013). There are very few direct studies related to self-esteem and career or curriculum choice.

2.5.3 Gender Differences: Self-Esteem

Empirical literature on self-esteem concludes that males and females have different patterns of self-esteem (Josephs, Markus, & Tafarodi, 1992). Josephs et al. (1992) viewed that there are different sources of self-esteem of males and females. According to them, concept of self-esteem is linked to a successful match between individual and culturally mandated gender appropriate norms. For males, high self-esteem could be associated with separation and independence, in contrast to females, whose high self-esteem is associated with interdependence (Cross & Madson, 1997; Josephs et al., 1992). As reported by Catham and De Francisco (1998), high self-esteem in women is associated with three main characteristics: voice, self-perspective, and concern for others.

Zuckerman (1985) found no significant difference in the self-esteem of males and females. Kling, Hyde, Showers, and Buswell (1999) found that men had higher self-esteem than women, though the difference was very small. Similar results have been reported by Feingold (1994), Martín-Albo, Núñez, Navarro, and Grijalvo (2007) and Sanders, Sander, and Mercer (2009). However, the present author came across very few studies reporting higher self-esteem in females in comparison to males (Cienki & Brooks, 1989; Sahlstein & Allen, 2002). Females have been reported to be

highly intrinsically oriented in comparison to males (Kasser & Ryan, 1993) and individuals with intrinsic value orientation have high self-esteem (Kasser & Kasser, 2001), so that was the reason it was hypothesised in the present study that females will have high self-esteem.

2.6 Career/Curriculum Choice: Interrelationship between Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem

Rokeach (1973) defined values as a standard that guides one's actions, ideologies, and attitudes, and he proposed personality to be a system of values. So it can be assumed that values influence personality (Segal, 1992). Personality dimensions represent who we are while values represent what we want to accomplish in life (Díaz & Cavazos-Arroyo, 2015). According to Roberts and Robins (2000), who we are, i.e., 'personality', strongly influences what we want to accomplish or what we 'value'. Values play a central role in lives of individuals as they tend to influence their goals and emotions (Schwartz, 1992). Traits and life goals interact to predict the behavior (Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen, & Duncan, 1998). These research findings show that personal values and personality dimensions are inter related. While, self-esteem has been considered by psychologists as a personality characteristic that represents their feelings about themselves (Brown & Marshall, 2006).

The association between these psychological constructs such as personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem and the implications of highly extrinsic value orientation has been reported by many investigators. Studies support that extrinsic values are related with psychopathology (related with psychoticism), such as machiavellianism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Adolescents who highly value wealth and financial success are more likely to experience several psychological disorders (Cohen & Cohen, 1996). Neuroticism is negatively associated with wellbeing, whereas extraversion is positively associated with wellbeing (Argyle & Lu, 1990; Furnham & Brewin, 1990). Clark and Schroth (2010) found a variation between the personality profiles of extrinsically oriented and intrinsically oriented college students. The students with extrinsic motivation and goals scored higher on neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, whereas intrinsically oriented students were found to be high on extraversion, and openness to new experience. Kasser and Ahuvia (2002) reported that extrinsically oriented people are high on

anxiety which is associated with neuroticism. Kasser and Ryan (1996) also found that extrinsic values are associated with high scores on neuroticism scale.

Watson (2014) found that personality traits such as high neuroticism and low agreeableness correlate with materialism. He also suggested that in high neurotic individuals, materialistic tendencies could be the result of anxiety and compensation of deprived past feelings and experiences. Mick (1996) also found materialism to be associated with high neuroticism. Lowry et al. (2012) identified personality traits of students during transition phase into their careers that predicted work values. They found that extraversion and agreeableness traits were positively correlated with social and altruistic values. Barrick et al. (2003) found that agreeableness trait is also associated with social vocational interest. Agreeableness has also been found to be related with value of benevolence (Yik & Tang, 1996) which indicates the level of nurturance and altruism in one's personality (Digman, 1990) and is related with helping others and cooperating with them (Burch & Anderson, 2008; John & Srivastava, 1999). Barrick and Mount (1991) also concluded that trait of agreeableness make people choose professions for the wellbeing of others and feelings for them. In contrast, power values and extrinsic aspirations have inverse relationship with such traits that involve helping behaviors (Olver & Mooradian, 2003; Romero, Gomez-Fraguela, & Villar, 2012). Social interests were negatively predicted by the value of earnings (Berings et al., 2004).

In recent years, a growing body of research has shown that self-esteem is related to the value orientation of individuals. Those who aspire for intrinsic goals have higher self-esteem in comparison to those who aspire for extrinsic aspirations (Kasser & Kasser, 2001). The reason is that materialistic goal orientation gives rise to more insecurity and pessimism, which lowers individuals' self-esteem (Kasser & Kasser, 2001; Ryan et al., 1999). Similar findings have been reported by Mick (1996) and Chan and Joseph (2000).

Materialistic values were inversely related to life satisfaction and were associated with low self-esteem and defensive and assertive self-presentational tactics (Christopher et al., 2007; Christopher, Morgan, Marek, Keller, & Drummond, 2005). Larsen, Sirgy, and Wright (1999) also supported that decreased self-esteem along with low life satisfaction and social alienation is one of the negative consequences of

materialism. Studies have reported that if self-esteem of a person increases, it reduces materialistic attitude (Chaplin & John, 2007). Similarly, lower ratings on self-worth have been found to be associated with high money oriented values (Mick, 1996; Richins & Dawson, 1992). Individuals with high self-esteem have been reported to be high on vitality, which is positively associated with self-esteem and self-actualisation (Kasser & Ryan, 1993, 1996).

Those who are overly inclined towards extrinsic values are predisposed to feelings of insecurity regarding self-worth and they feel that accumulating wealth and having high prestige can make them worthwhile and increase their self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1995). On the other hand, high self-esteem individuals are less prone to anxiety and to the threatened feelings (Leary, Barnes, & Griebel, 1986; Rosenberg & Simmons, 1972). In another study conducted by Ryan et al. (1999), over emphasis on extrinsic values was associated with lower self-esteem. Intrinsic motivation and autonomy orientation was also found to be associated with high self-esteem (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981). An autonomous integration of values ensures a relatively self-determined form of self-esteem, while extrinsically controlled values facilitate a contingent form of self-esteem which is dependent upon others (Pyszczynski et al., 2004).

Studies report that there are noteworthy relationships between self-esteem and several personality dimensions including psychoticism, neuroticism, and extraversion (Downey & Feldman, 1996; Watson & Friedman, 1969). Individuals with high extraversion trait and high self-esteem are more sociable, outgoing, and also experience more positive affect and emotional stability (Halamandaris & Power, 1997; Robins, Tracy, Trzesniewski, Potter, & Gosling, 2001). Chan and Joseph (2000) also reported that low self-esteem was associated with low extraversion, high neuroticism, and psychoticism too to some extent (Chan & Joseph, 2000).

Findings reveal that low self-esteem is one of the manifestations of emotional instability exhibited by highly neurotic people (Whitley & Gridley, 1993). Low self-esteem is also linked to various behaviors symptomatic of neuroticism and psychoticism. For instance, self-esteem has been correlated with aggression, delinquency, and anti-social behavior (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, & Caspi, 2005; Seto & Lalumiere, 2010) as well as psychopathology such as major

depression and personality disorders (Westen & Heim, 2003). Amirazodi and Amirazodi (2011) found neuroticism to be a negative predictor of self-esteem. Chan and Joseph (2000) studied aspirations, personality traits and self-esteem of students. They reported an association between high self-esteem, lower importance given to financial success value, and high importance to self-acceptance and high extraversion. However, these studies provide a base to the present study, but the studies reported above are not conducted on a comparative data, there was a scope of further exploration.

2.7 Changing Patterns: Career/Curriculum Choices, Personal Values, and Personality Dimensions

With the course of time, several cultural changes take place in the society which further influences the enduring patterns of personality dimensions as well as personal values of an individual. Societal changes over the past few decades have caused a shift in the value orientations of individuals (Lyons et al., 2005a). Old generation prioritized altruistic values, while young generation prioritizes prestige values (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2005b). Boomers (born between years 1946-1965) used to give more importance to altruistic values, but Gen X (born between years 1965-1981) score lower on such values. Millennials (born between years 1982-1999) had lowest scores on altruistic values and highest on extrinsic values (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). According to Lancaster and Stillma (2002), millennials have materialistic value system and they place greater emphasis on status and prestige. Ger and Belk (1996) reported that social change, mobility, westernisation, and globalisation are causal factors behind an increase in materialism.

Inglehart and Baker (2000) argued that economic development has led to pervasive cultural changes as well as systematic change in values. Industrialization gave rise to occupational specialization, increased education levels, more incomes, as well as change in gender roles and norms. In India, industrialization has created new opportunities and role spaces for both men and women (Parikh & Shah, 1991). Coincident with the upsurge of professional opportunities, economic development, and westernization, there has been a shift in the value orientation from intrinsic to extrinsic values (Kim et al., 2003; Ryan et al., 1999; Schmuck et al., 2000). Education and influence of western culture in India, have brought a change in the concept of

stereotypical gender roles, women of present era can recognize and explore their masculinity and males can explore their femininity (Parikh & Engineer, 2000). Shift of society from agrarian to industrial, from rural to urban, has led to transition of women from homes to corporate offices as well (Parikh & Shah, 1991).

Several studies have investigated the changing role and status of Indian women taking place in light of new economic environment and liberalization (Budhwar, Saini, & Bhatnagar, 2014). Indian women have also become more career oriented and ambitious, and are earning a second income for family (Budhwar et al., 2014). Studies on gender similarities report that occupational aspirations of women are becoming more like men (Powell, 2002). Parikh and Engineer (2000) reported about women who were striking a balance between home and work in 1990's. In the last few decades, women have made several successful attempts at crossing their threshold, challenging themselves by performing multiple roles and managing interfaces in the outside world both at home and workplace.

Changes in professional choices are taking place not only in the case of females, but also males. Chusmir (1992) suggested that there are categories of males who opt for non-traditional career choices. First category is that of Seekers, who actively choose non-traditional careers and Finders, who did not actively chose such career but chose it during the process of making general career choice, and Settlers, who have decided to choose feminine careers as a result of dissatisfaction with the traditional careers and thus are more intrinsically career oriented. Some studies reported that males and females involved in same occupation, show less differences in their goals and values. According to Davey and Lalande (2004), male nurses give altruistic values as a reason behind choosing this career, similar to female nurses. Similarly, female engineers chose engineering because of the similar reasons given by male engineers, such as money, status, and power (Davey & Lalande, 2004). However Agarwala (2008) reported that in the case of males, financial rewards were significantly more important determining factor for choice of management career while for females, skills and competence were most important.

2.8 Conclusion

From the studies cited in the review of literature above, it can be seen that most of the work done in relation to values, personality, and career choice have focussed on work values. In addition to this, no serious attempts have been made to analyse the transition from traditional to non-traditional values, and its effects on academic discipline of an individual. The present study focuses on the impact of personal value orientation and personality dimensions on the choice of academic discipline and gender differences. Investigating self-esteem of students from different curriculum areas is also a novel attempt. The researcher has not come across any comprehensive study linking the choice of academic discipline with personal values orientation and personality dimensions in the light of changing value system. Also, no such studies have been reported in Indian context. Taking the above facts into account the present study attempted to investigate the major determinants of the choice of academic disciplines. Aforementioned empirical and theoretical review of literature guided the present study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The main objective of the present study was to compare the value orientation, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of students belonging to diverse academic disciplines. It also aimed at investigating gender differences in terms of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. Accordingly, the previous chapter provided the overview of the literature on relationship between curriculum and career related decisions and personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of individuals.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. Section 3.1 describes the research design of the study. Section 3.2 includes a description of the sample. Section 3.3 gives a summary of the instruments used, their psychometric and other properties. This is followed by an account of the procedure used for collecting data (Section 3.4). Finally, Section 3.5 explains the analytical strategy used in this research, including descriptive as well as inferential statistical analysis. This section primarily includes a description of t-test and binary logistic regression which were employed to investigate the data.

3.1 Research Design

The present research employed personal values: importance, personal values: likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem as independent variables (predictors) and choice of academic discipline as dependent (criterion) variable. Descriptive statistics, t-test, correlation, and binary logistic regression were used to analyse the data.

Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), and t-test were used to compare the scores of students on personal values, subscales of personal values, and personality dimensions for different academic disciplines. In addition to this, similar analysis was carried out to investigate the gender differences.

Binary logistic regressions were computed to investigate various relationships and their strengths of association. Binary logistic regression was carried out separately for all independent variables (predictor) viz. personal values: importance, personal values: likelihood, subscales of personal values, psychoticism, neuroticism,

extraversion, and self-esteem to investigate their impact on academic choice. Similarly, the same was carried out to investigate the gender differences.

3.2 Participants

This study was conducted on students studying in tertiary level institutions in Punjab (India). Equal numbers of students were selected (300) from each of the following disciplines: Bachelor of Technology (B. Tech.), and three Masters' level students pursuing Business, Arts and Humanities. Each group had equal number of male (M) and female (F) students giving rise to a sample size of 1200 (600 M and 600 F). The age range of the selected sample was 18-25 years (for total sample, $M = 21.5$, $SD = 2.9$; for males, $M = 21.1$, $SD = 2.7$; for females, $M = 20.5$, $SD = 2.1$).

Selection of participants employed two-stage sampling. Institutions offering the above courses in Punjab were listed to provide a sampling frame for the selection of institutions. The number of these institutions was 97, 39, 81, and 107 for Arts, Humanities, Business and Technical fields respectively. The sampling frame included the institutions run by the government as well as private/business houses. The selection of 10 percent of the institutions in the sampling frame ignored this information. Since the sample size was 10 percent, finite population correction was not required. The first stage provided a sample of 20 institutions selected by employing stratified random sampling procedure to increase precision without increasing cost. The second stage of sampling employed simple random sampling procedure to select students from the sampled institutions.

3.3 Instruments Used for the Data Collection

To assess the personal values, personality dimensions and self-esteem of the subjects, following instruments were used in this research. All the instruments were standardised psychological measures. The subjects were informed that the researcher aimed to elicit some information regarding their behavioral patterns before administering the tests. They were instructed to give their sincere and honest responses to each and every item included in the questionnaires (Appendix attached).

3.3.1 The Aspiration Index (AI)

Aspiration Index (Kasser & Ryan, 1993) is an instrument that assesses the personal values of individuals. Originally developed in 1993, AI has been revised a number of times over the years. Its later versions include other scales such as spiritualism and hedonism in addition to intrinsic and extrinsic values. Since, the main objective of the present study was to investigate intrinsic and extrinsic personal values; 1996 version of AI was used in the present study. Prior permission was taken from Dr. Richard Ryan before using the test.

AI assesses the relative centrality of particular goals within the goal system of an individual. It consists of 42 items which measure 7 domains of aspirations, broadly covered by two types of value orientation- intrinsic and extrinsic values. Each of the subscales of intrinsic and extrinsic values had two dimensions: importance and likelihood of values. Intrinsic goals/values include self-acceptance, affiliation, and community feeling while extrinsic goals/values include financial success, attractive appearance, social recognition, and physical fitness. Physical fitness sub scale was not used in the present study because it is not clearly either extrinsic or intrinsic (Brdar, Rijavec, & Miljković, 2009). Moreover, we preferred using only the psychologically oriented values. Using six values scales ensured that a balance was being maintained between the psychologically oriented intrinsic and extrinsic values being contrasted (Ryan et al. 1999).

Participants rated those items on different kinds of dimensions on a 5 point likert scale. The questions were about the goals subjects might have for future. Subjects rated each item twice on two dimensions, firstly by circling how important each goal was to them; secondly, by circling the chances of attaining those goals in their future. These were referred to as importance and likelihood of personal values. Importance (I) and Likelihood (L) of these subscales were coded as follows. Self-acceptance: SAI and SAL, affiliation: AFI and AFL and community feeling: CFI and CFL, financial success: FSI and FSL, attractive appearance: AAI and AAL, and social recognition: SRI and SRL. For scoring, firstly average scores were calculated for each of the subscales of intrinsic and extrinsic values separately. In order to differentiate the subjects having high intrinsic values from those having low intrinsic values, relative extrinsic value orientation score (REVO) was calculated for both importance

and likelihood of goals. Thus, REVO represented the relative value between the intrinsic and extrinsic ratings of goals (Ryan et al., 1999). For scoring REVO the average scores of intrinsic items were subtracted from the average scores of extrinsic item (Sheldon et al., 2010; Kasser & Ryan, 2001). Range of the gathered score was from -3 to +3. So, to negate the negative scores and to normalize the data on a scale, a constant of '3' was added to all the ratings (Ryan et al., 1999). This ensured that all scores were positive. High REVO scores reflected high intrinsic value orientation and low REVO scores reflected high extrinsic value orientation. Cronbach alpha for the measure of intrinsic values was 0.89 for importance and 0.88 for likelihood of values. For extrinsic values, the corresponding values were 0.88 and 0.86 for importance and likelihood values respectively.

3.3.2 Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised (EPQ-R)

EPQ-R (Eysenck, Eysenck, & Barrett, 1985) is a revised version of Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) to measure the personality dimensions of the age range 16 to 70 years old. It consists of 90 items to be responded in yes or no. It yields scores for three domains of personality: Psychoticism (P), Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E). It also contains a Lie scale (L) which is used for the revelation of falsehoods and dissimulation. In the present study, lie scale was only used to eliminate such fake response cases. Unrealistically high extrinsic value orientation has been found to be associated with symptoms of anxiety, depression, and other behavioral problems that are symptomatic of high psychoticism and neuroticism traits (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Watson, 2014). This was main reason behind using this questionnaire for measuring personality dimensions. After completion of data collection, manual scoring was done with overlay keys. The manual of EPQ-R was referred for the purpose of scoring of E, N, P, and L. The raw scores were then converted into sten scores. The manual states that if the lie score exceeds 7 for males and 8 for females, the scores should not be included in the analysis. Thus, the subjects who did not meet the criteria were rejected. Cronbach's alpha for the four dimensions for this sample was $E = 0.85$, $N = 0.72$, $P = 0.68$, $L = 0.73$.

3.3.3 Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)

The scale was developed by Rosenberg (1965) to measure self-esteem. Reliability of RSES is 0.88 and validity is 0.72. It consists of 10 statements, which the participants

have to rate on a four point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The scale is the most widely used measure of state self-esteem which asks the respondents to reflect on their current feelings that how strongly they agree or disagree with the given statements. The scale ranges from a score of 0-30 indicating low, normal, and high self-esteem.

3.4 Procedure

The researcher approached the heads of the targeted institutions, explained them the purpose of the study and asked them for the permission to collect data from students of their respective institutions. After they granted written permission, consent forms were filled by the students before participating in the study. The questionnaires were administered on students of various academic fields in small groups. Students were properly instructed about filling the printed questionnaires and to give their honest responses. The basic objective of the study was to investigate their personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem, so they were provided with AI first, then EPQ, and lastly RSES. Before administering the questionnaires, the students were informed that they will be provided with reinforcement (in the form of pens, note pads, and other edible refreshments) and feedback of their results, in order to motivate them to perform seriously and sincerely. AI was administered first, followed by EPQ-R and RSES. The subjects took 20 minutes, 30 minutes, and 8 minutes each for completing AI, EPQ-R, and RSES respectively.

Initially, surplus data was collected from 1400 students envisaging rejections of subjects based on Lie scores on EPQ-R. After eliminating the subjects we were left with 1320 subjects. In order to maintain a consistency in the sample size, 300 students were randomly selected from each of the academic fields, yielding a total sample size of 1200.

Feedback about their individual performance was provided to the interested students within two days. The scoring was done as per the standardised manuals for data compilation.

3.5 Statistical Analysis

3.5.1 Descriptive Statistics:

The descriptive statistics is a way of analysing the data that describes and summarizes data in a meaningful way through measures of central tendency such as mean, median, mode, standard deviation.

3.5.2 t-test

It is a statistical analysis tool used to compare the means of two groups and analyse if there is significant difference between the two. Present study used this tool to find out the difference in students of the two fields, gender differences in terms of personal values, subscales of personal values comprising intrinsic values (SAI, SAL, AFI, AFL, CFI, CFL) and extrinsic values (FSI, FSL, AAI, AAL, SRI, SRL), and dimensions of personality and also to investigate the gender differences in these variables.

3.5.3 Binary Logistic Regression

Regression is a statistical tool used for measuring the strength of relationship between dependent and independent variables. Binary logistic regression analysis is used when there is single categorical dependent (criterion) variable, and takes only two values, 0 and 1 representing two categories. In the present context, the impact of value orientation, personality dimensions, and self-esteem were studied on the choice of academic discipline.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Chapter 3 provided details about research design, sample, and instruments used to measure personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem; and procedure used for data collection. After the completion of data collection, data was analysed using SPSS version 22.0. This chapter presents the results of data analysis. Section 4.1 provides the results of descriptive statistics and t-values of males and females of A/H and B/T fields on personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. Section 4.2 includes the correlation matrix for personal values, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion and, self-esteem. Section 4.3 provides the binary logistic regression results pertaining to personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. The following section provides the detailed results pertaining to each of the research questions raised in chapter 3.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The following section indicates the mean, standard deviation, and t-values of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem scores of students of different educational streams. The t-statistics values indicate the difference between means of students pursuing A/H fields (G1) and B/T fields (G2) (G1-G2). Similarly, t-statistics also indicate the difference between means of males (G1) and females (G2) (G1-G2).

4.1.1 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Students of A/H and B/T Fields

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics indicating the means (M) and standard deviation (SD) of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of students of A/H and B/T academic field. For values: importance scores of A/H students the mean was 2.83 ($SD = 0.79$). For values: importance score of B/T students the mean was 3.70 ($SD = 0.75$). The t-value calculated for comparison between the values: importance scores of students of the two fields was $t(1198) = -19.41$, $p < .001$, which was significant. Mean scores of values: likelihood of A/H students was 2.75 ($SD = 0.87$). The mean scores of values: likelihood of B/T students was 3.48 ($SD = 0.59$). The t-value calculated for comparison between the values: likelihood scores of students of

the two fields was $t(1198) = -17.08, p < .001$, which was significant. In both cases of personal value scores, students of A/H had lower mean scores which showed that they had intrinsic value orientation while students of B/T had extrinsic value orientation.

Table 1

Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields (N = 600)

Variables	A/H		B/T		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Values: importance	2.83	0.79	3.70	0.75	-19.41***
Values: likelihood	2.75	0.87	3.48	0.59	-17.08***
Psychoticism	6.27	2.11	6.93	1.91	-6.11***
Neuroticism	5.59	2.25	6.08	1.87	-4.06***
Extraversion	5.96	1.77	5.59	1.91	4.58***
Self-Esteem	20.00	3.66	18.97	3.53	5.71***

*** $p < .001$ (df = 1198 for all cases)

Mean and SD of A/H and B/T students for personality dimensions were as follows. For psychoticism mean score of A/H students was 6.27 ($SD = 2.11$), and for neuroticism mean score of A/H students was 5.59 ($SD = 2.25$). For B/T students, mean score of psychoticism was 6.93 ($SD = 1.91$), and mean score of neuroticism was 6.08 ($SD = 1.87$). These scores indicated that students of B/T had higher psychoticism and neuroticism traits than students of A/H. The t-values calculated for comparison between the psychoticism and neuroticism scores of students of the two fields were $t(1198) = -6.11, p < .001$ and $t(1198) = -4.06, p < .001$ respectively, which were significant. Extraversion scores indicated that A/H students ($M = 5.96, SD = 1.77$) scored higher than B/T students ($M = 5.59, SD = 1.91$). The t-value calculated for

comparison between the extraversion scores of students of A/H and B/T fields was $t(1198) = 4.58, p < .001$, which was significant.

Lastly, for self-esteem score of students of A/H mean was 20.00 ($SD = 3.66$) and for B/T students, mean of self-esteem was 18.97 ($SD = 3.53$). This indicated higher self-esteem amongst students of A/H stream than students of B/T stream. The t-value calculated for comparison between the self-esteem scores of students of the two fields was $t(1198) = 5.71, p < .001$, which was significant.

4.1.1.1 Mean, SD, and t-values of Subscales (Aspiration Index) of Students of A/H and B/T Fields

To get further information t-test was computed to compare the students on subscales of personal values for different academic fields and gender. Descriptive statistics showing mean scores and standard deviations of subscales (AI) of students of A/H and B/T academic fields are shown in Table 10. Mean scores of students of A/H and B/T on SAI scale was 3.40 ($SD = 0.64$), and 3.00 ($SD = 0.58$) respectively. The t-value calculated for comparison between the SAI scores of students of A/H and B/T fields was, $t(1198) = 11.53, p < .001$, which was significant. Further, the mean scores also suggest that students of A/H have higher scores on SAI value than students of B/T. It can be observed that for other two subscales-AFI and CFI, mean scores B/T students were 3.03 ($SD = 0.57$), and 2.81 ($SD = 0.59$) respectively. Mean scores of A/H students on these scales (AFI and CFI) were 3.35 ($SD = 0.62$) and 3.31 ($SD = 0.67$) respectively. The t-value was significant in the case of AFI, showing high affiliation value: importance among A/H students, $t(1198) = 9.35, p < .001$. The t-value $t(1198) = 13.66, p < .001$, was significant for CFI value.

Descriptive statistics showing scores of extrinsic values indicate that A/H students had high mean scores on all three extrinsic values: importance scales. For FSI, mean of A/H students was 3.24, SD was 0.51, while mean of B/T students was 3.78 and SD was 0.56. The t-value was $t(1198) = -17.19, p < .001$ and it was significant. For AAI scales, mean of A/H students was 3.14 and SD was 0.55, and mean of B/T students was 3.58 and SD was 0.50 with a significant t-value, $t(1198) = -14.34 (p < .001)$. For last subscale of extrinsic value: importance i.e., SRI mean score of A/H students was 3.19 ($SD = 0.61$) while mean score of B/T students was 3.59 ($SD = 0.64$). The t-value calculated for comparison between SRI for the two groups was significant, $t(1198) = -11.10, p < .001$.

A similar pattern of scores emerged for values: likelihood as well. On SAL scale, for students of A/H, mean score was 3.50, SD was 0.59. For students of B/T, mean was 2.96, SD was 0.53. The t-value was also significant, $t(1198) = 15.39$, $p < .001$. Students of A/H scored higher on AFL scale ($M = 3.46$, $SD = 0.60$) in comparison to B/T students ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 0.63$), t value came out to be significant, $t(1198) = 9.94$, $p < .001$. On CFL scale, A/H students ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 0.64$) scored higher than B/T students ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 0.56$) with a significant of t-value, $t(1198) = 9.95$, $p < .001$.

Table 2

Mean, SD, and t-values of Subscales (Aspiration Index) of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields (N = 600)

Variables	A/H		B/T		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
SAI	3.40	0.64	3.00	0.58	11.53***
AFI	3.35	0.62	3.03	0.57	9.35***
CFI	3.31	0.67	2.81	0.59	13.66***
FSI	3.24	0.51	3.78	0.56	-17.19***
AAI	3.14	0.55	3.58	0.50	-14.34***
SRI	3.19	0.61	3.59	0.64	-11.10***
SAL	3.46	0.59	2.96	0.53	15.39***
AFL	3.50	0.60	3.14	0.63	9.94***
CFL	3.26	0.64	2.91	0.56	9.95***
FSL	3.19	0.63	3.57	0.60	-10.56***
AAL	3.18	0.62	3.52	0.54	-10.05***
SRL	3.07	0.65	3.36	0.60	- 7.77***

*** $p < .001$ (df = 1198 for all cases)

Abbreviations with 'I' indicate the Values: Importance, 'L' indicate the Values: Likelihood

Self-acceptance: SAI and SAL, Affiliation: AFI and AFL, Community Feeling: CFI and CFL,

Financial Success: FSI and FSL, Attractive Appearance: AAI and AAL, Social Recognition: SRI and SRL

For extrinsic values: likelihood, students of B/T scored higher on all three subscales. For FSL scale, B/T students had a mean score of 3.57 ($SD = 0.60$), while

A/H students had a mean score of 3.21 ($SD = 0.82$). The t-value of FSL was significant, $t(1198) = -10.56, p < .001$. For AAL scale, mean score of B/T students was 3.19 ($SD = 0.63$). Mean score of A/H students was 3.18 ($SD = 0.62$). The t-value was significant $t(1198) = -10.05, p < .001$ levels. Lastly, for SRL students of B/T had a mean score of 3.36 ($SD = 0.60$). A/H students had a mean score of 3.07 ($SD = 0.65$). The t-value for this scale was also significant, $t(1198) = -7.77, p < .001$.

4.1.2 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males and Females

Descriptive statistics showing mean and SD of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of both males and females are shown in Table 2. It is indicated that males scored higher ($M = 3.78, SD = 0.59$) than females ($M = 2.75, SD = 0.83$) on values: importance. The t-value calculated between the males and females on values: importance scores was $t(1198) = 24.41, p < .001$, which was significant. Similarly, on values: likelihood scale too, males scored higher ($M = 3.49, SD = 0.66$) than females ($M = 2.74, SD = 0.80$). Higher mean score of males on personal values indicate extrinsic value orientation. The t-value calculated for comparison between males and females on values: likelihood scale was $t(1198) = 17.13, p < .001$, which was significant.

Table 3
Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males and Females (N = 600)

Variables	Males		Females		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Values: importance	3.78	0.59	2.75	0.83	24.41***
Values: likelihood	3.49	0.66	2.74	0.80	17.13***
Psychoticism	7.16	1.92	5.98	1.96	10.57***
Neuroticism	6.71	1.80	4.96	1.99	15.97***
Extraversion	4.90	1.71	6.55	1.56	-17.49***
Self-Esteem	18.29	3.58	20.53	3.28	-11.30***

*** $p < .001$ (df = 1198 for all cases)

On personality scales, males scored higher on psychoticism scale ($M = 7.16$, $SD = 1.92$) as well as on neuroticism scale ($M = 6.71$, $SD = 1.80$) as compared to females. For psychoticism scale mean score of females was 5.98 and SD was 1.96; and mean scores of females for neuroticism was 4.96 and SD was 1.99. The t-value calculated for comparison between the psychoticism and neuroticism scores of males and females were $t(1198) = 10.57$, $p < .001$ and $t(1198) = 15.97$, $p < .001$ respectively, which were significant. It is evident from extraversion scores that females were more extrovert ($M = 6.55$, $SD = 1.56$) than males ($M = 4.90$, $SD = 1.71$). The t-value calculated for comparison between males and females on extraversion scores was $t(1198) = -17.49$, $p < .001$, which was significant.

Females scored higher on self-esteem ($M = 20.53$, $SD = 3.28$) scale than males ($M = 18.29$, $SD = 3.58$). The t-value calculated for comparison between males and females on self-esteem was $t(1198) = -11.30$, $p < .001$, which was significant.

4.1.2.1 Mean, SD, and t-values on Subscales (Aspiration Index) of Males and Females

Descriptive statistics showing scores of males and females on subscales of personal values are presented in Table 4. For SAI mean and SD of males were 2.94 and 0.50, and females' scores were 3.44 and 0.62 respectively. Scores reflected high self-acceptance value importance amongst females. The t-value was significant, $t(1198) = -15.47$, $p < .001$. For Mean and SD of males and females on AFI scale is 2.86 and 0.56, and 3.55 and 0.53 respectively. The t-value calculated for comparison between AFI scale also came out to significant, $t(1198) = -22.11$, $p < .001$. Scores suggest that females have higher SAI value than males. CFI mean and SD scores of males and females were 2.75 and 0.55, and 3.38 and 0.65 respectively. The calculated t-value was significant for CFI, $t(1198) = -18.15$ ($p < .001$).

For all three subscales of extrinsic values, females scored lower than males. For FSI, mean of males was 3.70, SD was 0.56, while mean of females was 3.32 and SD was 0.59. The t-value came out to be significant, $t(1198) = 11.47$, $p < .001$. For AAI scale, mean score of males was 3.50 and SD was 0.53, and mean score of females was 3.23 and SD was 0.59 with a significant t-value, $t(1198) = 8.40$, $p < .001$. For SRI, mean score of males was 3.69 and SD was 0.55, for females mean and SD

were 3.08 and 0.61 respectively. The t value $t(1198) = 17.89$, $p < .001$, which was significant in this case.

Table 4

Mean, SD and t-values on Sub-scales (Aspiration Index) of Males and Females (N = 600)

Variables	Males		Females		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
SAI	2.94	0.50	3.44	0.62	-15.47***
AFI	2.86	0.56	3.55	0.53	-22.11***
CFI	2.75	0.55	3.38	0.65	-18.15***
FSI	3.70	0.56	3.32	0.59	11.47***
AAI	3.50	0.53	3.23	0.59	8.40***
SRI	3.69	0.55	3.08	0.61	17.89***
SAL	2.99	0.57	3.42	0.59	-13.04***
AFL	3.16	0.60	3.48	0.65	-8.91***
CFL	2.85	0.55	3.31	0.61	-13.99***
FSL	3.57	0.58	3.19	0.64	10.54***
AAL	3.41	0.55	3.29	0.65	3.61***
SRL	3.46	0.57	2.97	0.62	14.11***

*** $p < .001$ (df = 1198 for all cases)

For likelihood of values, Males' mean score on SAL was 2.99 and SD was 0.57. For females, mean was 3.42, SD was 0.59. The t-value came out to be significant, $t(1198) = -13.04$, $p < .001$. Males had a mean and SD of 3.16 and 0.60 respectively on AFL scale in comparison to females ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.65$) and t-value was significant, $t(1198) = -8.91$, $p < .001$. On CFL scale, males ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 0.55$) scored higher than females ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 0.61$) with a significant t-value, $t(1198) = -13.99$, $p < .001$.

4.1.3 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males of A/H and B/T Fields

Descriptive statistics showing mean and SD of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of males of A/H and B/T fields have been presented in Table 5.

It is indicated that males of B/T scored higher ($M = 4.14$, $SD = 0.46$) than males of A/H ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.45$) on values: importance. The t-value calculated for comparison between the males of A/H and B/T on values: importance scores was $t(598) = -19.33$, $p < .001$, which was significant. Similarly, on values: likelihood scale too, males of B/T scored higher ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 0.60$) in comparison to males of A/H ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.66$) indicating extrinsic value orientation amongst males of B/T. The t-value calculated for comparison between the males of B/T and A/H on values: likelihood score was $t(598) = -7.99$, $p < .001$, which was significant.

Table 5

Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Males of A/H and B/T fields (N = 300)

Variables	A/H		B/T		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Values: importance	3.41	0.45	4.14	0.46	-19.33***
Values: likelihood	3.27	0.66	3.69	0.61	-7.99***
Psychoticism	7.10	1.91	7.23	1.94	-0.83
Neuroticism	6.78	1.91	6.64	1.70	0.98
Extraversion	5.34	1.82	4.44	1.47	6.61***
Self-Esteem	18.57	3.65	18.01	3.49	1.91

*** $p < .001$ (df = 598 for all cases)

On personality scales, males of B/T scored higher on psychoticism scale ($M = 7.23$, $SD = 1.94$) as well on neuroticism scale ($M = 6.64$, $SD = 1.70$) as compared to males of A/H. For psychoticism scale mean score of males of A/H was 7.10 and SD was 1.96; and mean scores of males of A/H for neuroticism was 6.78 and SD was 1.91. The t-value calculated for comparison between the psychoticism and neuroticism scores of males of B/T and A/H were $t(598) = -0.83$ and $t(598) = 0.98$ respectively, which were not significant. It is evident from extraversion scores that males of A/H were more extrovert ($M = 5.34$, $SD = 1.82$) than males of B/T ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 1.47$). The t-value calculated for comparison between the males of A/H and B/T on extraversion scores was $t(598) = 6.61$, $p < .001$, which was significant.

Males of A/H scored higher on self-esteem scale ($M = 18.57$, $SD = 3.65$) than males of B/T ($M = 18.01$, $SD = 3.49$). The t-value calculated for comparison between males of A/H and B/T on self-esteem was $t(598) = 1.91$, which was not significant.

4.1.4 Mean, SD, and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Females of A/H and B/T Fields

Descriptive statistics showing mean and SD of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of females of A/H and B/T fields have been presented in Table 6. It is indicated that females of B/T scored higher ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 0.70$) than females of A/H ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 0.61$) on values: importance. The t-value calculated for comparison between the females of A/H and B/T on values: importance scores was $t(598) = -18.22$, $p < .001$, which was significant. Similarly, on values: likelihood scale too, females of B/T scored higher ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.47$) in comparison to males of A/H ($M = 2.23$, $SD = 0.73$). Higher mean score of females of B/T on values indicate extrinsic value orientation. The t-value calculated for comparison between the females of B/T and A/H on values: likelihood score was $t(598) = -20.91$, $p < .001$, which was significant.

On personality scales, females of B/T scored higher on psychoticism scale ($M = 6.62$, $SD = 1.83$) as well on neuroticism scale ($M = 5.52$, $SD = 1.88$) as compared to females of A/H. For psychoticism scale mean score of females of A/H was 5.34 and SD was 1.87; and mean scores of females of A/H for neuroticism was 4.40 and SD was 1.92. The t-values calculated for comparison between the psychoticism and neuroticism scores of females B/T and A/H were $t(598) = -8.46$, $p < .001$ and $t(598) =$

-7.19, $p < .001$ respectively, which were significant. It is evident from extraversion scores that females of A/H were more extrovert ($M = 6.58$, $SD = 1.46$) than females of B/T ($M = 6.51$, $SD = 1.66$). The t-value calculated for comparison between the females of A/H and B/T on extraversion scores was not significant, $t(598) = 0.53$.

Table 6

Mean, SD and t-values of Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem of Females of A/H and B/T Fields (N = 300)

Variables	A/H		B/T		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Values: importance	2.27	0.61	3.25	0.70	-18.22***
Values: likelihood	2.23	0.73	3.27	0.47	-20.91***
Psychoticism	5.34	1.87	6.62	1.83	-8.46***
Neuroticism	4.40	1.92	5.52	1.88	-7.19***
Extraversion	6.58	1.46	6.51	1.66	0.53
Self-Esteem	21.43	3.06	19.64	3.25	6.95***

*** $p < .001$ (df = 598 for all cases)

Females of A/H scored higher on self-esteem scale ($M = 21.43$, $SD = 3.06$) than females of B/T ($M = 19.64$, $SD = 3.25$). The t-value calculated for comparison between females of A/H and B/T on self-esteem was $t(598) = 6.95$, $p < .001$, which was significant.

Figure 1 shows the graph of REVO importance scores of students of A/H and B/T fields

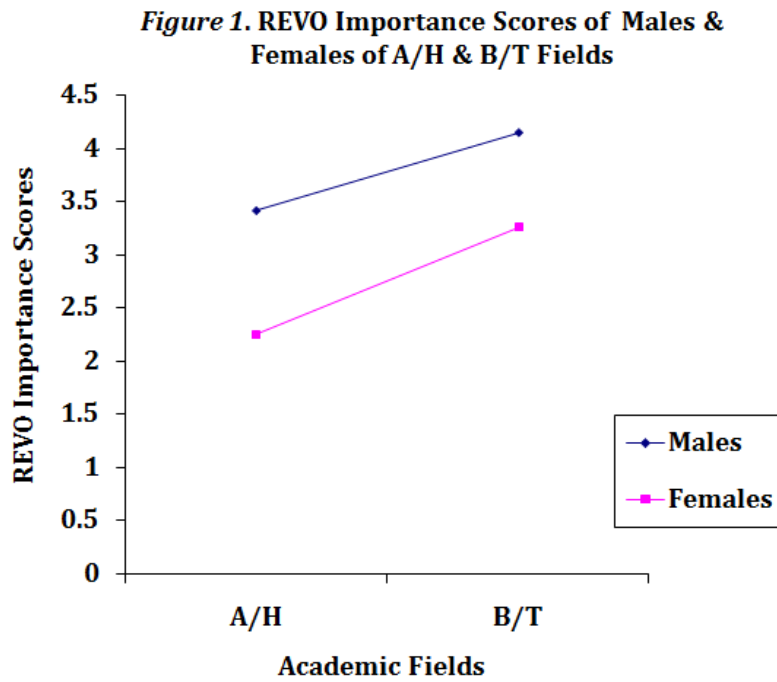


Figure 2 represents the REVO likelihood scores of students of A/H and B/T fields.

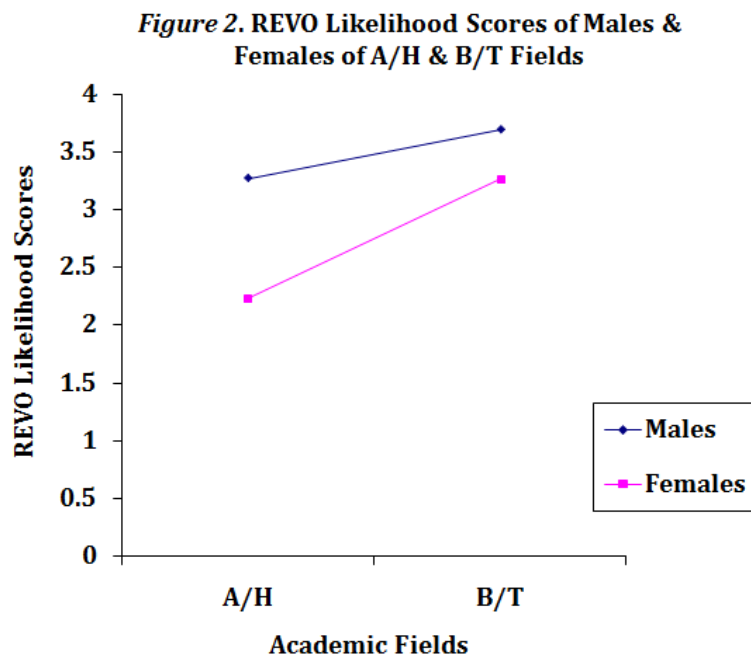


Figure 3 shows the graph representing the psychoticism score of students pursuing A/H and B/T academic fields

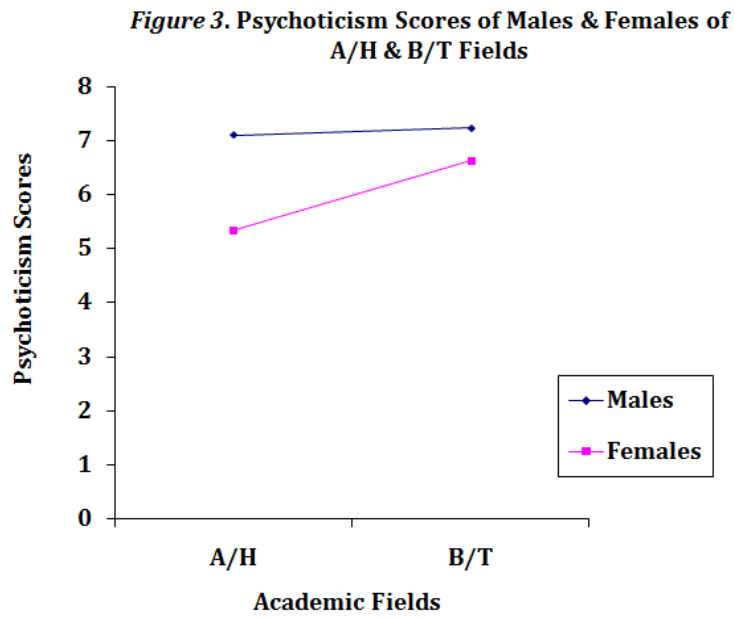


Figure 4 Showing neuroticism scores of A/H and B/T students.

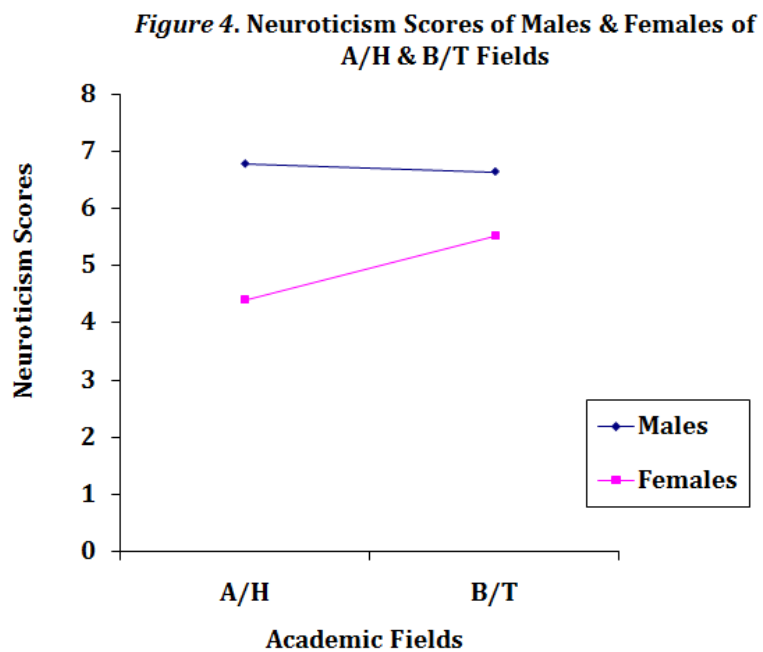


Figure 5 shows the graph representing the extraversion score of students pursuing A/H and B/T academic fields

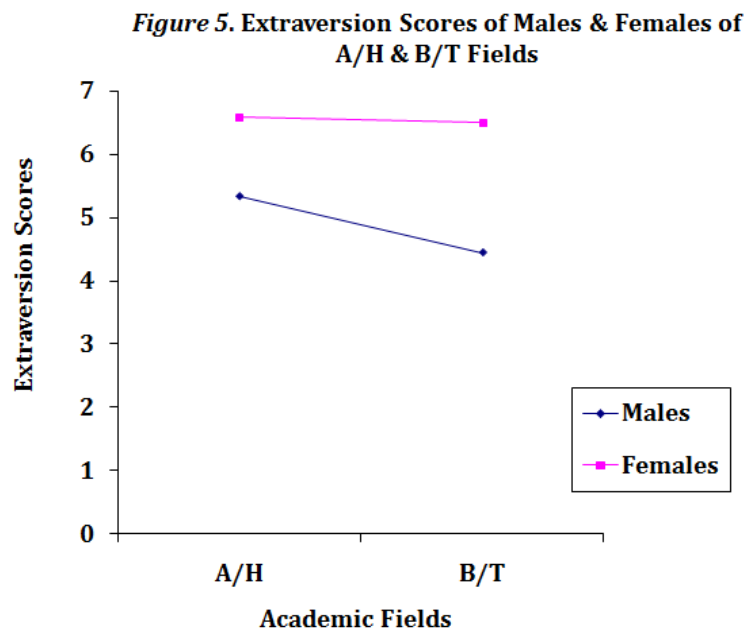
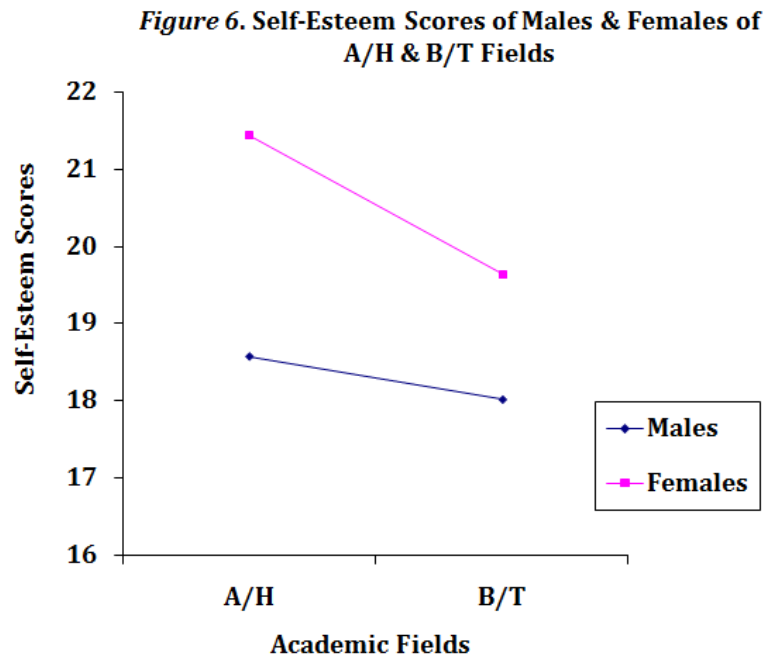


Figure 6 shows the graph of self-esteem scores of students of A/H and B/T fields.



4.2 Correlation between REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Product moment correlation was carried out with the motive of understanding the relationship among variables. Table 7 shows that the relationships were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). Highest correlation was found between REVO likelihood and psychoticism (0.48).

Table 7

Correlation between REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-esteem (N=1200)

Variables	Psychoticism	Neuroticism	Extraversion	Self-Esteem
REVO importance	0.39***	0.42***	-0.35***	-0.34***
REVO likelihood	0.48***	0.44***	-0.30***	-0.35***
Psychoticism	1	0.43***	-0.27***	-0.34***
Neuroticism	-	1	-0.34***	-0.34***
Extraversion	-	-	1	0.29***
Self-Esteem	-	-	-	1

*** $p < .001$

4.3 Binary Logistic Regression

Different sets of binary logistic regression analyses were performed to investigate the effect of value orientation and personality dimensions as independent variables on choice of academic field. The criterion (dependent) variable was a categorical (dichotomous) variable with 1 = choosing B/T academic field and 0 = not choosing B/T academic field (choosing A/H academic field instead). The predictor (independent) variables were REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism,

Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-esteem. All independent variables were continuous in nature.

4.3.1 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood

The results of binary logistic regression computed to find out the best predictors of academic field amongst REVO importance and REVO likelihood are presented in Table 8. The binary logistic regression was statistically significant with $\chi^2(8) = 61.42$, $p < .001$.

Table 8

Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-5.50	0.37	220.91	.001	0.00
REVO Importance	1.04	0.11	83.51	.001	2.84
REVO Likelihood	0.66	0.12	30.61	.001	1.93

Note: $-2 \log$ likelihood = 1308.30 Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.256$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.34$ $\chi^2 = 61.42$, $p < .001$.

Table 8 indicates that the model explains 34% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Students who had high scores on REVO likelihood (indicating high extrinsic values) were 2.84 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the students scoring high on REVO importance (Table 9).

Table 9***Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood***

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	410	190	68.3
B/T	151	449	74.8
Overall			71.6

4.3.2 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Subscales of Aspiration Index

Table 10 shows the binary logistic regression results depicting the best predictor of academic choice amongst subscales of personal values. Results of females were statistically insignificant with $\chi^2(8) = 11.16$ $p < .1$. The model explains 44% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Results shown in Table 11 reveal that students with high scores on importance of financial success were 3.83 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the students scoring high on other subscales.

Table 10***Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Subscales of Aspiration Index***

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-2.56	0.18	4.75	.02	0.08
SAI	-0.25	0.14	3.23	.07	0.77
AFI	0.49	0.15	9.92	.001	1.63
CFI	-0.50	0.14	11.77	.001	0.61
FSI	1.35	0.15	79.26	.001	3.83
AAI	0.72	0.16	20.72	.001	2.06
SRI	0.14	0.14	1.10	.36	1.15
SAL	-0.44	0.13	10.97	.001	0.64
AFL	-0.93	0.16	33.49	.001	0.39
CFL	-0.06	0.14	0.23	.63	0.93
FSL	-0.08	0.14	0.36	.57	0.92
AAL	0.53	0.14	14.88	.00	1.70
SRL	-0.37	0.14	6.72	.03	0.69

Note: $-2 \log$ likelihood = 1180.39 Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.33$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.44$ $\chi^2 = 11.16$, $p < .1$

Table 11***Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Subscales of Aspiration Index***

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	442	158	73.7
B/T	142	458	76.3
Overall			75

4.3.3 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

The results of binary logistic regression computed to find out the best predictors of academic field amongst psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem have been presented in Table 12. The binary logistic regression was statistically significant with $\chi^2(8) = 14.16, p < .03$.

Table 12***Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem***

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	0.91	0.53	2.87	.90	2.48
Psychoticism	0.12	0.03	13.25	.001	1.13
Neuroticism	0.01	0.03	0.12	.73	1.01
Extraversion	-0.08	0.04	5.45	.02	0.92
Self-Esteem	-0.06	0.19	11.12	.001	0.94

Note: $-2 \log \text{likelihood} = 1609.85$ Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.04$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.06$ $\chi^2 = 14.16, p < .03$.

The model explains 6% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Table 13 indicates that students who had high scores on psychoticism were 1.13 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the students scoring high on neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem.

Table 13

Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion and Self-Esteem

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	351	249	58.5
B/T	234	359	61
Overall			59.8

4.3.4 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

The results of binary logistic regression pertaining to the effects of REVO importance, REVO likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem on the choice of academic fields of students have been presented in Table 14. The binary logistic regression was statistically insignificant with $\chi^2(8) = 11.82, p < .1$.

Table 14

Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-5.30	0.74	51.38	.001	0.00
REVO Importance	1.21	0.13	96.21	.001	3.34
REVO Likelihood	0.87	0.13	43.58	.001	2.38
Psychoticism	-0.08	0.04	3.86	.05	0.92
Neuroticism	-0.16	0.04	15.73	.001	0.85
Extraversion	0.05	0.04	1.68	.19	1.05
Self-Esteem	-0.01	0.02	0.26	.60	0.99

Note: $-2 \log$ likelihood = 1276.46 Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.28$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.37$ $\chi^2 = 11.82, p < .1$.

The model explains 37% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Table 15 indicates that students scoring high on REVO importance (indicating high extrinsic values) were 3.34 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the students scoring high on REVO likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem.

Table 15

Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Students by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	422	178	70.3
B/T	154	446	74.3
Overall			72.7

4.3.5 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood

Table 16 presents the binary logistic regression results pertaining to the effects of REVO importance and REVO likelihood on the academic field of males.

Table 16

Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-12.65	1.02	155.36	.001	0.00
REVO Importance	3.29	0.28	141.60	.001	26.85
REVO Likelihood	0.59	0.18	0.11	.74	1.06

Note: $-2 \log$ likelihood = 541.33 Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.38$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.51$ $\chi^2 = 19.21$, $p < 0.05$

Table 17***Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood***

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	241	59	80.3
B/T	57	243	81.0
Overall			80.7

Results of males were statistically significant with $\chi^2(8) = 23.08, p < 0.05$. The model explains 51% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Table 17 indicates that males having high REVO importance scores were 26.85 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the males scoring high on REVO likelihood.

4.3.6 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Binary logistic regression results pertaining to the effects of psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem on the academic field of males have been presented in Table 18.

Table 18***Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem***

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	2.78	0.74	13.21	.001	16.15
Psychoticism	0.01	0.05	0.05	.82	1.01
Neuroticism	-0.12	0.05	3.12	.02	0.89
Extraversion	-0.33	0.06	37.45	.001	0.72
Self-Esteem	-0.02	0.03	0.80	.37	0.98

Note: $-2 \log$ likelihood = 785.16 Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.08$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.10$ $\chi^2 = 17.03, p < 0.05$

Table 19***Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem***

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	179	121	59.7
B/T	114	186	62
Overall			60.8

Results of males were statistically significant with $\chi^2(8) = 17.03, p < .05$. The model explains 10% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Males having high extraversion scores were 0.7 times less likely to choose B/T academic field than the males scoring high on psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem (shown in Table 19).

4.3.7 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Binary logistic regression results pertaining to the effects of REVO importance, REVO likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem on the academic field of males have been presented in Table 20.

Table 20

Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-9.57	1.34	51.29	.001	0.00
REVO Importance	3.28	0.29	130.23	.001	26.53
REVO Likelihood	0.42	0.19	0.79	.38	1.19
Psychoticism	-0.11	0.06	2.70	.10	0.90
Neuroticism	-0.14	0.07	4.15	.04	0.87
Extraversion	-0.31	0.07	18.60	.001	0.73
Self-Esteem	-0.01	0.03	0.06	.80	0.99

Note: $-2 \log$ likelihood = 515.39 Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.41$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.55$ $\chi^2 = 12.43 p < .1$.

Table 21

Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Males by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	244	56	81.3
B/T	54	246	82.0
Overall			81.7

Results of males were statistically insignificant with $\chi^2(8) = 12.43, p < .3$. The model explains 55% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Table 21 shows that males having high REVO importance scores were 26.53 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the males scoring high on REVO likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion and self-esteem.

4.3.8 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Fields of Females by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood

Binary logistic regression results pertaining to effect of REVO importance and REVO likelihood on the academic choice of females are presented in Table 22. Results of females were statistically significant with $\chi^2(8) = 32.85, p < .001$. The model explains 59% (Nagelkerke R^2) of variance in academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Results indicate that females with high REVO likelihood scores (indicating extrinsic value orientation) were 6.48 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the females with high scores on REVO importance (shown in Table 23).

Table 22***Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood***

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-8.25	0.65	163.71	.001	0.00
REVO Importance	1.10	0.19	33.62	.001	3.01
REVO Likelihood	1.87	0.22	73.87	.001	6.48

Note: $-2 \log \text{likelihood} = 483.72$ Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.44$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.59$ $\chi^2 = 32.85$, $p < .001$

Table 23***Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance and REVO Likelihood***

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	238	62	79.3
B/T	43	257	85.7
Overall			82.5

4.3.9 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Fields of Females by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Binary logistic regression results pertaining to effect of psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem on the academic choice of females are shown in Table 24. Results of females were statistically significant with $\chi^2 (8) = 30.68$, $p < .001$. The model explains 21% (Nagelkerke R^2) of variance in academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Results indicated in Table 25 indicate that females with high psychoticism scores were 1.46 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the females with high scores on neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem.

Table 24

Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-2.26	0.31	53.87	.001	0.10
Psychoticism	0.38	0.05	58.06	.001	1.46
Neuroticism	0.21	0.05	16.75	.001	1.23
Extraversion	0.08	0.06	1.77	.18	1.08
Self-Esteem	-0.13	0.03	19.36	.001	0.88

Note: $-2 \log \text{likelihood} = 730.62$ Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.15$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.21$ $\chi^2 = 30.68$, $p < .001$

Table 25

Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	185	115	61.7
B/T	94	206	68.7
Overall			65.2

4.3.10 Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Fields of Females by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Table 26 shows the binary logistic regression results pertaining to effect of values importance, values likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem on the academic choice of females.

Table 26

Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Predictor	β	S.E.	Wald χ^2 df=1	p	Exp (β)
Constant	-8.05	1.35	35.76	.001	0.00
REVO Importance	1.14	0.20	34.28	.001	3.13
REVO Likelihood	1.90	0.24	63.21	.001	6.70
Psychoticism	-0.15	0.07	4.79	0.03	0.86
Neuroticism	0.04	0.07	0.51	0.48	1.05
Extraversion	0.07	0.08	0.76	0.38	1.07
Self-Esteem	-0.02	0.04	0.33	0.56	0.98

Note: $-2 \log \text{likelihood} = 477.46$ Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.45$ Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.60$ $\chi^2 = 30.14$, $p < .001$

Table 27

Classification Table of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Academic Field of Females by REVO Importance, REVO Likelihood, Psychoticism, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Self-Esteem

Observed	Predicted		Percentage correct
	A/H	B/T	
A/H	237	63	79.0
B/T	42	258	86
Overall			82.5

Results were statistically significant with $\chi^2 (8) = 30.14$, $p < .001$. The model explains 60% (Nagelkerke R^2) of variance in academic choice and correctly classified 50% of cases. Table 27 shows that females with high REVO likelihood scores were 6.7 times more likely to choose B/T academic field than the females with high scores on REVO importance, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem.

Table 28

Statistical Analyses Supporting Various Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Statistical Analysis Used	Supporting Table Number
H₁ Students of Arts and Humanities fields show higher Intrinsic values as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.	Mean, SD and t-value	Table 1,2
H₂ Students of Arts and Humanities fields are higher on Extraversion as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.	Mean, SD and t-value	Table 1,2
H₃ Students of Arts and Humanities fields are lower on Neuroticism as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.	Mean, SD and t-value	Table 1,2
H₄ Students of Arts and Humanities fields are lower on Psychoticism as compared to students of Business and Technical fields.	Mean, SD and t-value	Table 1,2
H₅ Students of Arts and Humanities fields show higher self-esteem in comparison to the students of Business and Technical fields.	Mean, SD and t-value	Table 1,2
H₆ Personal values, personality dimensions and self-esteem of an individual affect the choice of academic discipline.	Binary Logistic Regression Analysis	Table 8, 12, 14
H₇ Females are more strongly oriented towards intrinsic values as compared to males.	Mean, SD and t-value	Table 3,4

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Discussion

Chapter 3 provided a detailed account of the results related to personal values, personality dimensions, self-esteem, and academic disciplines. The results were depicted in the form of descriptive statistics, t-test, and binary logistic regression. The main purpose of the present study was to investigate how personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem affect the choice of academic discipline of students. The value orientation, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of students of A/H and B/T field were compared. Gender differences in the choice of academic disciplines in relation to all the aforementioned variables were also studied. This chapter provides the plausible reasons for the obtained results in light of supporting evidences.

5.2 Comparison of Personal Values of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields

It was proposed that there will be differences in value orientations of students belonging to A/H and B/T academic disciplines. The findings obtained from descriptive statistics and t-test support the hypothesis (H1) that students of A/H field have intrinsic value orientation in comparison to students of B/T field. The Aspiration Index yielded two categories of value scores which were converted into REVO scores. REVO importance scores represented the importance of a particular value or a goal in an individual's life. REVO likelihood scores indicated the expectancy of occurrence of those goals in future. According to Aspiration Index, low REVO scores indicate intrinsic value orientation while high REVO scores represent extrinsic value orientation. A/H students had low REVO importance and likelihood scores, which indicated higher intrinsic value orientation. In contrast, B/T students scored high on REVO importance and REVO likelihood, indicating extrinsic value orientation (Table 1, Figure 1, 2). The mean scores and t-values indicate that students of A/H and B/T differ significantly. Similar patterns of results emerged for importance and likelihood of personal values (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Ryan et al., 1999), both indicated that A/H students were more intrinsically oriented and vice-versa for B/T students.

The binary logistic regression analysis depicts that REVO importance is a better predictor of academic choice in comparison to REVO likelihood. Individuals with higher REVO scores i.e., extrinsic value orientation are likely to choose B/T (Table 8) and vice versa. These findings are in line with the previous studies reporting the relationship between personal values and curriculum choice (Brown, 2002; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007; Schmuck et al., 2000). People involved in B/T fields have more focus on money making, status, and power (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Papastylianou & Efthymios, 2016) while those who choose A/H fields are more concerned about community contribution and helping others (Davey & Lalande, 2004; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). An inspection of the mean scores on of subscales of personal values (Table 2) indicate that students of A/H field scored highest on subscale-AFL (3.50) of intrinsic values, whereas students of B/T discipline scored highest on subscale-FSI (3.78) of extrinsic values. On further investigation, FSI came out to be the best predictor of B/T academic disciplines.

These results can be explained in light of the following studies. Davey and Lalande (2004) reported that choice of engineering and technical professions is guided by agentic values such as money and power. A study conducted on engineering and management students revealed that most of them aspire to be financially successful, amply rewarded with money, status, and prestige (Krulee & Nadler, 1960). Giacomino, Brown, and Akers (2011) found that over a period of time, business students start giving more importance to social recognition value. Krishnan (2008) found that management students reported a considerable change in their values by the time they completed their course of study which resulted in an increase in the relative importance of self-oriented values (such as social power, preserving public image) and a decrease in the relative importance of other-oriented values (sense of belongingness, honouring significant other, politeness). Due to changing societal demands and patterns, material possessions, and accumulation of income and wealth became the major driving force of individuals involved in technical and management fields.

Many other studies also show that fields such as psychology (Marrs et al., 2007) and professions such as teaching (De Cooman et al., 2007) are pursued due to altruistic and social motives rather than salary or status unlike the business stream

(Srivastava et al., 2001). Segal (1992) also confirmed that social work students were more nurturing in comparison to business students. Vansteenkiste et al. (2006) reported a difference in aspirations of students pursuing business and education fields, and supported the fact that students from different academic backgrounds vary in their value systems. People-oriented professions such as social work are based on humanitarian ideology with the underlying motive of welfare of others (Brill, 2002). Students of social work, psychology, and counselling show a desire to help others, which make them enter such fields of arts/humanities while students of engineering are reported to be low on helping or empathetic behavior (Pillay, 2011).

Murray (1938) conceptualised that environmental forces influence the expression of basic psychological/psychogenic needs. He referred to these forces as 'press', which means the force that pressurises us to act. This interaction between environmental press and individual needs further motivates individuals to find out a working environment in which they can exhibit their basic needs and values. Thus, decision regarding choice of educational stream is determined by one's personal value system (Hall & Lindzey, 1970; Murray, 1938). Sagiv and Schwartz (2000) suggested that people tend to choose those working fields whose environment allows them to attain their personal goals and values. Judge and Bretz (1991) concluded from their study that individuals choose those jobs which have value content that are similar to individuals' own value orientation. This explains the reason behind the differences between value systems of students belonging to the two educational streams.

Díaz and Arroyo (2016) also observed that materialistic values are associated with a preference of highly paid jobs but at the cost of longer working hours and more work load. People with high extrinsic values such as financial success, get more attracted towards organisations which offer high salaries and are more prestigious (Vanderstukken, Broeck, & Proost, 2016). Extrinsic goals are associated with an involvement in more controlled, stressful, and ego-involved activities (Schmuck et al., 2000). Such occupational stressors might place individuals at increased involvement in extrinsic values. These studies support the present findings that the demand for material gain and craving for greater riches can be gratified with the help of money making professions such as business and technical careers. Thus, it can be surmised that due to reasons such as materialistic goals, financial success and extrinsic

orientation, young adults get involved in the trend for getting enrolled in technical and business educational streams.

The present study showed that A/H students were high on intrinsic values. A possible reason for this can be that arts and humanities fields provide more opportunity for social orientation and affiliation such as helping people, being nurturing, and working for social welfare (Srivastava et al., 2001; Segal, 1992). According to Holland (1997), 'social' environment fields including A/H emphasize caring for and helping others. This gives evidence that people who have intrinsic values pursue helping professions such as psychology, teaching, nursing, and social services (Davey & Lalande, 2004; Jozefowicz et al., 1993; Ros et al., 1999) rather than going for business fields (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Salek, 1988; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

5.3 Comparison of Personality Dimensions of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields

The findings are consistent with the hypotheses H2- H4 regarding the differences in the personality dimensions of students of the two fields. The results and findings report the significant differences in personality dimensions of students pursuing A/H and B/T fields.

Students of B/T field had significantly higher scores on psychoticism and neuroticism in comparison to students of A/H stream (Table 1, Figure 2, 3). These results support H3 and H4 which can be explained in light of the earlier work, suggesting that business students have higher levels of anxiety, internal distress, and lower psychological well-being; symptomatic of high neuroticism and psychoticism traits of personality (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006, Watson, 2014). Kendler, Kuhn, & Prescott (2004) observed that individuals with high neuroticism tend to experience a depressive episode following stressful life events than those with low neuroticism. It has also been reported that occupational stressors such as high physical demands and lack of control over work can make one predisposed to increased risk of psychological problems and disorders (Mountaner, Tien, Eaton, & Garryson, 1991). Neuroticism is an individual's tendency to experience distress (Mc Crae & John, 1992). Highly neurotic individuals tend to

experience negative psychological effects such as distress, anxiety, depression, frustration, and guilt (Klein, Durbin, & Shankman, & Santiago, 2009; Kendler, Gardner, & Prescott, 2003; Mc Crae & John, 1992) and they often undergo feelings of insecurity and self-consciousness (McCrae & Costa, 1987). The present findings are in line with the research findings of Ripski, Lo Casale-Crouch, and Decker (2011) and Roy (1995) who concluded that students of education pursuing bachelors/masters in teaching are more extrovert and less neurotic than their peers involved in other educational domains.

The results can also be explained in light of SDT. In the present study, students of B/T field scored high on extrinsic values. High extrinsic value orientation of students of B/T also has been reported to be associated with symptoms of neuroticism (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Kasser & Ryan, 1996), higher emotional exhaustion (Vansteenkiste et al., 2007), psychological threat (Sheldon & Kasser, 2008), depression, behavioral and physical problems, anxiety, insecurity (Ryan et al., 1999), lower adjustment, and well-being (Chantara et al., 2014; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Schmuck et al., 2000). Chantara et al. (2014) reported that materialistic attitude and concern for maintaining public image encourages more external comparisons leading to deteriorated psychological well-being. Extrinsic values are a sign of insecure and neurotic style (Schmuck et al., 2000). Neuroticism strongly correlates positively with mental illness (Furnham & Cheng, 1998) and depression (Burch & Anderson, 2008) and negatively with altruism (Oda et al., 2014). Romero et al. (2012) found a connection between neuroticism and extrinsic values. Above mentioned studies also explain the present findings that B/T students are predisposed towards high neurotic and psychotic characteristics displayed by highly extrinsically oriented individuals.

The binary logistic regression analysis revealed that psychoticism was the best predictor among personality dimensions leading to the choice of B/T academic discipline (Table 12). The present results are congruent with the findings of Brown and Stone (1972) and Kirkcaldy (1986) that people with high psychoticism avoid socially competing occupations that involve more interactions thus, resulting in a choice of B/T academic fields demanding less sociability unlike A/H fields.

It is evident from the results that students of A/H were significantly high on extraversion trait in comparison to students of B/T (Table 1, Figure 5) supporting H2.

Extraversion came out to be second best predictor leading to choice of A/H academic discipline (Table 12). The present findings are broadly consistent with the reports of Ackerman and Heggestad (1997), which support the position that extroverts show a preference for work settings in social interest occupational domain due to their desire for socialisation. There is evidence in the literature to show strong correlations between extraversion and social scale of vocational interests (Gottfredson et al., 1993; Larson et al., 2002).

Barrick et al. (2003) suggested that individuals having high extraversion scores are outgoing, gregarious, and seeking ample opportunities of frequent social interactions through their work environment and jobs. Extrovert individuals have been reported to be more sociable and assertive (Roccas et al., 2002). Kiani (2010) reported that fact that extraversion is linked to choice of social vocational interest such as teaching. Oda et al. (2014) found an association between extraversion and altruism in daily life towards family, friends and strangers, which also explains the reason behind extroverts choosing altruistic and community oriented areas of study. Dragica (2014) and Lowry et al. (2012) found extraversion trait to be associated with importance placed on intrinsic values, indicating that students of A/H field with intrinsic value orientation had high extraversion scores. Eaves and Eysenck (1975) also agreed that extroverts are outgoing and sociable, thus there is more expectancy to follow goals such as social welfare and affiliation. These studies explain the present findings that B/T students scored higher on extraversion due to their outgoing nature and social orientation.

5.4 Comparison of Self-Esteem of Students of A/H and B/T Academic Fields

The hypothesis (H5) that there will be differences in the S.E. scores of students of A/H and B/T was also confirmed. It was found that students of A/H field had high self-esteem in comparison to students of B/T field (Table 1, Figure 6).

Michie and Bray (2001) reported an association between high self-esteem of individuals and their chances of going for higher education for social stimulation and social contacts. This supports the present results that high self-esteem people can have a preference for social oriented careers in their future. B/T fields of education and career are associated with a demand for high status, money and external approval

(Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). Adoption of such external goals and values makes them feel insecure and tend to plummet their self-esteem and further leads more orientation towards extrinsic goals (Deci & Ryan, 1995). It also leads to more stress (Henderson-King & Mitchell, 2011, Kasser & Ryan, 1996) and further lowering their self-esteem when they are not able to achieve these goals (Le Rouge et al., 2006, Hudd et al., 2000). Extrinsic value orientation individuals tend to depend upon others for their self-worth and this leads to lowering their self-esteem (Blanton, 2006; Pyszczynski et al., 2004). In the present study, A/H students exhibited intrinsic value orientation and high emotional stability (low neuroticism), which is reportedly being associated with high self-esteem (Chan & Joseph, 2000; Kasser & Kasser, 2001; Mick, 1996). These studies further corroborate the presence of lower self-esteem among B/T students and higher self-esteem in A/H students as evident in the present findings.

5.5 Best Predictor of the Choice of Academic Field amongst Personal Value, Personality Dimension, and Self-Esteem in Students

The binary logistic regression analysis was carried out to identify the best predictors amongst personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem for the academic choice of students. It was found that when all the variables were analysed, personal values had the major impact in predicting academic choice which supports H6 (Table 14). High extrinsic values predicted the choice of B/T academic discipline while intrinsic values predicted the choice of A/H curriculum streams. Results are consistent with the previous research done on values and curriculum choice. Research studies have indicated the influence of value orientation on curriculum or career choice viz. value orientations of business students (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002), psychology students (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000), education students (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006), real estate professionals, and management students (Salek, 1988). Engineering students place more importance to good earnings and are less interested in working with people (Wallace et al., 1999). People involved in B/T fields tend to focus on money making, status, and power (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Papastylianou & Efthymios, 2016) while people who choose A/H fields are more concerned about community contribution and helping others (Davey & Lalande, 2004; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

However, the findings of the present study revealed that both ‘importance’ and ‘likelihood’ of personal values are significant predictors of career choice but,

'importance placed' on extrinsic values is better predictor of B/T career choice than 'likelihood' of attainment of extrinsic values. The plausible reason could be that values and goals undergo some changes during the course of study (Sheldon, 2005). Jin and Rounds (2012) concluded that work values were less stable during college years and became more stable after entering the work fields. They also reported that values related to pay and security as well as status and prestige tend to increase after the age of 26 years i.e., after entering jobs. During college years (18-22 years of age), individuals paid more attention to intrinsic work values such as personal growth, autonomy and interest (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Research findings of Krishnan (2008) also supported that personal value orientation of management students undergo a change from other-oriented values to self-oriented values.

Negru, Subțirică, and Oprea (2011) observed that there is a difference in the aspirations of students and working adults due to reality check-up and achievement of stable identity over a period of time. Another possible reason could be that sometimes individuals perform certain behaviors due of normative pressure that opposes their own values (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003), which tend to affect the chances of the attainability of their goals in the future.

There is another viewpoint which claims that with the passage of time, individuals grow up to be more mature and give more importance to intrinsic work values, and the importance of extrinsic values such as money and status decrease over time (Velde, Feij, & Emmerik, 1998). Although, choice of A/H is affected by importance of intrinsic value orientation, but probably they are unsure of the attainability of those goals in their future, as they are yet to enter the work fields. The studies show that as the time passes, the relative importance placed on values keep changing in different directions, depending on the reasons discussed above which explains the difference between present results pertaining to impact of importance and likelihood of values.

Since times immemorial, Indian culture has given importance to values such as community feeling and affiliating behavior of helping, respecting, and fulfilling the expectations of significant others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Singhal & Misra, 1994). Levine, Norenzayan, and Philbrick (2001) argued that Indian culture is high on helping behavior. It has been reported that Indians are socially concerned and they

focus on being good and respecting others, and make efforts for the wellbeing of others by helping them (Misra & Agarwal, 1985; Sinha & Kumar, 2004). Now, with emergence of liberalisation, westernisation, industrialisation and non-traditional career choices, a gradual shift in their goals and motives can be expected (Ger & Belk, 1996; Parikh & Sukhatme, 2004). This possible societal and cultural transition could also be one of the reasons behind the difference between the predictability of importance and likelihood of personal values.

In the present study, personal values came out to be better predictor of academic choice than the stable and enduring personality dimensions. Personal values are the guiding principles regarding how individuals believe they ought to behave, while personality refers to what they naturally tend to do. Values include an evaluative component which is not present in personality (Parks & Guay, 2009). Values are representative of our moral compass and ethics perspective, some of which are personally and culturally specific while others are universal to human nature. Because values are a learned phenomenon, passed from generation to generation, there are similarities with the value patterns established in one's culture (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Values develop initially through experiences and social interactions with role models such as parents and teachers (Parks & Guay, 2009). Thus, they keep developing and changing as we experience, grow, and learn in new environment (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Rokeach, 1973). Personality on the other hand is an enduring disposition causing characteristic pattern of interaction with an individual's environment (Olver & Mooradian, 2003). It is more related to outwards manifestations of the individual self, based on how you see yourself and how others see you. Personality is outward, while personal values are internal feeling, personality is what people are like, and values are intentional goals. Therefore, the decision to pursue a career highly depends upon one's value orientation as it tends to fulfil the demands of the society as well. This provides a basis for the assertion that personality is secondary to values in evaluating the behavior of a person.

5.6 Gender Differences in Personal Values, Personality Dimensions, Self-Esteem, and Choice of Academic Field

The results were consistent with the proposed hypothesis regarding the existence of gender differences in terms of value orientation (H7), personality dimensions (H8-10),

and self-esteem (H11). Males and females differed significantly on personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem.

5.6.1 Gender Differences in Personal Values for A/H, and B/T Fields

It was found that in terms of personal values, females placed more importance to intrinsic values, while males on extrinsic values (Table 3, Figure 1, 2). These results are strongly supported by various studies. Brown (2002) suggested that women tend to hold collective social values that give more priority to group's concern than the individual. Studies report that women have more focus towards intrinsic values such as community feeling, while men give more weightage to extrinsic values such as financial success (Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Ryan et al., 1999; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

In the subscales of values, descriptive results showed that males scored highest on subscales-FSI and SRI, whereas females scored highest on subscales-AFI and AFL (Table 4). Merkaš et al. (2011) found that females scored higher on the value of affiliation but men had higher scores on the value of financial success. College women were reported to be focused on fulfilling affiliation needs; in contrast to men, who are more motivated to fulfil achievement needs (Lekes et al., 2010; Pang & Schultheiss, 2005; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2001). Beutler et al. (2008) found gender differences in personal values; males are more extrinsic while females are more intrinsic in their value orientation. It has been demonstrated several times in the past that women tend to value community orientation, meaningful relationships, and personal growth, whereas men are more concerned about status, prestige, image, and earning money (Dragica, 2014; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Niemiec et al., 2009; Schmuck et al., 2000).

Weisgram et al (2011) reported a significant difference in the value endorsement of males and females. Males prioritized money values while females endorsed family values. This shows an association between their endorsement of values and the perceived value affordances of their career choice. Jozefowicz et al. (1993) measured work related values and beliefs of students, it was found that males and females who aspired for feminine jobs put family and friends before work. They did not give much importance to money, status, competitiveness or prestige in jobs.

On the contrary, males and females aspiring for masculine jobs did not value people oriented jobs and had focus on money and prestige. This can also be explained with the fact that individuals tend to choose jobs with value content that matches their own value orientation. This consistency also positively affects their overall life satisfaction and job stability (Judge & Bretz, 1991). Kiani et al. (2013) reported that males have conventional and investigative vocational interests; in contrast females have social and artistic vocational interests. Recently, Berings and Adriaenssens (2012) also observed that males show more interest in enterprising occupations, whereas females have more interest in social occupations.

Binary logistic regression results showed that B/T academic choice of males was predicted by high REVO importance (Table 16). In case of females, high REVO likelihood predicted the choice of B/T academic field (Table 22). Binary logistic regression analysis was carried out to further probe the gender differences in subscales of personal values. The findings revealed that value of financial success had the major impact in the choice of B/T academic fields for both males and females. The results indicated that FSI was the best predictor of choosing B/T in males and FSL was the best predictor in females. Males have previously been reported to be associated with extrinsic values and choice of B/T careers (Barth et al., 2010; Weisgram et al., 2011). The findings indicate a transition in value system and life goals of females (Parikh & Sukhatme, 2004). The change in cultural values, globalisation, need of power, and money are influencing the value orientation of individuals. In society, financial success has become major determinant of social success and recognition.

5.6.2 Gender Differences in Personality Dimensions (P, N, E, SE) for A/H and B/T Fields

The results showed that males and females differed significantly on personality dimensions. Males had higher scores on psychoticism and neuroticism in comparison to females (Table 3, Figure 3, 4). Present results are congruent with the cross cultural study conducted by Lynn and Martin (1997) where they found that Indian males are higher on psychoticism in comparison to females.

However, the results of the present study pertaining to neuroticism are contrary to the already established patterns of gender differences, which report high neuroticism trait in females (Goodwin & Gotlib, 2004; Costa et al., 2001). The probable reason for the high neuroticism scores of males could be the emotional insecurity and stress arising due to materialistic goals and competitive career fields. Díaz and Arroyo (2016) found materialism to be a consequence of social comparison associated with lower levels of positive affect and life satisfaction. Burroughs and Rindfleisch (2002) also argued that materialistic values are in contrast to collective-oriented values, creating tension and reduced well-being. Materialistic values are consistent with extrinsic values and altruistic values are consistent with intrinsic values. People who have excessive concentration on external values are predisposed to have negative feelings regarding self-worth, insecurity, and wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Ryan et al., 1999). High neuroticism and high materialistic values are positively associated, indicating materialistic attitude to be a result of anxiety and neurotic trait (Watson, 2014). Therefore we can infer from the above mentioned studies and the findings of the present study that differences in personality dimensions between genders might be occurring due to their life goals and personal values.

Results indicated that females had higher scores on extraversion as compared to males (Table 3, Figure 5). Indian females have been reported to have high extraversion scores as compared to males (Schmitt et al., 2008) which are in line with our results. Since, females are comparatively more extrovert as compared to males (Feingold, 1994; Goodwin & Gotlib, 2004) it further affects their preference for certain kinds of occupations such as teaching for females and engineering for males (Kiani, 2010). Olszewski-Kubilius and Kulieke (1989) found gender differences in personality characteristics which further guide them in choosing different careers. Females are reported to have higher emotional and altruistic behaviors than males (Padilla-Walker et al., 2008), which also supports the current findings regarding gender differences in terms of personality dimensions.

Descriptive statistics showed that males scored lower on self-esteem in comparison to females (Table 3, Figure 6). The results can be explained in terms of the role of personal values in predicting academic choice in the present study. Materialistic values and urge of financial gains could be accountable for low self-

esteem of males in comparison to females. Low self-esteem of males in the current results could be a consequence of adoption of materialistic values (Larsen et al., 1999). Indulgence in stressful jobs by majority of males could be related to their lower self-esteem (Le Rouge et al., 2006). Few research studies also support the present findings that females have higher self-esteem in comparison to males (Cienki & Brooks, 1989; Sahlstein & Allen, 2002). Therefore, the significant differences in self-esteem of males and females can be attributed to their difference in value-orientations.

Binary logistic regression results pertaining to the effect of personality dimensions of males and females on their academic choice showed that choice of B/T academic field was predicted by low extraversion scores among males (Table 18) and high psychoticism scores among females (Table 24). Present findings are in congruent with the study done by Rottinghaus et al. (2002) which reported that males have low scores on extraversion and show a preference towards outdoor and scientific works rather than social dimensions of work.

It can be seen that females who are entering non-traditional (B/T) jobs, are relatively high on psychoticism scores (as compared to females of A/H fields). Studies report that individuals high on psychoticism do not prefer jobs that require more regulated, conformist behavior, they are poor in social interactions, and dislike social responsibility, resulting in avoidance of tasks involving sociability (Brown & Stone, 1972; Kirkcaldy, 1986). Thus, females having high tough mindedness and competitiveness (high psychoticism) are likely to prefer B/T academic disciplines.

Overall, the reasons behind gender differences in terms of personal values and personality dimensions can be traced back to gender roles and consistent normative expectations of society. As per normative gender roles, females are involved in performing domestic roles and males are expected to do economically productive activities (Wood & Eagly, 2002). Bakan (1966) found that males being agentic, are concerned with the status and attainment of mastery over their environment, and while communion oriented women are determined to maintain harmony with others. Carlson (1971) and Ferriman et al. (2009) also opined that on the one hand, men are expected to be independent, masterful, competent and self-assertive reflecting masculine socialization and on the other hand, women are expected to be friendly,

unselfish, and interdependent reflecting feminine socialisation. These differences in the social roles and gender norms of men and women definitely influence their goals and enduring patterns of behavior i.e., their personal values and personality dimensions. As per traditional roles set up by society itself, females are expected to be more empathetic, nurturing, caring, socially responsible, building strong relationships, and more inclined towards interpersonal goals (Bem & Allen, 1974; Carlson, 1971; Parsons & Bales, 2014; Skitka & Maslach, 1996; Stein & Bailey, 1973).

Gender differences can also be explained in terms of biological theories as well as socio-cultural theories. There are biological differences in the two sexes that ultimately result in various physiological, cognitive, affective, and behavioral differences in them. From sociological perspective, parents rear their sons and daughters differently, which leads to different life experiences, development of different stereotypic conceptions of their gender roles, resulting in different self-schemas (Kohlberg, 1966; Leaper, Anderson, & Sanders, 1998; Martin & Halverson, 1981). It has been observed that parents encourage their daughters to behave politely, and in a nurturing and feminine way to conform to the societal norms, while encourage their sons to be independent and masculine (Gelman, Taylor, Nguyen, Leaper, & Bigler, 2004; Leaper & Friedman, 2007; Leaper, Leve, Strasser, & Schwartz, 1995; Pomerantz & Ruble, 1998). It can be summarised that the genetic disposition and socio-cultural impact, affect males and females differently. Therefore the existing literature and the findings of the present study attest to the fact that males and females showed different value orientations and display different personality dimensions, and self-esteem.

5.6.3 Best Predictor of Academic Choice amongst Personal Value, Personality Dimensions, and Self-Esteem in Males and Females

Binary logistic regression results pertaining to the impact of personal values and personality dimensions indicated that high REVO importance emerged as the best predictor in choice of B/T in males (Table 20) and high REVO likelihood predicted the choice of B/T in females (Table 26). In the case of males, 'importance' of extrinsic values had the major effect rather than 'likelihood' of extrinsic values, probably because for males, extrinsic goals such as earning money, fame, and power are very valuable (Kasser & Ryan, 1996) and technical and management careers are

strongly associated with these goals (Davey & Lalande, 2004; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). But in the case for females, management, engineering, and technical professions are a relatively novel field of work. Females choose B/T fields of education with certain expectancies such as financial independence and growth (Budhwaar et al., 2014; Parikh & Sukhatme, 2004). Therefore, reason behind choice of B/T academic discipline in females is more associated with the expectancy of the fulfilment of extrinsic goals such as financial success rather than the actual importance being placed on extrinsic goals.

5.6.4 Comparison of Personal Values and Personality Dimensions of Males of A/H and B/T Academic Fields

Personal values and personality dimensions of males of the two academic disciplines were compared (Table 5, Figures 1-6). It was evident from the results that males of business and technical fields are more oriented towards extrinsic values, in contrast to males of A/H fields. It was also found that males of A/H showed an inclination towards intrinsic values. This transition in value orientation can be attributed to several factors. In recent years, males have stepped out of stereotypical norms, and have started opting for non-traditional career fields. Internal factors such as background, attitude, values, intrinsic needs and external factors related to family and society collectively contribute to choice of sex-atypical careers and educational fields (Chusmir, 1990). Other reasons behind choice of 'female dominated' careers include freedom to prove self-fulfilment by choosing less stressful and aggressive career opportunities, being helpful towards others, greater job flexibility, ample of time for family and other priorities such as physical and emotional health being offered by such jobs (Kimmel, 1987; Lease, 2003; Pleck, 1985; Resurreccion, 2013). Studies have shown that males who opt for non-traditional career choices are the ones who are influenced by significant women in their lives in their career related decisions; had distant relationship with fathers, and were also reported to have experienced death, divorce or separation in their family (Lemkau, 1984). These factors sensitize males towards their nurturing and emotional capabilities, which results in making non-traditional career choices. Males in A/H careers have been reported to be tender minded, high on affiliative needs, and have low adherence to traditional sex roles (Davey & Lalande, 2004; Lemkau, 1984).

Results showed a significant difference in the extraversion personality dimensions of males of A/H and B/T fields (Table 5). Individuals involved in social oriented careers have been reported to be associated with high extraversion (Costa et al., 1984; Larson, Rottinghaus, & Borgen, 2002; Kiani, 2010). Above mentioned studies are in accord with the present findings that males who opt non-traditional careers and educational choices have an inclination towards self-growth, affiliation, are more social in comparison to males in B/T fields.

5.6.5 Comparison of Personal Values and Personality Dimensions of Females of A/H and B/T Academic Fields

The results of the present study revealed that females related to the A/H and B/T fields revealed some significant findings (Figures 1-6). Females in the A/H field are more oriented towards the intrinsic values, while those in B/T stream are comparatively less intrinsically oriented and show an inclination towards extrinsic values (Table 6). Similarly, females who opted for B/T field significantly differed from females of A/H field on psychoticism and neuroticism, and self-esteem scores. Females of B/T stream are higher on psychoticism and neuroticism, and lower on self-esteem as compared to females of A/H stream (Table 6). These emerging differences can be due to the increasing participation of females in atypical or masculine fields of career as a result of growing urbanization, social legislation, and awareness (Masood, 2011). Females have started competing neck to neck with their male counterparts by joining novel occupations (Kiani et al., 2013) and maintaining a balance between home and career (Hakim, 2006). Due to technical advancements and increasing job opportunities in industrial sector are also resulting in an increase in the participation of women in the engineering field (Wallace et al., 1999).

There are studies which indicate that goals and preferences of women in non-traditional fields of study and work are not exactly the same as those of males studying or working with them. Wallace et al. (1999) reported that females pursuing engineering course, rated the ability to contribute to society more highly than their male counterparts. Females valued the opportunity to make the world a better place, while males gave more importance to being paid well. Female engineering students want to contribute to society, work with people while male engineering students prefer a well-paid job (Wallace et al., 1999). Among hard sciences, more females as

compared to males prefer to pursue a career in education and medicine based on the motive of helping people (Sax, 1992). Segal (1992) compared value orientation of social work and business students and found that females of both fields responded similarly irrespective of their educational field.

Along with a change in the personal values, the personality traits of females opting for masculine fields of study and career is undergoing a considerable change, as emerged in the present findings. According to a meta-analytical study conducted by Twenge (1997), cultural change and environment affects individual personalities as reflected in women's increased endorsement of masculine-stereotyped traits (Newton & Stewart, 2013). The women of new generation maintain a balance between family and career; and have become more career focussed and motivated to rise up the organizational ladder, acquire managerial high positions and reach the top (Budhwar et al., 2014; Kapoor, Bhardwaj, & Pestonjee, 1999; Parikh & Engineer, 2000). Parikh and Sukhatme (2004) reported that females want to achieve financial growth by entering into the technical professions such as engineering. Studies report that women pursuing atypical careers exhibit more masculine traits, low affiliative needs, and goals (Davey & Lalande, 2004; Trigg & Perlman, 1976; Twenge, 1997). Jung and Lee (2006) observed lower self-esteem amongst women giving more importance to appearance and body image (one of the extrinsic values). This indicates a gradual shift of personal values towards the extrinsic orientation in the case of women who have stepped into 'male dominated' business and technical fields. In addition to that it also paves the way for adoption of personality dimensions exhibited by those in B/T careers.

This change in career choice is slowly but definitely expected to bring about a change in motives, goals and behaviors of males and females who are seeking new perspectives while choosing their career options. The changing patterns of choosing non-traditional careers of males and females stepping into A/H and B/T fields respectively, are socially acceptable and thus reducing the difference between males and females. Females stepping into technical and management career fields and males in non-technical career fields bring forth transition in society. This switching of value system from traditional to non-traditional in both males and females lead to some changes in the pattern of career choice and gender equality which is very well evident

in the present study. In societies with greater gender equality, both males place more importance on benevolence and universalism and less on materialistic values like power, achievement, and security, thus reducing the gap in values of males and females (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005, 2009).

On the basis of the above discussion, it can be concluded that students of A/H and B/T fields differ on personal value systems, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. Individuals studying in A/H fields attributed more importance to intrinsic values such as self-acceptance, affiliation, and community feeling. They also reported more expectancy of occurrence of intrinsic values. In contrast, students of B/T field placed more importance as well as expected more likelihood of attainment of extrinsic values including financial success, attractive appearance, and social recognition. The students of A/H and B/T disciplines differed from each other on the scores of personality test too. Students of A/H stream were high on extraversion, while students of B/T stream were low on extraversion. Students of A/H field were reported to be low on neuroticism as well as psychoticism in comparison to students of B/T field. Students of A/H academic discipline reported lower self-esteem as compared to students of B/T discipline.

Gender differences depicted that males were more oriented towards extrinsic values as compared to females who showed more intrinsic value orientation. Females scored high on extraversion, low on neuroticism and psychoticism and vice versa in the case of males. Males exhibited lower self-esteem as compared to females.

Males of A/H and B/T fields differed in terms of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. Similarly, females of A/H and B/T fields differed from each other on scores of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. Results depicted that B/T females had low intrinsic value orientation, higher neuroticism, higher psychoticism, lower extraversion and lower self-esteem in comparison to A/H females. Similarly, A/H males had low extrinsic value orientation, lower neuroticism, lower psychoticism, higher extraversion and higher self-esteem as compared to B/T males. Recent times have witnessed a shift from traditional to non-traditional careers in males and females. This can be attributed to changing value orientation.

The intrinsic value orientation is a positive indicator as it has been reported to be associated with positive outcomes such as self-worth, psychological wellbeing, and happiness etc. On the other hand, high extrinsic value orientation has been associated several adverse effects including high psychoticism, high neuroticism, and a number of physical and psychological problems. In a developmental country like India, due to increasing competition and westernisation, students are getting attracted towards B/T fields even if they are not intrinsically motivated to opt for the same. Young adults tend to conform the societal norms and expectations; in fact they are reinforced or pressurised by their parents to follow the trend, to do what the majority of youth is doing.

The present study shed light on the importance of value orientation and personality dimensions in choosing academic discipline/career. The study also highlights the fact that one should choose an academic discipline which can bring forth psychological satisfaction and wellbeing.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter covers the review of the present study, the major findings drawn from data analysis, implications of the study, limitations of the research, and suggestions for the future studies.

6.1 Summary

The present study was designed to investigate the value orientation and personality dimensions of students belonging to diverse academic disciplines. A review of extant studies of these psychological constructs revealed that personal values and personality dimensions of individuals play a vital role in decisions regarding career and curriculum choice. Several studies have reported that individuals involved in different professions and educational domains vary in their value system, personality traits, and self-esteem.

On the basis of previously reported theoretical and experimental research it was hypothesised that students pursuing A/H and B/T academic streams will have high scores on intrinsic and extrinsic values respectively. It was also hypothesised that students belonging to these academic disciplines will show different patterns of personality dimensions and self-esteem. The study also tried to investigate the best predictor of curriculum choice among all the predictor variables. Lastly, the study tried to explore the gender differences in terms of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem.

For investigating the above mentioned hypotheses, standardised psychological tests were administered to 1200 students of age range 18-25 years (for total sample, $M = 21.5$, $SD = 2.9$; for males, $M = 21.1$, $SD = 2.7$; for females, $M = 20.5$, $SD = 2.1$) from A/H and B/T academic disciplines (600 each, with equal number of males and females) studying in various institutions of Punjab, India. Aspiration Index was used to measure intrinsic and extrinsic personal values of students. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised was used to measure the personality dimensions of psychoticism, neuroticism, and extraversion. Self-esteem of students was measured by Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale.

Descriptive statistics: mean, SD, and t-test were used to analyse the difference between scores of personal values and personality dimensions of students from the two academic fields. The t-tests were also computed to investigate the gender differences existing in personal values, subscales of personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem. Binary logistic regression was carried out to identify the best predictor of academic discipline amongst all the independent variables i.e., values: importance, values: likelihood, psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion, and self-esteem. Another binary logistic regression was also carried out for males and females separately to find out the best predictor of academic discipline amongst all the independent variables studied.

Results of the present study indicated that students of A/H and B/T academic fields differ significantly on personal values. Results indicated that students of A/H stream had low REVO importance as well as REVO likelihood scores, which indicated that they had intrinsic value orientation. In contrast, students of B/T scored high on REVO importance and REVO likelihood, indicating extrinsic value orientation. REVO importance came out to be the best predictor of B/T academic choice. On subscales of personal values, students of A/H stream scored highest on affiliation: importance while students of B/T stream scored highest on financial success: importance.

Further findings revealed that students of A/H field had high scores on extraversion scale, indicating that they are more social as compared to students of B/T field. Students of A/H were also found to be low on neuroticism and psychoticism in contrast to students of B/T stream. Students of A/H field reported significantly high self-esteem as compared to students of B/T field. Among personality dimensions, high psychoticism scores were the best predictor leading to the choice of B/T academic field.

Results of the present study also indicated about the existence of gender differences. Males endorsed extrinsic values of financial success, attractive appearance, and social recognition, while their counter parts females had more inclination towards intrinsic values such as self-acceptance, community feeling, and affiliation. Males and females scored highest on the subscales-FSI and AFI respectively. Findings of the present study also revealed that amongst all the

independent variables studied, importance placed on extrinsic values (REVO importance) was the best predictor of choice of B/T academic discipline. It also indicated that importance of intrinsic values played a major role in A/H academic choice. Males and females were also guided by their extrinsic and intrinsic values (importance) while choosing B/T and A/H stream respectively.

Another significant finding of the present study was that students who opt for non-traditional academic choices i.e., B/T disciplines displayed different patterns of values as well as personality dimensions. Males studying in A/H field were less extrinsic in their value orientation, and more extrovert, as compared to males of B/T field. Similarly, females involved in B/T academic field had an inclination towards extrinsic values, had high neuroticism, high psychoticism, and low self-esteem in comparison to females of A/H discipline.

6.2 Significance of the Study

Choice of academic discipline is one of the most important decisions in a student's life that influences decisions about the future career. Identifying the core factors influencing curriculum choices has been a major concern among investigators in the past. Personal value orientation, personality traits, and self-esteem are among the important factors that play a major role in choosing the curriculum field. The present study attempted to explore the effect of values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem on decision regarding academic choice.

The results of this study are not only consistent with the earlier work but they also contribute to new dimensions to the literature. For instance, it compares the personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem of students of two different academic disciplines i.e., arts/humanities and business/technical educational fields.

The present study is significant in its approach to study core personal values namely intrinsic and extrinsic based on SDT rather than work values. Specifically, studies have examined the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of placing relative importance on the extrinsic versus the intrinsic values. Based on that, present research investigated core personal values named intrinsic and extrinsic rather than the work values. Additionally, the study also made an attempt to study personal

values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem and their comprehensive effect on academic choice.

Due to the increasing materialism and consumerism, the intrinsic values have taken a back bench and people are moving towards the extrinsic values. Accumulating wealth and desire for fame has become a necessity in this materialistic world. In this process, the psychological needs remain unfulfilled, resulting in dissatisfaction. In recent times, India is witnessing a change in value transition from collective to individualistic orientation. This has resulted in increasing self-orientation and materialism which is very well reflected in the career choice the young adults make. With on-going upsurge of technology, changing gender stereotypes, women empowerment, and the change in the role of women from home makers to bread winners along with their partners has also brought a change in value orientation and personality structures.

6.3 Conclusion

The results revealed that A/H students had more inclination towards intrinsic values such as self-acceptance, community feeling and affiliation, while B/T students were more oriented towards extrinsic values such as financial success, attractive appearance, and social recognition. Students of A/H were found to be high on extraversion, low on psychoticism and neuroticism and vice versa for B/T students. A/H students had higher self-esteem in comparison to B/T students. Among the values studied, extrinsic values: importance emerged as the best predictor of B/T academic choice and psychoticism emerged as the best predictor among personality dimensions for B/T academic discipline. And among all the variables studied extrinsic values: importance (subscale-financial success) came out to be the best predictor of B/T academic discipline. The importance of personal values of young adults has been found to affect the choice of their academic disciplines. Gender differences were also revealed in terms of personal values, personality dimensions and self-esteem. Females were found to be more intrinsically oriented, scored low on neuroticism, psychoticism and high on extroversion, and had high self-esteem in comparison to males. Extrinsic values: importance came out to be best the predictor of B/T academic choice amongst males while extrinsic values: likelihood was the best predictor of B/T academic choice amongst females. It can be concluded that personal values play a critical role

in career related decisions. It can also be seen that students are opting for atypical careers which are indicators of a shift in value-system and career-choice leading to a paradigm shift.

6.4 Implications

This study laid emphasis on the crucial role played by personal values, personality dimensions, and self-esteem in curriculum choice. The study will have implications for the parents of young adults to understand the important role of personal values and personality traits while guiding their wards to make academic choice for higher studies. Since, in Indian society parents play a vital role in career choice of their children. This study can make the parents cognizant about the importance of value orientation and personality dimensions of their children in career related decisions instead of only fulfilling the societal expectations.

The study can be beneficial for the young learners to not fall a prey to the peer or parental pressure while making curriculum choice. The study can be used by future researchers and practitioners in education system for improving current practices in education system and for conducting more extensive researches regarding this crucial area. A career that helps one achieve the personal values and is supported by one's personality dispositions is most likely to result in career satisfaction as well as long term happiness. Standardized psychological tests measuring personal values and personality traits can be included in as part of curriculum selection procedure. This would be beneficial in understanding the value orientations and personality characteristics of students beforehand and likelihood of more career success and life satisfaction in the long run. The implications of the current study are extensive and can have significant implications for career counsellors and college advisors. The study has implications for policy making and effective societal functioning.

6.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

It would be valuable to conduct lifespan developmental studies in future research to highlight the transition in value system and personality dimensions from student life to adult life. Additionally, similar studies can be conducted in different cultures to understand the prevailing trends of switching personal values and personality

structures. Comparative studies involving other disciplines can also be attempted in future. In addition to this, other variables such as psychological wellbeing and interests can also be studied in future. Role of birth order of students, occupation of parents, and family patterns as antecedents of value orientation and personality can also be worked out.

Future studies can attempt to investigate the deviation from gender stereotypes to understand the changes in the social expectations and choices of the youth. It is suggested that the possible intervening variables affecting the results such as birth order of the subjects, occupation of their parents and family patterns can be analysed for future studies.

Publications from the Current Investigations

Berring, L., Kumari, S., Ahuja, S. (2015). Personal Values, Gender Differences and Academic Preferences: An Experimental Investigation. *International Journal of Applied Psychology*, 5(5), 133-140.

Berring, L., Kumari, S., Ahuja, S. (2017). Impact of personality traits and personal values on curriculum choice of young adults. *Journal of Beliefs & Values*. DOI: 10.1080/13617672.2017.129393

REFERENCES

- Abouserie, R. (1994). Sources and levels of stress in relation to locus of control and self-esteem in university students. *Educational Psychology, 14*(3), 323-330.
- Ackerman, P. L., & Heggstad, E. D. (1997). Intelligence, personality, and interests: evidence for overlapping traits. *Psychological Bulletin, 121*(2), 219-245.
- Agarwala, T. (2008). Factors influencing career choice of management students in India. *Career Development International, 13*(4), 362-376.
- Akers, M. D., Eaton, T. V., & Giacomino, D. E. (2004). Measuring and changing the values of accounting students. *Accounting Faculty Research and Publications, 1*(5), 63-70.
- Ali, U., & Shah, E. (2013). Career decision difficulty as a predictor of environmental mastery and self esteem in college students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 84*, 1119-1123.
- Allport, G. W. (1937). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: H. Holt and Company.
- Allport, G. W., Vernon, P. E., & Lindzey, G. (1960). *Study of values*. Houghton-Mifflin: Boston.
- Amirazodi, F., & Amirazodi, M. (2011). Personality traits and self-esteem. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 29*, 713-716.
- Ang, R. P., Neubronner, M., Oh, S. A., & Leong, V. (2006). Dimensionality of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale among normal-technical stream students in Singapore. *Current Psychology, 25*(2), 120-131.
- Argyle, M., & Lu, L. (1990). The happiness of extraverts. *Personality and Individual Differences, 11*(10), 1011-1017.
- Arnett, J. J. (2000). High hopes in a grim world: Emerging adults' views of their futures and "Generation X". *Youth & Society, 31*(3), 267-286.
- Bakan, D. (1966). *The duality of human existence*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

- Bales, R. F., & Parsons, T. (2014). *Family: socialization and interaction process*. London: Routledge.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bardi, A., & Schwartz, S. H. (2003). Values and behavior: Strength and structure of relations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(10), 1207-1220.
- Barrett, P., & Eysenck, S. (1984). The assessment of personality factors across 25 countries. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 5(6), 615-632.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(1), 1-26.
- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Gupta, R. (2003). Meta-analysis of the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and Holland's occupational types. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(1), 45-74.
- Barth, J., Todd, B., Goldston, D., Guadagno, R.E. & STEM Education Research Team. (2010). *An integrated approach to choosing technical careers: Gender differences in life goals for college students*. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/2712626/An_Integrated_Approach_to_Choosing_Technical_Careers_Gender_Differences_in_Life_Goals_for_College_Students
- Bauer, M. A., Wilkie, J. E., Kim, J. K., & Bodenhausen, G. V. (2012). Cuing consumerism: Situational materialism undermines personal and social well-being. *Psychological Science*, 23(5), 517-523.
- Bem, D. J., & Allen, A. (1974). On predicting some of the people some of the time: The search for cross situational consistencies in behaviour. *Psychological Review*, 81(6), 506- 520.
- Berings, D., & Adriaenssens, S. (2012). The role of business ethics, personality, work values and gender in vocational interests from adolescents. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 106(3), 325-335.
- Berings, D., De Fruyt, F., & Bouwen, R. (2004). Work values and personality traits as predictors of enterprising and social vocational interests. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(2), 349-364.

- Beutler, I., Beutler, L., & McCoy, J. L. (2008). Money aspirations about living well: Middle school student perceptions. *Financial Counseling and Planning*, 19(1), 44-60.
- Bilsky, W., & Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Values and personality. *European journal of personality*, 8(3), 163-181.
- Blascovich, J., & Tomaka, J. (1993). Measures of self-esteem. In J.P. Robinson, P.R. Shaver, & L.S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes* (3rd Ed., pp. 115-160). Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research.
- Branden, N. (1995). *The six pillars of self-esteem*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Brdar, I., Rijavec, M., & Miljković, D. (2009). Approaches to happiness, life goals and wellbeing. In Freire, T. (Ed.), *Understanding positive life. Research and practice on positive psychology* (pp 45-64). Lisbon: ClimepsiEditores.
- Brill, N. L. (1990). *Working with people: The helping process* (4th Ed.). New York: Longman.
- Brown, D. (2002). The role of work and cultural values in occupational choice, satisfaction, and success: A theoretical statement. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 80(1), 48-56.
- Brown, J. D., & Marshall, M. A. (2006). The three faces of self-esteem. In M. Kernis (Ed.), *Self-esteem: Issues and answers* (pp. 4-9). New York: Psychology Press.
- Brown, K.W., & Kasser, T. (2005). Are psychological and ecological wellbeing compatible? The role of values, mindfulness and lifestyle. *Social Indicators Research*, 74, 349-368.
- Brown, R. G. S., & Stones, R. W. H. (1972). Personality and intelligence characteristics of male nurses. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 9(3), 167-177.
- Budhwar, P. S., Saini, D. S., & Bhatnagar, J. (2005). Women in management in the new economic environment: The case of India. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 11(2), 179-193.
- Burch, G. S. J., & Anderson, N. (2008). Personality as a predictor of work-related behavior and performance: Recent advances and directions for future research. In G.

- P. Hodgkinson & J. K. Ford (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, (Vol. 23, pp. 261-305). Chichester, England: Wiley.
- Burroughs, J. E., & Rindfleisch, A. (2002). Materialism and well-being: A conflicting values perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29(3), 348-370.
- Carlson, R. (1971). Sex differences in ego functioning: Exploratory studies of agency and communion. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 37(1), 267-277.
- Cattell, R. B. (1965). *The scientific analysis of personality*. Baltimore: Penguin Books.
- Chan, R., & Joseph, S. (2000). Dimensions of personality, domains of aspiration, and subjective well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28(2), 347-354.
- Chantara, S., Koul, R., & Kaewkuekool, S. (2014). Relationship between lifestyle values and achievement goal orientation among vocational students in Thailand. *Journal of Beliefs & Values*, 35(1), 36-47.
- Chaplin, L. N., & John, D. R. (2007). Growing up in a material world: Age differences in materialism in children and adolescents. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(4), 480-493.
- Chatham-Carpenter, A., & De Francisco, V. (1998). Women construct self-esteem in their own terms: A feminist qualitative study. *Feminism & Psychology*, 8(4), 467-489.
- Christopher, A. N., Lasane, T. P., Troisi, J. D., & Park, L. E. (2007). Materialism, defensive and assertive self-presentational tactics, and life satisfaction. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 26(10), 1145-1162.
- Christopher, A. N., Morgan, R. D., Marek, P., Keller, M., & Drummond, K. (2005). Materialism and self-presentational styles. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38(1), 137-149.
- Chusmir, L. H. (1990). Men who make nontraditional career choices. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 69 (1), 11-16.
- Cienki, S. J., & Brooks, C. I. (1989). Self-esteem of high school students as a function of sex, grade, and curriculum orientation. *Psychological Reports*, 64(1), 191-194.

- Clark, M. H., & Schroth, C. A. (2010). Examining relationships between academic motivation and personality among college students. *Learning and Individual Differences, 20*(1), 19-24.
- Cohen, P., & Cohen, J. (1996). *Life values and adolescent mental health*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Costa Jr, P., Terracciano, A., & Mc Crae, R. R. (2001). Gender differences in personality traits across cultures: robust and surprising findings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*(2), 322-331.
- Costa, P. T., Mc Crae, R. R., & Holland, J. L. (1984). Personality and vocational interests in an adult sample. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(3), 390-400.
- Crocker, J., & Wolfe, C. T. (2001). Contingencies of self-worth. *Psychological Review, 108*(3), 593-623.
- Cross, S. E., & Madson, L. (1997). Models of the self: self-construals and gender. *Psychological Bulletin, 122*(1), 5-37.
- Davey, H., & Lalande, V. (2004). Gender differences, values, and occupational choice. *National Consultation on Career Development*, Canada.
- De Cooman, R., De Gieter, S., Pepermans, R., Du Bois, C., Caers, R., & Jegers, M. (2007). Graduate teacher motivation for choosing a job in education. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance, 7*(2), 123-136.
- De Fruyt, F., & Mervielde, I. (1997). The five-factor model of personality and Holland's RIASEC interest types. *Personality and Individual Differences, 23*(1), 87-103.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985a). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985b). The general causality orientations scale: Self-determination in personality. *Journal of Research in Personality, 19*, 109-134.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1991). A motivational approach to self: Integration in personality. In: R. Dienstbier (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation: Vol. 38. Perspectives on motivation* (pp. 237-288). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1995). Human autonomy: the basis for true self-esteem. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), *Efficacy, agency, and self-esteem* (pp. 31-49). New York: Plenum Press.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology*, 49(3), 182-185.

Deci, E. L., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2004). Self-determination theory and basic need satisfaction: Understanding human development in positive psychology. *Ricerche di psicologia*, 27(1), 23-40.

Deci, E. L., Schwartz, A. J., Sheinman, L., & Ryan, R. M. (1981). An instrument to assess adults' orientations toward control versus autonomy with children: Reflections on intrinsic motivation and perceived competence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73(5), 642-650.

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41(1), 417-440.

Donnellan, M. B., Trzesniewski, K. H., Robins, R. W., Moffitt, T. E., & Caspi, A. (2005). Low self-esteem is related to aggression, antisocial behavior, and delinquency. *Psychological Science*, 16(4), 328-335.

Downey, G., & Feldman, S. I. (1996). Implications of rejection sensitivity for intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(6), 1327-1343.

Dragica, R. (2014). The Correlation between personality dimensions measured by the questionnaire called Velikih 5+ 2 and dimensions of the level of aspiration. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 4(4), 49-54.

- Duffy, R. D., & Sedlacek, W. E. (2007). The work values of first-year college students: Exploring group differences. *Career Development Quarterly*, 55(4), 359-364.
- Eaton, T. V., & Giacominio, D. E. (2001). An examination of personal values: Differences between accounting students and managers and differences between genders. *Teaching Business Ethics*, 5(2), 213-229.
- Eaves, L., & Eysenck, H. (1975). The nature of extraversion: A genetical analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 32(1), 102-112.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1947). *Dimensions of Personality*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1950). *Dimensions of Personality* (Vol. 5). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, S. B. G. (1975). *Manual of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (junior and adult)*. Hodder and Stoughton Educational: Essex.
- Feingold, A. (1994). Gender differences in personality: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 116(3), 429-456.
- Ferriman, K., Lubinski, D., & Benbow, C.P. (2009). Work preferences, life values, and personal views of top math/science graduate students and the profoundly gifted: Developmental changes and gender difference during emerging adulthood and parenthood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 97(3), 517-532.
- Freud, S. (1961). The ego and the id. In J. Strachey (Ed.), *The Standard Edition of the Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud* (Vol. 19, pp. 12-66). London: Hogarth Press. (Original work published 1923).
- Fromm, E. (1976). *To have or to be?* New York: Harper & Row.
- Furnham, A., & Cheng, H. (1999). Personality as predictor of mental health and happiness in the East and West. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 27(3), 395-403.

- Furnham, A., & Brewin, C. (1990). Personality and happiness. *Personality and Individual Differences, 11*(10), 1093-1096.
- Galbraith, M. (1991). Attracting men to nursing: what will they find important in their career?. *Journal of Nursing Education, 30*(4), 182-186.
- Gelman, S. A., Taylor, M. G., Nguyen, S. P., Leaper, C., & Bigler, R. S. (2004). Mother-child conversations about gender: Understanding the acquisition of essentialist beliefs. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 69* (1), 1-127.
- Ger, G., & Belk, R. W. (1996). Cross-cultural differences in materialism. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 17*(1), 55-77.
- Giacomino, D. E., Brown, J., & Akers, M. D. (2011). Generational differences of personal values of business students. *American Journal of Business Education, 4*(9), 19-30.
- Glicksohn, J., & Abulafia, J. (1998). Embedding sensation seeking within the big three. *Personality and Individual Differences, 25*(6), 1085-1099.
- Goodwin, R. D., & Gotlib, I. H. (2004). Gender differences in depression: the role of personality factors. *Psychiatry Research, 126*(2), 135-142.
- Gottfredson, G. D., Jones, E. M., & Holland, J. L. (1993). Personality and vocational interests: The relation of Holland's six interest dimensions to five robust dimensions of personality. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 40*(4), 518-524.
- Grant, H., & Gelety, L. (2009). Goal content theories: Why differences in what we are striving for matter. In B. Moskowitz, & H. Grant (Eds.), *The psychology of goals* (pp. 77-97). New York: Guilford.
- Greenhaus, J. H., Collins, K. M., Singh, R., & Parasuraman, S. (1997). Work and family influences on departure from public accounting. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 50*(2), 249-270.
- Hakim, C. (2006). Women, careers, and work-life preferences. *British Journal of Guidance and Counseling, 34*(3), 279-294.

Halamandaris, K. F., & Power, K. G. (1997). Individual differences, dysfunctional attitudes, and social support: A study of the psychosocial adjustment to university life of home students. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 22(1), 93-104.

Hall, C.S., & Lindzey, G. (1970). *Theories of Personality* (3rd Ed.). New York, NY: Wiley.

Hartman, R. S. (1967). *The structure of value*. Carbondale and Edwardsville: Southern Illinois University Press.

Harton, H.C. & Lyons, P.C. (2009). Gender, empathy, and the choice of the psychology major. *Teaching of Psychology*, 30(1), 19-24.

Hasrin Mahadi, N. A., Ph'ng, L. M., Hasan, H., & Ariffin, H. (2015). Self-esteem, social support, and career decision-making among technical engineering students. *Self*, 24-25. Retrieved October 22, 2016 from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Norida_Abdullah/publication/301694533_self-esteem_social_support_and_career_decisionmaking_among_technical_engineering_students/links/5723251a08ae262228a93f54.pdf.

Henderson-King, D., & Mitchell, A. M. (2011). Do materialism, intrinsic aspirations, and meaning in life predict students' meanings of education?. *Social Psychology of Education*, 14(1), 119-134.

Holland, J. L. (1997). *Making vocational choices: A theory of vocational personalities and work environments* (3rd Ed.). Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Huat See, B. (2004). Determinants of teaching as a career in the UK. *Evaluation & Research in Education*, 18(4), 213-242.

Hudd, S. S., Dumlao, J., Erdmann-Sager, D., Murray, D., Phan, E., Soukas, N., & Yokozuka, N. (2000). Stress at college: Effects on health habits, health status and self-esteem. *College Student Journal*, 34(2), 217-228.

Hussain, S., Abbas, M., Shahzad, K., & Bukhari, S. A. (2012). Personality and career choices. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(6), 2255-2260.

- Inglehart, R., & Baker, W. E. (2000). Modernization, cultural change, and the persistence of traditional values. *American Sociological Review*, 65 (1) 19-51.
- Jalilwand, M. (2000). Married women, work and values. *The Monthly Labor Review*, 123, 26-31.
- Janssen, P. P. M., Schaufeli, W. B., & Houkes, I. (1999). Work-related and individual determinants of three burnout dimensions. *Work & Stress*, 13(1), 74–86.
- Jin, J., & Rounds, J. (2012). Stability and change in work values: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(2), 326-339.
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big-Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (Vol. 2, pp. 102-138). New York: Guilford Press.
- Johnson, M. K. (2002). Social origins, adolescent experiences, and work value trajectories during the transition to adulthood. *Social Forces*, 80(4), 1307-1340.
- Jones, M.G., Howe, A., & Rua, M. J. (2000). Gender differences in students' experiences, interests, and attitudes toward science and scientists. *Science Education*, 84(2), 180-192.
- Josephs, R. A., Markus, H. R., & Tafarodi, R. W. (1992). Gender and self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(3), 391-402.
- Jozefowicz, D.M., Barber, B.L., & Eccles, J.S. (1993). Adolescent work-related values and beliefs: Gender differences and relation to occupational aspirations. Paper presented at the *biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development*, New Orleans, LA.
- Judge, T. A., & Bretz, R. D. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(3), 261-271.
- Judge, T. A., Higgins, C. A., Thoresen, C. J., & Barrick, M. R. (1999). The big five personality traits, general mental ability, and career success across the life span. *Personnel Psychology*, 52(3), 621-652.

- Jung, J., & Lee, S. H. (2006). Cross-cultural comparisons of appearance self-schema, body image, self-esteem, and dieting behavior between Korean and US women. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 34(4), 350-365.
- Kapoor, J., Bhardwaj, G., & Pestonjee, D. M. (1999, August 2). *Enquiry into the various facets of women's careers* (Working Paper 1536). Ahmedabad: Indian Institute of Management. Retrieved from http://115.111.81.83:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/569/WP%201999_1536.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.
- Karuppaiya, S. (2007). *Work Values, Personality Traits And Career Success*, Doctoral dissertation, *Universiti Sains Malaysia*.
- Kasser, T. (2003). *The high price of materialism*. London: MIT press.
- Kasser, T. (2005). Frugality, generosity, and materialism in children and adolescents. In K. A. Moore & L. H. Lippman (Eds.), *What do children need to flourish: Conceptualizing and measuring indicators of positive development* (pp. 357–373). New York: Kluwer/Plenum.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1996). Further examining the American Dream: Differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22(3), 280-287.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (2001). Be careful what you wish for: Optimal functioning and the relative attainment of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. In P. Schmuck & K. M. Sheldon (Eds.), *Life goals and well-being: Towards a positive psychology of human striving* (pp. 116-131). Lengerich, Germany: Pabst Science Publishers.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R.M. (1993). A dark side of the American dream: correlates of financial success as a central life aspiration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(2), 410-422.
- Kasser, T., & Sheldon, K. M. (2000). Of wealth and death: Materialism, mortality salience, and consumption behavior. *Psychological Science*, 11(4), 348-351.
- Kasser, T., & Ahuvia, A. (2002). Materialistic values and wellbeing in business students. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 32, 137-146.

Kasser, T., & Kasser, V. G. (2001). Dreams of people with high and low in materialism. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 22(6), 693-719.

Kasser, T., Ryan, R. M., Couchman, C.E., & Sheldon, K. M. (2004). Materialistic values: Their causes and consequences. In T. Kasser & A.D. Kanner (Eds.), *Psychology and consumer culture: The struggle for a good life in a materialistic world* (pp. 11-28). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Kemboi, R. J. K., Kindiki, N., & Misigo, B. (2016). Relationship between Personality Types and Career Choices of Undergraduate Students: A Case of Moi University, Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(3), 102-112.

Kendler, K. S., Gardner, C. O., & Prescott, C. A. (2003). Personality and the experience of environmental adversity. *Psychological Medicine*, 33(7), 1193-1202.

Kendler, K. S., Kuhn, J., & Prescott, C. A. (2004). The interrelationship of neuroticism, sex, and stressful life events in the prediction of episodes of major depression. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 161(4), 631-636.

Kernis, H. M., Brockner, J. & Frankel, S. B. (1989). Self Esteem and reactions to failure: The mediating role of overgeneralization. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(4), 707-714.

Kiani, S., Hassan, M., & Irfan, S. (2011). Vocational aspirations of high school students. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(2), 14-18.

Kim, Y., Kasser, T., & Lee, H. (2003). Self-concept, aspirations, and well-being in South Korea and the United States. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 143(3), 277-290.

Kimmel, M. S. (1987). *Changing men: New directions in research on men and masculinity*. California: Sage.

Kirkcaldy, B. (1986). The relationship between occupational interests and personality variables in a psychiatric group. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 7(4), 503-508.

- Klein, D. N., Durbin, C. E., Shankman, S. A., & Santiago, N. J. (2009). *Handbook of depression*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Kling, K. C., Hyde, J. S., Showers, C. J., & Buswell, B. N. (1999). Gender differences in self-esteem: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(4), 470-500.
- Knafo, A., & Sagiv, L. (2004). Values and work environment: Mapping 32 occupations. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 19(3), 255-273.
- Kohlberg, L. (1966). A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex-role concepts and attitudes. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), *The development of sex differences* (pp. 80-173). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Kohnen, P. M. (2002). When generations collide: Who they are. Why they clash. How to solve the generational puzzle at work. *Quality Management Journal*, 9(4), 76-76.
- Krishnan, V. R. (2008). Does management education make students better actors? A longitudinal study of change in values and self monitoring. *Great Lakes Herald*, 2(1), 35-48.
- Krulle, G. K., & Nadler, E. B. (1960). Studies of education for science and engineering: Student values and curriculum choice. *IRE Transactions on Engineering Management*, EM-7(4), 146-158.
- Krumboltz, J. D. (1994). Improving career development theory from a social learning perspective. In M. L. Savickas & R. L. Lent (Eds.), *Convergence in Career Development Theories* (pp. 9-31). Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.
- Lakhal, S., Frenette, É., Sévigny, S., & Khechine, H. (2012). Relationship between choice of a business major type (thing-oriented versus person-oriented) and Big Five personality traits. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 10(2), 88-100.
- Langen, A.V., Rekers-Mombarg, L., & Dekkers, H. (2006). Sex-related differences in the determinants and process of science and mathematics choice in pre-university education. *International Journal of Science Education*, 28(1), 71-94.

- Larsen, V., Sirgy, M. J., & Wright, N. D. (1999). Materialism: The construct, measures, antecedents, and consequences. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 3(2), 78-110.
- Larson, L. M., Rottinghaus, P. J., & Borgen, F. H. (2002). Meta-analyses of Big Six interests and Big Five personality factors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61(2), 217-239.
- Leaper, C., & Friedman, C. K. (2007). The socialization of gender. In J. E. Grusec & P. D. Hastings (Eds.), *Handbook of socialization: Theory and Research* (pp. 561-587). New York: Guilford.
- Leaper, C., Anderson, K. J., & Sanders, P. (1998). Moderators of gender effects on parents' talk to their children: a meta-analysis. *Developmental Psychology*, 34(1), 3-27.
- Leaper, C., Leve, L., Strasser, T., & Schwartz, R. (1995). Mother-child communication sequences: Play activity, child gender, and marital status effects. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 41(3), 307-327.
- Leary, M. R., & Downs, D. L. (1995). Interpersonal functions of the self-esteem motive. In M. H. Kernis (Ed.), *Efficacy, agency, and self-esteem* (pp. 123-144). New York: Plenum Press.
- Leary, M. R., & MacDonald, G. (2003). Individual differences in self-esteem: a review and theoretical integration. In M. R. Leary, & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 401-420). New York: Guilford.
- Leary, M. R., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). The nature and function of self-esteem: Sociometer theory. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 32, 1-62.
- Leary, M. R., Barnes, B. D., & Griebel, C. (1986). Cognitive, affective, and attributional effects of potential threats to self-esteem. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 4(4), 461-474.
- Lease, S. H. (2003). Testing a model of men's non-traditional occupational choices. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 51(3), 244-258.

- Lemkau, J. P. (1984). Men in female-dominated professions: Distinguishing personality and background features. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 24(1), 110-122.
- LeRouge, C., Nelson, A., & Blanton, J. E. (2006). The impact of role stress fit and self-esteem on the job attitudes of IT professionals. *Information & Management*, 43(8), 928-938.
- Levine, R. V., Norenzayan, A., & Philbrick, K. (2001). Cross-cultural differences in helping strangers. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32(5), 543-560.
- Lowry, M., Campagnolo, D., Morris, D., Preston, H., Xue, L., & Cheng, K. (2012). Personality as a Predictor of Work Values in Generation Y Students. Ontario, CA: University of Guelph.
- Lubinski, D., Schmidt, D. B., & Benbow, C. P. (1996). A 20-year stability analysis of the study of values for intellectually gifted individuals from adolescence to adulthood. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(4), 443-451.
- Lupart, J., Cannon, E., & Telfer, J. (2004). Gender differences in adolescent academic achievement, interests, values and life-role expectations. *High Ability Studies*, 15(1), 26-42.
- Lynn, R., & Martin, T. (1997). Gender differences in extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism in 37 nations. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 137(3), 369-373.
- Lyons, S., Duxbury, L., & Higgins, C. (2005a). An empirical assessment of generational differences in work-related values. *Administrative Sciences Association of Canada*, 26(9), 66-71.
- Lyons, S., Duxbury, L., & Higgins, C. (2005b). Are gender differences in basic human values a generational phenomenon? *Sex Roles*, 53, 763-778.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Jacklin, C. N. (1978). *The psychology of sex differences* (Vol. 2). California: Stanford University Press.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (2003). *Personality in adulthood: A Five-Factor Theory perspective*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

- MacDonald, G., & Leary, M. R. (2012). Individual differences in self-esteem: A review and theoretical integration. In M. R. Leary & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (2nd Ed., pp. 354-377). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Makikangas, A., Kinnunen, U., & Feldt, T. (2004). Self-esteem, dispositional optimism, and health: evidence from cross-lagged data on employees. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 38(6), 556–575.
- Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98(2), 224-253.
- Marrs, H., Barb, M. R., & Ruggiero, J. C. (2007). Self-reported influences on psychology major choice and personality. *Individual Differences Research*, 5(4), 289-299.
- Martin, C. L., & Halverson Jr, C. F. (1981). A schematic processing model of sex typing and stereotyping in children. *Child Development*, 52 (4), 1119-1134.
- Martin, T., & Kirkcaldy, B. (1998). Gender differences on the EPQ-R and attitudes to work. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 24(1), 1-5.
- Martín-Albo, J., Núñez, J. L., Navarro, J. G., & Grijalvo, F. (2007). The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale: translation and validation in university students. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 10(2), 458-467.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Maslow, A. (1971). *The farther reaches of human nature*. New York: Viking press.
- Masood, R. Z. (2011). Emergence of women owned businesses in India-an insight. *Journal of Arts Science & Commerce, ISSN*, 2(1), 2229-4686.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 81-90.
- McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality*, 60(2), 175-215.

McLeod, S. A. (2014). Theories of Personality. Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/personality-theories.html

Meglino, B. M., & Ravlin, E. C. (1998). Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies, and research. *Journal of Management*, 24(3), 351-389.

Merkaš, M, Raboteg-Šarić, Z., & Miljković, D. (2011). The relation of intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations to adolescent life satisfaction. In I. Brdar (Ed.), *The human pursuit of well-being* (pp. 107-119). Dordrecht: Springer.

Michie, F., Glachan, M., & Bray, D. (2001). An evaluation of factors influencing the academic self-concept, self-esteem and academic stress for direct and re-entry students in higher education. *Educational Psychology*, 21(4), 455-472.

Mick, D. G. (1996). Are studies of dark side variables confounded by socially desirable responding? The case of materialism. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 23(2), 106-119.

Mills, C. J. (1993). Personality, learning style and cognitive style profiles of mathematically talented students. *European Journal of High Ability*, 4(1), 70-85.

Misra, G., & Agarwal, R. (1985). The meaning of achievement: Implications for a cross-cultural theory of achievement motivation. In I. R. Lagunes & Y. P. E. Poortinga (Eds.), *From a different perspective: Studies of behavior across cultures* (pp. 250-266). Lisse: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Moreland, R. L., & Sweeney, P. D. (1984). Self-expectancies and reactions to evaluations of personal performance. *Journal of Personality*, 52(2), 156-176.

Muntaner, C., Tien, A. Y., Eaton, W. W., & Garrison, R. (1991). Occupational characteristics and the occurrence of psychotic disorders. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 26(6), 273-280.

Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in Personality*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Negru, O., Subțirică, A., & Oprea, A. (2011). The dynamics of aspirations in emerging adulthood. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 12, 205-210.

- Newton, N. J., & Stewart, A. J. (2013). The road not taken: Women's life paths and gender-linked personality traits. *Journal of Research in Personality, 47*(4), 306-316.
- Niemiec, C. P., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. (2009). The path taken: Consequences of attaining intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations in post-college life. *Journal of Research in Personality, 73*(3), 291-306.
- Oda, R., Machii, W., Takagi, S., Kato, Y., Takeda, M., Kiyonari, T., Fukukawa, Y., & Hiraishi, K. (2014). Personality and altruism in daily life. *Personality and Individual Differences, 56*, 206-209.
- Olszewski-Kubilius, P., Kulieke, M.J., & Krasny, N. (1988). Personality dimensions of gifted adolescents: A review of the empirical literature. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 32*(4), 347-352.
- Olver, J. M., & Mooradian, T. A. (2003). Personality traits and personal values: A conceptual and empirical integration. *Personality and Individual Differences, 35*(1), 109-125.
- Owens, T. J. (1994). Two dimensions of self-esteem: Reciprocal effects of positive self-worth and self-deprecation on adolescent problems. *American Sociological Review, 59*(3), 391-407.
- Pang, J. S., & Schultheiss, O. C. (2005). Assessing implicit motives in US college students: Effects of picture type and position, gender and ethnicity, and cross-cultural comparisons. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 85*(3), 280-294.
- Papastyliaou, D., & Lampridis, E. (2016). Social values priorities and orientation towards individualism and collectivism of Greek university students. *Journal of Beliefs & Values, 37*(1), 40-54.
- Parikh, I. J., & Engineer, M. (1999, December 7). *Women in management-a movement from fifties to the next millennium* (Working Paper 1570). Ahmedabad: Indian Institute of Management. Retrieved on May 23, 2015 from http://vslir.iima.ac.in:8080/jspui/bitstream/11718/619/1/WP%201999_1570.pdf.
- Parikh, I., & Shah, N. A. (1991, June). *Women managers in transition: from homes to corporate offices* (Working Paper 941). Ahmedabad: Indian Institute of Management.

Retrieved on September 17, 2015
from http://vslir.iimahd.ernet.in:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/5962/WP%201991_941.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.

Parikh, P. P., & Sukhatme, S. P. (2004). Women engineers in India. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 39(2), 193-201.

Parks, L., & Guay, R. P. (2009). Personality, values, and motivation. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 47(7), 675-684.

Parsons, F. (1909). *Choosing a vocation*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Patton, W., & Creed, P. (2007). The relationship between career variables and occupational aspirations and expectations for Australian high school adolescents. *Journal of Career Development*, 34(2), 127-148.

Patton, W., Bartrum, D. A., & Creed, P. A. (2004). Gender differences for optimism, self-esteem, expectations and goals in predicting career planning and exploration in adolescents. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 4(2), 193-209.

Paulhus, D. L., & Williams, K. M. (2002). The Dark Triad of personality: Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 36(6), 556-563.

Pillay, Y. (2011). *The influence of moral judgment on empathy*. Retrieved from http://counselingoutfitters.com/vistas/vistas11/Article_78.pdf.

Pleck, J. H. (1985). *Working wives/working husbands*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Pomerantz, E. M., & Ruble, D. N. (1998). The role of maternal control in the development of sex differences in child self-evaluative factors. *Child Development*, 69(2), 458-478.

Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. A. (2002). Exploring the influence of decision makers' race and gender on actual promotions to top management. *Personnel Psychology*, 55(2), 397-428.

Puente-Díaz, R., & Arroyo, J. C. (2014). The influence of personality dimensions on material and frugal values. *Annals of Psychology, 31*(1), 37-44.

Puente-Díaz, R., & Arroyo, J. C. (2016). An Exploration of Some Antecedents and Consequences of Creative Self-Efficacy: The Role of Achievement Goals, Enjoyment and Divergent Thinking. *Creativity: Theories - Research - Applications, 3*(1), 19-33.

Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S., Arndt, J., & Schimel, J. (2004). Why do people need self-esteem? A theoretical and empirical review. *Psychological Bulletin, 130*(3), 435-468.

Resurreccion, L. A. (2013). *Breaking the boundaries: Decision factors that lead male students to enroll in associate degree nursing programs in illinois community colleges*, Doctoral dissertation, National-Louis University.

Richins, M. L., & Dawson, S. (1992). A consumer values orientation for materialism and its measurement: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Consumer Research, 19*(3), 303-316.

Ripski, M. B., LoCasale-Crouch, J., & Decker, L. (2011). Pre-service teachers: Dispositional traits, emotional states, and quality of teacher-student interactions. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 38*(2), 77-96.

Roberts, B. W., & Robins, R. W. (2000). Broad dispositions, broad aspirations: The intersection of personality traits and major life goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26*(10), 1284-1296.

Roberts, B. W., Walton, K. E., & Viechtbauer, W. (2006). Patterns of mean-level change in personality traits across the life course: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 132*, 1-25.

Robins, R. W., Trzesniewski, K. H., Tracy, J. L., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2002). Global self-esteem across the life span. *Psychology and Aging, 17*(3), 423-482.

Roccas, S., Sagiv, L., Schwartz, S. H., & Knafo, A. (2002). The big five personality factors and personal values. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*(6), 789-801.

Rogers, C. (1963). The actualizing tendency in relation to “motives” and to consciousness. In M. R. Jones (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation* (Vol. 11, pp. 1-24). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: The Free Press.

Romero, E., Gómez-Fraguela, J. A., & Villar, P. (2012). Life aspirations, personality traits and subjective well-being in a Spanish sample. *European Journal of Personality*, 26(1), 45-55.

Ros, M., Schwartz, S. H., & Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic individual values, work values, and the meaning of work. *Applied Psychology*, 48(1), 49-71.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenberg, M., & Simmons, R. G. (1972). *Black and white self-esteem: The urban school child*. Washington, DC: American Sociological Association.

Rottinghaus, P. J., & Zytowski, D. G. (2006). Commonalities between adolescents' work values and interests. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 38(4), 211-221.

Rottinghaus, P. J., Lindley, L. D., Green, M. A., & Borgen, F. H. (2002). Educational aspirations: The contribution of personality, self-efficacy, and interests. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61(1), 1-19.

Roy, D. D. (1995). Differences in personality factors of experienced teachers, physicians, bank managers and fine artists. *Psychological Studies*, 40(1), 51-56.

Ryan, R. M. (1995). Psychological needs and the facilitation of integrative processes. *Journal of Personality*, 63(3), 397-427.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2002). Overview of Self-Determination Theory: An Organismic Dialectical Perspective. In E. L. Deci, & M. R. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2004). Avoiding death or engaging life as accounts of meaning and culture: Comment on Pyszczynski et al. (2004). *Psychological Bulletin*, 2004, 130(3), 473–477.
- Ryan, R. M., Chirkov, V.I., Little, T. D., Sheldon, K. M., Timoshina, E., & Deci, E.L. (1999) American dream in Russia: Extrinsic aspirations and wellbeing in two cultures. *Personality and Social Bulletin*, 25(12), 1509- 1524.
- Ryan, R. M., Huta, V., & Deci, E. L. (2008). Living well: a self-determination theory perspective on eudaimonia. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9, 139-170.
- Sagiv, L., & Schwartz, S. H. (2000). Value priorities and subjective well-being: Direct relations and congruity effects. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 30, 177-198.
- Sahlstein, E., & Allen, M. (2002). Sex differences in self-esteem: A meta-analytic assessment. In M. Allen, R. W. Preiss, B. M. Gayle, & N. A Burrell (Eds.), *Interpersonal communication research: Advances through meta-analysis* (pp. 59-72). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Salek, E.S. (1988). Personal values and success: Human resource implication for small business management. Retrieved from <http://www.sbaer.uca.edu/research/sbida/1988/PDF/42.pdf>.
- Salmela-Aro, K., & Nurmi, J. E. (2007). Self-esteem during university studies predicts career characteristics 10 years later. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70(3), 463-477.
- Sanders, L., Sander, P., & Mercer, J. (2009). Rogue Males? Approaches to Study and Academic Performance of Male Psychology Students. *Psychology Teaching Review*, 15(1), 3-17.
- Sax, L. J. (1992). *Predicting persistence of science career aspirations: A comparative study of male and female college students*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Schmitt, D. P., Realo, A., Voracek, M., & Allik, J. (2008). Why can't a man be more like a woman? Sex differences in Big Five personality traits across 55 cultures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 94*(1), 168-182.

Schmuck, P., Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The relationship of well-being to intrinsic and extrinsic goals in Germany and the U.S. *Social Indicators Research, 5*(2), 225-241.

Schultheiss, O. C., & Brunstein, J. C. (2001). Assessment of implicit motives with a research version of the TAT: Picture profiles, gender differences, and relations to other personality measures. *Journal of personality assessment, 77*(1), 71-86.

Schwartz, S. H., & Rubel, T. (2005). Sex differences in value priorities: cross-cultural and multimethod studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 89*(6), 1010-1028.

Schwartz, S. H., & Rubel-Lifschitz, T. (2009). Cross-national variation in the size of sex differences in values: effects of gender equality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 97*(1), 171-185.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp.1-65). New York: Academic Press.

Sebire, S. J., Standage, M., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2009). Examining intrinsic versus extrinsic exercise goals: Cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 31*(2), 189-210.

Segal, U. A. (1992). Values, personality and career choice. *The Journal of Applied Social Sciences, 16*(2), 143-159.

Seto, M. C., & Lalumiere, M. L. (2010). What is so special about male adolescent sexual offending? A review and test of explanations through meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 136*(4), 526-575.

Sheldon, K. M. (2005). Positive value change during college: Normative trends and individual differences. *Journal of Research in Personality, 39*(2), 209-223.

- Sheldon, K. M., & Kasser, T. (2001). Goals, congruence, and positive well-being: New empirical support for humanistic theories. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 41*(1), 30-50.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Kasser, T. (2008). Psychological threat and extrinsic goal striving. *Motivation and Emotion, 32*, 37-45.
- Sheldon, K. M., Gunz, A., Nichols, C. P., & Ferguson, Y. (2010). Extrinsic value orientation and affective forecasting: Overestimating the rewards, underestimating the costs. *Journal of Personality, 78*(1), 149-178.
- Sheldon, K. M., Ryan, R. M., Deci, E. L., & Kasser, T. (2004). The independent effects of goal contents and motives on well-being: It's both what you pursue and why you pursue it. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*(4), 475-486.
- Shoaib, K. (2011). *Personality and Vocational Interests in High School Students*, Doctoral dissertation, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad.
- Sikula, J., Buttery, T., & Guyton, E. (1996). *Handbook of research on teacher education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Singhal, R., & Misra, G. (1994). Achievement goals: A situational-contextual analysis. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18*(2), 239-258.
- Sinha, J. B., & Kumar, R. (2005). Methodology for understanding Indian culture. *The Copenhagen Journal of Asian Studies, 19*, 89-104.
- Skinner, B. F. (1972). *Beyond freedom and dignity*. New York: Knopf.
- Skitka, L. J., & Maslach, C. (1996). Gender as schematic category: A role construct approach. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 24*(1), 53-73.
- Srivastava, A., Locke, E. A., & Bartol, K. M. (2001). Money and subjective well-being: it's not the money, it's the motives. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(6), 959-971.
- Stein, A. H., & Bailey, M. M. (1973). The socialisation of achievement orientation in females. *Psychological Bulletin, 80*(5), 345-366.

Sujata, K. (2006). *Influence of aptitude and personality profile on academic achievement of undergraduate students of UAS, Dharwad*, Master's dissertation, University of Agricultural Sciences, Dharwad.

Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 16(3), 282-298.

Trigg, L. J., & Perlman, D. (1976). Social influences on women's pursuit of a non-traditional career. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 1(2), 138-150.

Twenge, J. M. (1997). Changes in masculine and feminine traits over time: A meta-analysis. *Sex Roles*, 36(5-6), 305-325.

Twenge, J. M. (1997). Changes in masculine and feminine traits over time: A meta-analysis. *Sex Roles*, 36(5), 305-325.

Twenge, J. M., Campbell, S. M., Hoffman, B. J., & Lance, C. E. (2010). Generational differences in work values: Leisure and extrinsic values increasing, social and intrinsic values decreasing. *Journal of Management*, 36(5), 1117-1142.

Van Der Velde, M. E., Feij, J. A., & Van Emmerik, H. (1998). Change in work values and norms among Dutch young adults: Ageing or societal trends?. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 22(1), 55-76.

Vanderstikken, A., Van den Broeck, A., & Proost, K. (2016). For Love or for Money: Intrinsic and extrinsic value congruence in recruitment. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 24(1), 34-41.

Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., & Deci, E. L. (2006). Intrinsic versus extrinsic goal contents in self-determination theory: Another look at the quality of academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, 41(1), 19-31.

Vansteenkiste, M., Neyrinck, B., Niemiec, C. P., Soenens, B., Witte, H., & Broeck, A. (2007). On the relations among work value orientations, psychological need satisfaction and job outcomes: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 8 (2), 251-277.

Wallace, J. E., Haines, V., & Cannon, M. E. (1999). Academic choices of engineering undergraduates, *Final Grant Report to Imperial Oil*, University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada.

Wallace, J.E., Haines, V., & Cannon, M.E. (1999). Academic Choices of Engineering Undergraduates, Final Grant Report to Imperial Oil, University of Calgary. Retrieved from <http://www.geomatics.ucalgary.ca/cwse/AChoices.pdf>.

Watson, D. C. (2014). Materialism: Profiles of agreeableness and neuroticism. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *56*, 197-200.

Watson, D., & Friend, R. (1969). Measurement of social-evaluative anxiety. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *33*(4), 448-457.

Weisgram, E. S., Dinella, L. M., & Fulcher, M. (2011). The role of masculinity/femininity, values, and occupational value affordances in shaping young men's and women's occupational choices. *Sex Roles*, *65*(3), 243-258.

Weston, D., & Heim, A. K. (2003). Disturbances of self and identity in personality disorders. In M. R. Leary & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 643-666). New York: Guilford Press.

Whitley Jr, B. E., & Gridley, B. E. (1993). Sex role orientation, self-esteem, and depression: A latent variables analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *19*(4), 363-369.

Winter, D. G., John, O. P., Stewart, A. J., Klohnen, E. C., & Duncan, L. E. (1998). Traits and motives: toward an integration of two traditions in personality research. *Psychological Review*, *105*(2), 230-250.

Wood, W., & Eagly, A. H. (2002). A cross-cultural analysis of the behavior of women and men: implications for the origins of sex differences. *Psychological Bulletin*, *128*(5), 699-727.

Worthington, A., & Higgs, H. (2004). Factors explaining the choice of an economics major. The role of student characteristics, personality and perceptions of the profession. *International Journal of Social Economics*, *31*(5), 593-613.

Yik, M. S., & Tang, C. S. (1996). Linking personality and values: The importance of a culturally relevant personality scale. *Personality and Individual Differences, 21*(5), 767-774.

Young, B. J. (1995). Career plans and work perceptions of pre-service teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 11*(3), 281-292.

Zuckerman, D. M. (1985). Confidence and aspirations: Self-esteem and self-concepts as predictors of students' life goals. *Journal of Personality, 53*(4), 543-560.

APPENDIX (1)

Permission Letter

To

Head of the Institution

Subject: Request for granting permission for data collection

Respected Sir/ Madam,

Ms. Lovleen is pursuing PhD in Psychology from Thapar University, Patiala. In connection with her research work, she needs to elicit some information from the students of your institution regarding their value orientation and personality dimensions. It is assured that their studies will not be affected during the process of data collection and the information gathered would be strictly kept confidential. Kindly allow her to collect data from the students of your institution. Your cooperation in this respect for collecting data will be sincerely appreciated. I request you to grant her permission for the same.

Kind regards

Dr. P. K. Bajpai

Dean of Research and Sponsored Projects
Thapar University
Patiala

APPENDIX (2)

Consent Form

Dear student

I am Lovleen, a PhD Scholar in the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Thapar University, Patiala. In connection with my research, I wish to elicit some information regarding your behavioral patterns. In this context, you will be required to answer some questions pertaining to your behavior, values, and goals.

I hereby seek your consent and I assure you that all your information will be used only for academic purposes and will be kept confidential.

If you want to know the feedback of your results you may ask me in person or you can contact me on the following Address/Telephone nos. or you provide me your E-mail ids. I will be pleased to provide you the feedback. Your assistance in my research by completing this questionnaire will be sincerely appreciated.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Lovleen

School of Behavioural Sciences and Business Studies

Thapar University

Patiala

Mobile no.: 9876665590

E-mail Id: lovleen011@gmail.com

I _____ hereby give my consent to participate in the study.

Name _____

Institution _____

Mobile No. _____

E-mail Id _____

Signature _____

APPENDIX (3)

Aspiration Index

Please see below few items pertaining to the priorities in your life. Study each item carefully and indicate the relative importance and the chances of their attainment in your life.

This first set of questions asks you about the future. Rate each item by circling how important it is to you that it happen in the future. Then circle the chances that it will happen in the future.

IN THE FUTURE...

1. You will be physically healthy.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

2. Your name will be known by many people.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

3. You will have people comment often about how attractive you look.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

4. You will have a lot of expensive possessions.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

5. You will be famous.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

6. You will donate time or money to charity.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

NOW GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

IN THE FUTURE...

7. You will feel good about your level of physical fitness.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

8. You will be the one in charge of your life.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

9. You will have good friends that you can count on.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

10. You will keep up with fashions in hair and clothing.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

11. You will teach others the things that you know.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

12. You will have a job that pays well.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

13. You will exercise regularly.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

NOW GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

IN THE FUTURE...

14. You will share your life with someone you love.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

15. You will be admired by many people.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

16. At the end of your life, you will look back on your life as meaningful and complete.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

17. You will avoid things bad for your health (such as smoking, excessive alcohol, etc.)

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

18. You will have people who care about you and are supportive.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

19. You will work for the betterment of society.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

20. You will be married to one person for life.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

NOW GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

IN THE FUTURE...

21. You will be your own boss.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

22. You will achieve the "look" you've been after.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

23. You will deal effectively with problems that come up in your life.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

24. You will feel energetic and full of life.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

25. You will have a job with high social status.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

26. You will have good, open relationships with your children.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

27. You will work to make the world a better place.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

28. You will successfully hide the signs of aging.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

NOW GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

IN THE FUTURE...

29. Your name will appear frequently in the media.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

30. You will know people that you can have fun with.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

31. You will be relatively free from sickness.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

32. You will help others improve their lives.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

33. Your body shape and type will be fairly close to ideal.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

34. You will buy things just because you want them.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

35. You will know and accept who you really are.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

NOW GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

IN THE FUTURE...

36. You will eat healthfully and moderately.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

37. You will be financially successful.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

38. You will do something that brings you much recognition.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

39. You will help people in need.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

40. You will have a couple of good friends that you can talk to about personal things.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

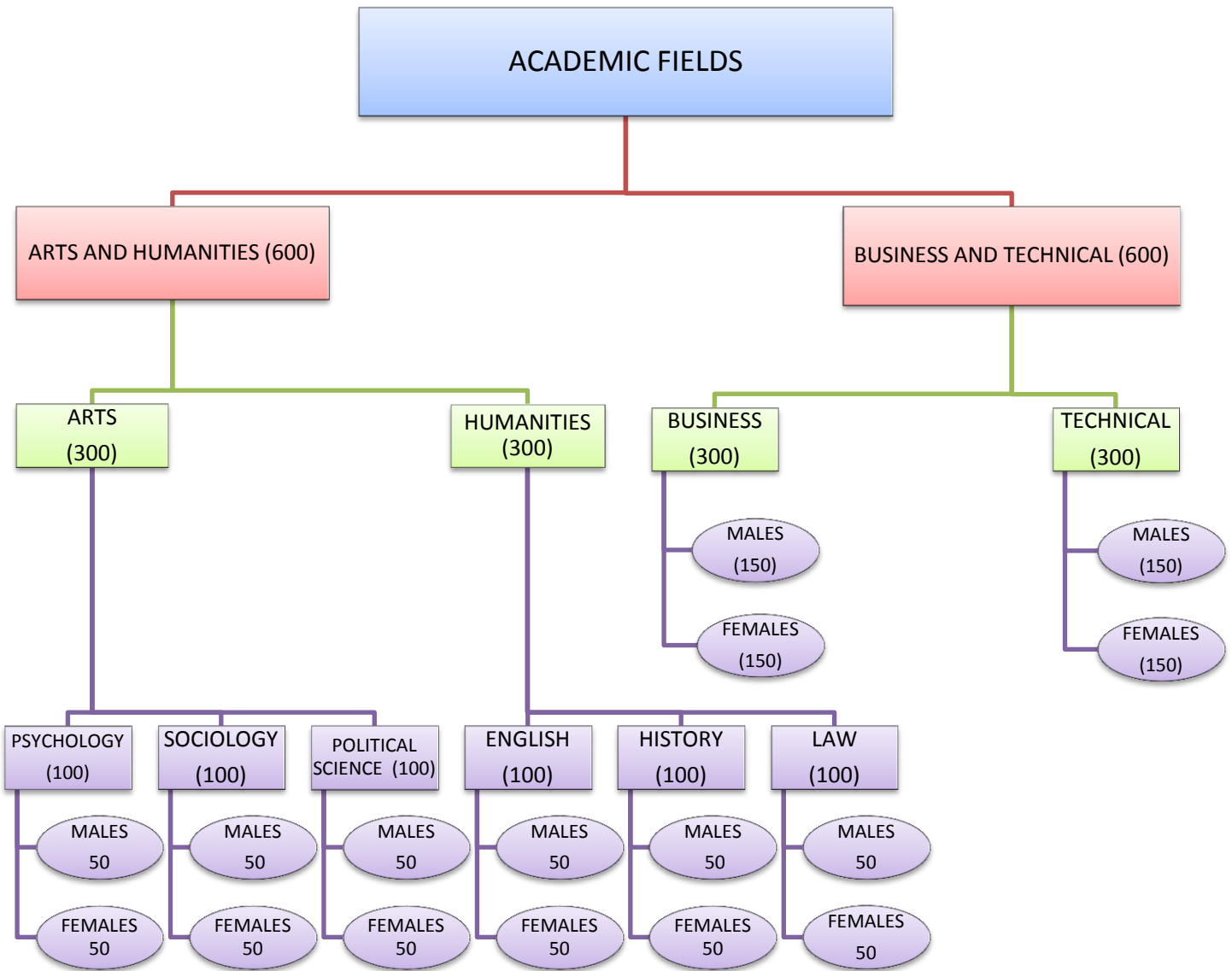
41. You will be talked about years after your death.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

42. Your image will be one others find appealing.

Importance	not at all	a little	so/so	pretty impt.	very impt.
	1	2	3	4	5
Chances	very low	low	50/50	high	very high
	1	2	3	4	5

ANNEXURE 1



ANNEXURE 2

**Tentative Distribution of the Institutions Offering Courses in Various Academic Fields
Related to Present Study**

Academic Field	Number of Institutions Offering the Courses
ARTS	97
HUMANITIES	39
BUSINESS	81
TECHNICAL	107