Parental involvement in career education and guidance in senior general secondary schools in the Netherlands

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UNIVERSITY OF DERBY

PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CAREER EDUCATION AND GUIDANCE IN SENIOR GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE NETHERLANDS

Anna Maria Francisca Adriana Oomen

Doctor of Philosophy 2018
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GLOSSARY

APS  Algemeen Pedagogisch Studiecentrum [National Centre for School Improvement]

BSA  bindend studieadvies [binding study advice]

Both HE Both parents have attained higher education qualifications

C3  Third-year control group

C5  Fifth-year control group

CBS  Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek [Statistics Netherlands]

CEG  Career Education and Guidance

CMS  Career Management Skills [loopbaancompetenties]

CPD  Continuing Professional Development

E3  Third-year experimental group

E5  Fifth-year experimental group

ELGPN  European Lifelong Guidance Policy Network

HAVO  Hoger Algemeen Vormend Onderwijs [Senior general secondary education]

HBO  Hoger Beroepsonderwijs [Professional higher education]

HE  Higher Education [HO: Hoger Onderwijs]

ILP  Individual Learning Plan

ISCED  International Standard Classification of Education

JOB  Jongeren Organisatie Beroepsonderwijs [Youth Organisation VET]

LAKS  Landelijk Aktie Komitee Scholieren [National Action Committee Pupils]

LOB  loopbaanoriëntatie en –begeleiding [career exploration and guidance], CEG
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<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>LMI</td>
<td>Labour Market Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBO</td>
<td>Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs [Senior secondary vocational education]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No HE</td>
<td>Neither parent has attained higher education qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCW</td>
<td>Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen [Ministry of Education, Culture and Science]</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One HE</td>
<td>One of the parents has attained higher education qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLC</td>
<td>Professional Learning Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCP</td>
<td>Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau [Netherlands Institute for Social Research]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SER</td>
<td>Sociaal Economische Raad [Social and Economic Council of the Netherlands]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>Socio-Economic Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEM</td>
<td>Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VMBO</td>
<td>Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs [Pre-vocational secondary education]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VO</td>
<td>Voortgezet Onderwijs [Secondary Education]</td>
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<tr>
<td>VO-raad</td>
<td>[Secondary Education Council]</td>
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<tr>
<td>VWO</td>
<td>Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs [Pre-university education]</td>
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<tr>
<td>WO</td>
<td>Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs [Academic higher education]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WVO</td>
<td>Wet op het Voortgezet Onderwijs [Secondary Education Act]</td>
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PREFACE
This statement serves to confirm that the contents of this thesis are my own independent work.

The original data, both quantitative and qualitative, are in Dutch. The questionnaires and interview schedules, included in the Appendices (2-6), were translated by me and were discussed extensively with a native English speaker. I also translated the Dutch resources and quotes in this thesis. I relied on the translations of definitions, institutional names and reports in the English language as provided by the Dutch Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (OCW), as well as public organisations.

In this thesis, I preferably use the Dutch statistical data from 2013 which is the academic year of the intervention (2012-2013).

The request for the ethical approval of this research and the confirmation of ethical approval can be found in Appendices 9 and 10.
ABSTRACT
This research examines the involvement of the parents of secondary school children in career education and guidance (CEG). It is based on a secondary analysis of existing data from a research project I was involved in. This initial research evaluated the impact of a parent-involved career intervention, ‘Parents Turn’, in which six career teachers delivered four successive sessions to parent(s) accompanied by their child in the third or fifth year of their secondary school (HAVO) in the Netherlands.

The study is important both to the field and to practitioners. Examples of parent-involved career intervention in CEG are limited, scantily researched, and most were not sustained, which may explain why knowledge on involving parents in CEG is underdeveloped.

I discuss these gaps in the evidence by providing an overview on the literature on parental influences and roles in their child’s career development, an international inventory of and taxonomy for parent-involved, school-based career interventions, and providing relevant knowledge on parental-involvement in education in general. I then present new analysis of data collected by an earlier evaluation of the ‘Parents’ Turn’ intervention. My secondary analysis approaches this data with new research questions, in-depth analyses and a non-parametric methodology. I integrated the quantitative and qualitative results to understand who was involved in the intervention, why, and whether the impact differed for the learning of parents with and without higher education (HE) qualifications. I also sought to understand the role of the school in the intervention.

The findings suggest that a school-initiated career intervention involving parents, in the form of family learning and community interaction, can build and enhance parents’ capacity to be involved in and support the career development of their child: their knowledge and skills, parental self-efficacy and parental role-definition.
However, the career intervention works differently for parents who have different levels of HE level attainment. Lower-educated parents seem less aware of the consequences of early educational decisions in their child’s career and also have different needs for being involved in the career intervention compared to higher-educated parents. Despite the impact of the career intervention on their parental capacity, lower-educated parents remain unsure as a parent of how to make use of
gained information, guidance and support tools. Third-year (14-16-year-olds) parents’ information and support needs are the greatest and they are open to changing their attitude to grant their child autonomy in managing their own career development.

The study also finds that features of the present school system are major barriers to sustaining the intervention. Recommendations for policies and practice at school level are offered. A more focused public policy for parental involvement in career education and guidance in secondary schools could both improve the efficiency of the education system and combat social injustice.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I express deep gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Tristram Hooley. His continuous support of my study, his immense patience, flexibility, incentivising me to widen my literature review and probe my data from various perspectives, has been incredible. Moreover, he made my writing readable. My sincere thanks also go to Dr. Neil Radford, for introducing me to non-parametric tests and the art of justification. With their guidance, this thesis exists.

I thank the respondents/participants in my study: students and parents in the eight schools around the Netherlands who were willing to answer questions over 16 months and provided me with an extensive pool of data. However, this would not have been possible without the profound engagement with the project, both conceptually and practically, of the six career teachers (and their school management) of the experimental schools: my co-designers of the career intervention. The active engagement of the two career teachers of the control schools devoted both in the primary research and in my PhD, went beyond my expectations.

OCW (Ingrid van Erp, Dagna Vincentie) and APS (Martin van Reeuwijk, Kees Hoogland) allowed and thus enabled me to reanalyse the data from the primary research for my PhD. Robbert Vermulst was most helpful in the primary research.

I am very indebted to Renette Du Toit for her continued support in making me understand what it means to do research and thinking along in methodology and analysing data. Both Gert Biesta as well as Mannus Goris aroused my love for the philosophy of science, its meaning for education and careers work.

I thank Dr. Alberto Abouchaar Velasquez, Dr. Charles Desforges, Dr. Marinka Kuijpers, Dr. Mariëtte Lusse, Dr. Mary McMahon, Liesbeth Rentinck (OCW), Dr. Herman Van de Werforst, Dr. Anja Van den Broek and Dr. Ria Vogels for their permission to reproduce their published table or figure in my thesis.

Without helping hands, directly and indirectly (Anna, Bill, Carolien, Claire, Eddie, Desy, Erik, Inga, Jules, Julia, Kara, Kariene, Laurent, Leela, Lester, Mink and Elise, Martha, Matthias, Phillip, Sareena, Senay and Kerem, Sheila, Siobhan, Speranta, Vanessa), this project would not have had its richness.
The seed for taking up a PhD was laid by Nathan Deen many years ago and encouraged by Tony Watts. Pieter Leenheer always challenged my thinking, as did my longest friend Saskia Heikens. I am glad, proud and grateful that they all were critical readers and conversation partners over my PhD.

However, I would never be able to produce the more than 95,000 words in my thesis without my long-time friend and international colleague in careers work who edited patiently all my English gibberish: Anthony Barnes.

I did this thesis for myself: resuming and understanding my experiences and insights in careers work, training my thinking, getting wiser as a human being. I enjoyed doing it.

This thesis is dedicated to my granddaughter Phoenix.
1. INTRODUCTION
Adolescents find career decision-making difficult. Much of the existing research highlights the importance of their parents, carers and/or family in their career decision-making. I became interested in the subject of involving parents in the career education and guidance (CEG) offered by their child’s secondary school both through research and practice.

This chapter aims to set out the background context for the inquiry: the issue of parental involvement in CEG internationally; the Dutch context for education, CEG and parental involvement; the ‘Parents Turn’ project; the findings and limitations of the original evaluation leading to the relevance of a secondary analysis of the existing data; the focus of and research questions for this secondary analysis; a specification of the contribution of the inquiry to the field of knowledge on parental involvement in CEG in secondary education and potentially, policy and practice. Finally, an outline of the thesis is provided.

1.1 Parental involvement in CEG internationally
Various governments around the world have legislation and policies for parental involvement in education to enhance the learning outcomes of young people. More specific policies to involve parents in the educational and career decision-making of their children in secondary education include the European governments of Denmark (Katznelson and Pless, 2007), Northern Ireland (Minister for Employment and Learning and the Minister for Education, 2016) and the Netherlands. The latter, the Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen [Ministry of Education, Culture and Science], abbreviated as OCW, assumes that involving parents in CEG will reduce the dropout rate in education and thus improve the efficiency of the education system (OCW, 2011b, 2013b).

A second reason for parental involvement in CEG may be the need that all parents, regardless of socio-economic status (SES), report for help in providing support with career development and educational planning throughout their children’s childhood and adolescence (Arrington, 2000; Otto, 1989).

More broadly, the case for involving parents in the educational setting in the career building and career decision-making of their child(ren) is based on the substantial
parental influence on career development highlighted in the literature (Subsection 2.2.5).

Despite these possible reasons, relatively few examples of career interventions which have been designed to involve parents and to help them to support their child’s career can be observed internationally, both inside and outside the educational context and in examples dating back to the 1960s (Subsection 2.4). The variety of career interventions that involve parents include guides to inform parents about the education system, or about their role in their child’s career development; booklets with tools for parents or with exercises for parents and child; programmes to support all or specific parents (e.g. lower SES); and materials to support school staff in parental involvement. In Subsection 2.4, I categorise the approaches of these parent-involved career interventions as (a) information-focused interventions; (b) family learning; and (c) family counselling or family therapy. Each of these tends to have different aims, different target groups and different assumptions regarding the roles of participants and facilitators.

Gaps in our knowledge of parent-involved career interventions in CEG

This thesis is relevant from a theoretical and practical perspective.

A limited number of examples of parent-involved career interventions can be found in the literature, few were evaluated, and examples of school-based, parent-involved career interventions are even rarer (Subsection 2.4). The limited practice and the fact that most were not sustained (Subsection 2.4.4), may explain why theoretical knowledge about parental involvement in CEG is still under-developed.

Rather recent is the call in the professional community to offer informed interventions by family, schools and community (Hartung, 2015; Sharf, 2013; Watson, McMahon and Stroud, 2012) or collaborative interventions of schools and families (Lee and Porfeli, 2015; Liu, McMahon and Watson, 2015; Oliveira, Do Céu Taveira and Porfeli, 2015; Semple, Howieson and Paris, 2002). This call is part of the international trend to evolve from individual to community-based careers work (Law, 2013; Thomsen, 2013), in which choices are made in context. The findings in my study may contribute to underpinning this trend theoretically.

The knowledge gap that currently exists includes:
- (i) an overview on the literature of parental influences and roles in their child’s career development throughout the life-span;
- (ii) an overview internationally of the nature of parent-involved interventions in careers work in secondary school and research outcomes;
- (iii) the relevance of the knowledge on parent-involved interventions in education in general to the CEG field;
- (iv) a focus on the parents as learners instead of resources in parent-involved interventions;
- (v) insights into what parent-involved interventions in CEG makes effective and is it effective for every parent; and
- (vi) what may contribute to establish sustained parent/family/community-involved interventions in careers work in secondary schools?

1.2 Dutch CEG context

This Subsection starts with a concise overview of the Dutch education system and school types. This is presented alongside data from 2013 to provide context. The social impact of the education system and current educational policy will be reviewed in subsections.

1.2.1 Introduction to the Dutch education system

Dutch children must enter school full time from the first school day of the month following their fifth birthday although 98% start at the age of four. They continue in compulsory education until they attain a basic qualification (to enter the labour market), which can be a certificate of HAVO (Hoger Algemeen Vormend Onderwijs [Senior general secondary education]), or VWO (Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs [Pre-university education]), or MBO (Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs [Senior secondary vocational education]) level 2 (OCW, 2016a). Figure 1 provides a schematic overview of school types in the Dutch education structure.

At the end of primary education (BAO) (International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1; eight years), at the age of twelve, students take a compulsory standardised skills test, such as the Cito-test, to measure school performance in languages, mathematics and information processing. These results, together with an educational report by the teacher on the most suitable type of secondary education for that child, determine whether a student will enter:
Either a vocational track: VMBO (Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs [Pre-vocational secondary education]; ISCED 2; four years). VMBO comprises four programmes: a basic vocational programme (b); a middle management programme (k); a combined programme (g); and a theoretical programme (tl). In spring of the second year, students choose between ten ‘profiles’ related to vocational sectors. VMBO prepares for MBO (ISCED 3 and 4).

Or an academic track: HAVO (ISCED 2 and 3; five years) or VWO (ISCED 2 and 3; six years). In spring of the third year, students of these tracks choose between four ‘profiles’: science and technology; science and health; social studies and economics; and social studies and culture. All four ‘profiles’ – or clusters as they will be termed throughout this thesis – consist of a common core of subjects plus some optional subjects. This track prepares students for tertiary education or higher education: [Hoger Onderwijs] abbreviated as HE [HO]. HAVO diplomas grant students access to HBO (Hoger Beroepsonderwijs [Professional higher education]) (ISCED 6 and 7) at Universities of Applied Sciences. Students with a VWO diploma are granted access to WO (Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs [Academic higher education]) (ISCED 6 and 7) at Research Universities. Some additional requirements may be imposed by HE programmes on students, such as restrictions in medicine and arts.
Figure 2 shows the flow of students through the education structure after leaving primary education.

Figure 2: Transitions of students in Dutch education in percentages of students leaving primary education in 2013

In 2013, approximately 94 in every 100 12-year-olds entered mainstream secondary education, while 6 went to special education. At the end of lower secondary education, 43 transferred directly to HAVO or VWO and 50 to VMBO. Subsequently, these students transferred to MBO, HBO or WO, either directly or indirectly, for instance 13 MBO (level)-4 certificated students transferred to HBO. Eventually, approximately 13 in every 100 students earned a WO diploma, while 22 earned an HBO diploma. Twenty-four in every 100 children earned a basic qualification level in MBO.

Early tracking, high student learning performance, selectivity

One key feature of the Dutch education system is the process of early tracking at the age of twelve. In terms of curricula, school structures and school buildings there is a
strong division between the students in the academic and the vocational tracks after leaving primary education.

For many years, in international comparative studies such as PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) -- a triennial international survey in which secondary students from most OECD countries take the same tests in mathematics, science, reading and problem-solving -- Dutch students show a relatively high student learning performance. As there are so few students in non-government-funded private schools -- 3.4% of secondary school students are enrolled in non-government-funded private schools (OCW, 2016a) -- these Dutch results are not biased by “the creaming-off” of the most proficient students, the financial position of parents, “or by geographical constraints on parental choice” (Dronkers, 1995, p.231).

In comparative studies, the selectivity of an educational system can be rated on a stratification index (OECD, 2005), which combines the age at which selection first takes place with the number of different school programmes available for 15-year-olds. Of all OECD countries, the Netherlands had the highest score on this stratification index (OECD, 2005; Scheerens, Luyten and Van Ravens, 2010, 2011). Selectivity in the Dutch educational system also showed up in a review of the Onderwijsraad [Education Council], 2014). HAVO and VWO schools avoid risks, for instance with the choice of clusters and subjects, particularly in the science area. The selection mechanisms in HE appeared an additional stumbling block for students who have the required capabilities, “but were not yet convincingly qualifying for the desired education level at the transition point” (Onderwijsraad, 2014, p.3). There were also doubts about the guarantee of the quality and standardisation of the selection processes in MBO and HE, which led to arbitrariness and inequality (Sluijter, 2013).

Social impact of the Dutch education system
The current education system and policy continues to disadvantage students from lower-SES and ethnic groups (Brunello and Checchi, 2007; OECD, 2007; Van de Werfhorst and Mijs, 2007; 2010). Low SES students enroll more often in special needs provisions/education at primary and secondary level and tend to be steered towards or opt for a lower secondary education level (Scheerens, Luyten and Van Ravens, 2010, 2011).
In the year 2011-2012, of the total enrolment in education 22.8% were non-natives (OCW, 2013a), defined as “persons who have at least one parent born abroad” (CBS/Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek [Statistics Netherlands], 2016a). In analysing the non-native students in education for that year, OCW reported that non-natives with a Turkish or Moroccan background were found least in the academic track, and more commonly enrolled in lower level study programmes in MBO (OCW, 2013a).

For students from lower-SES and non-native origin, alternative routes to HE, from MBO to HBO and from HBO to WO are important. However, SCP/Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau [Netherlands Institute for Social Research] found evidence of declining enrolment of these groups from MBO in HBO since 2006 (Herweijer and Turkenburg, 2016). About 30% of the intake in the first year of HBO are MBO-certificated students, however, they switch much more or drop-out, which is specifically the case for non-native male students. MBO-certificated students enrolled in HBO found their studies increasingly difficult: HBO stepped up their level of education in recent years. For the route from HBO to WO, constituting about 15% of the intake in the first-year WO, these difficulties were not observed as WO did not step up their level of education.

In 2013, the Dutch unemployment rate was 7.2 %. Youth unemployment (15-29 years old) stood at 13.2%, while the proportion of youths who were neither in employment nor in education and training (NEET) was 10% (OECD average: 15%) (OECD, 2016a). However, among unemployed and NEET youth, the proportion of non-natives is much larger in comparison with natives. For example, the NEET group comprises 5.4% of natives versus 11.6% of non-natives of the population aged 15-24 (OECD, 2016).

Political dilemma

The features of the Dutch education system – early tracking, selectivity, ‘mass’ alongside ‘elite’ education – are, as in any education system, embedded in history (Van de Werfhorst, 2015). Although the need to adjust, repair or change the current education system seems acknowledged, political consensus on the nature and extent of the changes required is hard to reach. Educational reform has been a controversial topic since 2008 (cf. Akkerman, 2011; cf. WRR/Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het
Regeringsbeleid [Netherlands Scientific Council for Government Policy], 2013). The Dijsselbloem Committee (2008) critically evaluated the large educational reforms in secondary education in the 1990s, stating the government had interfered too much. Government should stick to the ‘what’ only (content and yields of education); the ‘how’ (organisation, equipment, pedagogical method) should be left to the schools themselves (Bronneman-Helmers, 2011).

Social equality, a major issue in the 1970s, gradually disappeared from the political agenda in favour of a stronger focus on the economic function of education since the end of the 1990s (Bronneman-Helmers, 2011; Van de Werfhorst, 2015). This economic focus is twofold: on the one hand education should above all contribute to economic growth and the preparation of youth for the present and future labour market (Van de Werfhorst, Elffers and Karsten, 2015); on the other hand, education should be cost-effective. This economic focus has the consequence that socialisation gets less attention as an educational function (Van de Werfhorst, Elffers and Karsten, 2015; Inspectie van het Onderwijs, 2016b).

Changing the direction of the current education system is “a potential political dilemma,” according to Van de Werfhorst (2015, p.287). High learning attainment and skills development correlates with economic growth (Hanushek et al., 2008). School autonomy has been shown to affect student learning performance positively in developed and high-performing countries, as schools can use their resources efficiently to cater for the customised learning of each student (Hanushek, Link and Woessmann, 2013). However, less standardisation in favour of further autonomy of educational institutions, can adversely affect social equality in an education system with an early tracking system (Van de Werfhorst, Elffers and Karsten, 2015) and limited inter-institutional mobility. Alternative routes to HE are accessible, but there are questions as to whether the students who use them really get a fair chance (Herweijer and Turkenburg, 2016). Consequently, the level of the track followed in lower secondary education appears to have a strong influence upon the final educational level and career of Dutch citizens (Tolsma and Wolbers, 2010; CBS, 2016b).

After the Onderwijsraad (2014), recent findings from the Inspectorate of Education (Inspectie van het Onderwijs, 2016a, 2017), a study by De Beer and Van Pinxteren
(2016) as well as a report by Statistics Netherlands (CBS, 2016b) challenge the current education system and educational policy. They all show that Dutch society is not a meritocracy: an individual’s place in society is still determined by one’s ancestry and not one’s merit. The differences in the chances of children from higher-educated parents compared to non-higher-educated parents have been growing over recent years.

Summary
The Dutch education structure and key features were presented in this Subsection. The present education structure results in high student performance but also has implications both for the careers of young people and, therefore, for the structure of society. Not every Dutch citizen will end up at the educational level fitting his/her capacities, and the current education and policy continue to disadvantage children from lower-educated and non-native parents. The grounds to pursue the economic function of education have been explored to reveal the present political dilemma: pride in its internationally competitive results and fear about the consequences of a divided society. More school autonomy and less standardisation may have a positive impact on high learning attainment but could also fuel social inequality.

1.2.2 CEG in the Dutch education system

Career guidance refers to services and activities intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers (…) The activities may take place on an individual or group basis, and may be face-to-face or at a distance (including help lines and web-based services). They include career information provision (in print, ICT-based and other forms), assessment and self-assessment tools, counselling interviews, career education programmes (to help individuals develop their self-awareness, opportunity awareness, and career management skills), taster programmes (to sample options before choosing them), work search programmes, and transition services. (OECD, 2004, p.10)

The terms used for career guidance in the educational sector vary in the international literature and over the years, and are often used as broad synonyms (Barnes, Bassot and Chant, 2011; Hooley, Mariott and Sampson, 2011; Sultana, 2012). In the
Netherlands two terms are usual: LOB, the abbreviated term for ‘loopbaanoriëntatie en -begeleiding [career exploration and guidance]’ and ‘loopbaanleren [career learning]’, the latter specifically in VET. Throughout my thesis: where I refer to the individual’s management of his/her career, I will use the term career development; where I refer to the career guidance activities in the educational sector, I will use the term career education and guidance (CEG); where I refer to career guidance activities in general or outside the educational sector, I will use the term career guidance – cf. the OECD definition above – or careers work.

In this Subsection, career guidance policy in the Netherlands will be introduced. Features of the main structure of CEG in secondary education and its current position in the classroom will be analysed.

Career guidance policies
Career guidance in the Netherlands takes place in the educational system, in the public employment service (PES), by employers and unions and by private-sector organisations (Oomen, 2012b). The VET department of OCW coordinates Dutch career guidance policy, also on behalf of other Ministries.

In the 1990s, government initiated a national policy shift, which directly affected the private and public career guidance services that had existed since 1912 (Meijers, 2001; Oomen, 2013a). Gradually, between 1997 and 2000, their annual budget for career guidance was reduced (Oomen, Van Velzen and Petri, 2002). CEG in secondary education and MBO were given a high priority (OCW, 1991). Since 2000, individuals and/or educational institutions cannot rely on and consult independent, external professional expertise without paying.

Students will not meet with CEG at every stage of their school career. There are no such facilities in primary schools. Since 2000, the legal basis for CEG in secondary education, – and similarly MBO – is part of the block funding [lump sum] provided in the WVO (Wet op het Voortgezet Onderwijs [Secondary Education Act], 2000), Clause 86 (1.e) which states: “Block funding refers to the following components: (…) career education and guidance.” The statutory obligations to offer career guidance services in tertiary education are limited to keeping track of the BSA (bindend studieadvies [binding study advice]): the obliged number of credits students must obtain within the first academic year of HE. Due to the law ‘Wet Kwaliteit in
verscheidenheid hoger onderwijs’ [Act Quality in diversity of Higher Education] (2013) the focus of HBO and WO changed, as will be explained in Subsection 1.3.1, which became one of the reasons for initiating the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’.

Career guidance goals
Current Dutch policy perceives CEG as an important tool for reducing drop-out and study switches, developing interests and talents, improving labour market perspectives and promoting equal opportunities for lower-SES students (OCW, 2016b).

OCW future plans (2016b) include: (i) increasing the CEG professionalism of staff in secondary education and MBO by formulating their competence profiles with stakeholders and researching the current professionalism opportunities; (ii) inspecting CEG by the Inspectorate of Education as part of their inspection framework for secondary education and MBO as of August 2017; (iii) increasing co-operation in school-to-school transitions by establishing a sector-overarching, national CEG expertise centre; and (iv) improving occupational and study information provision by extending the exploration of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM), work in general, entrepreneurship and improving communication before and during transitions. OCW and stakeholders transformed the plans to the ‘Ambitie/Kwaliteitsagenda LOB [Ambition/Quality agenda CEG]’ for secondary education (OCW, 2017a) and MBO (OCW, 2017b).

Approach of CEG in curriculum
The dominant structure in Dutch secondary education is a subsumed programme: CEG is embedded in the ‘mentorlessen’ [tutor lessons] (Warps, 2013). In the first two or three years in secondary education, the mentor has a vital role, as the first person a student and parents are expected to turn to if they have a CEG-related question, while over time the career teacher takes over that role. With this shift, the approach of CEG changes from classroom-based to individual guidance and guidance integrated in subjects (Borghans et al., 2008).

Dutch schools mainly take an activity-based approach in CEG, in the sense of activities being disconnected from the school’s curriculum, led by a (computer-assisted) CEG method, which school staff wrongly assumes to be based on a careers theory. This approach is generally mixed with the guarantee of support for
individual career decisions by either the tutor or the career teacher (Borghans et al., 2008).

VMBO schools introduce CEG in year 2, while most HAVO and VWO schools introduce CEG in year 3 as students have to make a cluster choice. Curriculum time for CEG declines sharply in the years after this choice has been made (Borghans et al., 2008; Warps, 2013). On average, a HAVO/VWO school spent 16 hours in year 3 and 10 hours in all other years, which is on average no more than 1.5% of the total yearly curriculum time (Borghans et al., 2008).

Most students in secondary education express the opinion that time spent on CEG is insufficient (Schut, Kuijpers and Lamé, 2013). Two-third of these students expressed the need to have CEG more than once a month, while one-third expressed the need to have CEG three times a year or less. The need for CEG is significantly higher for students in the upper years of secondary education. Fifty percent of students are satisfied with the CEG offered at their secondary schools, while 15% are dissatisfied (ResearchNed, 2016).

LOB and career learning

Until 1995, the Dutch expression for CEG was ‘studie- en beroepskeuzebegeleiding [study and vocational guidance]’. In 1996 (Stuurgroep Profiel Tweede Fase Voortgezet Onderwijs), I introduced the term ‘LOB’ as part of the educational reform in HAVO and VWO. After 2003, the term ‘loopbaanleren [career learning]’ was introduced in Dutch VET. Nowadays both terms, CEG and career learning, are used, sometimes interchangeably. Students in both academic and vocational tracks are entitled to be prepared for their lifelong careers. However, their perspectives and their learning environments differ.

Career learning in VMBO and MBO

Students in the vocational track, VMBO and MBO, participate in a practical/skills-oriented learning environment. In VMBO they are being prepared to continue their studies in MBO. The MBO studies are based on the ‘qualification files’ for a certain group of limited professions: what students must know and can do at the end of their education. The world of work and the labour market are nearer compared to academic tracks for both the students and the teachers who guide them, especially the vocational-subject teachers.
The Dutch concept for career learning in VET has been developed by Meijers, inspired by Bill Law (Kuijpers and Meijers, 2008). Meijers argues that in career development, self-directing is the result of a learning process in which individuals learn to identify their central life values or themes and relate these to a professional role from which a work identity is created. A work identity is a part of the self that can be defined as a dynamic multitude of personal (as opposed to social and cultural) positions with respect to work. Work identity development is a learning process that is achieved through a dialogue with oneself (internal dialogue) and others (external dialogue) (Meijers, 2012).

Career learning requires a fundamental change in the pedagogical approach in VET from ‘teaching a craft, occupation’ to ‘facilitating the career development’ of students, requiring a powerful learning environment which is practice-based, demand-driven and combined with a dialogue about meaningful experiences and career choices to be made. Developing one’s own career is possible through the development of ‘loopbaancompetenties’ [career competencies] (Kuijpers and Meijers, 2008) or career management skills, abbreviated as CMS. Table 1 shows the CMS as introduced in the Dutch context by Kuijpers (2003), as part of career learning by Meijers (2012) in MBO, and as the core for the reform in VMBO since August 2016 (Vernieuwing VMBO [Renewal VMBO], 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reflecting on motives:</th>
<th>Investigating wishes and values important for a career.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflecting on qualities:</td>
<td>Investigating skills and aptitudes and interpreting them in terms of qualities and talents that can be used to achieve goals in learning and work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploring work:</td>
<td>Exploring work-related demands and values and the possibility of changing one’s work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing career:</td>
<td>Planning and influencing learning and working. This involves making well-considered decisions and taking action to match one’s work and learning to one’s personal work-related qualities, motives, and challenges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking:</td>
<td>Building and maintaining a group of professional contacts in the employment sector that is tailored specifically to one’s own career development.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


CEG in HAVO and VWO

Students in the academic tracks, HAVO and VWO, participate in an academic/cognitive-oriented learning environment, being prepared to continue their studies in HBO and WO. These studies may start with a narrow or broad bachelor’s degree in HE, but many options in study courses and thus occupations remain open to the students. The world of work and the labour market are far away, almost not
existing for both the students and the teachers who guide them in the secondary academic tracks.

The current CEG offered in HAVO and VWO emphasises the motives, ambitions, qualities and talents of students, with some attention to providing information on professions and HE; less emphasis is given to actions to explore themselves independently or with the help of the environment (Warps, 2013). Also, labour market information (LMI) and internships get less attention (Borghans et al., 2008). In the upper secondary years of HAVO and VWO the dominance of providing information and the matching concept (cf. Parsons, 1909; Holland 1997) can be observed as well as a lacking pedagogy to process the experiences that students gain (Oomen and Nierop, 2011). A powerful career-directed learning environment has not been considered viable for HAVO or VWO (Oomen, 2007), though CMS development as depicted in Table 1 is given some attention and the social learning career theory (Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1990; 1996) can be a valuable base.

**CEG’s state of play in the classroom**

Hooley et al. (2012) provide a taxonomy of school-based careers work. Almost all components and activities mentioned in this taxonomy are part of CEG in most secondary schools as shown in Table 2.

The explanation for the absence of components and activities in CEG in Dutch secondary education, as mentioned in the right side of Table 2, is as follows:

- Publishers restrict psychometric assessment tools to professionals like psychologists, who are not commonly staff members of regular secondary schools.

- Counselling has never been introduced in the Netherlands (Stern, 1992). However, career guidance is offered to individuals and small groups in secondary schools. Professional career services are sparingly purchased by schools as are career counselling/guidance by telephone or online.

- When Citizenship was introduced into the curriculum in 2007, OCW emphasised that it should not be mixed with CEG. Due to budget cuts, government abolished the social internship, part of Citizenship, as a requirement from the 2014-2015 school years (OCW, 2013c).

- In general, long-block timetabling is not favoured in secondary schools.
### Table 2: Components and activities in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information provision</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information provision</td>
<td>Information on further studies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Information on occupations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>A careers library</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Access to careers websites which include</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>labour market information (LMI)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Posters and displays</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career assessments and tests</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest inventories</td>
<td>Psychometric assessments</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Computer-assisted guidance systems</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Other career assessments</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional career counselling</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional career</td>
<td>Individual career counselling</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>counselling</td>
<td>Small-group career counselling</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Access to telephone</td>
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<td></td>
<td>career counselling</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Access to online career</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>counselling</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Careers advice by non-careers professional or para-professional</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Care support as part of a pastoral tutor system</td>
<td>Career advice delivered by someone other than a qualified careers professional: (semi-professionals) the career teacher, tutor and/or subject teacher</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Curriculum interventions</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career as a cross-curricular theme</td>
<td>Career learning embedded in other subjects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career learning embedded in other subjects</td>
<td>Separately timetabled careers lessons</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Project work</td>
<td>Online e-learning</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Further study learning / work-related learning</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning provider talks in-school (MBO)</td>
<td>Visits to MBO</td>
<td>Volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning provider talks in-school (HBO and WO)</td>
<td>Visits to HBO and WO</td>
<td>Employer talks</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work shadowing</td>
<td>Workplace visits</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other extra-curricular activities</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Careers fairs</td>
<td>Parental involvement</td>
<td>Games and competitions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentoring programmes</td>
<td>Inputs to assemblies</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Community/civic participation</td>
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</tbody>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frameworks for reflection</th>
<th>CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
<th>Not present in CEG in most Dutch secondary schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of portfolios and e-portfolios</td>
<td></td>
<td>Action planning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Personal development planning</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- Volunteering and part-time jobs are not perceived as part of CEG, either by students or school staff (Oomen, 2011). The same goes for the other activities under the headings of ‘Further study learning/work-related learning’ and ‘Other extra-curricular activities’. These activities are not mandatory, but very common in most secondary schools. Although they have the potential for such recognition,
these are not labelled as CEG, or reflected upon by the career teacher or the tutor.

- If action planning takes place, it will be part of the use of (e-)portfolios. Personal development planning is absent in secondary education, but common in MBO.

Added for Dutch CEG could be:

- The ‘sector/profielwerkstuk’ or ‘masterpiece’ in the upper years of VMBO, HAVO and VWO: a comprehensive paper on a topic of their chosen cluster, which may also involve the exploration of a study or occupation connected to the chosen subject.

Students’ needs for the various CEG activities have been found to differ across the academic years in secondary education (Schut, Kuijpers and Lamé, 2013). Structural CEG activities needed by Dutch secondary students from the first year onwards are: (i) parental involvement in CEG; (ii) progress portfolios; and (iii) conversations with their tutor.

**Effective CEG**

Based on an international literature review, Hughes *et al.* (2016) summarise the features of effective career education practice, which seem closely related to the Dutch career learning and CMS definitions: career reflection; career exploration and career action; networking; learning environment; career dialogue; and career conversations in the workplace.

Warps (2013) examined the impact of CEG among 14,049 first-year HE students enrolled in 2012-2013 to determine whether there was a correlation between on the one hand the offered CEG activities, and on the other hand their study success in the chosen programme. Based on what these students reported, he concluded that activities and emphases in Dutch CEG that relate to a successful choice of study in HE are (Warps, 2013, p.3):

- an early start to CEG;
- multiple individual interviews throughout the years;
- general information on HE, study finance, courses and careers with, e.g. invited guest speakers;
- parental involvement, at least by offering an information meeting;
- obliging students to explain explicitly their choice of study motivation in their final years of HAVO/VWO;
- paying attention to follow-up actions that students can take to continue exploration independently.

Warps calculated that the difference between offering one or more of these seven CEG components, made several percentage differences in HE failure rates. A student receiving none of the seven CEG components had a failure chance of 45%; with four out of the seven CEG components, as most students did, 25%; and with all seven components, 20%. So, the more CEG activities, the more gain: by composing a well-considered package of multiple CEG activities, it is possible to reduce almost one-third of the regular failure rates in HE (Warps, 2013).

It is remarkable that it is only in Warps’ research that parental involvement as part of CEG can be found. It is not mentioned in the literature on career learning, it hardly gets attention in the taxonomy of school-based careers work (Table 2), nor is it a feature of an effective career education practice in the recent literature review of Hughes et al. (2016). Does this mean that both in the body of knowledge and practice of CEG, parental involvement in CEG is rare, or merely is not given explicit attention?

A core element of the PhD study undertaken here is to look at the learning carried out into parental involvement in general and how that can be applied to the CEG field. The next Subsection explores the current state of play in parental involvement in the Netherlands. As we will see in the literature review in Chapter 2, there is some theory and practice to draw upon.

Summary
Since 2000, the only public career guidance for students in Dutch compulsory education has been provided by schools which are required to deliver CEG without any further guidelines. Recent governmental plans include: increasing CEG professionalism of staff; inspecting CEG by Inspectorate of Education; increasing co-operation in school-to-school transitions; and improving information and communication provisions.
Secondary schools start CEG in the second or third year, embedded in the 'mentorlessen' provided by the tutor. Most CEG time is devoted to preparing for the cluster choice. After this choice has been made, the time for CEG is reduced and a shift takes place to individual guidance by the career teacher or to unmanaged integration into subjects. In VMBO and MBO, cross-curricular 'career learning', takes place in a powerful learning environment, which is practice-based, demand driven and combined with a dialogue about meaningful experiences and career choices to be made. The development of CMS in HAVO and VWO is possible, although the suggested powerful career-directed learning environment will not be found there.

CEG’s state of play in the classroom includes most components and activities of a taxonomy of school-based careers work. Features of effective career education practice substantially coincide with the targeted practice in VMBO and MBO. Dutch research has identified parental involvement in CEG as one of the activities in HAVO and VWO that contribute to lower drop-out in HE. The effectiveness of the education system can be improved by a more conscious CEG programme in HAVO and VWO.

1.2.3 Parental involvement in the Dutch education system

In the Netherlands, a distinction is drawn between parental involvement and parent participation (Onderwijsraad, 2010).

- **Parental involvement** means the (emotional) commitment to their child’s development, to the school and to the teacher. Parents show interest, create conditions for doing homework and provide homework assistance and supervision if necessary. At school, they visit the parent-teacher meeting and show respect for the teacher. So, parental involvement occurs mainly at home, but partly at school (De Vries, 2007).

- **Parental participation** is defined as the active participation of parents in school activities. A distinction is made between non-institutionalised forms of parental participation (such as providing a helping hand), and institutionalised forms of parent participation (such as being a member of the parent council, participation council or school board) (Smit et al., 2007).

Since 1981, parental participation at Dutch schools has been regulated by the Act on participation in education, WMS (Wet medezeggenschap scholen) (Onderwijsraad, 2010, p.18). The Onderwijsraad (2010) argued that the main parent-school
relationship as determined by government policy was judicial in rights and obligations by nature and did not go beyond giving parents a say, informing them and allowing parents as helping hands. The Onderwijsraad advocated a change: to focus more on ‘educational partnership’ of school and parents. However, in 2018 parents (and students) in secondary education are still not in the position to have their say, as schools have difficulties in how to start such initiatives and how to embed them in the school organisation, to which can be added that most initiatives are fragmented and considered as something on top of the daily school routine (VO-raad Monitoringscommissie Goed Bestuur VO [Good Governance Monitoring Committee VO], 2018).

A large majority of the parents in primary and secondary education consider that Dutch schools are doing (more than) enough in parental involvement. (Herweijer and Vogels, 2013a). Primary school parents experienced ‘being informed’ – to be understood as formal, preferably in writing, communication – plus the effort of the school to start and maintain relations with them as parents and the wider environment such as e.g. the parent council and the participation council. However, secondary school parents only experienced ‘being informed’ (Heldoorn et al., 2011, p.9) and seven out of ten Dutch parents do not feel well informed in general (Herweijer and Vogels, 2013b).

Because of the political focus on high learning performance and efficiency, parental involvement policy was stepped up in 2011 and included CEG. The relevance of looking at parental involvement in CEG in the Netherlands came from the recommendation by the Onderwijsraad (2010, p.9) to encourage further development “of the ways in which parents can play a role in aspects such as preventing early school-leaving, supporting the education process (e.g. when choosing or continuing a programme of study),” which was adopted explicitly for secondary education by OCW (2011b). In 2013, OCW restated their policy, saying: “Commitment to the entire process of career orientation and guidance and the involvement of the home front makes a significant contribution to the prevention of absenteeism and dropout” (OCW, 2013b, p.5). The assumption in this policy is supported by a UK study in which McCulloch (2014) found that both the amount of advice on HE that an individual had received from all sources, including parents, and their satisfaction with
the CEG received were correlated with reduced likelihood of dropping out. The Dutch findings by Warps (2013) also point in this direction.

From a study by Klaassen, Vreugdenhil and Boonk (2011), it is known that Dutch parents want to be partners with the school in the career development of their child and to share responsibility, seeing the teamwork of parent-school-child as desirable. Plus, the parents involved in their research felt that at this point “improvement could and should be the case” (Klaassen, Vreugdenhil and Boonk, 2011, p.29).

Warps (2013) found among 14,049 first year HE students enrolled in 2012-2013 that about one-third of HAVO (34%) and VWO (32%) schools had not involved parents in CEG at all. As these students reported, nearly two-thirds of HAVO and VWO schools did invite parents for an information-centred session (56% and 59% respectively); 18% of HAVO schools and 17% of VWO schools explained to parents how they could help their child in the choices to be made; only 8% of parents were actively involved as ‘guest speakers’ in HAVO/VWO schools.

This explains another core purpose of this PhD study, which is to contribute to knowledge and practice in the development of the capacity of secondary schools to handle parental involvement in CEG.

Summary
Dutch primary schools invest more in parental involvement than secondary schools. The economic focus in the educational system has made government draw attention to parental involvement in CEG in secondary education. Current practice needs improvement, according to parents in secondary education.

1.3 The ‘Parents Turn’ project
The three main reasons for launching the ‘Parents Turn’ career intervention are presented in this Subsection, preceded by an explanation of my roles in the ‘Parents Turn’ project. A review of the design and delivery of the ‘Parents Turn’ career intervention finishes this Subsection.

1.3.1 My role in the ‘Parents Turn’ project
As an employee of APS/Algemeen Pedagogisch Studiecentrum [National Centre for School Improvement], I applied for a research and development (R&D) project at the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Sciences for the academic year 2012-2013.
In the application of the ‘Parents Turn’ project, I presented the ‘problems’ as depicted in Subsection 1.3.2, arguing that both parents and students needed to be made aware of the implications of the changes in HE admission, and that this offered an opportunity for secondary schools to develop ‘educational partnership’ and to involve parents more in CEG. Here, involvement is understood as supporting parents in their role in the career development of their child.

Given considerations of cost and time (the R&D project was applied for in April and supposed to be finished by the end of December 2012, due to Ministerial regulations), the researchers and the initial funder, OCW, deemed six experimental schools and two control school sufficient to evaluate the effects of such a programme. Three schools were to pilot the career intervention in the third year of HAVO, and three schools to do so in the fifth and final year of HAVO. The two control schools should be one for the third year and one for the fifth year of HAVO. The choice of the specific HAVO track in the project was made as HAVO students tend to switch mostly in HE (Subsection 1.3.2) and as the findings of the study were considered generalisable to the VWO track.

I organised the purposive sampling of the six experimental and two control schools in the project at the national level. I organised an external partner, YoungWorks/BMC, to co-design the original evaluation and execute the quantitative research, while I took the role as qualitative researcher in the project.

Between June and September 2012 as a CEG expert, I had the lead in the co-creation of the ‘Parents Turn’ career intervention, together with the six career teachers from the experimental schools (further elaborated in Subsection 1.3.3 and Table 3). In four day-sessions with the six career teachers, the results of the needs analysis among the parents of the experimental schools were discussed, the objectives were set and the outline and scripts for each of the four sessions of the career intervention were drafted.

After the execution of each session, each career teacher sent in a colour-coded script, indicating what part of the script had not been executed in their school, what had been added during the session, what needed to be done differently a next time, and additional evaluative observations. These evaluations served as the reflective base for the monthly ‘critical incident analysis’ sessions with the career teachers.
between September and December 2012. During these sessions, oral report self-evaluation by each career teacher took place, followed by sharing common experiences and by discussing issues based on researcher's analyses of their individually handed-in colour-coded scripts after executing each career intervention session. These sessions, in which I as researcher was first-hand witness, were recorded in writing by me and verified by each career teacher. I ended this inquiry with a 30-minute, individual, in-depth, standardised but open-ended interview (Johnson and Christensen, 2014) with the career teachers, after the career intervention.

The career teachers, believed to be the most directly affected by the changes in their practice caused by ‘Parents Turn’, were involved by me all the way through the original evaluation (Subsection 3.2.5).

**Summary**

In the ‘Parents Turn’ project, I was a major stakeholder with many roles. These consisted of: initiating and coordinating the project, co-designing the career intervention, coordinating the original evaluation and performing as a qualitative researcher in it.

**1.3.2 Reasons for the parent-involved career intervention**

**Participation and ‘first generation’ HE students in higher education**

Participation in Dutch HE has grown in recent decades. In 2012, 34.4% of 25-64-year-olds were tertiary-educated compared with 30.8% in 2000 (OECD, 2015). In 2013, the Netherlands had already surpassed the benchmark of 40% that was set in the strategic framework for European co-operation in education and training, *Education and Training 2020* (ET2020), for the share of tertiary graduates in the 30-40 age bracket with 43.1% (European Commission, 2014) and a forecast of 45% in 2020 (Neth-ER, 2013).

Important generational changes in access to HE have happened in almost all OECD countries (Sweet and Watts, 2006). In 2003, in the Netherlands, there were almost one-third more HE qualified students among 25-34-year-olds compared with their parents’ generation who are now the 55-64-year-olds (Sweet and Watts, 2006). Figure 3 shows the percentages of ‘first-generation’ HE students enrolling in the first year of HE, distinguished by HBO and WO (Subsection 1.2.1) between 2009 and
2015. Almost half of the students accessing HBO and around 30% entering WO are ‘first-generation’ HE students.

**Figure 3: The percentage of ‘first-generation’ higher education students enrolled in first-year higher education (2009-2015)**

![Graph showing percentage of first-generation higher education students enrolled in HBO, WO, and HE from 2009 to 2015.]

- HBO Professional higher education
- WO Academic higher education
- HE

Source: Van den Broek et al., 2016, p.48.

**Announced changes in HE enrolment**

On average, 30% of students in the first year of HBO and 25% of students in the first year of WO have left their chosen course and either dropped out or switched courses (OCW, 2011a). Half of these students (51%) reported that they had made ‘a wrong choice’ (ROA, 2008; Warps et al., 2009).

Among the 2011 cohort, 16% of HBO students dropped out in the first year, especially former MBO students (23%). Former HAVO students switched most often among those who continued their study (27%). Only 34% of HBO students had no delay in their study. In the same cohort, 6% of WO students dropped out in the first year while only 28% completed their bachelor’s degree within the standard time (Onderwijsraad, 2014).

In 2011, OCW announced changes in HE from August 2014 to improve efficiency, with major implications in the enrolment from secondary school to HE. Until that date, students had a right of admission to HE studies with a diploma of secondary education (in the case of a HAVO diploma only to HBO: a university of
applied sciences) and registration for HE was organised centrally, based on the cumulative grade point average of the student.

From August 2014, there has been decentralised selection, which means that the HE institutions have carried out a study choice review with every student before entering the study programme to determine whether they are sufficiently motivated to enrol (OCW, 2011a). This study choice review can be for instance an on-line questionnaire or an interview. Henceforth, studies with a so-called fixed quota (i.e. where there is a maximum number of students who can be admitted each year because the interest is greater than the number of places) have selected all students themselves with self-chosen selection methods (OCW, 2011a).

The registration deadline for students has been brought forward to 1st May (OCW, 2011a). The BSA at the end of the first year of HE, obliging the student to attain a certain number of credits within the academic year, can be extended to the second and later years (OCW, 2011a). Furthermore, government announced a change to the scholarship system in a social loan scheme which, after prolonged political discussions, became effective in August 2015: ‘Wet Studievoorschot hoger onderwijs’ [Act study advance payment higher education] (2015).


The announced changes in HE have consequences for the current and future career choices of students to be made in and during HAVO and VWO, such as the new importance of the marks in the penultimate exam year, and accordingly for the content of and procedures in CEG in these academic tracks from August 2012.

Government policy to involve parents in CEG in secondary education.

In 2011, OCW (2011b) encouraged ‘educational partnerships’ of schools and parents and stimulated secondary schools to involve parents in their mandatory CEG to prevent school drop-out and absenteeism. Schools remain autonomous in setting their objectives, content and organisation of CEG in this as in other respects. In Dutch secondary schools, parental involvement in CEG is in its infancy with the role for parents usually limited to receiving information (Klaassen, Vreugdenhil and
Boonk, 2011). Lockhorst and Weijers (2012) stated that the number of (awareness) activities for parents in secondary schools had increased since 2010; however, parents were barely involved in CEG. As I observed nationally in 2012 (Oomen, 2012a), schools sometimes reproduced ‘good practice’, for instance by inviting parents to tell about their occupations. But ‘educational partnership’, as promoted, was not observable in CEG.

Summary

The career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ has been designed as a programme to involve parents together with their child in CEG in HAVO, prompted by: the increased number of ‘first-generation’ students in Dutch HE; the tightening Dutch policy on admission to HE as of 2014; and the limited practice and the lack of ideas and examples relating to parental involvement in CEG.

1.3.3 The design and execution of the ‘Parents Turn’ career-intervention

With OCW, I decided that the nature of the intervention would be that of a learning activity for the parents. This is different compared to the traditional information-centred meetings for parents.

Learning can be defined as:

…the creation or establishment, by means of selecting, capturing, processing, integrating, recording and using of and giving meaning to information by individuals, groups or (sub) organisations, of relatively sustainable changes in knowledge, attitude and skills and/or in the ability to learn. These changes result – provided the conditions for this are present – in changes in work processes and results with individuals, groups and/or the (sub-)organisation (Simons, 2014).

The responses to the question whether adults learn differently compared to youngsters are controversial. Scientifically, the question cannot be answered as that research has not been done (Simons, 1991). The notion of Andragogy is often linked to adult education and learning as asserted by Knowles (1980, 1984). In the literature, features of the learning and the teaching of adults are mostly based on data from experiences in adult education and training in a work context. It seems, it is not so much the learning of adults that is different from the learning of young people,
but their learning motivation which again may differ for diverse types of adult learners as for instance lower-and higher-educated, or participation based on own initiative or steered by an organisation. Commonly accepted key features are that adults: are selective in their perception; do have much and very differing experiences, organised around life and work; want to be involved in decisions on the learning goals of a learning event and how these will be achieved; prefer interactive methods, and value the direct relationship with and transfer of ‘the learning’ to daily practice in e.g. life (Knowles, Holton III and Swanson, 2012; Simons, 1991).

Kolb’s adult learning styles theory (1984) assumes that four phases can be distinguished in how persons learn in the sense of the definition above: concrete experience, observation of and reflection on that experience, formation of abstract concepts based upon the reflection, testing the new concepts, repeat. The spiral of learning can begin with any one of the four elements, but typically begins with a concrete experience.

The programme design was influenced by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick’s (2006, p. 3) approach which sets out that learning programmes presented to adult learners should include the following features:

i. determining needs; ii. setting objectives; iii. determining subject content; iv. selecting participants; v. determining the best schedule; vi. selecting appropriate facilities; vii. selecting appropriate instructors; viii. selecting and preparing audio-visual aids; ix. coordinating the programme and x. evaluating the programme.

Knowles’ principles can be recognised in two new applicable requirements that were added by the Kirkpatrick Partners (2009-2015): xi. ‘engagement’ by involving participants actively and have them contributing to the learning experience; and xii. ‘relevance’ by providing participants with the opportunity to use and apply their insights ‘on the spot’. Table 3 assesses all 12 requirements that were applied in designing and executing ‘Parents Turn’ as an effective programme aiming at learning. The left-side column indicates the specific learning requirement, the response to which is described in the right-hand column.
### Table 3: Learning requirements ‘i. determining needs’ through to ‘xii. relevance’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| i. Determining needs | Based on a needs analysis (Appendix 1) (requirement i), objectives were set for the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ (requirement ii). The objectives were the following:  
A. To be up-to-date and well-informed about various subject clusters, HE possibilities, financial consequences, the labour market, information resources and the child’s own possibilities regarding subject clusters and HE possibilities.  
B. To be able as a parent to make considered career decisions with their child and be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process.  
C. To be able as a parent and student to make considered career decisions in co-operation with the school. |
| ii. Setting objectives |  |
| iii. Determining subject content | Under the supervision of the researcher and in co-operation with the career teachers of six schools a preparation took place which served the purposes of:  
- Determining the subject content (requirement iii) of the career intervention, audio-visual aids (PowerPoint/Prezi-presentations), internet resources, the selection and preparation of summarising handouts with references and effective techniques (requirement viii).  
- Determining the pedagogy of the career intervention, briefings from needs analysis, (un-)asked feedback, setting clear cut roles for school staff, parent and child, facilitating the discussion between parent and child, balancing plenary sessions, various small groups work, pairs work (requirement xii), interactive and involving parents, older students and alumni as role models (requirement xi).  
- Preparing the career teachers – who met the inclusion criteria for the project – (requirement vii) as coordinator (requirement ix), instructor and leader of the career intervention in the school. The outcomes of this particular preparation were:  
- Four designed and elaborated career intervention sessions called ‘Parents Turn’, ready to be executed.  
- A career teacher prepared to execute and lead the four sessions with parents and their child.  
- Insights into the conditions at school level for the achievement of four joint sessions for the parents and their child.  
- Coordinating the programme at national/project level and school level (requirement ix), the latter by the script guiding the sessions and feedback sessions.  
- Assuring evaluation of the satisfaction of participants with the career intervention and each session at the school (requirement x), impact |
| viii. Selecting and preparing audio-visual aids |  |
| xii. Relevance |  |
| xi. Engagement |  |
| viii. Selecting appropriate instructors |  |
| ix. Coordinating the programme |  |
| x. Evaluating the programme |  |
measurement by 0- and 1-measurements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>iv. Selecting participants</th>
<th>Requirements considered appropriate for decisions at each school: iv. selecting participants; v. determining the best schedule and vi. selecting appropriate facilities.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The career teachers of the experimental schools ‘selected’ participants (requirement iv) by inviting parents of the academic year concerned to take part voluntarily in the career intervention and to attend four successive sessions between September 2012 and January 2013. This invitation took place by mail and/or with a short oral presentation on the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ by the career teacher at a regular plenary parents’ evening at the start of the academic year in September 2012. Parents accompanied by their children could register for the intervention voluntarily with the career teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. Determining the best schedule</td>
<td>The researcher and the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science decided the schedule of monthly sessions (requirement v) between September 2012 and January 2013. The best schedule for each monthly session of 2.5 hours was decided by each school. The sessions started after the lessons during the week, mostly at 19:00 hours with a coffee break, ending at 22:00 hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi. Selecting appropriate facilities</td>
<td>All experimental schools used the assembly hall of their school as the most appropriate facility, arranged tables for eight persons maximum to facilitate small group work and seats for tutors at the back of the hall. In the script of each session it was indicated which (technical) facilities, supplies, space-requirements and catering were needed (requirement vi).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary**

In designing and developing the career intervention, the twelve requirements of an effective learning programme (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick Partners, 2009-2015) were used.

**1.3.4 Narrative account of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’**

In this Subsection, I present what happened in each session of ‘Parents Turn’. I present this as a narrative, to provide the reader with a sense of the atmosphere in which the career intervention ensued. The impression will be added to by observations and reactions from school staff as reported by the career teachers at feedback sessions: this information includes the specific group (E3/E5), school (1/2/3) (Subsection 1.7.1 and Table 9), and the date of the feedback session.
First session
After the lessons, usually around 7:00 pm, one parent and their child entered the assembly hall of their school. Here they were welcomed by a tutor or career teacher and asked to sit down together at one of the tables next to two or three sets of parents and/or students they knew.

The head of department, in front of the assembly hall, welcomed the students “who are going to make an important choice in a few months” and their parents “who have come to be better able to support their child in the choices to be made.” Teacher colleagues were welcomed – and stood up from their seats in the back of the hall when their name was mentioned: tutor A, tutor B and the career teacher C, “because they also play an important role in the career choice process in front of us.” Finally, the head of department introduced him/herself. Then, using a PowerPoint with a few slides, the head of department or the career teacher introduced the career intervention by emphasising the importance of the role of parents in the career process of children as revealed in recent Dutch research. The highlights of the needs analysis among the parents of the school were presented, connected to the programme of the four successive monthly sessions of the proposed career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ at the school and the objectives and programme for this evening. Questions and feedback by parents and students were welcomed all the time with each member of the school staff present or they could be written on ‘the silent wall’ which was available every evening and was reacted to at the next session, with responses possibly programmed into one of the sessions. An ice-breaker, for instance a picture with the question “What does this person wants to be when (s)he grows up?” helped the parents and students at each table to start talking to each other.

Then, the career teacher showed a slide with five people and a short sentence explaining the possible roles a tutor/career teacher could have: ‘informer’, ‘source of information’, ‘sounding board’, ‘in tow’, ‘question mark: ?’ and asked the audience to discuss for 10 minutes at their table which of these roles parents perceived as the role of the tutor/career teacher in their co-operation with the school. Students were asked to give their opinion at their table in the last four minutes. After which a lively discussion started and, if not, it was helped on its way by one of the tutors – care was taken to avoid parents starting to talk with the tutor. In a quick plenary session, ‘votes’
for each role were counted by show of hands and for each role one parent and one student were asked for their arguments. With the ‘question mark: ?’ other roles could be mentioned and argued. This was followed by the question to discuss at the table: which of these roles parents perceived for themselves in the career process of the student and, for the students, how they perceived the current role of their parent. At one experimental school the career teacher showed the same slide, put the same question, and then asked parents to stand up with each role mentioned to show their preference, with one parent being invited to provide arguments for this specific role; after which the students in a next round were asked to do the same.

After this, the career teacher explained that this exercise was providing the school with a clearer picture of what parents and students expected from school staff in cooperating in the career choice process.

The career teacher presented with slides the proactive aim of CEG as offered by the school, the main elements/approaches used, e.g. method, tests, visits to HE, individual conversation and the involvement of tutor, subject teacher and career teacher in the CEG programme of this year. The career teacher explained how school staff could be contacted, but also that the time and competences of school staff to provide support and guidance were limited. S/he explained that parents’ conceivable and legitimate demand for tailor-made career services and extensive tests for their child were available outside the school (links were provided for the national careers website, and the specialised website for students with handicaps) at additional costs. The cliff-hanger, before the coffee break, on a slide was: “What the school perceives and expects of the role of the parent(s) is to be a conversation partner with your child.”

After the break, starting with the previous slide, the career teacher or a guest-speaker emphasised the influences of parents as found in research, presented why it was important that parents talk with their child and encourage their active career exploration (for instance: expand and broaden horizons; provide a reality check; prevent switching and drop-out; increase self-confidence; communicate the value of education) and with a short note on attitude: the intention of parents to support their child in their child’s objectives, to learn how to take up the exploration, not to take over, and to stay positive and be encouraging when the child is meeting difficulties.
It was explained that the ice-breaker question “What will you be when you grow up?” was too big a question. Four simple steps to start a career conversation were introduced by the career teacher, inspired by *Inside Jobs* (no date), as a recurring theme for the four sessions of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’.

Parents and students together were instructed to practise the first step and to ‘use a dream as a starting point’. Parents received a different coloured envelope with two previously unseen questions. Each parent picked one question to put to their son or daughter, listened very carefully to their answer and asked follow-up questions, refraining from comments or opinions, to find out as much as possible in five minutes.

Then the parent and child pair sat down at the table with the colour of the envelope, with one member of staff facilitating the discussion that followed during 15 minutes on the question to the students at the table: “What does this question do for you?” “Does this question help you to think about and get ideas about your career?” If there was time, parents were asked to answer the same questions and to discuss the differences and similarities they noticed between their own and the students’ answers. In the plenary, the facilitators brought forward the highlights from each table.

Reactions and observations included:

The parent-child conversations were intense, as far as we could observe. (Career teacher, E3, school 2, 11 October 2012)

Those conversations are the most beautiful moment of the evening. (Career teacher, E5, school 1, 11 October 2012)

The first evening, telling about the dream was revealing for both child and parents. (Career teacher, E3, school 1, 6 December 2012)

After presenting do’s for parents (for instance: be positive; talk with your child about their career dreams; talk about your own career; provide feedback on interests, skills and strengths; encourage active exploration; encourage progression into HE; keep talking to your child), parents and students once more were invited to provide questions that came up during this sessions and/or feedback and were introduced to the next session programme, e.g. with a picture and the question (YoungWorks, 2011): “What do these four occupations (vertical garden architect; weather
modification manager; organ developer; financial computing translator) have in common?"

Some career teachers evaluated by asking specifically in the plenary for ‘Tips and Tops’. In other schools that ran the career intervention ‘Parent Turn’, the career teachers refrained from evaluating the evening, but referred to ‘the silent wall’ and ended the evening at 22:00 with informal conversations with parents, students and tutors who stayed for some time.

Reactions and observations included:
There were no questions noted on ‘the silent wall’, which makes me think. (Career teacher, E3, school 2, 11 October 2012)

Tutors were surprised: “Why do they talk here and not at home?” Parents said: “Here we have time at least.” “At home, there is not time, or the television must be on.” “Here the student has to conform: everybody talks with his father or mother.” (Career teachers on tutors and parents, 15 November 2012)

Wow, how nice! We see the relevance of this. (Tutors according to career teacher, E3, school 2, 6 December 2012)

“Too much talking, more doing please.” “Nice approach.” “A good evening, learned a lot.” “Nice to do it together with my child.” “Does meet a need and is useful.” (Parents according to career teacher, E3, school 3, 15 November 2012)

Maybe this form of educational partnership requires more of the parents and the child than from the facilitators. The session brought the parent and the child very close together. Many do not talk often or ever. A gauging of each other’s uncertainty among parent and child is taking place. (Parents observed by career teacher, E3, school 2, 6 December 2012)

Students said: “It was nice” and were greeting the career teacher in the corridor ever since. (E5, school 2, 6 December 2012)

Second session
At the second session of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’, with a similar time schedule and room arrangement, the career teacher welcomed the parents and
children and presented the objectives and programme for this evening. Any changes in the programme of the four planned sessions of the career intervention, due to feedback and requests from the first evening, were communicated.

With slides, careers of role models (national politicians, well-known former students or fellow citizens) were presented by the career teacher, highlighting the increase in non-linear over linear careers. By show of hands, stock was taken of parents present who were still in the same profession as they were trained for initially. What was emphasised was the importance but also the relativity of the choices students have to make soon in a career perspective. The career teacher went into the need for post-secondary education qualifications and the need for continuing training (lifelong learning) in today’s society.

Parents were invited to address step two of the four simple steps to start a career conversation: ‘tell your career story’ in a ‘speed date’ answering the questions of students. Students were provided with a hand-out with five questions that they were supposed to pose at least at the speed date: What does your day-to-day job involve? What decisions led to your career? Are there any choices you might like to turn back or choices that really paid off? What did you like most or least about the jobs you have had? Which trends and developments do you foresee in your job over the next five years? Parents would stand at a table individually or would sit down at a table with two or three other parents: students would come by. Every eight minutes a sound indicated that the ongoing discussion should be stopped, and a new question should be posed by another student to another parent.

Students and parents then returned to their initial table where the parents now would have the role of ‘listener’. For 10 minutes, and facilitated by a tutor, only students discussed their findings on the following topics: What is a career? Which trends and developments are there in society? What qualities and interests are needed in the future? From this it was intended that students would understand that a career does not always proceed as planned, and that societal trends and developments are issues to consider as well as the individual’s qualities and interests.

Reactions and observations included:
We were very surprised that parents and students talked with each other, again and again. (Career teachers, 6 December 2012)
The second evening the students were more enthusiastic and parents more interested. (Career teacher, E5, school 1, 6 December 2012)

Before the break, the career teacher re-showed the slide with the picture and the question “What do these four occupations (vertical garden architect; weather modification manager; organ developer; financial computing translator) have in common?” enlightening the participants that many of the occupations students will work in one day are not known yet.

After the break, parents and students returned to the assembly hall where the career teacher introduced step three of the four simple steps to start a career conversation: ‘discover interests and strengths’. Using the slide ‘I want to fly a helicopter, not look at a bunch of crazy dials’ (Kuhtz, 2004), the importance of in-depth exploring was emphasised. The many ways in which interests and strengths can be identified, from brainstorming to taking a test, were introduced.

Three simple but slightly different questions were posed: “If you had your own TV programme, what would it be about?” “Ideally, what would your work spot look like?” “Fill out the blank: when my friends need help with … they come to me.” Each parent picked one question to put to their son or daughter, listened very carefully to their answer and asked follow-up questions, refraining from comments or opinions, to find out as much as possible in five minutes.

Parents and students were introduced to how students explored their interests and strengths as part of the school’s CEG programme for this year. One way of doing that was using a test. Quality criteria and limitations of tests were highlighted and some links to reliable tests on the internet were introduced and briefly demonstrated. Some of the schools had the students having filled out a test in the CEG programme, while other schools had the students go with their tutor to a separate room during this second session to fill out an interest test online, while parents were introduced to the test their child was filling out. After the students had returned, basic understanding of the structure and layout of the test result page was provided, as was a hand-out with ten questions to discuss by the parent-child pair in the space of 20 minutes: What did you experience doing the test? How did you do it? In which dimensions is your score high compared to others/is low compared to others? Can you explain that, for instance, with some examples of the questions in the test? Is there a score you
wonder about? Which of the course possibilities indicated by the test programme makes you curious? Which would you click first, which second, which third? Which not at all? What does this result mean to you? What questions do you have now after we have discussed the result? What do you want to explore? and How are you going to do that?

Another school running the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ had both students and parents filling out the same online test independently, while parents filled out the test as they would expect their child would do. Parents and child then gathered to compare their results and discuss the differences in their results, providing each other with feedback.

Specifically asking for feedback by ‘thumbs up, thumbs down’ while going through the programme of the evening, career teachers evaluated the second session. In other schools that ran the career intervention ‘Parent Turn’ the career teachers refrained from evaluating the evening but referred to ‘the silent wall’ and ended the evening at 22:00 with informal conversations with parents, students and tutors, some of whom stayed for some time.

Reactions and observations included:
On such a night, something happens in front of you. Parents and students are talking with each other. They really talk with each other. (Career teachers, 15 November 2012)

People reacted positively, both students and parents and were seriously involved. It really gives a kick and is rewarding: you have to offer something. (Career teacher, E3, school 1, 6 December 2012)

Third session
The time and room arrangements were the same for the third session. The career teacher welcomed the parents and students, presented and introduced the objectives and programme for the evening, adapted if requested by feedback from the previous sessions.

With slides summing up why making a choice is difficult and the dilemma in making a choice at the end of the third year (cluster choice and optional subjects) or fifth year (study in HE or alternatives) was introduced: do you play safe or are you prepared to
take a risk? This was followed by a presentation with information, tailored to the upcoming choice to be made: the main structure of the clusters and optional subjects, of which some will be new; the main structure of HE; requirements for study at HE level; alternatives to immediate HE study, for instance a gap year. For both third- and fifth-year parents and students, the current developments in HE (broad minors, earlier registration and study choice review, additional enrolment requirements, BSA at the end of the first year) and its major consequences for them were presented.

Reaction and observation included:
Parents appreciate that you are in front of the group, that you give information and that they can ask questions. You are accessible, and they learn new things like the conversation with their child. (Career teacher, E5, school 3, 6 December 2012)

While some schools presented the next programme as part of a plenary, other schools chose to present it in classrooms with a tutor facilitating. Older or former students introduced themselves and the choices they had made in relation to clusters or study in HE; shared their experiences, positive as well as negative; discussed expected and experienced differences between lower and secondary level or between secondary education and HE; and how they made their choices. Parents and students could put questions. Before the break, each of the older or former students was asked for their advice how to make the upcoming choice.

Some schools running the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ for the third year continued the second part of the evening with ‘new subject’ presentations by teachers and some information on the differences in content and approach of existing subjects between lower and secondary level. Other schools offered this information in a general evening for all parents including those not involved in the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’.

Reactions and observations included:
While walking around the classrooms I noticed the enthusiasm of the older students presenting. During the break, various participants in the career intervention indicated they learned a lot of the discussions that went on. It must have been very tiresome for the children: some of them I really saw
struggling with the information they got. (Career teacher, E3, school 2, 6 December 2012)

I tried to separate the parents and children for the different subject presentations, but here it soon became clear to me that they do these sessions really together and I stopped trying to separate them. (Tutor according to career teacher, E3, school 2, 6 December 2012)

After the break parents and students returned to the assembly hall to be introduced to the fourth step: ‘use a career exploration site’. The career teacher would briefly demonstrate where, via the school website or a national website, general information on clusters and HE could be found, plus labour market information and ratings of the quality of HE courses and institutions. Using their three preferred study options, over the next 45 minutes parents and their child sat down together at a computer with a hand-out that would lead them from the school website through the steps of: login; finding HE institutions; finding an HE course of study; comparing courses and institutions on quality; LMI; studying abroad; and open days. Tutors and career teacher would assist parents and students if necessary.

During the plenary, parents and students were asked about the questions for which they had not found answers. Newspapers, taster days and open-days at HE institutions for students accompanied by their parents were encouraged as further means of getting answers to some of the questions posed, as well as conversations with older students. A hand-out with useful questions when attending open-days was provided.

The career teachers refrained from evaluating the evening but referred to ‘the silent wall’ and ended the evening at 22:00 with informal conversations with parents, students, tutors and the older-students, some of whom stayed again for some time.

Reactions and observations included:
In the third session, it was clear it had become their thing: the bond wrought between parent and child. (Parents observed by career teacher, E3, school 2, 6 December 2012)

Tutors are very enthusiastic, they like to help, offer help and immerse themselves beforehand. (Career teacher, E3, school 1, 6 December 2012)
Formerly, the parents’ evenings were about information, now the core of it is how you deal with information. (Career teacher, E5, school 2, 6 December 2012)

Fourth session
The time and room arrangements were the same for the fourth and final session. The career teacher welcomed the parents and students, presented and introduced the objectives and programme for this last session of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’.

The career teacher introduced the parents and students to a national website (NIBUD/Nationaal Instituut voor Budgetvoorlichting [Dutch National Institute for Family Finance Information] which provides information on costs and a budget tool related to study in HE. One or more guest speakers from the regional service office of DUO (Dienst Uitvoering Onderwijs [Office Executive for Education]) were introduced, who explained financial aspects and procedures for study loans, using one or two cases-studies, before the break. Also, issues with studying in another town (travel costs, housing) and away from home were highlighted, again with case-studies. After the plenary, parents and students had the opportunity to talk privately with one of the DUO officers. Other parents and students filled out the budget tool on the NIBUD website.

After a break the career teacher presented the procedures for applying for a cluster and optional subjects (third year), or the procedures for exploring and applying for a course of study in HE, with important dates (fifth year). Written stock was taken of the provisional choices made by students.

Finally, parents and students were requested to draft at their table any questions remaining since the previous session and this one. On a hand-out, they also noted who or what they could consult over the next weeks, and what steps they were going to undertake to find answers to their questions, and when. Tutors and career teacher assisted parents and students, where necessary.

The career teachers evaluated the satisfaction of parents with the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ at the end of the final session either orally or in writing. Formally the
evening ended at 22:00 with informal conversations with parents, students and tutors, some of whom stayed for some time.

Summary
What happened and how in each of the four sessions of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ has been described, together with some feedback from career teachers and tutors, to give a sense of their positive and wondering impressions.

1.4 From original evaluation to a secondary analysis of existing data
My study is a secondary analysis of existing data, originating from an original evaluation I was involved in (Subsection 1.3.1), evaluating the ‘Parents’ Turn’ career intervention.

The original evaluation was linked to a particular current policy agenda including: involving parents in CEG in secondary schools; assuming that involving parents to a larger extent would reduce the dropout rate in HE (OCW, 2013b); major changes announced for the enrolment in HE; and for the continuous participation of ‘first-generation’ students in HE.

Since the bulk of data in my study originate from this original evaluation, I will set out the research questions and the approaches that were taken in Subsection 1.4.1. I also present the key-findings of the original evaluation here. In Subsection 1.4.2, the limitations of the original evaluation are presented, and in Subsection 1.4.3 the rationale for the secondary analysis of the existing data.

1.4.1 Original evaluation
The research questions in the primary study were:
1. the impact of a parent-involved career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ for the parents; and
2. the requirements for a career teacher/leader in a school to design and execute such an intervention.

The original evaluation initially had a quasi-experimental model. The first research question was assessed and investigated with a quantitative data collection through questionnaires for discernible differences between the respondents of the experimental and control groups, before and after the career intervention.
For the second research question, qualitative data were collected by in-depth interviews with the career teachers of the experimental schools at intervention.

During the original evaluation the quasi-experimental model evolved because questions on the ‘Why?’ and ‘How?’ of the impact of the career intervention came up after the initial analyses, and the career teachers of the control schools suggested that a comparison between parents of the experimental and control groups should take place after the completion of their traditional parent activities during the academic year 2012-2013. With the voluntary support of the career teachers and management of the experimental and control schools, the original evaluation could be extended for twelve months until January 2014, one year after the career intervention took place, which included an expanded data collection to explain the results of the career intervention.

Weaknesses have been found with questionnaires to parents as indicated by Bakker and Denessen (2007, p.188): “Empirical evidence of involvement obtained with questionnaires [with parents] should be considered as doubtful because of the biases in ratings, whereas the use of multiple informants, as suggested in the literature, does not seem satisfactory to overcome this problem.” The biases of rating have been discussed by Schwarz and Oyserman (2001), who found that in self-reports individuals could not realistically remember the frequency of their behaviours, and that they were profoundly influenced by question wording, by estimation strategies in the answer format and by the suggested context of a question in the whole set of questions posed.

The extended and expanded data collection for both the experimental and the control schools included quantitative data collection by questionnaires with parents at post-intervention (six months after the career intervention) and concurrently qualitative data collection by 30-minutes, in-depth interviews with both parents and students. In a 3-measurement, one year after the career intervention, qualitative data were collected by interviews and questionnaires amongst parents and students at the experimental and control schools. The research questions of the original evaluation did not change for the extension. The cover letters and questionnaires for the impact assessment can be found in Appendix 3 and Appendix 4, for the evaluative assessment in Appendix 5. The interview at the time of the 2-measurement focused
on the experience of the parent-school-student co-operation and the role of each party, while at the 3-measurement the focus was on the initiative and reason to participate, application of what had been learned in next steps and behaviour. The interview schedules can be found in Appendix 6.

When the initial quasi-experimental model evolved, sequences of data collection (implementation) were taken into consideration, as was the balance between a quantitative and a qualitative perspective within the overall approach (priority) and the phase in which mixing would take place (stage of integration) (Biesta, 2010a).

The choice of embedding the quantitative collection within qualitative data (Creswell, 2006) meant the adoption of a two-staged model, a sequential embedded quasi-experimental model as shown in Figure 4. The upper-case use for the quantitative (QUAN) data collection indicates that this was the main approach, while the lower case indicates the more subsidiary role of, in this case, the qualitative (qual) data-collection. The arrows refer to the sequence of the data collection. This figure is adapted by me after Creswell (2006, p.69) and marks the boundary between the original evaluation or primary research and the secondary analysis of existing data. For the purpose of my doctoral thesis only, secondary analysis of existing data was applied as distinctly shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Embedded quasi-experimental model and boundary of original evaluation (primary research) and secondary analysis of existing data

![Diagram](Figure 4)

QUAN: quantitative data collection; qual: qualitative data collection.
The key findings in the original evaluation were that, compared to the control groups, in the experimental groups (Vermulst, Schuurman and Oomen, 2012, 2013; Oomen and Vermulst, 2013, 2014):

- Parents were more often aware of the cluster and study possibilities in their child’s career development and more aware of common issues such as financial consequences, labour market perspectives and where to find this information.
- Parents were more aware of the school’s CEG offerings and had more contact with school staff.
- Parents were more aware of and felt enabled to carry out more effectively their parental role in their child’s career development.
- Parents and students were satisfied with the programme offered, its content and approach.
- Third-year parents and students emphasised the effect of the career intervention on their relationship and having constructive conversations more frequently.
- Parents and students reported the changed base-attitude of parents and their growing awareness of the student’s own role.
- Parents and students reported long-lasting effects on their behaviour as a result of their involvement in the career intervention.
- CEG communication increased between parents and school during the career intervention but dropped back to previous level immediately after the career intervention.

Differences in results were observed between the third-year parents, at the beginning of important decisions in their child’s educational career, and fifth-year parents, at the threshold from secondary to HE: the results of fifth-year parents moved within a smaller range and the parents were ‘done’ after the intervention, i.e. preparing for the step to HE.

For the second research question, the key finding was that additional requirements in knowledge, skills and attitude are needed for a career teacher/leader to design and execute such a career intervention as ‘Parents Turn’ in a school (Oomen, 2013b, 2016b). The career teacher/leaders also noticed that tutors and teachers need additional training in these areas.
Summary
The original evaluation was linked to a particular policy agenda with a quasi-experimental research model. This research model evolved because questions on the impact of the career intervention were raised and resulted in an extended qualitative and quantitative data collection over 18 months and a sequential embedded quasi-experimental model, which marked the boundaries between the original evaluation and the secondary analysis of existing data. The original evaluation showed that the intervention worked for the parents; and provided data on the needed competencies of career teachers to accomplish parent-involved career interventions in CEG.

1.4.2 Limitations of the original evaluation
The original evaluation had limitations in budget, time and scope. (i) It was limited to HAVO schools in the Netherlands, specifically parents; (ii) had no collection of qualitative data with participants during the career intervention and at the time of the 1-measurement; (iii) had no collection of data of parents that were not involved in the career intervention at all or dropped out of the intervention; (iv) qualitative data from students involved in the career intervention were only collected after the career intervention; and (v) no possibility of data collection at systems level to investigate if participation reduced the dropout rate in HE of students involved.

The sample which participated in this study was not statistically representative of Dutch HAVO. In 2012, 419 out of the 659 Dutch secondary education schools (excluding schools for adult education) offered HAVO (DUO, 2014). On 1 October 2012, secondary education in the Netherlands counted 929,500 students, of which 43,100 were in the third year and 50,900 in the final year of HAVO (OCW, 2013a). However, the results may be indicative of practices and trends within HAVO and also be applicable to the other academic track, VWO, but not to VMBO.

Summary
The initial budget and the quasi-experimental research design limited the data collection in the original evaluation. The sample of HAVO schools in this study was not statistically representative, so neither are the sample of parents, students and career teachers. But the trends may be indicative for practices and trends within the Dutch academic tracks in secondary education.
1.4.3 Rationale for the importance of the secondary analysis of the existing data

Secondary analysis is a research strategy which makes uses of pre-existing quantitative data or pre-existing qualitative research data for the purpose of investigating new questions or verifying previous studies (Heaton, 2012, p.4). This definition of secondary analysis of existing data may suggest that it is undertaken by a researcher using data collected by another. However, the original researcher might also use data for secondary analysis by returning to them after the initial analysis has been undertaken. This mode, which is applicable to my research, is called ‘auto-data’ or ‘personal or inside secondary analysis’, and “is unique in that it is carried out by the same researcher(s) (…) that originally compiled the data, and no one else” (Heaton, 2012, p.11).

To maximise the output of the data collection efforts, more variables had been collected than were strictly needed to answer the original hypotheses. These data were not fully explored, due to restrictions in time, resources and scope of the original evaluation. Secondary analysis of existing data is considered a cost- and time-efficient way to make full use of already collected data for an original study (Bryman, 2012).

Although the expanded data collection in the original evaluation enabled better explanation of the results of the career intervention, some questions remained. For instance, ‘Which parents were participating in the career intervention?’; ‘Did the impact of the career intervention differ for parents from ‘first-generation’ HE students?’ and ‘What could be found if the qualitative and quantitative data were linked and building on each other?’. This motivated the secondary analysis of the existing data, a cost-effective approach, as the findings could contribute to the currently existing gap in knowledge on parental involvement in CEG.

Summary

In my secondary analysis of existing data, I will return to the data of the original evaluation as missing knowledge on the involvement of parents in CEG could be researched. The enabling existing dataset fits within three types of secondary analysis of existing data: supra analysis, supplementary analysis, and re-analysis.
1.5 The secondary analysis of the existing data

The original evaluation suggested the ‘Parents Turn’ career intervention worked, however, left some questions unanswered, which with a new focus to re-analyse the existing data, could add importantly to the current knowledge-gap on parental involvement in CEG.

1.5.1 Purpose

The purpose of my secondary analysis of the existing data is:
- to develop theoretical knowledge by describing the socially constructed realities as precisely as possible, giving critical account of ‘structures’ and ‘agents’ as key features of the social world, but not as final answers to what reality is;
- to contribute to the transformation of these behaviours.

1.5.2 Aim, new foci/objectives, research questions and design

My aim with the secondary analysis of the existing data is to gain understanding of the involvement of parents in CEG in HAVO, to gain understanding of the impact in general and the variations in impact of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ on the ability of parents to support the career development of their children and to gain understanding about the development of the schools’ capacity to deliver a sustainable parent-involved career intervention.

The new foci/objectives for the secondary analysis of the existing data include:

Involvement: The literature on parental involvement in education in general explicitly draws attention to various conditions for parents to be involved. Do these conditions show in my sample, how, and what can we learn for parents’ involvement in career interventions in schools?

First research objective: To access the nature of the participation in the career intervention.

Variation in impact: Was the impact of the career intervention the same for all parents? And if not, in what way? What is effective in improving the support for various groups of parents to help their child make educational and career decisions?

Third research objective: To understand whether different support is needed for parents who have not attained HE qualification.
However, in order to do this, I have to evaluate the career intervention for comparability reasons. The independent samples t-test, a parametric technique, was used in the original evaluation, and to do justice to the ordinal data non-parametric techniques have to be used (Subsection 1.5.4).

Second research objective: To assess the impact of the career intervention on parents.

School as agent: Secondary schools can be active and reactive to involve parents in CEG: what does that involve? The literature shows that most parent-involved career interventions are not sustained. Also, the ‘Parents Turn’ intervention was not continued in some experimental schools. Are there public benefits for the school to deliver such an intervention and to develop such capacity? What are the conditions for a sustainable parent-involved career intervention in CEG in secondary schools?

Fourth research objective: To assess the impact of this career intervention on the school.

My research questions are the following:
1. Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO?
2. What hinders and aids parents’ involvement in such career interventions?
3. What is the impact of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ on the parents, and does this differ between the experimental and control groups?
4. Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have attained higher education qualifications, in order to effectively support their children’s career building?
5. What is the role of the school in enabling a parent-involved career intervention?

During the primary research or original evaluation, the initial quasi-experimental research model evolved (Subsection 1.4.1), and the embedding of the quantitative collection within qualitative data (Creswell, 2006) meant the adoption of a two-staged, sequential embedded quasi-experimental model as shown in Figure 4. For the purpose of my doctoral thesis only, secondary analysis of existing data was applied as distinctly shown in Figure 4.

1.5.3 Types of secondary analysis of the existing data
Heaton (2008) identifies three types of secondary analysis of existing data, varying according to the degree to which the aims of the original evaluation and secondary
analysis of existing data converge or diverge. My research and the enabling existing dataset fit within these three types: supra analysis, supplementary analysis, and re-analysis.

Supra analysis looks at new research questions, whether empirical, theoretical or methodological. This is the case in my study, as both ‘the assessment of the participation in the career intervention’ and ‘the role of the school’ are respectively new research objectives and questions, and methodologically (Subsection 1.5.2) I use the non-parametric techniques for the ordinal data.

Supplementary analysis considers a more in-depth analysis of an emergent issue or aspect of the data that was not or only partially addressed in the original evaluation. In my research this refers to the analysis of: (i) who took part in the career intervention, and why; and (ii) whether the impact of the career intervention differed for both, single or no HE qualified parents.

Re-analysis is used for verification or corroboration. This is addressed in my research by the mixing of methods, which may generate better understanding of the impact of the career intervention. While the quantitative approach helps to measure and to quantify reality, the qualitative approach supports me in describing, exploring and opening up reality.

I therefore consider my secondary analysis of the existing data as sufficiently new and distinct from the original evaluation.

1.5.4 Rationales for re-analysing the existing data

In the original evaluation the quantitative data were analysed with the independent samples t-test. However, methodologically the analysis of ordinal data requires the use of non-parametric techniques, due to the unequal distances between the categories across the offered range of response categories. This re-analysis of the quantitative data is applicable for all five research questions. For reasons of comparability of the results for the fourth and third research question, the re-analysis of the impact for all parents (third research question) and parents where both, one of each or none have a HE qualification (fourth research question) is necessary.

In the original evaluation, the topics in the qualitative data collection were selected in line with the quantitative questionnaire, also as a response to understand the findings.
in the quantitative data, and the analysis had a more deductive feature. The rationale for re-analysing the qualitative data is that this needs to be done more inductively, so that concepts or theories are the result of the research.

My secondary analysis of the existing data seeks to generate 'a posteriori' hypotheses by examining the existing quantitative data-set, looking for potential relations between variables. The study is confirmatory for the hypotheses. For the qualitative data the study is explorative.

**Summary**

I presented the purpose, aim, new foci/research objectives, research questions and design for my secondary analysis of existing data, the types of secondary analyses I will perform, as well as the rationales for the re-analyses of all my data.

**1.6 Contribution**

**1.6.1 Originality**

My thesis provides original contribution to knowledge in several ways. Firstly, although this topic is perceived as important in the field, parental involvement in careers work has hardly been researched. Secondly, the thesis pulls together the literature on parents' role and influences over the life-span career of their child, although some of this literature is rather old and may not do justice to contemporary parenting. Thirdly, parents were not perceived just as a resource for their children, but also as learners in the career-intervention, which perception was continued in the study. Fourthly, a unique career intervention based on a parents' needs assessment and with family-learning and community-interaction features is introduced and researched. Finally, practice and research were integrated to gain understanding of a sustainable implementation of a parent-involved intervention in CEG.

**1.6.2 Contribution to knowledge**

Building on the existing literature, I established the importance of parents’ involvement in careers work in secondary schools. The intervention of the kind I describe, a family-learning and community-based career intervention, can make a difference for all parents. This study shows that it can build parental capacity to support their child in career decision-making: parental knowledge and skills; parental self-efficacy and parental role definition.
My research demonstrates that the intervention worked. It had a number of reported effects on parents’ capacity to be involved in and support their child’s career development on a short and longer term, which were not apparent in and if compared to control groups. However, it worked differently for different groups of parents: those who both attained HE qualifications, compared to parents of whom one and of whom neither attained HE qualifications. It reveals that parents who did not go to HE themselves are less likely to participate in and to respond to the intervention. These parents also have significantly different needs compared to parents who both have HE experiences. While the latter need an update on current options and the conditions for applying for clusters and HE studies to support and help their child in career decision-making, for parents with lesser educational background, involvement in the career intervention primarily and in the first place serves for their own assurance. The career intervention did not impact parents’ self-efficacy with parents whom are both or neither HE qualified., while parents of whom one is HE qualified showed a fluctuating self-efficacy. The pattern of unsureness has been observed before in the research literature. However, in careers work this unsureness never been connected to parents’ educational background, to theories as risk aversion and time-dispersion, or empirical studies on educational background and confidence. It also makes understandable why features as family-learning and community interaction may have a less impact on lower-educated parents.

1.6.3 Findings and the existing literature

My findings confirm the existing literature in the various respects. Parents’ participation in CEG is influenced by: SES or the parents/maternal educational level; gender (mother); and personal motivators: parents’ self-efficacy; parental role definition and parents’ perspective of the invitation of child, teacher, and school. Also, the (un)willingness of the child to actively mediate in the school-parent contact has been confirmed as well as the continuous reconstruction of the relationship parent-child in adolescence (Subsection 5.1.3). In line with the literature is the finding that the parental capacity to support their child in career development differs for parents who are lower-educated. Also, the subcultural differences in parental role definitions were found in my research. Finally, my study confirms earlier findings of the school system as a major barrier to sustain parent-involved career interventions (Subsection
and that public benefits of parent-involved career interventions in schools are significant but with a small effect size (Subsections 4.IV and 5.7).

My findings add to the existing literature in that the HE level obtained by parents influences not only if they are involved, but also when. Child’s birth-order is likely a factor for being involved in a parent-involved career intervention as with first-born, it is not only the first-born benefitting principle, but also the family seems less familiar with possibilities and procedures. As part of the enhanced ‘parental capacity’ through this intervention, parental self-efficacy is acknowledged, which is underexposed in parental involvement in general (Bakker et al., 2013).

My findings also challenge the existing literature. A parent-school co-operation in CEG is expected by all parents (Subsection 5.2.1) not only the higher-educated. The career literature could benefit from the insights of primary, secondary and tertiary effect of social origin as youths’ decision on HE choice and access are likely intertwined with their parents’ ideas, perspectives and decisions. A whole-school approach to parental involvement is preferred generally in the literature, but for a parent-involved career intervention I suggest it can be a stand-alone activity, handled as an educational innovation. This decision depends on the nature of the school-population: if the majority of the students’ parents are lower-educated or have a non-native background a whole-school approach is preferable (Subsection 6.2.4).

1.6.4 Potential contribution to policy and practice

With the caveat that the study has been deployed in a WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialised, Rich and Democratic) context, potentially the study contributes to wider practice (Subsection 7.2.1) and policy (Subsection 7.2.2).

The study provides: a practical example of a parent-involved intervention in CEG with features of family-learning and community interaction; illustrated guidelines to develop an effective learning programme for the parents; and experiences and suggestions to develop an effective parental engagement strategy in CEG. I plead that the school should have the lead in parent-involved career interventions, not external professionals.

For research, the study offers a taxonomy for parent-involved career interventions and a construct of the ‘parental capacity’ in their child’s career development.
In policy, the awareness of the potential value and impacts of working with parents in CEG is low. The co-operation of parents and schools in the career development of the students is often taken for granted. Potentially, the study can make policy makers aware of the impact of working with parents in CEG against political, economic, socialising and helping-parents-needs rationales. The study illustrates the need for thinking through a whole-system reform from strategy to encouragement of practice.

1.7 Outline of the thesis

After this introductory chapter, the literature review in Chapter 2 consists of four parts. The first part (Subsection 2.1) is a justification of my literature review. In Subsection 2.2, I give a narrative review of the literature on the role in and influences of parents on their child’s educational and career development from a sociological and a vocational psychological perspective. Subsection 2.3 looks for the theoretical models that have been developed and for the evidence of parental involvement in (secondary) education. Finally, an overview is presented of the parent-involved interventions in careers work that have been initiated and researched internationally (Subsection 2.4).

In Chapter 3, (Subsections 3.1 and 3.2), I describe my credentials as a researcher: ‘How do I understand “reality”?’; ‘What is “knowledge” and how do I know what is known?’; ‘What are the values I bring to the study?’ and ‘What is the nature of my research?’ I position my study and myself as researcher in both education in general as well as careers work in particular. Justification for the MMR approach in my secondary analysis of existing data in this study will be given in Subsection 3.3.1. Then, I describe the samples for this study (Subsections 3.3.2 and 3.3.3), how I prepared, treated and analysed the quantitative data (Subsection 3.4) and qualitative data (Subsection 3.5) to develop theoretical knowledge and transform practice. The methodological considerations that were involved in applying secondary analysis of existing data and translation (Subsection 3.6) and trustworthiness (Subsection 3.7) is given attention, as are the ethical considerations (Subsection 3.9). After Subsections 3.3.1 and 3.3.2, Subsection 3.8 goes into reflexivity.

The findings of my inquiry are described in Chapter 4 and 5. The quantitative data were interrogated and analysed against the hypotheses in relation to each of the four research objectives, showing how these findings translate to each of the research
questions. In Chapter 5, the findings of the more inductive approach to the qualitative data is reported.

In Chapter 6, I discuss four issues that came up throughout the analysis of the data. Firstly, the concept of parental capacity in their child’s career development will be elaborated as a crucial element for researching parental involvement in CEG. Secondly, I rethought the reasons why the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ worked and was effective, enlightening its family learning and community-interaction elements. Thirdly, I analysed the differences in impact for the three groups of parents involved in the career intervention: those whom have both attained HE qualifications, compared to those of who one and those of whom neither attained HE qualifications. And fourthly, the role of schools in enabling parental involvement in CEG was analysed through the experiences of the career teachers of the experimental schools.

Conclusions are summarised in Chapter 7 for each of the research questions. Practice could learn from the career intervention by repeating it with the insights and recommendations based on this inquiry. To encourage, broaden and focus parental involvement in CEG, some reflections for effective policymaking are presented. Finally, to further develop theoretical knowledge, I offer some suggestions for research.

1.7.1 Additional reading guide
Throughout the thesis, for the purpose of convenience, the experimental group of the third year will be abbreviated as E3 and of the fifth year as E5; the control group of the third year will be abbreviated as C3 and of the fifth year as C5.

The analyses for the third research objective were carried out by comparing three groups: (a) where both parents are higher-educated; (b) where one parent is higher-educated; and (c) where neither parent is higher-educated. For convenience, I will refer to this qualification level attained by the parents as: ‘both HE’, ‘one HE’ and ‘no HE’.

These and other frequently used abbreviations in the thesis can also be found in the Glossary.

Throughout the thesis, the measurements in the inquiry will be indicated as: pre-intervention (before the career intervention, 0-measurement); intervention (at the end
of the career intervention, 1-measurement); post-intervention (six months after the career intervention, 2-measurement); and 3-measurement (one year after the career intervention).

**Summary**

This chapter seeks to introduce the reader to my doctoral inquiry and the context in which this study was deployed. The current gap of knowledge on involving parents in careers work in secondary education is presented. Preceding a description of the ‘Parents Turn’ project, the Dutch CEG context in introduced and the structure of the education system, current CEG policy and provision and the ‘state of play’ of parental involvement are outlined. An outline of the original evaluation – research questions, research model, findings and limitations -- has been presented to provide a context for the secondary analysis of the existing data. The research questions for this secondary analysis are presented and the rationale for the re-analyses of all data explained. The contribution of the inquiry to the field of knowledge on parental involvement in CEG in secondary education is specified. This chapter ends with an outline of the thesis.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW

We all have parents, guardians or carers and, for many of us, they are important. Are we also aware of their subtler key influences on our career development: the process of making and managing educational, training and occupational choices from childhood throughout life? What could awareness of this parental influence, and how it works, mean for professionals in careers work?

In this chapter I will first define ‘parents’ and ‘family’ using systems theory. Systems theory seeks to understand phenomena in holistic terms, emphasising the interconnectedness and complexity of reality, focusing on the relationships between parts as well as the parts themselves. It offers a potential overarching framework for dealing with issues in various disciplines, including human behaviour (Patton and McMahon).

I map extensively the nature of parents’ influence on, and relationship to, their child’s education and career development. In this chapter I use a narrative literature review, i.e. seeking to arrive at an overview of the field by a comprehensive and critical assessment of the literature (Bryman, 2012). I examine relevant literature on how young people become adults and what role their parents play in helping them to achieve academically and in career terms by drawing on sociological literature. I then use the perspective of vocational psychology, also with a systems theory lens, to examine the parental influence on career development which focuses much more on the moment of taking the decisions. Both perspectives, sociology and psychology, have limitations and are complementary in understanding the subject of this subsection.

The chapter will then provide a broader understanding of parental involvement in education, including the evidence, the models and the barriers that may prevent this involvement working effectively. Finally, I will turn to parental involvement in CEG by presenting an overview of initiatives on parent-involved interventions in CEG during adolescence as found in the international literature, preceded by a concise review on effective CEG.

These subsections are prefaced by a subsection on the search strategy I adopted for this literature review.
Where parents are referred to in the text, please also read guardians, carers and family. I shall be using both the terms ‘family’ and ‘parents’ in my text, after defining them in Subsection 2.2.1, although I realise that these are not interchangeable.

2.1 Literature search strategy
Comparative international literature that included the Dutch education and/or CEG system was accessed for Subsection 1.2. In pursuing an overview of the field of parental influences on their involvement in CEG, I started by reading broadly; identifying words and terms related to my research questions (Subsection 1.5.2) and investigated key concepts through the literature.

I took a narrative approach rather than a systemic review of the literature. I justify this narrative review approach, because the literature in the fields of study is not coherent enough to support a systematic approach, as noted for instance by Dehsforges and Abouchaar (2003) for parental involvement in general and Whiston and Keller (2004) for the parental influences on career development. Additionally, there is a lack of more recent (inter)national research studies on the role and influence of parents in career decision-making. A consequence of the latter may be that the experiences and perspectives of contemporary parents are not represented.

I refined my search terms over a series of searches. Generally, the search syntax included a combination of the following terms: (parent* OR family*), (family system OR “parenting” OR “parenting style”*), (influence* OR importance OR relation*), (attainment* OR “school outcome”* OR “career”*, OR “school choice”* OR “educational choice”*), (participation* OR engage* OR involve*), (“parent* model” OR “parent* intervention”), (child* OR student* OR adolescent* OR “adolescence”) and (review OR meta-analysis OR research OR study).

Firstly, I searched using educational, sociological and psychological databases: ERIC, EBSCO, IBSS, JSTOR, ProQuest Dissertation and Theses.
Secondly, I performed a detailed search of grey literature: national studies and papers on parental involvement in the educational setting from CBS; Inspectie van het Onderwijs; OCW; OECD; Onderwijsraad; Behavioural Science Institute, Radboud University; SER; Amsterdam Centre for Inequality Studies, University of Amsterdam; and WRR.
Thirdly, I did a detailed search in all volumes of specific journals to locate relevant general findings within the career guidance field: the International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance, the British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, The Career Development Quarterly and the Journal of Vocational Behavior. Supplementary to this, contacts in the International Association of Educational and Vocational Guidance (IAEVG) provided additional resources. I corresponded and/or talked with experts who have written about this topic.

The search sought to identify those materials:
- published in the English, French, German and Dutch languages; and
- which focused on adolescents and young adults.

I excluded materials which were not relevant to the current study such as those which referred exclusively to:
- Asian/Middle East/African practice; and
- students/parents with special needs, physical and/or mental disorders/diseases.

Publications since 2000 were given preference in the large pool of resources.

I screened the resources in stages: if abstracts met the inclusion criteria, I read the full text. The ‘snowball method’ has been applied with the resources found, referring to similar and other journals, books, reviews and meta-analyses.

Arulmani (2007) and Sultana (2017) have drawn attention in careers work to the importance of recognising local collective differences in what Bandura (1989) defined as social cognitions: patterns of thinking and beliefs within a community that have become the norm and guide the behaviour of individuals in that community. As the literature in this field largely consists of foreign research, and to a certain extent is context and culture sensitive, I searched for Dutch resources where possible, to verify findings for the context of my study.

2.2 Parents, family

2.2.1 Definitions

If a couple has a child, they become parents, and potentially a family too. Parents, being the biological parent or the person taking up the role of mother or father, play a major role in the family. Family, which include siblings and extended family, exert
some of the same influences as parents on the career development of children (Schultheiss et al., 2002; Schultheiss, 2007).

It is difficult to provide a single definition of family given the changing social attitudes in the last three decades about gender roles, birth control, marriage as well as global changes such as increased mobility, all of which have consequences for the diversity of family forms, for views on what a family should be, and for what it does (Allan, Hawker and Crow, 2001; Charles, Davies and Harris, 2008; Doherty, Patton and Shield, 2015; Sobotka and Toulemon, 2008).

Of Dutch children born between 1975 and 1985, 98.1% have been born into a traditional ‘nuclear’ family with both their biological parents, while the remaining 1.9% were either without parents, with mother only, or with mother and stepfather. Most of these children are raised in a nuclear family: 75.2% of 15-year-olds. At that age, 16.3% lived in a single-parent family, 6.7% with a parent and stepparent; and 2.0% without parents, i.e. lived with foster parents or in a boarding school (Van Poppel, Schenk, Van Gaalen, 2013). These numbers and forms are comparable to most other countries in Western and Northern Europe (Van Poppel, Schenk, Van Gaalen, 2013). However, across Europe, only 32.8% of families are a nuclear family (‘Gezin’ [family], 2016). There exists a great variability in family forms, including single-parent families; reconstituted families with at least one biological parent; and extended families in which at least one family member as e.g. grandparents, uncle/aunt live in with the nuclear family.

2.2.2 Systems theory in understanding family

Systems theory is helpful in understanding the concept of ‘family’. Through this lens a family can be defined as:

...a complex structure comprised of an interdependent group of individuals who (i) have a shared sense of history; (ii) experience some degree of emotional bonding; and (iii) devise strategies for meeting the needs of individual family members and the group as a whole. (Anderson and Sabatelli, 2011, p.6)

As Anderson and Sabatelli (2011, p.1) indicate, each family system, regardless of their particular composition or living situation will have to: "(i) establish a clear identity
for the family as a whole and for each individual member," with family themes, both conscious and unconscious elements, as well as intellectual (attitudes, beliefs, values) and emotional aspects, “(ii) develop clearly defined boundaries between the family and the outside world and between individual members within the family, (iii) manage the family household,” providing basic necessities such as food, shelter, and education and setting priorities (allocating tasks, handling finances, solving problems, etc.), (iv) create a warm and nurturing emotional environment, meeting the needs for closeness, involvement, acceptance, nurturance and strategies for handling conflicts; and (v) develop adaptability, i.e. an effective response process to external and internal stresses, as for instance new information and the changes that occur within families over time.

Three primary subsystems are generally distinguished in the family system: marital, parental and sibling, distinguished by the family members involved as well as the primary tasks performed. The marital subsystem, for instance, models for children intimate relationships and interaction between partners. The parental subsystem focuses on the upbringing of the children and serves functions such as nurturing, support, socialisation and control. Although husband and wife may comprise the core of the parental subsystem, others may be involved, such as grandparents or older children. The sibling subsystem functions as the child’s first peer group, offering the opportunity “to learn the patterns of negotiation, co-operation, competition, personal disclosure” (Anderson and Sabatelli, 2011, p.8) and a basis for comparison of abilities and other characteristics, thus providing a context for identity formation (Altman, 1997).

The family system, as part of the societal context, interacts with other systems, including religion, media, the economy, work, culture, and social class, which can influence parenting.

For example, religious beliefs have been found to influence parenting in the Netherlands. Muslims and Orthodox Calvinists tend to emphasise conformism in parenting, in contrast to non-religious parents who are more likely to favour autonomy. While Protestant parents tend to strive for social empathy, ambition as a parenting goal tends to be important for Islamic parents of Turkish and Moroccan origin (Herweijer and Vogels, 2013b).
Economic conditions also influence parenting. Single parents, low SES parents or minorities struggling with low income, unstable work or inflexible work hours, may experience stress and limited time for parenting. These parents are also unlikely to possess social and educational resources (for instance, the ability to provide homework assistance, knowing a range of role models) that are useful in parenting (Lareau, 1996; Parke, 2004).

Work conditions, too, may affect parenting. Crouter (1994) refers to: (i) the toll of work (e.g. overloaded parents have more conflicts with their adolescent children); (ii) applying at home skills and attitudes learned at work (e.g. fathers with a complex job tend to show more warmth towards their child and offer more verbal explanations); and (iii) issues related to work and the home constellation (e.g. single parents or dual earners tend to find it harder to coordinate home and work obligations).

Tendencies to differences in parenting have also been observed between social classes. The working-class is defined here as "the social group consisting of people who are employed for wages, especially in manual or industrial work", while the middle-class is "the social group between the upper and working classes, including professional and business people and their families", and upper-class is "the social group that has the highest status in society, especially the aristocracy" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017a, 2017b, 2017c). Lareau (2011) found that poor and working-class parents usually believe that they should care about their children but tend to practise ‘natural growth parenting’: parents give orders to their children; but children have lengthy periods of unwatched, unstructured time and become adults without too much interference from adults. Middle-class parents tend to perceive the development of children as something to be guided, which leads to conscientious parenting, whereas working-class parents tend to believe that intelligence is fixed, that the development of children is a naturally unfolding process and that rearing in general has limited impact on the development of their child (Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1997; Hornby and Lafaæle, 2011; Lareau, 2011). Again, middle-class parents tend to encourage their child’s aspiration to develop initiative and self-direction, while working-class parents emphasise conformity to external authority (Kohn and Slomczynski, 1993).
In contrast to other European countries, such as the UK, “class in the Netherlands is a less prominent dividing force” (Kraaykamp, Van Eijck and Ultee, 2010, p.173). The Netherlands is much more “a ‘knowledge-based’ society” (Büchner and Van der Velden, 2013, p.95), in which class and status are intertwined (Kraaykamp, Van Eijck and Ultee, 2010), and the educational attainment of both parents is most relevant (Kraaykamp, Van Eijck and Ultee, 2010).

Parental values and expectations differ around the world and ‘colour’ the way parents communicate their love, hope and affection for their child(ren) and what they think is important (Small, 1999; Van Campen and Russell, 2010). These values and expectations are based in culture. Following Hofstede (2001, p.9), culture is defined as “the collective mental programming of the human mind which distinguishes one group of people from another,” which takes place at individual, collective and universal levels and is reflected in the meaning people attach to various aspects of life.

Cultural norms determine to a significant extent the attachment parents and children feel and show for each other and the warmth and control exerted, e.g. the independence allowed, the emphasis on authority, the importance attached to high achievement, and the acceptability of physical punishment (both attachment and parenting style will be discussed in more depth in Subsection 2.2.4). Cultural norms also influence the dominant family form. Whereas in Western countries the nuclear family is the norm, in many other countries the extended family and community members take a larger role. Culture explains why parents may turn to their own parents for advice or will rely more on experts. Of course, within cultures there are always variations in the patterns from very traditional to broad-minded.

In studying values, beliefs, attitudes and awareness we tend to compare ‘individuals’, while in studying parenting and their implicit and explicit contribution to educational and career development, we are more likely to study culture and thus compare ‘societies’, which is another level of analysis (Hofstede, 2001).

Modern family systems tend to have a high degree of domestic privacy and to be preoccupied with the rearing of children (Giddens, 2001). In the Netherlands, women tend to take on the primary responsibility for providing care for the children and for running the household in the ‘nuclear family’. This, despite the fact that, as in most
countries, women work in employment more than in the past (CBS, De Argumentenfabriek and in60seconds, 2014).

In a family where both parents work, parental roles are negotiated, in relation to work and parenting obligations. This negotiation is influenced by cultural norms about roles and about the relative distribution of power within the parental couple (Lavine, 1982). Where both parents are also earners, they tend to share – but not necessarily equally or proportionately – in providing emotional support to their children as well as in monitoring and disciplining their children (Hoff, Laursen and Tardif, 2002).

**Family system functioning**

Some of the circumstances above explain variations in the accessibility of parents to their children, which includes being physically available, being approachable and being able to communicate effectively. As children move into adolescence they are more likely to report that their parents do not have the time to spend with them (Galinsky, 2000).

How a family system functions influences both the nature of the communication between family members (Parke, 2004) as well as how much parents can be a support or a resource for their children. As long as communication between parents and children on all kinds of issues is relatively easy, parents serve as a valuable resource for young people (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006).

Whereas in the past the diverse ways in which parents could influence their child’s development were perceived as unilateral and mostly directed to the nature of the parent-child relationship, especially attachment (Bowlby, 1969) and parental style (Baumrind, 1991), more recent studies stress the bilateral nature of the parent-child relationship (Kuczynski, 2003) and the way they react to each other’s behaviour.

Nowadays, parents also exercise influence on their child’s development by acting as adviser, coach or teacher (Ladd and Pettit, 2002). In these roles, parents encourage contact with peers during the primary-school years, while shifting their parental strategy in the adolescence phase by talking to their children about the future consequences of their behaviour and also, sometimes, by trying to keep their children from being over-influenced by peers. The teacher role is particularly adopted by mothers with perceived self-efficacy in promoting educational progress, who actively
engage in cognitive activities with the primary school (Grolnick et al., 1997). As coach, parents serve as active managers of the child’s social environment outside the family, regulating the child’s access to external physical and social resources (Parke, 2004), e.g. by taking care that their young child is under the supervision of adults to explore talents and interests (Lareau, 2011). Mounts (2000) found that this monitoring was associated with the selection of friends with low levels of antisocial behaviour and higher levels of academic achievement.

Summary
A family-system and its subsystems fulfil primary tasks, e.g. creating a warm and nurturing environment, and providing necessities such as education. The family-system interacts with other systems in society, such as the economy and work. This interaction influences parenting in both positive ways (e.g. skills learned at work) and negative ways (e.g. struggling with low income). Culture ‘colours’ the norms for family forms, parental values, expectations and parental upbringing style. Parents now often extend their roles to being the adviser, coach or teacher in the bilateral relationship with their child.

2.2.3 Socialisation, economic, social and cultural capital
To describe the impact of the family environment on a child’s development, sociologists speak of socialisation: “the social processes through which children develop an awareness of social norms and values and achieve a distinct sense of self” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p.1071). They follow Mead (1934), who argues that the child develops as a social being by imitating the actions of those around her or him. Self-awareness is developed by ‘taking the role of the other’ and so the distinction arises between the ‘me’ and the ‘I’, the latter being a bundle of wishes and desires: the un-socialised infant. At a further development stage, at the age of eight or nine, the child begins to understand the overall values and moralities of social life.

Following Mead, sociologists acknowledge that there are different agents of socialisation: primary (the family), secondary (the school and peer group) and tertiary (the mass media). They also indicate that socialisation is not some kind of ‘cultural’ programming: the child is an active agent in this process from the beginning.

Transmitting capital
Bourdieu perceives ‘upbringing’ as parents transmitting their economic, social and cultural capital to the children. He uses the term ‘capital’ to conceptualise the financial and non-financial resources in varying quantities and compositions, which are possessed by an individual and family and which are correlated with social class position (Bourdieu, 1984; Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977).

Economic capital refers to wealth, estate, stocks and earnings (Bourdieu, 1984). Social capital is the total extent and quality of the possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition which may be used to facilitate one’s interests (Bourdieu, 1986). This network can serve economic benefits (e.g. jobs) or information benefits (e.g. being familiar with educational and career choices).

The concept of cultural capital is crucial in understanding the reproduction of chances in life. Cultural capital refers to non-financial, educational or intellectual assets: the accumulation of education and knowledge such as skills, competencies, general ‘know-how’ of the rules of the educational system and preferences such as tastes, posture, clothing, mannerisms, material belongings and credentials that one acquires through being part of a particular social class. Cultural capital has different shapes: embodied, institutionalised and objectified.

Embodied cultural capital is “external wealth converted to an integral part of the person into a habitus” (Bourdieu, 1986, pp. 244-245). The ‘habitus’ are dispositions: lasting, acquired schemes of perception, thought and action. Embodied cultural capital is not transmitted as such from parents to child: it is accumulated by the child in a lifelong, mostly unconscious process. Acquired at an early age, it provides personal features for the rest of one’s life, e.g. a dialect or an accent that reveals class or region of origin. As this feels ‘natural’ to a child, it will develop a comparable habitus. This individual habitus tends to take the surrounding reality and his/her place within it for granted and thus reproduce the way that the world works, with all the social differences in his/her thinking, judging and acting.

Institutionalised cultural capital refers mostly to educational credentials, e.g. going to a particular school, or getting a degree from a certain university. Objectified cultural capital refers to cultural goods such as paintings, books and machines (Bourdieu, 1986). These objects can be transmitted, but the way that they are appreciated
cannot. Sharing similar forms of cultural capital with others creates a sense of collective identity and group position: ‘our kind of people’.

Coleman (1988, p.S98) provides a broader definition of social capital by combining the insights of sociology and economic theory: “a variety of entities with two elements in common: they all consist of some aspects of social structures and they facilitate certain actions of actors – whether persons or corporate actors – within the structure.” Where Bourdieu sees the individual in and as a product of a social and cultural environment, subject to “norms, rules, and obligations” (Coleman, 1988, p.S95), having no ‘internal springs of action’, no individual drive nor purpose, the economic approach sees a rational individual engaging in purposive action to “account not only for the actions of individuals in particular contexts but also for the development of social organisation” (Coleman, 1988, p.S96).

In particular, Coleman singles out in relation to upbringing that “one effect of social capital that is especially important is its effect on the creation of human capital in the next generation” (Coleman, 1988, p.S109). This ‘human capital’, for instance self-awareness and identity, self-confidence in expressing one’s opinions, and social-emotional skills, enables youngsters to become better learners and therefore to be more successful in school and in society. Human capital consists of knowledge, skills and capabilities that parents can deploy as parental beliefs of self-efficacy to help their children master skills needed for future vocational success. This human capital emerges out of social capital, according to Coleman, because this kind of development depends primarily on relationships within the family. As he points out, if the human capital possessed by parents is not complemented by social capital embodied in family relations and child-parent interaction, it is irrelevant to the child’s educational growth that the parent has a great deal or only a small amount of human capital (Coleman, 1988).

**Summary**

Through their family, children develop awareness of their ‘self’ and of social norms and values. In their upbringing, parents transmit their ‘capital’ or social (relations, network), economic (equity) and cultural (e.g. educational assets) resources, the quantities and composition of which are correlated with class. Bourdieu emphasises the lifelong accumulation and integration of cultural capital in an individual: ‘habitus’.
Coleman argues that out of social capital develops human capital, as skills, beliefs and confidence, which both parents and children can deploy in, e.g., achieving career goals.

2.2.4 Parents influencing the educational career

Intergenerational transmission of capital

Among Dutch children a strong intergenerational transmission of cultural capital was found:

Highly educated parents (with institutionalised cultural capital) provide their children with the resources to do well in school. Parents who frequently engage in high-brow cultural activities (embodied cultural capital) inculcate an interest in high-brow activities in their children. Parents rich in cultural goods are likely to have children who value cultural possessions as well. (Kraaykamp and Van Eijck, 2010, p.225)

Statistics Netherlands (Van Gaalen et al., 2014) points out that 42% of the differences in school performance between Dutch children can be explained by the parental environment and specifically the educational level of the parents (institutionalised cultural capital). The higher their educational level, the better the school performance in OECD countries in general, including the Netherlands (Van Gaalen et al., 2014; OECD, 2014).

Higher-educated parents are likely to be more familiar with the HE system and more convinced of its benefits (Connell, 2004; Van de Werfhorst and Hofstede, 2007). Therefore, they will be more likely to stimulate their child to do well at school, e.g. by supporting them to do their homework or by creating a positive learning environment (Jeynes, 2005). Intellectual stimulation, by discussions at the ‘dinner table’ and during joint parent-child activities, provides a context in which parents observe their child’s intellectual development and develop their beliefs about their child’s ability to achieve academically (Silbereisen and Weisner, 2000). Intelligence also is likely to be partly genetically determined (Plomin and Spinath, 2002) and will therefore contribute to intergenerational reproduction (cf. Deary et al., 2007).

Parental reading behaviour, and much less the parental ‘beaux arts’ participation as argued by Bourdieu, affects Dutch children’s educational attainment (cf. Krumboltz,
Parental reading behaviour means that parents read regularly to their young children and later encourage them to read for themselves (De Graaf, De Graaf and Kraaykamp, 2000). Children socialised in reading maintain or extend their advantage in language performance over children who lack early reading socialisation (Kloosterman et al., 2011).

Besides parental reading behaviour, early parental involvement in schools also affects educational performance. However, its positive impacts fade over the primary school years (Kloosterman et al., 2011). Children’s school success benefits from parental involvement as reflected in the degree of parent-teacher contact (Englund et al., 2004), participation in school activities and parent-child discussion about school-related matters (Fan and Chen, 2001; Jeynes, 2007), which gives young children an educational advantage over students whose parents are less involved.

However, the educational attainment of the involved parents also appears to make a difference to their child’s academic attainment. Involved but lower-educated parents affect their child’s academic and occupational aspirations but appear not to support their academic attainment to achieve high status occupations (Hill et al., 2004; Lareau, 2011). This will become clearer when discussing the effects of social origin on educational attainment below.

As in the Nordic countries, in the Netherlands a steady decline can be found in the impact of the father’s educational attainment and occupational position on his sons’ and daughters’ educational success (De Graaf and Ganzeboom, 1993; Jæger, 2007; Shavit and Blossfeld, 1993). Nowadays, “…social capital contributes to educational inequality in a new way in that previously it was mainly convertible into economic capital and now it is mainly convertible into cultural or informational capital” (Jæger, 2007, p.546).

Reproduction of inequality

Economic, social and cultural capital form the foundation of society and the social life and dictates one’s position within the social order (Bourdieu, 1979). As Bourdieu pointed out, social and cultural capital are major sources of social inequality. Certain forms of cultural capital are valued over others and can help or hinder one’s social mobility just as much as financial capital; social capital is a tool of the elite, deployed to ensure that the ‘wrong’ kind of people do not enter their circles (Bourdieu, 1986).
The success of a child in school is strongly determined by the embodied cultural capital (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977).

In the educational system, schools transform cultural capital – which is largely determined by social class – into credentials associated with individual talent and hard work. Children from lower-educated parents and minority groups, having developed ways of talking and acting that are different from those dominant in schools, will experience a greater cultural clash than children from more educated parents. Not only are they less likely to be motivated to do well at school, but the experience of academic failure may ‘teach’ them to recognise their academic limitations, which in turn may influence their educational and career choices. However, these children may not recognise this theorising: they may fight the school system rather than work with it (Willis, 1977; El Hadioui, 2011).

Schools tend to reinforce the differing cultural values. When children leave school, these have the effect of cultural reproduction, limiting the opportunities of some children and facilitating those of others.

Goldthorpe (2010) critiques the concept of cultural capital and ‘habitus’, but states that, contrary to what might be expected:

> Children from all class backgrounds have achieved progressively higher standards of educational attainment and qualifications (...) with broadly similar rates from class to class (...) although class inequalities in educational attainment have not widened, *neither have they narrowed to any great extent*. (Goldthorpe, 2010, p.7, italics by author)

The neo-Marxist economist Piketty (2014) drew attention to the growing inequality globally between people with equity, which grows by itself, and those who only have income from employment. He asserts that most rich people are rich because they are born fortunate. The contrast between the official public discourse – the meritocracy of the educational system – and the reality – social spending amplifying inequalities of social origin – can be extreme. He refers, for example, to the spending of more public money on the so called ‘grandes écoles’ in France, with students from more advantaged social backgrounds, while less money is spent on university students at other institutions, who come from more modest backgrounds.
The American historian and economist Clark (in Clark et al., 2014) argued that social mobility has hardly changed. By tracking family names over generations to measure social mobility across countries and eight centuries, he found that social mobility is slow and consistent, does not vary across societies, and is resistant to social policies. He hypothesised that it is not economic, social or cultural capital that is the parents’ greatest gifts to their children, but the genes package, the inheritance of an ‘underlying social competence’ that is beneficial to them achieving high status.

**Primary, secondary and tertiary effects of the parental environment on educational attainment**

Goldthorpe (2010) argues that inequalities of educational opportunity refer to the differences in level of educational attainment, which stem from two, cumulative sources as proposed by Boudon (1974): the primary and secondary effects of the parental environment on educational attainment. Social class is important for both kinds of effects.

Primary effects on attainment are all those – whether genetic, cultural or social – that operate to determine children’s *actual level of performance at any stage of their educational careers*.

Secondary effects on attainment are then those deriving from the *educational choices* that children make at any stage of their educational careers, given their actual performance up to that stage. (Boudon, cited in Goldthorpe, 2010, p.8, italics by author)

Family is the major source of primary effects. “Early development of cognitive abilities within the families and the emergence of differences in cognitive abilities according to social origin constitute the starting point for all other processes” (Esser and Relikowski, 2015, p.8), followed by early development of these abilities and pre-school-related skills, resulting in cognitive abilities and the development of educational attainment over the primary school-years. If the quality of the home learning environment that parents provide functions well, “schools would appear to operate fairly well in realising children’s academic potential, regardless of their class backgrounds” (Goldthorpe, 2010, p.9).

Such primary effects have been demonstrated in Dutch research for a long time. In contrast to Bourdieu’s reproduction theory, in the Netherlands parental cultural capital
seems to be of additional help for children from middle and low SES. Children from higher SES origins do well at school and their parents’ cultural habits do not independently contribute that much to their success (De Graaf, De Graaf and Kraaykamp, 2000). In Dutch education, at the transition from primary to secondary school, primary SES effects account for about 60% and secondary for about 40% of the destination track in secondary education (Kloosterman et al., 2009; Büchner and Van der Velden, 2013).

Secondary effects relate to parents’ educational decisions. Breen and Goldthorpe (1997) proposed their Relative Risk Aversion theory, which Morgan (2005) combined with time-discounting preferences (short- or long-term horizon in making educational choices), which differ across SES groups. Children from advantaged socioeconomic backgrounds show, on average, higher aspirations in the educational choices they make. They aim to go on to HE, especially if their parents did so, even if their actual educational attainment in school is modest and there is a risk of failure in HE. They tend to end up with higher levels of attainment, but they and their parents tend also to look at the whole future educational- and work-career that follows. In contrast, children with the same level of school attainment but from less advantaged socioeconomic backgrounds will be less motivated to take such risks. Short-term motivations and current academic performance dominate their educational choices. These students are more averse to choosing an academically challenging track. “They tend in fact to over-estimate what is required, and so may not pursue goals that would in fact be quite realistic for them” (Goldthorpe, 2010, p.10). Students’ high time-discount rate (i.e. short-term horizon) is due to the pressure on students to leave school relatively early to contribute to family income or own earnings, related to the lower levels of economic resources in their families. Students from higher SES origin are less affected by risk aversion, due to a lower time-discount rate, i.e. a longer-term horizon (Breen, Van de Werfhorst and Jaeger, 2014). Büchner and Van der Velden (2013) found that these secondary effects are strong in the transition from Dutch secondary to HE (94% for VWO-WO and 81% for HAVO-HBO), which underpins the importance of the primary-secondary education transition.

These findings on secondary effects on attainment support the sociological ‘careership’ theory of career decision-making, developed by Hodkinson and Sparks (1997). Based on Bourdieu (1986), they proposed three integrated dimensions:
individuals make (i) pragmatically rational decisions within their horizon for actions and related to subjective accessible opportunities and self-efficacy; (ii) in interaction with others and related to unequal resources these ‘others’ possess; (iii) as part of an unpredictable life course. The implications of the literal horizon in the first dimension, distance and geographical location, have been observed by Banks et al. (1992), Shepherd and Hooley (2016), Slack and Vigurs (2013). However, this may be of less importance in the relatively small Netherlands and the free public transport for students at MBO and HE level.

The crucial factors for the secondary effects according to Goldthorpe (2010) are: (i) the goals that both the children and their parents have; (ii) their information level on how to pursue these goals; and (iii) family economic resources.

The first priority goal of parents is to avoid downward educational or social mobility. Need and De Jong (2000) found that, depending on their social origin, 65% to 95% of Dutch students wanted to reach an educational level at least as high as their parents. Van de Werfhorst and Hofstede (2007) argue that youngsters’ educational ambitions are not affected by cultural capital, but relative risk aversion (see above: secondary SES effects) strongly affects schooling ambitions.

Van de Werfhorst (2014) assumes that now that ‘everyone’ enters Dutch HE, it is plausible that among youth and parents from different social origins there exist differences in ‘informational capital’: the available information, the awareness and the appreciation of the perceived benefits of selective programmes in HE (e.g. the Honours Programme, to achieve a double Bachelor; University Colleges with a broad English bachelor; Law School). Higher-educated parents and their children are more likely to think through their relative educational position in society and are more likely to anticipate their educational choices accordingly. “There would then be a ‘secondary effect’ of social origin on enrolment in selective programmes independent of class differences in fulfilling admission requirements” (Van de Werfhorst, 2014, p.136).

Boudon’s primary and secondary effects “…relate to the process of institutional sorting (according to achievement) [into different school types and tracks] through families’ influences” (Esser and Relikowski, 2015, p.10, italics in original). Esser’s extension refers to “…tertiary effects or additional effects of social origin on the
sorting process via the *school context*” (Esser and Relikowski, 2015, p.10, italics in original), i.e. the varying stereotypes held by teaching staff in relation to students’ social origins may possibly have consequences for student’s achievement itself and for the evaluations of this achievement in terms of marks and recommendations.

**Parental strategies to prevent downward mobility**

Highly-educated parents in the Netherlands enact several strategies to prevent downward mobility for their children (Herweijer, 2010). Their first strategy is applied at the transfer from primary to secondary education. Parents try to get their child enrolled at VWO, preferably a gymnasium or a small HAVO/VWO school, avoiding VMBO as much as possible. If their child does not perform too well, these parents prefer repeating a year to transferring to a lower level. Transferring to a lower level happens much more with students whose parents are less educated (Herweijer, 2010).

A second strategy which these parents apply is the so-called ‘compensation strategy’ (Bourdieu, 1989). Already in primary education, parents may enroll their child in a Cito-test-training (Subsection 2.1.1) to increase the chance of getting onto an academic track. Such paid support may continue in secondary education in the form of tutoring and homework supervision. In 2011, parents spent 149 million Euros on this private investment: 13 million in primary education, 99 million in secondary education and 37 million in MBO (CBS, 2012).

The third, most radical strategy is the ‘replacement strategy’, which means the transfer of their child from a regular, government-funded school to one of the very few private schools.

**Summary**

Parents transmit their cultural capital at home by reading to their children, by discussions and by stimulating them to do their utmost at school. This, together with early parental involvement in primary-school years correlates with school performance and with academic and occupational aspirations which are strongly related to social class. Bourdieu states that the dominant school culture ‘teaches’ lower SES children their academic limitations, leading to lower-level educational choices and so reproducing social inequalities. Research among Dutch children has supported the statement that educational attainment is primarily the effect of the
quality of a well-operating home learning environment. Social inequality seems to stem from the secondary effects of social origin, including risk aversion and time-discounting preferences: are you aware of, prepared to take risks in, and pay the price for, educational and occupational choices in the future? The secondary effects of social origin correspond with careership, the sociological theory of career decision-making. Social capital contributes in a new way to inequalities, due to the differences in awareness and information on these (HE) opportunities between classes: informational capital. Highly educated parents may apply different strategies to prevent downward mobility.

2.2.5 Parents’ influence on career development across the life-span

Systems theory in career development

Whereas family can be regarded as a system open to changes and to developments from within the family and through constantly interacting with other systems, so too can individual career development. “The systems approach is in a position to take the most useful concepts of each theory of career development and apply them to the understanding of career behavior” (Osipow, 1983, p.120).

Although the application of systems theory to career development is still in its infancy (cf. Collin, 2012), the Systems Theory Framework (STF) developed by Patton and McMahon (1999; 2014) is well-known (see Figure 5). STF is proposed as an overarching framework within which all theories of career development can be positioned for its use in theory and practice. STF (Patton and McMahon, 2014) includes the theories of content, such as ‘Trait and Factor’ (Parsons, 1909), ‘Theory of personality’ (Holland, 1997); the theories of process, such as ‘Developmental theory’ (Ginzberg, 1952); ‘Life span, life-space (Super, 1957; 1980), ‘Theory of circumscription and compromise’ (Gottfredson, 2002; 2005); the theories of content and process, such as ‘Personality development and career choice’ (Roe, 1956); ‘Social learning career theory’ (Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1990; 1996), ‘Happenstance’ (Krumboltz, 2009); wider approaches, such as ‘Sociological or situational approaches’ (Roberts, 1977; 1997, 2005); and (social) constructivist approaches, such as ‘Career construction theory’ (Savickas, 2002; Savickas et al., 2009) ‘Chaos theory of careers’ (Pryor and Bright, 2011). Law already presented his community interaction theory as a ‘mid-range’ theory between existing self-concept theories and opportunity structure theories, focussing on “...that part of the external world which is
proximately in a process of exchange with the individual – in other words with the sources of expectation, feedback, support, modelling and information which form part of the warp and weft of the client’s day-to-day experience” (Law, 1981, p. 156).

Figure 5: The Systems Theory Framework of Career Development

Central to the STF is the individual system with a range of intrapersonal influences on career development, such as personality, ability, gender, which distinguish each individual from others. System thinking assumes that the individual systems have ‘an individual context’, his/her social system and the broader societal system, of which the influences, such as SES, family, geographic location, labour market are “…less well understood within the theoretical literature, [but] their influence on career development may be profound” (Patton and McMahon, 2006, p.154). All these systems of influence are located within the context of time: past, present and future.
The dynamic nature of career development is reflected in the process influences “…recursive interactions, nonlinear, acausal, mutual, and multidirectional” (Patton and McMahon, 1999, pp. 162-163), within and between those systems”, depicted as broken lines; the changes over time, and chance, depicted as light flashes in Figure 5.

“For most of its history, understandings of career have been influenced by the logical positivist worldview which emphasises rationality based on an objective value free knowledge; objectivity over subjectivity, facts over feelings…The rise to prominence of the influence of the constructivist worldview has made a significant impact in the career discourse…Constructivism views the person as an open system, constantly interacting with the environment, seeking stability through ongoing change” (Patton and McMahon, 2014, p.21).

However, one challenge for constructivists is to provide an account of the point at which an individual’s social construction of reality interfaces with a world, a reality that exists beyond his/her perceptions of it. Patton and McMahon (2006) suggest that there is no reality beyond perceptions. Others, such as Savickas et al. (2009, p. 241) characterise the individual career intervention as “matching their needs to those of the contexts, in particular the context of work activities.” I justify my position in this discussion with both Law’s (1981) community interaction theory and Pryor and Bright's chaos theory of careers approaches. The latter states:

…to break away from the dialectical oppositions…to acknowledge that there is a real world independent of human observation of it…sees career development as an interlocking process of choosing (nomothetic perspective [take observations and experience of the world and translate them into patterns of lawfulness and predictability]) a career and creating (idiographic perspective [focus on the creative, individual and unique interpretation of reality by each person] a career. (Pryor and Bright, 2011, p. 30).

Introduction to parents/family system’s influences

In contrast to mainstream sociology, careers studies have paid attention to where young people are at a particular age and as a result much less has been learned about the process of how young people got there or how they are changing over time (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006; Watson and McMahon, 2005).
The primary role of the family system in the career development of young people is broadly acknowledged, but little researched. Its influence is stronger than that of school and peers (Schulenberg, Vondracek and Crouter, 1984). Dutch secondary school students rate parents/family first as their most important and most appreciated help in career decisions (43%), followed by the career teacher (22%) and in shared third place by the tutor, an older student being a role model and their peers, each with a score of 8% to 9% (Schut, Kuijpers and Lamé, 2013). This mirrors earlier findings in the literature (McMahon, Carroll and Gillies, 2001; McMahon and Patton, 1997; McMahon and Rixon, 2007).

As career development is not a one-off event but lifelong, with a lifespan perspective, the mutual influences of the family system and the individual career development system should be considered.

Childhood

Although at least four career theorists address the significance of childhood in career development (Ginzberg, 1952; Gottfredson, 2002; Havighurst, 1964; Roe, 1956, 1957), until recently relatively few studies had looked into parents’ influence on the career development of children in early childcare and primary school (Hartung, 2015; Hartung, Porfeli and Vondracek, 2005; Howard et al., 2015; Watson and McMahon, 2005, 2007, 2008; Watson, Nota and McMahon, 2015).

While parents are the gatekeepers, occupational knowledge, beliefs and values start to develop in early childhood and increase with age, becoming more comprehensive and detailed at the end of primary education (Walls, 2000). Occupational roles also play an increasing role in the definition of ‘self’.

Occupational gender stereotyping has been found with children from pre-school through all grades in primary school, supporting the theory of Gottfredson (2002, 2005; Wahl and Blackhurst, 2000) of sex-typing of occupational possibilities during that period of time, linked to observing the gender roles at home. Trice, McClellan and Hughes (1992) found that primary school children are influenced by direct suggestions related to occupational direction, predominately by their parents. Galinsky (2000) found that children learn from direct observation or overhearing conversations about work. Overall, however, children are found to know little about their parents’ work; they perceive their parents’ attitude towards work more negatively.
than their parents do; and are more aware of income as the primary reason why an adult works, rather than for the psychological rewards (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006).

Gottfredson (2002) posits that on the threshold of adolescence children have expanded their self-concept of occupational gender images with a social class identity: their step on the educational and occupational prestige ladder of ‘our kind of people’ (cultural capital), eliminating all possibilities that are below or beyond. Trice et al. (1995) found that children from single-parent families and with lower SES parents are more likely to have limited occupational aspirations, due both to limited financial and social capital and to the parents’ view (cultural capital) that children have a responsibility to contribute financially to the family (Lee and Hughey, 2001), which may lead in adolescence to exploration of occupations with early earnings or relevance to family needs (cf. Breen, Van de Werfhorst and Jæger, 2014). Both Trice and Knapp (1992) and Trice et al. (1995) found that children’s early aspirations seemed to be more similar to their mothers’ occupations than their fathers’, but this identification waned in the later elementary years as their child started to express their own aspirations more clearly (Helwig, 1998).

Adolescence: influences
Parents are often found to be the top influencer on young people’s careers (Mortimer et al., 2002; Phillips and Richards, 2015). Adolescents also perceive their parents as their major collocutor in relation to career issues (Fend, 1991; Otto, 2000; Schut, Kuijpers and Lamé, 2013).

The particularly significant role of the mother as model and adviser for future plans, both in childhood and adolescence, is the result of spending more time and so having more opportunities for interaction with their children. Mothers are more involved than fathers, which is confirmed by the adolescents who think their mother is more aware of their career interests and abilities and is more helpful than others like fathers, school staff or peers (Otto, 2000; Phillips and Newton, 2014)

Fathers are more likely to share work experiences if they feel financially successful. Fathers are influential both in the career development of sons (Vondracek and Porfeli, 2003) and of daughters (Hoffman, Hofacker and Goldsmith, 1992). Educational achievement of sons and daughters entering adolescence remains high
if fathers and mothers are involved in child-centred activities (Flouri and Buchanan, 2004). If the father is involved, also the mother is involved, playing complementary roles (Paquette, 2004), which means that their child accrues the benefits of social capital of both parents in society.

Parental influence in adolescence, a critical period in career development (Savickas, 2002), has been researched more than childhood. Young et al. (2001, p.191) quotes the substantial research literature that supports the relationship between several family variables and career guidance outcomes in this life-phase. These include parental attachment (e.g. Ketterson and Blustein, 1997; Ryan, Solberg and Brown, 1996), parental support (e.g. Wall, Covell and MacIntyre, 1999) and such dependent variables as vocational aspiration and achievement (Rainey and Borders, 1997), career decisiveness (Lopez and Andrews, 1987), career exploration (Felsman and Blustein, 1999; Kracke, 1997), career commitment (Blustein et al., 1991), and career self-efficacy (Nota et al., 2007; O’Brien, 1996; Ryan, Solberg and Brown, 1996). This research suggests that family variables are wide-ranging, influencing a number of career outcomes, and persist over time. Many of the family variables and the career outcomes in these studies refer to long-term and deeply embedded processes within the family.

Parents and family influence their children’s career development in both implicit and explicit ways, although they may not be aware of the processes involved (Katznelson and Pless, 2007; Semple, Howieson and Paris, 2002). Examples of implicit, unplanned forms of parental influences include psychological variables in the family processes such as parental attachment, the parental style, the daily pattern of family life and the transmission of social class including occupational attainment.

For vocational exploration, psychological variables in the family processes, such as parental attachment and parenting styles, appear to be more salient than structural and demographic variables such as maternal employment and education (Whiston and Keller, 2004). Exploration is necessary for acquiring self-knowledge and information on education, occupations, work and the labour market. Students who search actively and deliberately are in a better position to react to the rapidly changing world.
Attachment (Bowlby, 1969) refers to the quality of the parent-child relationship, and to the responsiveness of parents to their child’s needs (social capital): it includes interaction, involvement, participation, advising and monitoring. Where a secure attachment in childhood can be observed with the child seeking parents when in need, in adolescence this shifts to parents being available for open communication. A secure attachment, knowing that parental support is there if challenges become excessive, is fundamental for the adolescent’s wellbeing (Lopez, 1992), their self-efficacy and intentions to persist with hard academic achievement (Torres and Solberg, 2001). It also is fundamental to the child’s need for autonomy, granted by the parents, which further supports the development of self-directed exploration (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006).

‘Parenting styles’ recall the propositions of Roe in the 1950s and 1960s. Baumrind (1991) identified parenting styles as broad patterns of rearing practices, moving between values and behaviours. Two dimensions of parenting play an important role: parental warmth is the degree of acceptance and responsiveness parents display; parental control is the degree to which parents manage their child's behaviour: from being very strict to setting few rules. Thus, the four archetypes of parenting styles are: (i) indulgent (more responsive than demanding; no limits or control); (ii) authoritarian (highly demanding and directive but not responsive; low warmth); (iii) authoritative (highly demanding and highly responsive; high warmth); and (iv) uninvolved (low on responsiveness and warmth; low control).

Way and Rossman (1996) described how each parental style can influence the career development of adolescents. Indulgent parents, for example, place few demands or controls on the behaviour of their children, which makes it hard for the children to develop self-knowledge, realistic plans and goals. Authoritarian parents are associated with academic competence, self-reliance, and work orientation, but these parents pressure their child to conform and fulfill the parents’ expectations regarding education and careers. The authoritative style is associated with self-confidence, persistence, social competence, academic success and psychosocial development (Bloir, 1997; Strage and Brandt, 1999), and is found to promote independence, which results in more active career exploration on the part of the children (Kracke, 1997). Adolescents in families with uninvolved or inactive parents
find it difficult to develop self-knowledge or to differentiate their own goals from their parents' goals (Way and Rossman, 1996).

Parenting styles are significantly related to career decision self-efficacy and career decision-making difficulties, as Sovet and Metz (2014) found. However, parenting styles and their positive outcome differed across cultural contexts: the authoritative parenting style was more effective among French adolescents, while the authoritarian parenting style was more effective among Korean adolescents. As part of the cultural values, both the parenting style and the educational systems are accountable for the differences found, according to the authors (Sovet and Metz, 2014). These seem likely to be related to the profoundly distinct cultural dimensions of societies around the world as indicated by Hofstede (2001; Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010) in relation to: power distance; individualism and collectivism; masculinity and femininity; uncertainty avoidance; long-term and short-term orientation; and indulgence and restraint.

The daily patterns of family functioning, e.g. decision-making, degrees of conflict and cohesion, have been shown to be related to the development of career maturity among adolescents in terms of occupational knowledge, beliefs and values (Penick and Jepsen, 1992).

Parents contribute to their children's career development through the strength of their work values by discussing work with each other (Galinsky, 2000) and by modelling examples through their own behaviour. Lopez (2001a), for example, describes how an immigrant family understood parental involvement as imprinting on their children the value of education through hard work and taking them to work to teach them three important lessons: the work their parents do; the understanding that this work is difficult, full of stress and with little compensation; and that without education the children might end up working in a similar type of job. African American and Latino college students observing their parents in difficult occupational and personal circumstances were often motivated to succeed in college as a result (Fisher and Padmawidjaja, 1999).

Among Dutch adolescents, work, career and life values are transferred from parents to their child, but children tend to derive different values from their fathers than from their mothers (Roest, 2009). Fathers are important for transmitting ideas about work,
while mothers are important for the transfer of self-determination: ‘do what you want to do’, and ‘go your own way’. But mothers also influence fathers’ values focused on enjoying life and having fun. Furthermore, adolescents and young adults not only reactively take on the values of their parents; they also proactively socialise their parents. In particular, adolescents influence the work ethic of their parents, though it is striking that this influence mainly comes from sons and not from daughters. Family members influence each other; moreover, socialisation in the family is not in a vacuum: the zeitgeist plays a major role.

There are well built findings about the intergenerational transmission of social class including occupational attainment through parents’ influence (Kohn and Slominsky, 1993; Lareau, 2011; Clark et al., 2014). The more that parents believe they are able to influence educational development, the higher their own aspirations and the self-efficacy beliefs of their children concerning education and occupations, which do not always match the students’ actual academic achievement (Bandura et al., 2001). The parental self-efficacy to influence a child’s academic progress, the readiness and skills to do so and experience of higher education puts these more educated parents as a group in a position to expect their child to go to higher education, and to support them in meeting the requirements of higher education through planned and purposeful interventions, e.g. in enrolment in special classes and preparatory programmes. Parents influence adolescents’ work self-efficacy beliefs and academic achievement not only with intellectual stimulation but also by nurturing, responsive and empathetic relationships (Entwisle and Alexander, 2000; Taylor, 2000). Parental aspiration (cultural capital) plus financial capital mediate the link between social class and adolescents’ occupational aspirations and between educational attainment and occupational aspirations (Schoon and Parsons, 2002). However, informational capital (Subsection 3.4.2) is an essential link too (Jæger, 2007; Van de Werfhorst, 2014).

The sense of ‘naturalness’ of a choice by youngsters, comes from the merger of the ideas of the adolescent and the opinion of their parents, which the youngsters take over and make their own: i.e. habitus (cf. Bourdieu, 1986). Although young people have their own world, they still explore education and jobs which they learn about and get interested in via their parents. There is support for the relationship between habitus and occupational preferences (Vilhjálmsdottir and Arnkelsson, 2013).

“Habitus makes some choices (of education) and preference seem to be the natural
subjective choice – even though these choices can often be traced back to our social background” (Katznelson and Pless, 2007, p.130). These are experienced by the individual as their own independently-made choice. A Dutch example of this ‘naturalness’ can be found in the choice of a science subject by HAVO/VWO students if their parents have an educational background or profession in science (Van Langen and Vierke, 2009) and most VMBO-students in the engineering and technology sector are familiar with someone working in that sector (Hiteq, 2008).

Adolescence: career-specific parental behaviours

Apart from implicit influences, parents may have the intention of influencing or facilitating their adolescent child’s career through interaction with him or her about career. Explicit ways for parents to influence career development may be part of the intensified responsibility parents experience for their child(ren) as they move through their adolescence (Thomson et al., 2011) and also for the adult that they may become (Hoffman 2010).

Three career-specific parental behaviours related to their adolescents’ career development have been found in adolescents’ self-reported research (Dietrich and Kracke, 2009; Sarti et al., 2009; JOB and LAKS, 2010). The first is support: parents let their child make their own choices while offering orientation and instrumental support if needed, encouraging exploration of interests, abilities and occupational options and helping their child to reflect on these, which encourages the child to engage in career exploration activities (Kracke and Noack, 2005; Schultheiss et al., 2002). The second is interference: parents control the actions and choices, exert pressure, push (Schultheiss et al., 2002) and enforce their own agenda (Young and Friesen, 1992), which is found to make the child less active in career preparation (Kracke and Noack, 2005). The third is lack of engagement: parents show due to actual disinterest, the perceived low importance of the career choice, or being over-challenged with the issue or with other matters in life (Altman, 1997).

Young and Friesen (1992) identified 10 specific categories of parental intentions to facilitate their adolescents’ career development: (i) skill acquisition, (ii) acquisition of specific values or beliefs, (iii) protection from unwanted experiences, (iv) increasing independent thinking or action, (v) decreasing sex-role stereotyping, (vi) moderation of parent-child relationships, (vii) facilitation of human relationships, (viii)
enhancement of character development, and (ix) development of personal responsibility. The final category referred to intentions primarily concerned with the parents’ interests: (x) achievement of parents’ personal goals development.

Katznelson and Pless (2007) also noted the latter ‘interference’ by some parents and explained this attitude not only in relation to the ambitiousness of parents, but also with the striving for a good and secure future for their child, which was confirmed by UK students (Phillips and Newton, 2014).

Young, Paselinkho and Valach (1997) pointed to the reciprocal social relations between parents and their children. Parents’ influence on career development results from the continuous relationship with their child. The conversation between children and their parents about aspects of career can be framed as a ‘career project’, where project is understood as a series of goal-directed actions undertaken by the parent and adolescent. In this project, the relationship between child and parent is being continuously re-constructed. The career-development activities of adolescents do not stand alone. They are jointly constructed, embedded in a complex hierarchy of family goals and various projects, and have distinct properties that facilitate their realisation. The three main forms of action this could take (Young et al., 1997) are: (i) negotiating to reach some agreement; (ii) exploring both career possibilities, future goals and the parent-child relationship; and (iii) struggling, verbal fighting, debating and constraining each other on issues that seem not open to negotiation.

“The patterns of joint actions are important because it is here that we see how relationships and family functioning are embedded in career conversations and how the construction of career occurs in families” (Young et al., 1997, p.83). The career of the child can be a disruptive issue in the parent-child relationship. The joint action can be initiated by parent(s) or child and serve both the reconstruction of the child-parent relationship as well as to support the career development of the adolescent (Young et al., 2001, 2006).

Research in Denmark by Katznelson and Pless (2007) found that the interest of parents in the choices to be made and their knowledge about options in the educational system and the labour market, and therefore their ability to help and support their child in the choices for further and higher education, is related to their educational background and ethnicity. Over 90% of the youngsters experienced high
interest from their parents in the educational choices to be made; only 3% reported experiencing no interest at all from their parents for work or further education. Among parents with low SES and/or an immigration background can be found both low interest in the educational choice of their child and the largest gap in knowledge about the options. Actual knowledge about the educational system is to a large extent generated from parents’ own educational experiences or lack of education. The more education a parent has, the more chance there is of an ‘educated guess’ among the current educational opportunities. However, all parents indicated that they experienced the current educational offer as complicated, cluttered and unclear, and that it was hard to understand the meaning of the new courses and programmes that had emerged since they left education themselves. Despite this limitation, parents guided their children beyond primary and lower secondary school with a few ‘mantras’ (Katznelson and Pless, 2007, p.135).

- ‘Follow your heart’. This is a mantra which is recognisable among Dutch parents and, as in Denmark, mainly comes from mothers (Roest, 2009). It seems that educational choice is not an issue among Danish adolescents, as only 2% of the youngsters indicate that guidance in school should support them against parental pressure. Nonetheless, parents worry and have concerns about how their child will manage.

- ‘You must get started on something’. Many parents, especially with a lower educational background, fear that their child will get stuck in the transition from one school to another, especially if the child shows school fatigue. The concern of these parents is that in case of early-leaving, their child will not be active in a socially acceptable context: not necessarily education but work. Thus, these parents are willing to agree with every option their child will come up with.

- ‘Stay in (general) education for as long as you can’. Most youngsters do not explore options outside the educational system until after compulsory education. Both the parents and their children have a natural inclination to continue into upper secondary education (or, in the Dutch situation: not into VET).

In the period of adolescence, parents may take very different positions in the child’s process of career decision-making. Some parents perceive their role as simply supporting the child, whereas others see their child as being far from capable of making such decisions and view it as their role to create a framework for life and
guide them to the right places: “…parents, who, hovering like helicopters, constantly keep an eye out for and remove all obstacles from the path of their children” (Katznelson and Pless, 2007, p.145).

**Early adulthood**
During transition periods, such as moving from school to further or higher education, or from education to work, older adolescents can engage in a variety of goal-directed behaviours which benefit their success in dealing with the demands of the transition (Heckhausen, Wrosch and Schulz, 2010). Studies show that career development and the maturity of college students and young adults are influenced by their family, especially by parental emotional and autonomy support, encouragement, and warmth (Whiston and Keller, 2004). Other family members, particularly siblings, have also been found to be influential (Schultheiss et al., 2002).

Parental influence often continues much longer than the parents themselves expect: even in HE, students rely in the first place on parents for their career views and approval (Taylor, Harris and Taylor, 2004). Phillips, Christopher-Sisk and Gravino (2001) studied young adults who had recently made the transition from school to work, to find that among the many individuals being involved in their career decision-making, parents were the most frequently mentioned.

**Adulthood**
Dutch adolescents and young adults often maintain a good and stable relationship with their parents, who prove to be of lasting importance for their well-being. For adults, the parental bond can appear as important for their well-being as having a partner or a best friend (Van Wel, Ter Bogt and Raaijmakers, 2002).

For adults, the potential impact of the family of origin on vocational development is more complex. Both family demographic and family dynamic variables influence adults’ career development. Research focusing on the relational contexts of development suggests that not only do individuals carry the results of their family interactions with them for a large period, they also subsequently reproduce this in their own parenting (Grotevant and Cooper, 1985; Levine and Sutherland, 2013; Youniss and Smollar, 1985).
For ‘non-white’ adults, the research findings are consistent with many of these studies. However, one difference is the degree to which these adults indicated that their parents’ emphasis on education had a significant effect on their occupational choices and attainment, plus parents more often provided financial assistance and educational and occupational information which also contributed to their career development (Chung, Baskin and Case, 1999). These findings are in line with a recent study among descendants of Turkish and Moroccan immigrants in Europe, in which Rezai (2017) distinguishes informational, financial and emotional support. The latter, in the form of ‘family messages’ are based on the migration and working-life experiences of the parents and refer to (i) passing on the joint upward mobility project of parents aimed by the migration; (ii) presenting positive and negative role models for motivation reasons; and (iii) using a dual frame of reference to compare the educational and career opportunities in the country of origin with those in the country of present residence.

**Why not involve parents in CEG?**

The influence of a family system, especially parents, seems inescapable. But there are some forms of support, including push and pull, interference and/or power mechanisms from the parents’ side, which may influence the career of an individual in a troublesome way. Bratcher (1982) mentions, for example, the extent to which an individual can separate from the family, both literally and figuratively speaking, think independently from the family, formulate their own ideas, and develop their own beliefs and values without ending up in a position of rebelling against the family. In the case of strong intergenerational transmission in families with strong family values (e.g. religion) or traditions (occupational attainment), when does this become ‘dictating one’s career’?

Some parents see educational choice as a battle to attain social recognition and status for their children (Katzenelson and Pless, 2007). This group of parents especially seeks to improve their knowledge of education and guidance for their child. Katzenelson and Pless contend that promoting further parental involvement in this area risks putting pressure on youngsters’ free choice and the independence they should be achieving in the process. There is the risk of attracting those parents that are already very involved and making them even more active. The result of further parental involvement in the career development may be that “…instead of achieving
the goal of equal opportunity, the opposite may occur: greater inequality” (Katznelson
and Pless, 2007, p.146).

From a different point of view, the school-management and staff perspective,
involving parents in CEG may not be desirable as it will add to their busy schedule or
concession-making in power and decision-making. Ethically, school-staff may
consider students as their client and not the parents.

What is the role of careers work in the web of the family system, in the chaotic
system with interacting factors of intergenerational reproduction of social class? As
Watts (1996, p.225) puts it:

Careers work operates at the interface between the individual and society,
between self and opportunity, between aspiration and realism. It facilitates the
allocation of life chances. Within a society in which such life chances are
unequally distributed, it faces the issue of whether it serves to reinforce such
inequalities or to reduce them.

Should careers work, whether with young people or with their parents, serve as an
instrument to reproduce or reduce inequalities? I perceive this challenge as being to
create an authentic, emancipatory approach in parental involvement in CEG at
secondary schools to serve young people in their efforts to construct a meaningful life
in society and to serve parents to be of help in that process. This parental support
and the role of CEG to help parents in this respect is most relevant, as in Dutch
society the access to more and to a higher educational level tends to make the
difference in combating educational inequalities and achieve social justice.

**Summary**
The STF positions theories of career development. The individual is at the centre of
contextual and societal influences and the ‘present, past and future’ time frame.
Some of its underpinning constructivist approaches discuss the interface between the
individual and these influences, which can often be beyond individual’s perspectives.

Parents influence their child’s lifelong career development in purposeful ways, both
implicitly (e.g. SES, short- or long-term horizon in educational decision-making) and
explicitly (reading behaviour), in their cultural context. They lay the foundations of
career development in childhood. In adolescence, parents influence career
outcomes. Older adolescents, while making the transition from school to school or work, can benefit from parental support. Also, adults’ career development is influenced by demographics and dynamics in the family of social origin. Adults take the initial result of their experienced parent-child interaction with them and subsequently reproduce them in their own parenting. An ethical consideration with increased parental involvement in careers work is whether the action could reinforce inequalities.

2.3 Parental involvement

2.3.1 The definition of parental involvement
The various definitions of ‘parental involvement’ have been analysed in reviews and meta-analyses (Bakker and Denessen, 2007; Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Henderson and Mapp, 2002; Wilder, 2014). Observable behaviours are found in both definition and concepts, as for instance Epstein (1992). Some definitions refer further to the goal of influencing children’s cognitive development and school achievement (Fantuzzo, Davis and Ginsberg, 1995). Parental involvement can also be extended to a set of parental beliefs, attitudes and values such as having high aspirations for their children (Sui-Chu and Willms, 1996).

Following Georgiu’s argument (1997) of the vagueness of the term parental involvement, Bakker and Denessen (2007) suggested that it would be preferable to use specific behavioural indicators instead. Epstein (1992) suggests that family, school and community are overlapping spheres of influence, recognising that parents’ involvement in children’s education and family-school connections are not static. Parental involvement may vary by factors such as students’ grade level, SES and ethnic background, family relationships and experiences, and school policies (Epstein, 1992). She prefers the term ‘school, family and community partnership’ rather than parental involvement (Epstein and Van Voorhis, 2010, p.1). However, ‘partnership’, as promoted in Dutch policy, is pointing to a power-equal relationship between parents and school. This probably will build much more on teacher or school initiatives. So, following Mayhack and Kracke (2008), I consider the term parental involvement more appropriate, defined as:

Parental involvement takes many forms including good parenting in the home, the provision of a secure and stable environment, intellectual stimulation,
parent-child discussion, good models of constructive social and educational values and high aspirations relating to personal fulfilment and good citizenship, contact with schools to share information, participation in school events, participation in the work of the school and participation in school governance. (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003, p.4)

Research results for secondary-age interventions

The diverse conceptualisations and definitions of ‘parental involvement’, the many layers of its concept and the biased and weak research have been criticised. Specifically, the research on the correlation of parental involvement and students’ attainment, the basis for policy globally, shows varying and differing results (Bakker et al., 2013; Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Gorard and See, 2013; See and Gorard, 2015; Turney and Kao, 2009). Hall and Quinn (2014) noted the scarcity of literature about high school parents’ perspectives on parental involvement.

Focussing on the various secondary age interventions aiming at increasing attainment: in reviewing international studies between 1990 and 2012, Gorard and See (2013) found that none were effective. Bakker et al. (2013), reviewing studies between 2003 and 2013, found no evidence for the effectiveness of parental participation (Subsection 1.2.3) but they found evidence for parental involvement for both cognitive and non-cognitive (e.g. motivation, self-esteem, truancy) outcomes. The latter includes two American studies on home-based parental involvement of career decisions with Mexican American adolescent men (Flores et al., 2006) and on career development of poor adolescents of African, Asian and Latino origin (Diemer, 2007). In general, the support perceived by the adolescent, such as showing interest and stimulating them to do well at school, is found to be effective (Bakker et al., 2013).

Parental behaviour that promotes adolescents’ independence and autonomy is most relevant (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003). Communicating high-parental expectations, which reflect parents’ beliefs and attitudes toward school, teachers, subjects, and education in general, are found to have the strongest impact on academic achievement (Fan and Chen, 2001; Jeynes, 2007; Wilder, 2014). Homework assistance, or at least homework checking, one of the most commonly practised forms of at-home involvement (Pezdek, Berry, and Renno, 2002) has no
positive relationship with academic achievement and has even been found to be negatively correlated with it (Hill and Tyson, 2009; Jeynes, 2005) – possibly because, where the students’ results decline, homework checking, pressure and the parent-school contact increase.

SES and cultural background play an ambivalent role: family background is important as a mediator for attainment; but where interaction effects are reported in results, lower SES compared to higher SES youngsters benefit much more from parental involvement (Bakker et al., 2013).

However, all young people, high and lower SES, benefit in their academic achievement from secondary school policies and practices that enhance relationships with parents/families and improve levels of parents’ satisfaction with their child’s school. Also, these policies and practices assist secondary schools in achieving their performance goals (Hampden-Thompson and Galindo, 2017). Parental involvement organised by the schools themselves is more effective than PI programmes imposed from outside the school (Pomerantz, Moorman, and Litwack, 2007).

2.3.2 Models of parental involvement in education
Models of and research on parental involvement tend to concentrate on early child-care and primary education. Besides the model of Epstein (1992, 1995; Epstein and Associates, 2009), the model by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997; Hoover-Dempsey et al. 2005) is widely recognised. Not directly presented as a model, but also influential, has been the work of Desforges and Abouchaar (2003), who presented a research-based model of how effective parental involvement in schooling works.

Epstein
Epstein (1992) distinguishes six types of parental involvement: (i) parenting – parent practices that establish a positive learning environment at home; (ii) communication – parent-school communications about school programmes and student progress; (iii) volunteering – parent participation and volunteering at school; (iv) home tutoring – parent and school communications regarding learning activities at home; (v) involvement in school decision-making and governance; and (vi) collaboration with the community – parents’ access to community resources that increase students’ learning opportunities.
Epstein’s six types have been elaborated for secondary education by Catsambis (2001), who emphasises that when children enter adolescence and face the developmental task of acquiring independence, parental actions to support this development will change from those adopted previously. As parents become less directly involved with the secondary school, they become more involved in supportive roles at home, in helping with homework or subject choices, and career options (Hill and Taylor, 2004). Both type i (‘parenting’) and type iv (‘home tutoring’) continue, concentrating on activities that the family traditionally controls, e.g. doing homework. At the time of the upper secondary level, type i (‘parenting’) tends to decline, and while parents become more concerned about the academic achievement, they increase type ii (‘communication’), and intensify type iv (‘home tutoring’) (Catsambis, 2001).

To illustrate this, research on home tutoring in the Netherlands found that about 70% of parents in secondary education talk daily with their child, mostly about results in tests and assignments, about dealing with teachers/peers/friends and about what has been learned in lessons (Herweijer and Vogels, 2013a). The frequency of talking about various career-related topics in secondary education is shown in Figure 6.

**Figure 6: Frequency of parents talking with their child in secondary education about (school) career-related topics in 2012**

![Chart showing frequency of parents talking with their child](chart.png)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment and motivation for current education</th>
<th>The importance of achieving a diploma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The choice of further/higher education</td>
<td>The importance of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational choice</td>
<td>Choice of cluster and optional subjects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(vaak = often;  soms = sometimes; nooit = never)

The relative low frequency for ‘choice of cluster and optional subjects’ can be explained by the fact that these choices only come directly into play at a particular stage. Parents of HAVO students talk more about this with their child compared to VWO parents. Mothers talk more than fathers with their child about the choice of further/higher education and vocations (Herweijer and Vogels, 2013b).

**Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler**

The model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005) focuses on understanding the process of parent involvement. The model suggests three major factors for parents’ involvement in their children’s education which interact and influence the variety for involvement and its frequency.

1. ‘Personal motivators’, as part of the social systems to which parents belong. This includes: (a) parents’ sense of ‘self-efficacy’, i.e. parents’ beliefs about whether or not their involvement is likely to have a positive influence on their children’s education; and (b) the ‘parental role construction’ for involvement, i.e. parents’ beliefs about what they are supposed to do in relation to their children’s schooling.

2. ‘Parents’ perceptions of invitations to be involved’. This invitation may come from the school, teacher or child.

3. The life context including ‘parental knowledge and skills’, ‘time and energy’ and ‘family culture’.

Deslandes and Bertrand (2005) found in their study of the motivation of parental involvement at secondary school level (12-15-year-olds) that parents’ perception of their child’s invitations was the most powerful predictor for home-based parental involvement, followed by parents’ role construction. Communicating values, aspirations, expectations and goals with their child was shown to have the most impact on achievement of all the forms that parental involvement can take. This included showing interest in the school day or monitoring homework at home, taking part in parent-teacher meetings and attending school-based activities. The learning mechanisms parents applied were encouragement, modelling, reinforcement and instruction (cf. ‘advisor, coach and teacher’: Ladd and Pettit, 2002).

Deslandes and Bertrand (2005) suggest that if the objective of the school interventions is to enhance home-based parental involvement, there is a need to
work directly with adolescents, e.g. in teaching them how they should invite their parents to assist them with their homework, projects, etc. Parent programmes should in that case enhance parents’ skills and self-efficacy. Parents should be aware of the importance of sustained parent–adolescent communication about schooling and career and work planning over time (Deslandes and Bertrand, 2005).

Klaassen, Vreugdenhil and Boonk (2011) and Semple (1993) argue that home-based interventions and/or parent-school communication are preferred by parents, compared to school-based interventions. Semple (1993) found that parents perceive a home-based career intervention as allowing greater flexibility for work or family commitments; also, parents feared an unwilling child with a school-based intervention with parent(s)-child or were reluctant themselves having previous experiences with other dominating parents in parents’ evenings.

Desforges and Abouchaar

Desforges and Abouchaar (2003) stated after an extensive research review that home is the key context for parental impact on school outputs:

Throughout the age range (…) parental involvement seems to have its major impact on children through the modelling of values and expectations, through encouragement and through interest in and respect for the child-as-learner. It seems that pupils internalise aspects of parental values and expectations as they form an image of themselves as a learner – their so-called ‘educational self-schema’. These influences are played out through discussions about and beyond schooling. All aspects of these exchanges can be enhanced through learning. (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003, p.51)

- The extent and form of parental involvement is strongly influenced by family social class, the mother’s level of education and her psychosocial health, material deprivation, single parent status and, to a lesser degree, by family ethnicity (…). The extent of parental involvement diminishes as the child gets older and is strongly influenced at all ages by the child characteristically taking a very active mediating role. (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003, p.4)

They presented a model (Figure 7) of how effective parental involvement works, derived from research. This model puts together components of the Epstein, Hoover-
Dempsey and Sandler models, in the perspective of what works well and its sequence, the mutual though limited influence of family systems, parent, child, school and thus adding the force field in which parental involvement is taking place. For instance, the conditions at school-level, which will be discussed in Subsection 2.3.3, are recognised in the right-hand corner. I consider this model most relevant to this study.

Figure 7: Desforges and Abouchaar: research-based model of effective parental involvement in schooling

2.3.3 Conditions for parental involvement

Hornby and Lafaele (2011) took stock of the influence of factors at the parent/family, child, parent–teacher and societal levels, acting as barriers to the development of effective parental involvement. This also provides insights into the conditions that
should be met for creating and implementing a lasting and sustainable intervention. Some of the factors indicated previously may be repeated here to have ‘the full picture’. Some factors or barriers may turn out to be conditions that are unchangeable and have to be considered in an intervention, while others may turn out to be changeable conditions.

Parent level

*Parental self-efficacy* and *parent role definition* are crucial to involvement (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1997). As described in Subsection 2.2.2, an additional barrier for individual parents can be the tendency among working-class parents to believe that intelligence is fixed and that rearing in general does not have much impact on the development of their child.

Parents value the *invitation for involvement* less if they perceive that teachers do not value or are not actively involved in the schools’ initiative of parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1995, 1997). Most parents experience schools as bureaucratic organisations, which can act as a barrier.

In the *current life context*, barriers may arise from:
- parents lacking confidence about their skills in parenting because of their level of education;
- family circumstances, e.g. being a single parent, or a young family;
- being employed (less time) or unemployed (no means of transport); and
- psychological resources: health problems, no effective support.

The OECD (1997) argues that differences in *class, ethnicity and gender* may play a role in determining the degree to which parents are involved with schools. Those involved in any form of parental involvement are, according to teachers, the ‘good parents’, who typically are white middle-class, married and heterosexual (Reay, 1998). Barriers arise from:
- working-class parents being aware of the dissimilar cultural capital between them and the teachers. They accordingly desire to separate home and school, while middle-class parents desire interconnectedness (cf. Denessen *et al.*, 2001);
- being a minority: having problems impeding involvement such as language, communication, lack of transport and/or child care. The relationship of minorities
groups with teachers is substantially different (OECD, 1997) and difficult for teachers (Bakker et al., 2013);

- ethnicity: The school ignores the family’s cultural roles, expectations and values, which leads to mistrust; and

- gender: Parental involvement is predominately mothers’ involvement. The mother’s world is family-focused, and mothers perceive educational issues differently from educators by putting a holistic focus on the family. Added to that can be important recent changes in the family structure: mothers have to balance family-work-school and the effects of class, material status and ethnicity.

- child-age: The assumption that parents aren’t as involved or as interested in the progress of their adolescent children compared to primary school-age, which is contradicted by Shaver and Walls (1998), who have found that parents do have a desire to be involved in their adolescents’ life, regardless of their economic status or ethnicity.

Child level

Age, learning difficulties and disabilities, gifts and talents, and behavioural problems of the child can act as barriers to parental involvement. These include the following factors.

- Age: The assumption that the older the child gets, the less they want their parents to be involved, as they seek to become more independent. However, research shows that adolescents do want to interact with their parents, other adults, and have them involved in their lives (Duffett and Johnson, 2004).

- Learning difficulties and disabilities: The more these are there, the more communication between school and parents occur, but also there are more grounds for disagreement.

- Gifts and talents: These may be a barrier if parents and school differ in their view; or parents feel their child is not challenged enough; or the school is not responsive in taking account of the requirements of extra talented children in areas such as in sport, (e.g. much training and travel).

- Behavioural problems. Parental involvement is hampered by the fear of parents about hearing more unwelcome news; the more disruptive the behaviour of the child, the less parents are inclined towards parental involvement.

Parent-teacher level
Hindering factors in this relation include: *differing agendas, attitudes and language* used.

The interest in parental involvement differs among the parties involved, i.e. teacher, school management and board and parents which leads to *different goals and agendas* ranging from improving homework and increasing school accountability to improvement of the child’s education. Adelman (1992), in discussing the impact of these differing goals, considers that parent-school relationships are based upon an agenda of socialisation, where schools attempt to shape parental attitudes and practices so that they facilitate schooling. He suggests that it is possible to scale the many diverse types of parental involvement from ‘improving individuals’ to ‘improving the school’. It seems that many tutors spend their time on individual cases rather than on all parents (Jónsdóttir and Björnsdóttir, 2012).

In the area of *attitudes* in the parent-teacher relation, barriers include:
- parent and teacher have their own historical, economic, educational, ethnic, class and gendered experiences. Many teachers have a deficit model of parents. Meanwhile parents have become more aware of their rights as consumers but are heterogeneous in their wishes, usually not having a clear agenda and little political power;
- parent and teacher have a different understanding of the relationship between schooling and education. In short: “Should school teachers educate children while parents humbly support the schools? (...) Are parents the main educators of their child, while schools supplement home-learning with specialist expertise?” (OECD, 1997, p.52);
- the false assumptions by school staff that parents do not take responsibility nowadays compared to earlier days; or are not interested in the educational programming and decision-making;
- the false assumption by parents that teachers seek problems and are not interested in being involved; and
- if teachers perceive that the power of parents in the school’s policy is excessive, they are less motivated and less willing to invest in parental involvement (Bakker *et al.*, 2013, p.66).
A final factor in hindering parental involvement in this aspect of parent-teacher relations is the *language* used, e.g.:

- expressing parental involvement as a ‘parent and professional’ interaction;
- the term ‘partnership’ that masks the inequalities that exist between the parties involved (Mayhack and Kracke, 2008; Reay, 1998);
- the fact that the discussion of ‘the missing parents in parental involvement’ is based on the principle that parents are failing and need help from experts.

**Societal factors**

One silent and unacknowledged *historical barrier* to parental involvement is the school organisation which, as Henderson and Berla (1994) argue, is historically organised along factory lines but which continues to operate, making the school organisation inflexible and counterproductive to forming parent-school relationships.

Another example is the traditional definition of parental involvement, narrowed down to supporting school by parents. However, in the meantime the discussion about wider responsibilities and power over education besides schools took place, as well as changes in the family structure that are contradictory: e.g. work hours, mobility, both parents working and high level of stress, divorce, single-parent-ship, composed families).

**Political factors** that are contradictory to parental involvement include:

- the absence of specific legislation, which means that parental involvement takes place on a voluntary basis by schools at a time when competition for economic resources may favour other priorities;
- the absence of catchment areas of school, e.g. by zip code, making it harder to connect to the community (mostly applicable in the Netherlands until now);
- following the absence of specific legislation, parental involvement not being part of initial teacher training.

Finally, *economic factors can act* as a barrier to parental involvement. Schools now have to justify their public funding. The area of ‘parental involvement’ is disadvantaged in this respect, as it is related to long-term instead of short-term goals and because it is not supported by legislation. For these reasons, it is at risk of being cut when schools economise.
Some further reflections on careers work in reproducing inequality

Some of the barriers to parental involvement outlined in this Subsection may coincide with the barriers to parental involvement in careers work, but the latter may have additional barriers on several levels, e.g. the low status of careers work in policies.

In the selective Dutch educational system, with the tendency of both teaching and guidance staff to marginalise parents’ role in CEG and the relevant school procedures, parental involvement in CEG may set up an ‘arena’ or contested area. As I observed, the initiatives by secondary schools to pay attention to involving parents in CEG seem in practice to have repeated or intensified the ‘good practice’ of ‘supply-driven, unilateral information’ or ‘the invitation for parents to tell students about their occupation’ (Oomen, 2012a). This may point to hesitations to enlarge the role of parents in CEG.

Summary

Parental involvement is a multifaceted, complex concept, lacking a clear definition. The several models and research-outcomes of parental involvement were summarised in Desforges and Abouchaar’s model (2003). Factors at the level of parent/family, child, school and society, acting as barriers to the development of effective parental involvement, were presented to enable reflection on the conditions that need to be fulfilled with a parent-involved career intervention in education.

2.4 Parent-involved career interventions for adolescents

Having explored parental involvement in education, we now turn to parental involvement in CEG. What we know already is that CEG tends to be more effective if it is engaged in the school curriculum. In the academic track of secondary education, Dutch research (Warps, 2013) found seven components that relate to a successful choice of study in HE (Subsection 1.2.2), one of which is parental involvement. There is a very limited literature on parental involvement in CEG, which I will present in this Subsection.

Regardless of SES, parents report a need for help in providing support in career development and in educational planning throughout childhood and adolescence (Arrington, 2000; Otto, 1989). The call to offer informed interventions by family, schools and community (Hartung, 2015; Sharf, 2013; Watson, McMahon and Stroud, 2012) or collaborative interventions of schools and families (Lee and Porfeli, 2015;
Liu, McMahon and Watson, 2015; Oliveira, Do Céu Taveira and Porfeli, 2015; Semple, Howieson and Paris, 2002) is relatively recent.

There have been several attempts to involve parents of adolescents more actively in these areas across a range of countries, going back to 1965. Some of the literature follows the simple typology of parental involvement activities in terms of (a) home-based activities; (b) parent-home communication; and (c) school-based activities (cf. Flouri and Buchanan, 2004; Grolnick and Slowiaczek, 1994). While exploring the interventions from the perspective of a secondary school, I distinguished various aspects, such as the aims of the intervention, who is involved, its format, and underlying assumptions on the part of the participants and those supporting the intervention.

Table 4: Categories and main features of parent-involved career interventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aim</th>
<th>Information-focused interventions</th>
<th>Family learning</th>
<th>Family counselling or family therapy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informing</td>
<td>Help parents in ‘remedial’ or preventive ways</td>
<td>Address specific issues that affect the psychological health of a particular family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notify about and raise awareness of current issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labelled as ‘parental involvement’ at school?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed to</td>
<td>All parents</td>
<td>(Particular) parent(s) together with child/student</td>
<td>Particular family: parent(s) together with child/student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role assumed of parents and child</td>
<td>No specific role</td>
<td>Teacher, coach and/or adviser for their child; Both parent and child actively involved</td>
<td>Clients; Both parent and child actively involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role assumed of school staff</td>
<td>Assigned school role</td>
<td>Professional facilitator</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>One-off plenary; Individual parent-teacher meeting; Learning package; Written information; Website; Offerings parents to contact school staff. One-way direction</td>
<td>Resource and small group session(s) facilitated by trained school/specialised staff.</td>
<td>Family group session(s) facilitated by professional trained career development staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>One-off</td>
<td>A consecutive series</td>
<td>A consecutive series of meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiated by</td>
<td>School: supply driven</td>
<td>School: supply driven but tailored to needs of participants</td>
<td>Parent: needs driven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual parent: demand driven</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Oomen, 2016a, p.41.
I developed a taxonomy for the interventions found (Oomen, 2016a): is this career intervention (i) initiated by the school? (ii) aiming to provide information and/or support/help? (iii) focusing on parents only or on the pairing of parents and child? (iv) assuming an active role on the part of the participants? and (v) assuming trained facilitators?

In applying the taxonomy, I distinguished various approaches of the parent-involved career interventions, as shown in Table 4. I distinguished: (a) information-focused interventions; (b) family learning; and (c) family counselling or family therapy. Their main features can be found in Table 4. In the Subsections that follow, each category will be described briefly, and examples given with, if available, the research findings.

2.4.1 Information-focused interventions

Providing general, non-personalised, information-focused interventions by schools and targeted at parents is a customary practice in many countries. Such interventions may not use or recognise the label ‘parental involvement’. In such interventions, there is no specific role assumed for the parent, other than being the parent. School staff will stay in their assigned school-role: as a teacher, a tutor or a career teacher/leader. An information-focused intervention can take the form of a one-off plenary, an individual parent-teacher session, a website or making the offer to parents to contact school staff by email or telephone. These interventions are aimed at all parents to notify them about and raise awareness of a current issue in the educational and career planning of their child. Important features of this category are that the intervention is one-off, is directed to all parents and is supply driven: the school takes the initiative and decides what will be presented. Parents may have an active role in these interventions, for instance, by being invited to talk about their occupation in front of all students.

The career interventions found are either directed at parents (and their child) at home or school staff.

Examples of information-focused provision targeted at parents (and their child) at home include the following resources and programmes.
- A guide and resources for American Indian parents to support the career development of their daughters (USA: Thompson, 1978). Research found no
evidence that parents significantly improved the career development of their child when assisted by this programme.

- A career search programme, including testing interests and values (USA: Castricone et al., 1982).
- A handbook with background information and exercises (USA: Otto, 1989);
- An interactive learning pack and set of six short leaflets (Scotland: Semple, 1993). Research showed that both the learning pack and leaflets were effective in changing perspectives on educational/employment possibilities and parents reported improvements in the parent/child relationship.
- An online resource informing both students and parents about the introduction-to-work period in the comprehensive school curriculum (Finland: TET-tori, 2013).
- An online resource empowering parents to engage in a career conversation with their child (Australia: State Government of Victoria, 2013a).
- An online resource with tools for parents for personal and identity developmental help while their child transfers to and through secondary education and to post-secondary education (Canada: Ordre de conseillers et conseillères d’orientation du Quebec, no date).
- A national strategy for the ‘upskilling of parents in career guidance’, with online tools (New Zealand: CNZ/Careers New Zealand, 2014).
- A guidebook, developed in an EU-project, offering background literature and exercises for parents and their child aged 6-12, 13-15 and 16-18 (Poland/Turkey/Austria/Slovenia/Greece: Paszkowska-Rogacz, 2015a).
- A careers toolkit offering information, resources and advice on making education and career choices for parents of girls aged 12-16. Eight units addressing different background topics and age groups. (UK: Department for Culture Media & Sport, 2015).

Examples, targeted at school staff to achieve an information-focused provision, which may supplement the provision in the previous list, include the following.

- A handbook, involvement strategies and a student portfolio (USA: Burkhardt et al., 1977).
- An online resource informing about the introduction-to-work period in the comprehensive school curriculum (Finland: TET-tori, 2013).
- A web portal to compile own webpages to inform parents about the CEG the school offers (Netherlands: VO-raad, 2014).
- A national strategy for the ‘upskilling of parents’ engagement in career guidance’, with online tools and good practice in schools (New Zealand: CNZ/Careers New Zealand, 2014).
- A training book, developed in an EU-project, offering background literature and exercises for career counsellors to work in groups with parents and with child aged 6-12, 13-15 and 16-18 (Poland/Turkey/Austria/Slovenia/Greece: Paszkowska-Rogacz, 2015b).

2.4.2 Family learning interventions

Family learning interventions help parents to support their children and aim to improve the quality of their child’s career development and educational planning. Schools will label these interventions as ‘parental involvement’. The role assumed for the parents is ‘teacher’, ‘coach’ and/or ‘adviser’ for their child (Ladd and Pettit, 2002). The intervention may be a resource accompanied by small group sessions, or small group sessions with guidance or facilitation undertaken by school/specialised staff. This professionalised guidance is considered important to make the intervention work, in order to achieve learning. Further common features of this category are that the intervention consists of a series of sessions, aimed at particular parents, usually either ‘remedial’ or preventive in educational terms (e.g. low-educated, minority parent, parents with a child with special educational needs or disabilities). The intervention is supply driven (i.e. the school takes the initiative and decides what will be presented) but tailored to particular needs. Both parents and their child are expected to be actively involved in this type of intervention.

Examples include:
- Three sessions through which a group of parents of 10 students were introduced to a Career Conversation Manual and parents sharing their experiences in having conversations with their child. Osguthorpe, White and Veenis (USA: 1976) found that parents subsequently felt more able to help their children in career planning.
- A self-administered programme comprising three workbooks with exercises (Cochran and Amundson, 1985), supplemented by (work) groups. Research suggested that parents can function effectively in fostering the career
development of their children, when provided with a structured programme (Canada: Palmer and Cochran, 1988).

- A parent, observing during a single counselling session with their child (60 to 90 minutes), was asked for feedback after each step. Research showed that the impact was modest (Canada: Amundson and Penner, 1998).

- Background materials and resources for workshops ‘Future To Discover’ (FTD) by guidance practitioners and educators, directed to parents of youth that were under-represented in post-secondary education, with lower SES (Canada: CCDF/Canadian Career Development Foundation, 2001, 2007). Research showed a rise in high school graduation/educational attainment and increased post-secondary enrolment (SRDC/Social Research and Demonstration Corporation, 2009, 2012). Follow-up research, six years after leaving high school, showed “…lasting changes in young people’s life.” (SRDC, 2016, p.2)

- The ‘Engaging Parents In Career Conversations’ EPIC-Framework (Australia: State Government of Victoria, 2013b) supported career practitioners and teachers with resources for various two-hour workshops with parents/families of students with a disability, lower SES or English as an additional language.

- A structured parent-involved career intervention provided by trained teachers which took place in the class before and after students went on a one-week internship in a company (Germany: Mayhack and Kracke, 2008, 2010). Research showed increased parental involvement in career development and enhanced exploration activities and planning strategies of students.

- The needs-tailored ‘Parents as Career and Transition Supports’ programme with three workshops to equip disadvantaged parents to support their child. National findings (Australia: Borlagdan and Peyton, 2014) showed that parents felt more confident in supporting their children’s transition decisions and that it helped them to navigate complex post-school systems.

- Individualised Learning Plans (ILPs) as a college and career readiness strategy in the USA (Solberg et al., 2014) including engaging families in ILP activities. This might take the form of annual student-led parent-teacher conferences, as for instance in Milwaukee, where research is being planned.
2.4.3 Family counselling/therapy

Family counselling or therapy is designed to address specific issues that affect the psychological health of the family, such as major life transitions. These interventions will not take place on the school site. The role assumed for the parents is client. The intervention takes the form of a family group session, with guidance undertaken by professionally trained career development staff. The intervention is a consecutive series of meetings, aiming at a particular family, and is driven by their demand. Both parents and their child are expected to be actively involved.

Examples include:
- Greenough (1976, cited in Palmer and Crochan, 1988) reported on a parent counselling series of interviews, lasting 30 to 45 minutes, between the counsellor and the parents of high school students in their last year over a period of three weeks. These interviews were centred on the needs, abilities, and aspirations of the student; the available career options; and the likelihood of success in terms of the student's potential. Greenough concluded that satisfaction with a vocational choice five to six years later was strongly related to parental involvement.
- Whiston (1989) described a counselling group for parents in high school which was designed to blend information concerning students' career choices and techniques from family systems theory (e.g. Bowen, 1978; Minuchin, 1974), to promote effective family communication patterns and more productive family environments.
- The research by Young and his colleagues since the 1990s, involved parents and adolescents with family challenges, such as the effects of immigration or disabilities, which could affect the family career development and relationship 'project'. Young et al. (2006) emphasise that their procedure is not meant as a programmatic intervention nor can it be routinely implemented in counselling or career development.

2.4.4 Some reflections on parent-involved career interventions for adolescents

The various rationales to look for good practice in school-based, parent-involved interventions are the political drive in the Netherlands (Subsection 1.2.2), the important parental influence in their child's career (Subsection 2.2.5) and the parental need for help in supporting their child (Subsection 2.4), as found in the literature.
Various interventions were found in the literature and on the internet. According to the taxonomy applied, these interventions were arranged in three models.

In general, few examples of researched parent-involved career interventions can be found in the literature (Watson, Nota and McMahon, 2015), and these are even more rare for school-based career interventions. This may have to do with the limited practice and maybe too with the relative brief period of existence of such practice. For example, the German project of 2010 has vanished; and the Canadian “‘Future To Discover’ delivery is now piecemeal” according to R. Ford, research director of the SRDC (personal communication, 2 December 2014).

Having an excellent programme with excellent research results is not enough to make an intervention work in a school. Barriers at various levels (Hornby and Lafaele, 2011) need to be considered. In the literature, a whole-school approach for parental involvement (Goodall and Vorhaus, 2011; See and Gorard, 2015) is generally preferred. Moving forward, it is important to create stronger models for parental engagement in CEG and in meeting conditions for implementing a lasting and sustainable intervention, alongside an accompanying research agenda.

Summary and in final conclusion
There exists an extensive sociological literature on how young people achieve academically and socially and what their educational and career expectations are. This literature highlights both the direct and indirect influences of social origin. However, this literature has hardly influenced the career development field, although this perspective is relevant to the focus of the field on career choices. The vocational psychology literature acknowledges parents’ influence on their child’s career development, but professional awareness and practice are rare.

Parent-involved career interventions were found in the career studies literature and arranged in relation to three models: (a) information-focused interventions; (b) family learning; and (c) family therapy. Two facts are remarkable: how little research has been conducted alongside the interventions; and that most of these interventions have not been sustained.
3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

My inquiry aims to advance theoretical knowledge: about involving parents in CEG in the academic stream of secondary education; on how a school-initiated career intervention can improve support for parent(s) to help their child make educational and career choices in practice; and on how schools’ capacity to realise this approach can be developed.

Research in developing this theoretical knowledge should be underpinned by my research philosophy and approach. This obliges me to give an understanding of my philosophical assumptions about “the nature of reality (ontology), how [I] know what is known (epistemology), the inclusion of [my] values (axiology) [and] the nature in which [my] research emerges (methodology)” (Creswell et al., 2007, p.238).

I will open this chapter with a subsection on ontology and epistemology as the overarching research philosophy and clarify how I perceive the meaning of both terms in relation to the students, parents and career intervention in my study. This will be followed by thoughts relating to paradigms, with the consequent different ideas researchers can have about what can be found out and what it is believed can be known. I will position my study and myself as a researcher, referring both to education and career work as the realms for my study. I presented my research purpose, aim, objectives, research questions and design for my secondary analysis of existing data in Subsection 1.5. I will describe and justify the methodology for my study – a mixed method approach – in the third subsection, along with the samples. How – as part of the methodology – I prepared, treated and re-analysed data to develop theoretical knowledge and transform practice is explained and justified in the fourth subsection for the quantitative data and in the fifth subsection for the qualitative data. The eighth subsection considers reflexivity and its importance for this kind of study. In the sixth subsection methodological considerations are reviewed, among other how I dealt with translation; in the seventh subsection with a justification of the trustworthiness of my work and in the ninth subsection with ethical considerations associated with my inquiry.

3.1 Ontology and epistemology

Ontology is the study of being (Crotty, 1998) of what is and what constitutes reality. Epistemology is about what we know and how we can know it. I will begin by
exploring both terms and what they mean for research and researcher(s), followed by what each means in relation to my study.

Generally, two diametric ontological categories can be distinguished: realist and relativist (Blaikie, 2007). These have a long history, associated with Plato and Aristotle respectively.

Following Plato’s ontology, realists argue that the real reality, the universal, will never change and is immortal. The visible (natural and social) world is a shadow of the universal which exists independently from human action and observation (Blaikie, 2007). This means, for research, that there is a clear distinction between the researcher and what is being researched (Pring, 2015).

Relativists, following Aristotle’s ontology, find the universal in the particular things surrounding us and argue that reality is subjective. Realities are mediated by our own senses and are individually constructed: there are as many realities as there are conceptions of it. This means that researchers create findings through and in the interaction between researcher and researched (Pring, 2015).

Underpinning this research project is the design of an intervention which has its own ontology and epistemology. How do I perceive ontology with the students, parents and career intervention in my study?

Adolescents, looking at ‘the world of education, training and work’, initially experience this reality as expressed by Plato: it is there, existing outside me and unchangeable. I also assume that this is the experience of reality (though this may not be their worldview) for the most of their parents, independently of their educational level. This assumption of students and parents seems fair, as the students I worked with over many years felt overwhelmed by the educational system, as did their parents due to the ongoing and detailed changes (Katznelson and Pless, 2007).

Which position in and/or attitude towards reality (objectively-subjectively) does the adolescent have to develop so that this reality becomes interesting and meaningful for him/her? And also, for their parent(s)? I mean that both the adolescent and parent have to reach another, more active position related to this reality, ‘the world of education, training and work’, which is mediated by ‘knowledge’ provided in the CEG programmes in secondary schools.
For Plato’s followers, objectivists, knowledge starts with universal ‘forms’ or ‘ideas’ which have to be analysed and deduced, rationally, to ‘laws’ of the universal: epistēmē.

Aristotle’s epistemology is based on the study of particular phenomena. Knowledge is acquired mainly inductively through empirical observations and experiences – What is different for me? Where, how and why? – working towards a ‘law’, summarising the changed reality: an axiōm [postulate]. Followers of this view are termed subjectivists.

How do I perceive epistemology with the students, parents and career intervention in my study?

Traditionally, Dutch secondary schools inform both the adolescents and their parent(s) about the reality of ‘the world of education, training and work’, and still they will experience it as expressed by Plato: it is there, existing outside me and unchangeable.

However, I also see another ‘knowledge’ task for CEG in a secondary school, namely to develop CMS. Ideally, this CEG is part of a lifelong provision, is a learning experience and fosters individuals’ autonomy (Watts and Sultana, 2004). It refers to the right to determine the course of his/her own life. I perceive CEG in a secondary school as part of the educational provision to orientate and explore the way to becoming an adult in society.

In CEG, where adolescents and parent(s) are able to have experiences themselves and share these, to hear the subjective experiences of ‘the world of education, training and work’ by role models/important others, and to reflect on these observations and experiences with others, a relationship is being created for and in them between the objective and subjective reality of ‘the world of education, training and work’.

I assume that this knowledge-building-experience and elaboration of their own situation ends up in a residue. This residue creates in the individual a movement from the objective to the subjective reality (getting in another position, from ‘being’ to ‘becoming’) and provides another attitude which is meaningful in reality and specifically so in career development. Adolescents do understand that they have to become active to understand reality. Parents have to consider whether to explain to
their child their position towards ‘the world of education, training and work’ and continue to present it as an objective reality, or whether to give support to their child to equip them to become more active in developing and acting in a subjective reality.

Adolescents too have to realise that what they observe with their parent(s) in dealing with reality or realities, might conflict with their own (observed) experience(s).

I assume that mutuality or reciprocity arises in CEG where child and parent together share experiences, build knowledge and elaborate this for their (own and mutual) situation. Here the child will find a partner in the parent in his/her search for possibilities and is (no longer) alone in that search. Both the child and parent gain knowledge about their reality and trust in each other, which makes their gained knowledge ‘trustworthy’.

3.2 Paradigm
Kuhn (1962) introduced the term paradigm as ‘an overall theoretical framework’ made up of ontological and epistemological assumptions as foundations of research.

Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.105) define paradigm as the fundamental, “basic belief system or worldview (…) that guides the investigator (…). Questions of methods are secondary to questions of paradigm.”

In the realm of social and educational sciences, research paradigms can be classified into three distinct categories: the scientific, interpretivist and critical theories paradigms. In this Subsection I will state and justify my ontological and epistemological assumptions as an educational researcher as well as my axiology.

However, before proceeding, I will discuss three caveats referring to language use. While the philosophy of science is a domain with different, prominent thinkers, a domain in which the use of language and the meaning of the language used is meticulous, some key terms are not clear.

Firstly, the understanding of the interrelated terms in this chapter – ontology, epistemology, paradigm, methodology and methods – is ambiguous. Morgan (2007) found four diverse ways in which the idea of paradigm has been used in discussions about the philosophical foundations of research: as world views, as epistemological stances, as shared beliefs in a research field, and as model examples. Some may
perceive pragmatism as another paradigm (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007). Crotty (1998) perceives pragmatism as ontology, whereas Biesta (2010a, p.105) states that the contribution of pragmatism “lies first and foremost in the domain of epistemology.”

Secondly, and comparably, the meanings of several key words are contestable as reflected in their different usages such as ‘education’ and ‘learning’ (Pring, 2012, 2015) in educational research, and ‘vocational psychology’ and ‘career studies’ (McMahon, 2014) in careers studies.

Thirdly, in line with my status as a researcher who is working across cultures and languages, my understanding of educational research and pedagogy needs explanation. “The study of education can be (...) and has been constructed differently,” as Biesta (2011, p.177, italics in original) states “…in different national and linguistic contexts” (Biesta, 2014, p.12). In the Anglo-American world, educational research as an interdisciplinary field in philosophy, history, psychology and sociology (Biesta, 2011; Pring, 2012) has an objective identity, with a focus on educational processes and practices, developed within the context of teacher education (Biesta, 2011).

On the Continent, in German-speaking countries including the Netherlands, two terms are used for the ‘object’ of educational research, ‘Erziehung’ and ‘Bildung’, each representing a different concept. ‘Erziehung’ means ‘parenting’ or ‘upbringing’. ‘Bildung’, which might be translated as liberal education, is a non-materialistic concept which refers “to the cultivation of the inner life, that is, of the human soul, the human mind and the human person; or, to be more precise, the person’s humanity” (Biesta, 2002, p.378). “Bildung was established in opposition to utility-based demands” (Giesinger, 2012, p.18), i.e. demands serving the needs of the national economy. Over time, the meaning of the concept ‘Bildung’ has changed. In the general education debate of the 1980s debate, the term ‘general’ was perceived by some as ‘universal’ (realist), while the sociology of knowledge argued that the general is socially constructed (relativist). Critical theory incorporates the political dimension and redefines the task of Bildung as “the acquisition of the capacity to decipher the operation behind the status quo, behind what presents itself as necessary, natural, general and universal” (Biesta, 2002, p.383). I perceive CEG not
as an instrumental training or a tool of vocational education (cf. Pring, 1995, Pring et al., 2009), but as part of Bildung.

Furthermore, in the Continental study of education, two theoretical foundations are referred to: ‘Pädagogik’ and ‘Didaktik’. The latter can best be understood as the systematic reflection on the planning and implementation of teaching. ‘Pädagogik’, a Geisteswissenschaft [hermeneutic science], emerged and developed as a field in its own right: “…a field which both involves an engagement with the question of the definition(s) of Erziehung and with theorising it through a focus on aims, processes and object” (Biesta, 2011, p.184). Its identity, ‘having an interest’, is value-laden. Pädagogik has a much wider remit than the English term ‘Pedagogy’, which first and foremost refers to questions relating to teaching and school education; by contrast ‘Pädagogik’ focuses on questions relating to the process of becoming human (Biesta, 2011).

What do these three caveats mean to me?

Before exploring in the next Subsection my choice of research method (how I will analyse and describe reality and why), I will state and justify how I understand paradigm, my world view as a researcher. In Subsection 3.2.4, I will link the Continental tradition of educational research to CEG. This includes my ontological and epistemological position and my axiology, the values I bring to the study. This way of understanding paradigm is the result of exploring each of the paradigms (the scientific, hermeneutic/interpretivist and critical theories paradigms). I discovered that within each paradigm the thinking about reality, what we know and how we can know, is too nuanced to maintain a notion that it would come down to the discussion of quantitative versus qualitative research or that a paradigm equals a whole approach to research including philosophy, values and methods.

3.2.1 Ontological position

I would state my ontological position as being an historical realist. In this view, reality over time has been shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and/or gender values into ‘real’, virtual or historical structures (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Such realities are socially constructed and influenced constantly. “The social world is reproduced or transformed in daily life” (Bhaskar, 1989, p.3).
My study seeks to understand the position of the parent, both in how the Dutch educational system developed in various tracks, preparing for different opportunities (Subsection 1.2.1); as being to understand their position in how schools deal with CEG (Subsection 1.2.2); and as being to understand how schools deal with parental involvement in CEG (Subsection 1.2.3). Below, in Subsection 3.2.4, I will add to this justification how educational research has been constructed differently on the Continent compared to the Anglo-American world.

3.2.2 Epistemological position

My epistemological position is one of transactional subjectivism with a societal ideology. In this position, real world phenomena are understood in relation to a society with many social inequalities and imbalances of power (Gage, 1989).

I justify this stance for my study as being to understand the (specific) preparation needed for ‘first-generation’ HE students and their parents, and the particular role CEG can play in “compensating for the lack of relevant tacit knowledge and cultural capital within the home” (Sweet and Watts, 2006, p.25). I also justify this stance as being to understand how parents in general may enter another, less one-sided, one-way-traffic-relationship of the parents with the school. In this epistemological position, my aim for the research is to describe the socially constructed realities as precisely as possible, but not to offer final answers as to what reality is.

3.2.3 Axiology

An additional justification for this epistemological stance comes from my axiology, the values I bring to the study.

In my professional role, it was crucial to address CEG issues in (secondary) education, by improving existing practice, by developing innovative curricula and interventions for large-scale national implementation, and by influencing national and local educational policy. This was firstly the case as a practitioner, an early career leader in a secondary school in the 1970s, but certainly in my second job as policy adviser in a national educational experiment at a secondary school and after 1989 as senior trainer and (inter)national consultant at APS.

My values in taking on these particular jobs in or closely related to educational praxis and involving educational agents, were and are to increase access for all students to
solid publicly-funded CEG in schools, fostering students’ autonomy, mainly by extending CEG praxis towards CMS development and involving teachers as semi-professionals. Semi-professionals in CEG may vary from a career teacher, to a tutor or subject teacher: they may not necessarily have a specialised training in guidance, but are paid for guidance activities that they perform, which is not their main professional activity (ELGPN, 2015).

So, I recognise that I will be influenced as a researcher. My professional roles, beliefs, and values influenced the research design insofar that I wanted to make use of the existing data from the initial research to fathom and to promote the impacts of parents’ involvement in CEG for particularly the ‘first-generation HE’ parents and for the school. My international experiences in and with schools and policy makers have an impact to potentially advantage this study as most of the parent-involved, school-based career interventions did not sustain. My personal philosophy and background have potentially disadvantaged this study as in analysing and describing realities, I take with me the values of the emancipation of individuals and issues of power. Finding out is the means to achieve change, but often stakeholders do not like change.

3.2.4 Educational researcher within career studies

My next statement and justification are about considering myself an educational researcher within career studies.

My professional identity is career guidance, specifically CEG; my home is education. In my view, it is not primarily the methodology but the context that determines whether an inquiry is educational research. CEG is career guidance that by nature takes place in the educational context; my research purpose, aim and research questions deal with the school situation.

As a researcher, I base myself in the Continental tradition of educational research:

…which deals with the question of how education actually works (ontology), the question of what education might work for (axiology), and the question of what this means for making education work and making it work better in the everyday practice of teaching (praxeology). (Biesta, 2015a, p.12-13, italics in original)
Within this Continental tradition, CEG in a secondary school aiming to develop CMS provides a learning experience and fosters autonomy, which fits in ‘naturally’ in education if the latter is understood as “the process of becoming human” (Biesta, 2011, p.189), as Bildung, “the cultivation of the person’s humanity,” (Biesta, 2002, p.378) and growing into an indefinite, common, future society.

Therefore, I justify my study as educational research within career studies.

3.2.5 Critical theories paradigm

My final statement and justification concern my positioning in the critical theories paradigm where I adopt the stance of critical or social realism.

Positioning myself in one of the paradigms actually is the combination of my ontological and epistemological assumptions as an educational researcher in career studies as well as my axiology, leading to my paradigm positioning in my research. What does this ‘critical theories’ paradigm mean?

The plural ‘theories’ in this paradigm refer to the various thinkers and thus the variety of philosophies under this label, for instance Simone de Beauvoir (feminism), Habermas (critical theory in 1970s) and Kuhn and Derrida (post-modernism).

Giddens (1984) and Bhaskar (1975, 1993) are representatives of critical or social realism, a paradigm to bridge the philosophies of science and social science. They correspond on perceiving ‘structures’ and ‘agents’ as key features of the social world. ‘Structures’ refers to “rules and resources (...) the structuring properties allowing the ‘binding’ of time-space in social systems (...) These properties make it possible for similar social practices to exist across time and space and that lend them ‘systemic’ form” (Giddens, 1984, p.17). Agents, either groups or individuals, draw upon these structures and, through ‘embedded memory’, carry out social actions. However, structure is also the result of these social practices. Giddens does not give primacy to either structure or agents, while Bhaskar (quoted in Buch-Hansen, 2005) states that people do not create the social world: it is a legacy from the past, but people are responsible, as agents, for reproducing or transforming its praxis.

The researched and the researcher – the latter in the role of instigator and facilitator – are interlinked. Consequently, as in the interpretivist paradigm, there is a fusion of ontology and epistemology. ‘What can be known’ is inseparable from the interaction
between a particular researcher and a particular object or group (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). What counts as worthwhile knowledge in society is determined by the social and positional power of the advocates of that knowledge (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Knowledge consists of a series of structural, historical insights, which grow and will transform over time to more informed insights through interaction, eroding ignorance and misunderstanding (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

The aim of the critical theories research is the critique (detailed analysis) and transformation of structures constraining humans by confrontation (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Research is conducted for “the emancipation of individuals and groups in an egalitarian society” (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.26) and the value-laden nature of this research is obvious. Researchers do not “carry out the transformation for the oppressed rather than with them” (Freire, 1970, p.67, italics in original), as in the original evaluation (Subsection 1.3.1), which meant involvement in the design of the research, data collection, information analysis and benefits of the research (Creswell, 2009). Also, in my secondary analysis of existing data methodology, the continued dialogue of the researched and researcher serves to transform ignorance and misunderstanding into more informed consciousness, of how the structures might be changed, and the actions to effect change although the latter might also be thought to be the domain for those most affected by the transformations (Creswell, 2009). Criteria for judging the goodness or quality of an inquiry for critical theorists’ researchers, in which I position myself, are historical ‘situatedness’ (i.e. considering the social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender antecedents of the researched situation) and the extent to which the research erodes ignorance, misunderstanding and provides action stimuli to transform the existing structure (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Habermas (cited in Carr, 1995) describes the model of educational research in the critical theories paradigm as emancipatory, guided by the interest of rationality, justice and freedom. Representatives of the critical theories paradigm in educational research are Freire (1970) and Willis (1977), who emphasise that school and education are not just instruments of hegemony but have their own role to play related to social justice:
There should always be a place for the formation of the person to an independent subject – the dimension of subject-realisation or *subjectification*. Right here we find the difference between a sociological and educational pedagogical vision of education. Once this place is given, the Education and Bildung could no longer be understood from the perspective of existing knowledge and skills and the existing social order, but changes the perspective towards the future, where it is the task of Education and Bildung to open up and to keep open to the future for the child and young person. (Biesta 2015b, p.60, italics in original)

Biesta emphasises the high importance of ‘subjectification’, the personal formation of dealing with mature human freedom: without this function “there is the risk that education will be the instrument for social reproduction” (Biesta, 2014, p.11).

Watts (1996), McMahon, Arthur and Collins (2008), Sultana (2014), Hooley (2015), and Plant and Kjærgård (2016) make a reference to the origin of career guidance in ‘social justice’ and the actuality of ‘social justice’ for the present. The founder of vocational guidance, Parsons (1909), advocated for the disadvantaged in the early 1900s. Within the critical theories paradigm, Sultana (2014, p.17) mentions approaches such as critical psychodynamic theory, opportunity structure theory and careership, which can be extended as for instance by Plant (2014). Plant suggests radically reorganising an economy where sustainability rather than consumption becomes the norm, and consequently, for careers to pursue more than individual goals: Green Guidance.

However, I would state my position as a researcher who is ‘moderately’ in the social or critical realist paradigm. I justify this moderation by finding myself in postmodern doubt about the possibility and viability of the idea that both educators as well as career practitioners in education can liberate and emancipate their students. It is my position that education is not an instrument to achieve political change (cf. Todd, 2011), and neither is CEG capable of doing so (Roberts, 2005). In education and CEG, change is important, but the emphasis is on “thinking along with a new generation, being moved by their concerns and introducing them into ours” (Todd, 2011, p.510), becoming acquainted with different options of human freedom in the domains of ecology, democracy, care and narcissism (cf. Bhaskar cited in Buch-
Hansen, 2005; Biesta, 2015b), building with them a meaningful world. Activities taking place in education and CEG are not only directed at changing ‘objects’ (learning knowledge and skills) but also changing the youngsters involved, ‘the subjects’ (Biesta, 2014). Of the many forms career guidance can take (Ford, 2002), ‘advocacy’ and ‘feedback’ deserve special attention with career practitioners, as these two guidance activities play a crucial role in policy making, in re-shaping training and education (Oomen and Plant, 2014).

**Summary and in conclusion**

The philosophy of science has enabled me to describe the underlying reasoning for the ‘Parents Turn’ intervention. It has also enabled me to position myself as an ‘historical realist’ researcher with a ‘subjective, societal ideological’, epistemological position, adopting the critical or social realism paradigm, aiming at describing the socially constructed realities precisely but not finally as to what reality is. I have argued that I am an educational researcher in career guidance, embedded in the Continental tradition of educational research, in which an understanding of pedagogic has a wider remit than the English term ‘Pedagogy’. I have acknowledged that I am influenced as a researcher by my values in previous professional positions to strengthen CEG in several respects, coinciding with the aim of developing students’ capacity for autonomy on entering the future world.

I justify my philosophical assumptions as fitting with my research purpose, aim, objectives and questions of the secondary analysis of existing data, which were presented in Subsection 1.5. Each research question enables the critique of ‘structures’, viz. school system, Dutch educational system, and policies at national and local level, and of ‘agents’ such as parents (whether or not HE educated), students, school staff and school. The aim of the ‘Parents Turn’ career intervention was also the transformation of structures constraining humans: with the findings of the study I want to contribute to transform these behaviours on a wider level.

**3.3 Methodology**

**3.3.1 Mixed methods research**

Qualitative and quantitative data were re-analysed in the secondary analysis of existing data. The use of qualitative and quantitative data refers to mixed methods research (MMR).
Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) propose the following definition for this type of research:

Mixed methods research (…) combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007, p.123)

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) rely on a definition of core characteristics of MMR, to involve the many diverse viewpoints. In MMR, the researcher: collects and analyses both qualitative and quantitative data; mixes the two forms of data concurrently by building one on the other or embedding one with the other; and gives priority to one or to both forms of data. These procedures are used in a single study or in phases of a programme, are framed in paradigms and theoretical perspectives; and turned into a research design.

I am not the first researcher with a critical theory paradigm orientation to adopt the MMR methodology, as there is the 2006 study by McEvoy and Richards cited in Combs and Onwuegbuzie (2010). However, among career studies, Stead et al. (2012) found in their content analysis of articles published in 11 key journals between 1990 and 2009 that only 62 (1.9%) of the 3,279 articles were MMR. Recently, Hagaseth Haug and Plant (2016) advocate MMR within a critical theory paradigm as a more holistic research approach. However, they agree with Hiebert, Schober and Oakes (2014) that the guideline for evidence-based research in career studies should be that different kind of questions require different kinds of methodological approaches.

I adopted MMR as an approach for a complex phenomenon – parental involvement in CEG in secondary education with interrelated ‘structures’ and various ‘agents’ involved. This followed from the critical paradigm I adopted – not because one type of research would necessarily be superior to the other.

I justify the MMR approach in my study with the different methodological approaches my research questions require. MMR offers me a way to inquire into the complex phenomenon from various perspectives. I sought to measure and to quantify reality –
the ‘What?’ question – with a quantitative approach, while the qualitative approach supported me in describing, exploring and opening up reality – the ‘Why?’ and ‘How?’ questions in my study. Each of my research objectives and research questions included these types of questions (Subsection 3.4.8) and the implications that arose from the findings are indicated and reported in the Chapters 4 and 5.

Using numbers in my study, interrogating data for the significance of differing medians and for patterns, in some ways might give the impression of looking for causal connections, while I believe that to make sense of these significances and patterns, I must make use of relativist ontology. By synergising two forms of information, numbers and non-numerical data, MMR offers me the best chance for the detailed analytical approach, the ‘critique’ of the phenomenon of my study.

MMR has some weaknesses such as higher costs. It is time-consuming and labour-intensive, although the secondary analyses of existing data is a counterbalance to this drawback. MMR needs the researcher to be skilled in both types of research. MMR also has strengths: the weaknesses of one type of research can be overcome by the strengths of the other type (expanding information); biases can be overcome; the diverse types of research can complement each other and provide stronger evidence for a conclusion; and the need for further studies can easily be identified (Brewer, 2001; Bryman, 2012; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The re-analyses of quantitative data with all four research objectives were followed up with the re-analyses of qualitative data. This indicates the timing in the research: sequential, quantitative→ qualitative, however iterative and cyclic, to give equal weight to both perspectives, to come to meta-inferences, i.e. conclusions that build on or integrate qualitative and quantitative findings.

I justify this approach as holistic, meeting the purposes of MMR as identified by Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989): (i) triangulation, to seek convergence and corroboration in data; (ii) complementarity, for elaboration, to measure overlapping but different aspects of a phenomenon, enhancement; (iii) development, to help that one method informs the other; (iv) initiation, to discover paradoxes, contradictions, other perspectives and the recasting of questions and/or results; and (v) expansion, to extend the breath and range of the study.
3.3.2 Samples of participants/respondents

I reconsidered the groups of respondents to be compared in the secondary analysis of existing data. I decided to keep the division for both the experimental as well as control groups in the subgroup of third-year respondents and the subgroup of fifth-year respondents. I justify this decision because there were significant differences between the third- and fifth-year respondents in the original evaluation. Also, the literature review made me aware of the profoundly different mechanisms at work in the decisions to be made in the third and fifth years of HAVO (Subsection 2.2.4.). The mechanism of institutional sorting (Esser and Relikowski, 2015) drives decisions in the third year. In the fifth year however, the secondary effects of social origin drive decisions, as the HAVO diploma grants automatic access to HBO, whereas students may choose to continue study at MBO or discontinue studying (Büchner and Van der Velden, 2013).

This decision resulted in the identification of five groups as shown Table 5, with a summary of all the participants/respondents that are included in the samples for the secondary analysis of existing data. For each group, it is indicated if they were involved in the career intervention, if they were involved in one or more data collections (the 0-, 1-, 2- and 3-measurements) and the nature of the data collected.

Table 5: Participants/respondents and timeline with sequence of data collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Career Intervention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection</td>
<td>0-measurement</td>
<td>1-measurement</td>
<td>2-measurement</td>
<td>3-measurement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants/respondents</td>
<td>qual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>qual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>QUAN X</td>
<td>QUAN</td>
<td>QUAN qual</td>
<td>qual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3</td>
<td>QUAN</td>
<td>QUAN</td>
<td>QUAN qual</td>
<td>qual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 4</td>
<td>X qual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 5</td>
<td>qual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUAN: quantitative data collection; qual: qualitative data collection

Group 1 Parents in the experimental schools that went through the process without the career intervention in the previous year.

Group 2 Parents: experimental schools (five subgroups).

Group 3 Parents: control schools (three subgroups).

Group 4 Career teachers: experimental schools.

Group 5 Career teachers: control schools.
Characteristics of each of the non-random samples as indicated in Table 5 will be described below. If within this group various groups can be distinguished, these are indicated as sub-groups.

For the quantitative data collection, the (sub-group of the) sample will be presented in tables. For the qualitative data collection, the sample will be presented descriptively.

These are the groups on which the data re-analysis was carried out for the thesis.

**Group 1. Parents in the experimental schools that went through the process without the career intervention.**

From the experimental school the parents from the academic year 2011-2012 filled out a questionnaire: First Review. For the third year, there were 111 respondents, 76 (68.5%) female and 35 (31.5% male), ages ranged from 41 to 60 ($M_{age} = 48.12$, $SD_{age} = 4.33$). For the fifth year, there were 80 respondents, 60 (75.0%) female and 20 (25.0%) male, ages ranged from 38 to 63, ($M_{age} = 50.05$, $SD_{age} = 4.75$).

**Group 2. Parents in the experimental schools that went through the process with the career intervention with six subgroups.**

2a. **Subgroup experimental third and fifth years, quantitative measurements**, which distinguish the participants from the third experimental year (E3) and from the fifth experimental year (E5). Gender and age characteristics of the participants at the three quantitative measurements can be found in Table 6, their HE level in Table 7.

**Table 6: Group 2a, subgroup experimental third (E3) and fifth (E5) years, quantitative measurements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroups</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Gender respondent</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>0-measurement</td>
<td>E3</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-measurement</td>
<td>E3</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-measurement</td>
<td>E3</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth year</td>
<td>0-measurement</td>
<td>E5</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-measurement</td>
<td>E5</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-measurement</td>
<td>E5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2b. **Subgroup experimental third (E3) and fifth (E5) years, qualitative, interview, 2-measurement.** Eleven parents (six male and five female) participated in an interview. Ages ranged from 42 to 49 for the six E3 parents ($M_{age} = 46.2$, $SD_{age} = 3.3$) and from 44 to 52 for the five E5 parents ($M_{age} = 46.8$, $SD_{age} = 3.3$). All were parents of sons,
except for one. Four parents and their partners had both attained HE qualifications (both HE); of five other parents and their eventual partners, one in each case was HE qualified (one HE); and two parents and their partners had no HE qualifications (no HE). See Appendix 7.

2c. Subgroup experimental third (E3) and fifth (E5) years, qualitative, interview, 3-measurement. Sixteen parents (three male and 13 female) participated in an interview. Ages ranged from 42 to 54 for the 12 E3 parents ($M_{age} = 46.8$, $SD_{age} = 3.8$) and from 45 to 54 for the four E5 parents ($M_{age} = 48.0$, $SD_{age} = 4.1$). Nine were parents of sons; seven of daughters. Nine parents had both attained HE qualifications, five parents ‘one HE’ and two parents ‘no HE’. See Appendix 7.

2d. Subgroup: experimental third (E3) and fifth (E5) years, HE attainment level, quantitative measurements.

Table 7: Group 2d, subgroup experimental third (E3) and fifth (E5) years, HE attainment level of parents, quantitative measurements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroups</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Higher Education (HE) level of parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Both HE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>0-measurement E3</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-measurement E3</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-measurement E3</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth year</td>
<td>0-measurement E5</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-measurement E5</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-measurement E5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This subgroup in Table 7 distinguishes the participants from E3 and E5 in the three quantitative measurements after their HE attainment level: both, one or no HE qualification obtained.

2e. Subgroup: experimental third (E3) and fifth (E5) years, parents involved in one or more session of the career intervention, qualitative, questionnaire, 2-measurement. All responding parents in the experimental schools that went through the process with the career intervention, regardless of the number of sessions they were involved in, filled out a Second Review questionnaire.

For the third year, there were 119 respondents: 84 (70.6%) female and 35 (29.4% male); their ages ranged from 38 to 57 ($M_{age} = 48.113$, $SD_{age} = 3.91$). Of these
parents, 52 (43.7%) had both attained HE qualifications, 41 (34.5%) 'one HE' and 26 (21.8%) 'no HE'.

For the fifth year, there were 49 respondents: 35 (71.4%) female and 14 (28.6%) male; ages ranged from 41 to 58 ($M_{age} = 49.14$, $SD_{age} = 3.51$). Of these parents 16 (32.7%) had both attained HE qualifications, 15 (30.6%) 'one HE' and 18 (36.7%) 'no HE'.

Group 3. Parents in the control schools that went through the process without the career intervention with three subgroups.

3a. Subgroup control third and fifth years, quantitative measurements, which distinguish the respondents from the third-year control group (C3) and from the fifth-year control group (C5). The major characteristics of these parents in the control schools can be found in Table 8, regarding gender and age of the respondent in each group at the three qualitative measurements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroups</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Gender respondent</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>0-measurement</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-measurement</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-measurement</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth year</td>
<td>0-measurement</td>
<td>C5</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-measurement</td>
<td>C5</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-measurement</td>
<td>C5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3b. Subgroup control third (C3) and fifth (C5) years, qualitative, interview, 2-measurement. Four parents (one male and three female) participated in an interview. Ages ranged from 47 to 49 for the two C3 parents ($M_{age} = 48.0$, $SD_{age} = 1.4$) and also for the two C5 parents ($M_{age} = 48.0$, $SD_{age} = 1.4$). All were parents of daughters, except for one. Of the parents and their eventual partners, two had 'both HE', one 'one HE' and one 'no HE'. See Appendix 7.

3c. Subgroup control third (C3) and fifth (C5) years, qualitative, interview, 3-measurement. Four parents (one male and three female) participated in an interview. All three C3 parents were 50 years old, while the C5 parent was 47 years old. All were parents of daughters, except for one. One parent and partner had 'both HE', two 'one HE' and one parent 'no HE'. See Appendix 7.
The career teachers of the six experimental schools were all female. At the time of
the career intervention and original evaluation, they ranged in age from 32 to 60,
mean age ($M_{age}$) = 43.3, standard deviation of age ($SD_{age}$) = 10.0.

Group 5. Career teachers in the control schools.
The career teachers of the two control schools were both female. At the time of the
original evaluation, one was 28 years old, while the other was 32.

Discussion of sample respondents
I am aware of the seriousness of the dropout in response proportion from the study
by the experimental groups which can be observed in the 2-measurement (group 2a).
Its nature however is ‘natural’ because:
1. For group 2a only those parents indicating being involved in the 1-measurement
   plus three or more sessions of ‘Parents Turn’ were included in the 2-measurement to achieve a pure sample compared with the previous 0- and 1-(impact) measurements. However, all responding parents, regardless of their participation in previous measurements or the career intervention, were involved in subgroup 2e with a large response.
2. Fifth-year students had graduated and left school before the 2-measurement took
   place, which makes the reduced parental interest in responding to the
   questionnaires or an interview understandable to me as researcher.
I argue that the total is a reasonable sample as a base for reporting results.
In the 2-measurement, participants in three or four career sessions in E3 were 67
parent(s)-student pairs of which 50 (74.6%) responded; and in E5 there were 50
parent(s)-student pairs of which 25 (50.0%) responded. Also, qualitative data are
available: group 2b.

For the 3-measurement, qualitative data from interviews are available: group 2c.

3.3.3 Sample of schools
The six experimental and two control schools in the secondary analysis of existing
data were spread throughout the Netherlands. They included urban and rural
schools, as well as schools of several denominations. There were no significant
differences in size between the experimental and control schools. However, the
school population varied between the schools in relation to the number of students
coming from areas with lower SES, which in the Netherlands is being expressed by APC (armoede-probleem-cumulatiegebieden) [poverty problem accumulation areas].

APC represents the percentage of students in the third year and higher of a secondary education school (i.e. the HAVO-department) living in specific zip code regions, identified by Statistics Netherlands. In these regions, at least 8.6 per cent of the households have a low income, at least 9.1 per cent live on benefits and at least 7.5 per cent of the main earners are of non-western origin. APC information per school and department is published by the Dutch Inspectorate of Education on their website. Schools qualify for extra funding – ‘the learning-plus arrangement’ – if they can count more than 30% APC pupils in VMBO, more than 50% in HAVO and/or 65% in VWO (Elsevier, 2014).

Among the six experimental schools for the third year there was one that did not have students living in an APC; this was also the case with the third-year control school. One of the experimental schools for the fifth year had more students living in an APC compared to the other schools, but not enough to qualify for extra funding. So, none of the experimental and control schools had a school population of students coming predominantly from lower-SES areas.

Major information on the six experimental and two control schools can be found in Table 9. The three third-year experimental schools are indicated with the abbreviation E3, the three fifth-year experimental schools as E5. The control school for the third year is abbreviated as C3 and for the fifth year as C5.

Table 9: School characteristics of experimental and control schools in 2012-2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Denomination</th>
<th>APC HAVO (°)</th>
<th>Size whole school (n)</th>
<th>Size academic year HAVO concerned (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E3 school 1</td>
<td>rural</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,638</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 school 2</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>Protestant Christian</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>1,244</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 school 3</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>generally special</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 school 1</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>1,171</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 school 2</td>
<td>rural</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 school 3</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>1,057</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>rural</td>
<td>generally special</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2,103</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>Reformed</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APC (armoede-probleem-cumulatiegebieden) [poverty problem accumulation areas]
The ‘size of whole school’ includes all the students of all various secondary school departments at site level. Several departments of a school may be located on one site or may be spread across several buildings.

Summary
The Mixed Methods Research, combining elements of quantitative and qualitative research approaches, has been introduced and justified as fitting the complex phenomenon of the study. The sample of respondents/participants in the data collection as well as the sample of schools has been described.

3.4 Re-analysis of the quantitative data
In this section, I describe for the re-analysis of the quantitative data in the secondary analysis: the data I used, why and how; and how the data were re-analysed. The series of hypotheses that I am interested in testing are introduced in Subsection 3.4.1. Testing the hypotheses or prediction of the relationship between two or more variables is based on quantitative data. The hypotheses will be tested statistically and may or may not be supported.

3.4.1 Research objectives and hypotheses
My first research objective is:
To assess the nature of the participation in the career intervention

As the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ was an experiment which involved parents and their child for a series of four successive sessions and for which parents could register voluntarily, participation data may reveal some insights into the structural and social factors influencing the parental desire and capacity to be involved, as found in the literature.

For 12-year-olds in the Netherlands, Cabus and Ariës (2014) confirmed that first-borns receive, on average, more preferential treatment (i.e. more time of home-based parental involvement) than their later-born siblings. They also found that educational choices in the transition from primary to secondary school are decided either by both parents (49.1%) or the mother only (42.5%) and rarely by the father only. As experiences with parent-involved, and school-based career interventions in secondary schools are rare, to my best knowledge little is known about the influence of the gender or the birth order (of the adolescent) on actual involvement of parents.
I assume that the structural and social parental/family factors influence the nature of the involvement in the career intervention. Thus:

\[ \text{H1.1}_0 = \text{Parental involvement in the school-based career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is not influenced by parents’ life context.} \]

\[ \text{H1.1}_1 = \text{Parental involvement in the school-based career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is influenced by parents’ life context.} \]

The second research objective is:

To assess the impact of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ on parents

Traditionally, the purpose of CEG in Dutch secondary education is to support the students in the choices to be made in the third year and in the final year. In the third year, the students have to choose one of the four fixed clusters plus two or three optional subjects. The combination of subjects a student chooses in the third year is important, since the subjects studied can often affect the options available to him or her later on in HE. In the final (in HAVO) fifth year, students choose their further study in HE.

Katznelson and Pless (2007) suggest that parents’ knowledge about options in the educational system enables them to help and support their child in the educational choices they have to make. Dutch research confirms their finding that this knowledge relates to their own educational level. Based on old but representative data from 1993, Van de Werfhorst (2015) depicted the knowledge of the possible transitions in the complex Dutch education system held by parents with children in the third year of secondary education, according to their own educational level and their child’s educational level. Presumably, "this knowledge about the [education] system may be an important element in explaining educational inequalities" (Van de Werfhorst, 2015, p.289). Figure 8 shows that the higher parents are educated, the more they know about the education system (with a mean as measure of central tendency of 0 and a standard deviation of 1), approximately 0.5 over the standard deviation, and the more their child is likely to be in the academic track.

Lower-educated parents know less about the education system, especially if their child is in VMBO. Because parents with HE qualifications are better informed, apart from their child’s secondary track, Van de Werfhorst (2015, p.289) suggests that
these parents use this information in advising their child at any educational crossroads.

UK findings show that most parents find information on educational options through their child’s school, but do not know where to find online information (Phillips and Newton, 2014, p.3).

**Figure 8: Parental knowledge of education system related to their child’s education level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge of Dutch education system</th>
<th>Child’s education level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BAO</td>
<td>Primary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HAVO</td>
<td>Senior general secondary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBO</td>
<td>Professional higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBO</td>
<td>Senior secondary vocational education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VMBO</td>
<td>Pre-vocational secondary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VWO</td>
<td>Pre-university education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WO</td>
<td>Academic higher education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While designing the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’, it was considered crucial for parents not only to be up-to-date and well-informed about the options available to their child (objective A below), but also to be able to apply this information in the interactions with their child (objective B below). The objectives as defined were:

A. To be up-to-date and well-informed about various clusters and subjects, HE possibilities, financial consequences, the labour market, information resources and own possibilities regarding subject clusters and HE possibilities.

B. To be able as a parent to make considered career decisions with their child and be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process.

In their systematic study on the effectiveness of CEG interventions, Christensen and Søgaard Larsen (2011) understood effects *inter alia* in the form of clarification, as a feeling (‘feeling’ informed).
I assume that the objectives were met. Thus:

$H2.1_0= \text{Parents who were involved in the career intervention show no difference in feeling up-to-date and well-informed about the options for their child in comparison to the parents who were not involved.}$

$H2.1_1= \text{Parents who were involved in the career intervention show a difference in feeling up-to-date and well-informed about the options for their child in comparison to the parents who were not involved.}$

$H2.2_0= \text{Parents who were involved in the career intervention show no difference in feeling themselves able to make considered career decisions with their child and to be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process in comparison to the parents who were not involved.}$

$H2.2_1= \text{Parents who were involved in the career intervention show a difference in feeling themselves able to make considered career decisions with their child and to be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process in comparison to the parents who were not involved.}$

The third research objective is:

To understand whether different support is needed for parents who have not attained higher education qualifications.

The career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ targeted all parents. It was prompted among other reasons by the rise in the number of ‘first-generation’ HE students in the Netherlands.

There is no universal definition for ‘first-generation’ student’. These different definitions of ‘first-generation’ can change according to “(a) how many such students there are and (b) our understanding of how they fare in higher education” (Inside Higher Ed, 2015), but also what they may need in a career intervention. Dutch research (e.g. Van den Broek et al., 2016, p.3) uses the definition “a student with neither parent having HE”, but internationally, students with at least one parent who has attended HE may also be counted (Inside Higher Ed, 2015). Also ignored in the definition is if an older sibling or (extended) family member is or has been in HE, and/or attained HE qualifications.
Nooijens, Rietdijk and Wijngaarden-de Meij (2013a, 2013b, 2013c) found among the 30% of ‘first-generation’ students at Utrecht University that they, compared to students whose parents both were higher-educated, found it relatively harder to talk about their study with their parent(s) and experienced their support and stimulation to a lesser extent. The latter may indicate that parents from these HE students need more or different support. Furthermore, ‘first-generation’ students worked more in part-time jobs to provide for their livelihood, while working generally is considered to distract from study. To enhance social justice for ‘first-generation’ students and parents, the career intervention may play a specific role (cf. Sweet and Watts, 2006).

I assume that ‘first-generation’ HE students and their parents will be found among the participants. These parents are less likely to influence their child and less likely to help their child concretely, for example in preparing them to be interviewed (Phillips and Newton, 2014). Lower-educated parents are harder to encourage to participate in parental involvement activities (Jónsdóttir, 2013) and in career activities open to all parents (Katznelson and Pless, 2007). Parents from lower SES and from ethnic minorities tend to be less involved in their child’s education (Lopez, 2001b). In general, lower SES parents desire to separate home and school, while higher SES parents desire interconnectedness (Denessen et al., 2001). I accordingly assume that the career intervention does have a different impact on lower- and higher-educated parents. Thus:

\[H3.1_0= \text{The career intervention has the same impact for parents regardless of whether both, one or neither parent has attained higher education qualifications.}\]

\[H3.1_1= \text{The career intervention has a different impact for parents dependent on whether both, one or neither parent has attained higher education qualifications.}\]

The fourth and final research objective is:

To assess the impact of this career intervention on the school

The school initiated the career intervention. Although the public benefits of school-based parental involvement are found to be smaller than the private benefits (Nechyba, McEwan and Older-Aguilar, 1999), I assume that there are observable
benefits of the career intervention for the experimental school both where all students benefit and the whole school organisation, including CEG, benefits. Thus:

\[ H4.1_0 = \text{The schools that executed the career intervention do not show more observable public benefits in comparison to the control schools.} \]

\[ H4.1_1 = \text{The schools that executed the career intervention show more observable public benefits in comparison to the control schools.} \]

3.4.2 Data preparation

The following documents in the project helped me make an assessment of participants life context and other factors influencing parental participation in the career intervention:

- Retrieved from public websites and confirmed by the career teacher were: data (2012-2013) of the experimental and control schools for schools' parental SES as expressed in its APC percentage score for the HAVO department; site; denomination; size of the whole school; and size of the third or fifth academic year.

- The demographic information, collected with each on-line quantitative questionnaire (groups 2a and 2d), provided data on: gender; age; HE level, the maternal educational level; single parenthood; and being foreign-born.

- The written data, provided by the career teachers of the experimental school, included: initial participation (list of initial registration with career teacher); and continued participation (participants' list for each session: participants listed with date of session, student's name, gender, and present parent(s) – father and/or mother).

In Subsection 1.4.1. I described the data collection and the instruments used. After saving and storing the original quantitative dataset of the self-completion questionnaires, I made changes in the new dataset regarding the recoding of statements of 16 of the 45 variables in the questionnaire of the 0-, 1-, and 2-measurements, so that they were formulated (positive) conform all other variables (cf. Appendix 3).

I justify this step to enable safe handling in the statistical treatment and analysis.

3.4.3 Descriptive and inferential statistics

For the analysis of the data I used descriptive and inferential statistics.
Descriptive statistics such as frequency distributions (numbers and percentages) were used to summarise and describe the data in this study. Medians were calculated to indicate the central tendency and interquartile range (IQR) for measures of variability. Means were calculated to summarise the data on the age of parents (qualitative and quantitative) and the rating of career provision. Standard deviations (SD) were calculated for measures of variability. Mean rank values were calculated to enable the comparison of the three groups through the Kruskal-Wallis $H$ test. I justify this step to enable the appropriate analysis of the results and reliable findings.

Inferential statistics were applied to determine the reliability or internal consistency of the dataset.

3.4.4 Indexes

Then, after statistical procedures that will be explained and justified in the following Subsection Principal Component Analysis, the variables referred to above were arranged in seven indexes, with operational labels, to enable the measurement of the following:

- The index ‘current information level’ of the parents, with five items. Sample items include: ‘Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the (vocational) possibilities of the different cluster choices/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice’ and ‘Currently, I understand my child’s perspective on the labour market sufficiently’. Participants were asked their agreement with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

- The index ‘current information needs’ of the parents, with five items. Sample items include: ‘Currently, I need information on the financial implications of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice’ and ‘Currently, I need information on personal support in the career orientation of my child’. Participants were asked their need level with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (no need) to 5 (great need).

- The index ‘current information expectation’ of the parents, with four items. Sample items include: ‘In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to work with my child on a considered cluster/HE course choice’ and ‘In the spring, I expect to be a fully-
fledged discussion partner in the career orientation of my child’. Participants were asked their expectations with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (does not match expectation) to 5 (is in complete agreement with expectation). At the 1-measurement, the questions of the 0-measurement were repeated, while at the 2-measurement parents were asked for the same topics if, looking back, their expectations on the specified outcomes came true.

- The index ‘current guidance and support level of the school’ as experienced by the parents, with five items. Sample items include: ‘I am well aware of what the school does in career education and guidance’ and ‘When I have questions about the cluster/HE course choice of my child I can contact the tutor, teacher or career teacher beforehand’. Participants were asked about their agreement with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

- The index ‘current guidance and support needs’ of the parents, with six items. Sample items include: ‘Currently, I need support in career discussions about my child with the tutor/career teacher’ and ‘Currently, I need support in stimulating my child to think about educational, vocational and career choices’. Participants were asked their need level with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (no need) to 5 (great need).

- The index ‘current guidance and support expectations’ of the parents, with six items. Sample items include: ‘In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to perform career interviews with my child’ and ‘In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to stimulate my child to develop career competencies’. Participants were asked their expectations with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (does not match expectation) to 5 (is in complete agreement with expectation). At the 1-measurement, the questions of the 0-measurement were repeated, while at the 2-measurement parents were asked for the same topics if, looking back, their expectations on the specified outcomes came true.

- The index ‘parental role definition’, with five items. Sample items include: ‘I stimulate my child to think about his/her own future’ and ‘As a parent/guardian, I am an important conversation partner for the career choices of my child’. Participants were asked about their agreement with the items on a 5-point Likert
scale ranging from 1 (does not fit with my self-image) to 5 (does fit with my self-image fully).

In Appendix 8, these seven areas with the items and the reliability testing of each index can be found.

Additionally, there are four ‘Parental statements’, which I use to provide insights into parental role considerations: ‘I am aware what are the strengths and weaknesses of my child’, ‘I would steer my child to other thoughts if I dislike a cluster, study or profession’, ‘I wonder sometimes if my child has enough general knowledge and experience to make an appropriate cluster selection/choice of course in HE’ and ‘I am sufficiently able to support my child in his or her cluster/HE course choice’. Participants were asked about their agreement with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (does not fit with my self-image at all) to 5 (does fit with my self-image fully).

The specific item to provide insights in school-parent-child co-operation reads: ‘I expect the school to co-operate with parents in the choice of cluster/HE course of my child’. Participants were asked about their agreement with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

I justify the step(s) above to clarify the operational definitions of the dependent or outcome variable(s) in my study. Together with the two confounding variables that were detected in the original evaluation – information-centred sessions at the control schools; and open days of HE institutions for all fifth-year parents – these will be considered in the re-analysis.

The first six indexes and the four ‘parental statements’ have been used in testing:
- the hypotheses H2.1 and H2.2 under the second research objective (impact) with groups 2a and 3a; and
- hypotheses H3.1 under the third research objective (variation in impact) with group 2d.

The seventh index, ‘current guidance and support level of the school’, has been used in testing hypotheses H4.1 under the fourth research objective (school as agent) with groups 1, 2a, 2e and 3a.
3.4.5 Principal Component Analysis

In my secondary analysis of the existing data, I subjected the 45-items questionnaire for the third- and for the fifth-year HAVO to a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for the primary purpose to identify, to interpret (Bryant, Yarnold and Michelson, 1999) and to construct validity evidence for the self-reporting indexes (Thompson, 2004) in the questionnaire. A Cronbach Alpha calculation for the seven indexes, with the variation in items suggested by the PCA, was performed to explore what could be acceptable and reliable indexes, including the most items of the initial parts in the questionnaire.

Comparing the differences in the medians of groups was applied to investigate whether there was a discernible difference between respondents in the experimental and control groups, in the third and in the fifth years. The \( p < 0.05 \), two-tailed test was used to investigate the degree to which the found results were ‘true’, to indicate statistical significance. The \( p \)-value means the probability of getting my results given that the null hypothesis is true. A small \( p \)-value (\( \leq 0.05 \)) indicates strong evidence against the null hypothesis. A two-tailed test allots half of the \( p \)-value to testing the statistical significance in one direction and half in the other direction, thus testing for the possibility of the found relationship and the direction of the effect in both directions.

Although controversial, as ordinal data are about more and less (Baarda et al., 2012), but encouraged for MMR (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2002), the effect size was calculated by using the formula \( r=Z/\sqrt{N} \) for the effect size of the Mann-Whitney’s \( U \) test \( (r = \text{effect size}; Z = Z \text{ (Rosenthal, 1991)} \text{ and } N = \text{the total number of the samples}) \).

I justify the use of the effect size as to measure the strength and magnitude of the found statistically significant results. To find out if significant differences existed between groups with nominal data and the effect size of the statistical significance of found results, Chi-square and Cramér V were calculated.

Procedures to identify indexes and re-analyse quantitative data

For the PCA, the sample to variable ratio was considered: \( n:p=215/45 \) for the third-year HAVO and \( n:p=68/45 \) for the fifth-year HAVO. Although small, Hogerty et al. (2005) argued that there is not a convincing minimum level of \( n \) or \( n:p \) ratio.

Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.830 for the
third year and 0.822 for the fifth year, both above the recommended value of 0.6. A different test to measure sampling adequacy is the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity, which was significant ($\chi^2 (990) = 5998.39, p \leq .001$ for the third year and $\chi^2 (946) = 4202.69, p \leq .001$ for the fifth year). Thirdly, the communalities of the 45 items were at least 0.50 while reasonable communalities (over 0.46) was suggested for three, two items respectively, further confirming that each item shared some common variance with other items. Given these overall indicators, a Categorical Principal Component Analysis (CATPCA) and a PCA were conducted, both without the items under 0.50 and with all items.

The CATPCA suggested that the dimensions were interrelated factors. The CATPCA is less straightforward, and more subjective for interpretation. To get a better understanding of each factor, the PCA was considered. The solutions were examined using varimax rotations of the factor loading matrix.

The eigenvalues, the variance on the new factors that were successively extracted, are shown in Table 10. Not shown are: for the third year, the seventh to 12th factors had eigenvalues just above one and a half, each explaining between 3.12% and 2.30% of the variance; for the fifth year, the seventh to 11th factors had eigenvalues just above one, each explaining between 3.23% and 2.38% of the variance.

Table 10: PCA and Cronbach Alpha results for indexes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name index</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>PCA variance explained</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current information level</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current information needs</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current information expectations</td>
<td>four</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current guidance and support level of the school</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current guidance and support needs</td>
<td>six</td>
<td>12.88</td>
<td>.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current guidance and support expectations</td>
<td>six</td>
<td>20.75</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental role definition</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The 6-factor solution, which explained unrotated 54.20% and rotated 48.44% of the variance in the third year, and unrotated 53.80% and rotated 48.95% of the variance in the fifth year, was preferred because of the commonalities in the items for the indexes to be used in reporting for both experimental years. The reason is mostly practical: it will be confusing for the reader if indexes with the same names have
different items in it; they are both experimental groups. However, I will not compare the third to the fifth year as such but make some observations on the differences.

Five factors were common in the 6-factor solution across the third and fifth years. The third factor for the fifth year, ‘current information needs’ did not present itself in the third year: potential parents for the intervention may not have been aware of the relevance of these items compared to what the First Review among third-year parents showed up.

The fourth factor for the third-year index, ‘current information expectations’, did present with low factor loadings in the eighth and ninth factor for the fifth year. A possible explanation for this observation is that fifth-year parents already felt familiar with the information in the items.

Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients were calculated for the seven indexes with the variation in items suggested by the PCA. The calculation of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient gives an indication of how the items correlate with one another and how each item correlates with the total score and the subscales. High values (> 0.80) indicate a high reliability or high internal consistency, which means that the constituent items do measure substantially the same concept. As an index having a value of > 0.70 is regarded as trustworthy, I accepted seven indexes for both third and fifth years. I justify this step to have an estimate of the reliability or internal consistency for using the indexes and to enable data reduction in the quantitative data. Table 10 and Appendix 8 provide further details on the reliability analysis for the indexes used. I concluded that the questionnaire used in the original evaluation was valid and seven indexes could be used in the secondary analysis.

3.4.6 Comparing the experimental and control groups for initial differences

I compared the experimental group (group 2a) and the control group (group 3a) both for the third- and the fifth-year respondents of the sample in the 0-measurement. This was done with regard to the respondents’ gender, their age-group, having a partner, being born in the Netherlands, and the HE attainment of the parents.

Using SSPS 22, the Mann-Whitney $U$ test ($p = 0.05$, two-tailed) – the use of which will be explained and justified below – has been applied to check whether the parents in the experimental and control groups held similar views for each of the 45
quantitative variables, or whether there were differences that should be taken into account. I justify this step to detect which differences I should consider in the interpretation of findings in the secondary analysis of existing data.

3.4.7 Non-parametric tests
For my first research objective (involvement), I used the Mann-Whitney U test to analyse the experimental group in general (group 2a) regarding maternal educational level, single parenthood and their HE qualification (group 2d).

I planned to run the quantitative analyses, using the Mann-Whitney U test, for my second (impact) and for my fourth (school as agent) research objectives.

For the analyses with my second research objective (impact), the experimental group (2a) and control groups (3a) for the third year and for the fifth years were compared: between the 0- and 1-measurement and between the 1- and 2-measurement for each of the quantitative variables and with six of the seven indexes.

The same groups and measurements were compared with the seventh index, 'current guidance and support level of the school', for the analyses with my fourth research objective (school as agent). Additionally, results of group 1 and group 2e were compared to results of experimental groups 2a and 3a (2-measurement).

I justify the use of the Mann-Whitney U test as the data were ordinal and the dependent variables were not distributed normally: therefore, a non-parametric test was required (Baarda et al., 2012; Runyon and Haber, 1991). I tested the assumption for the use of the Mann-Whitney U test with my dataset. Both distributions were symmetrical around their respective medians, and/or in case of asymmetric distributions, the distributions had the same shape but differed in location.

I justify the use of the independent sample version of the Mann-Whitney U test in the light of, as can be observed in Table 6 and Table 8, the differences in responding parents (both experimental and control groups) across the measurements and the relatively low number of parents actually participating in (all of) the four sessions of the career intervention as explained in the discussion on sample respondents in Subsection 3.4.2.
To run the quantitative analyses for the third objective, on the difference in impact of the career intervention for both, single or no HE qualification attainment among parents, a second non-parametric test has been applied: the Kruskal-Wallis $H$ test. This is an extension of the Mann-Whitney $U$ test, to allow a 3-way analysis or the comparison of more than two independent groups (Runyon and Haber, 1991), i.e. both, one or none of the parents of the student having attained HE qualifications themselves. I applied the same testing for the assumptions to use a non-parametric test as I did with the Mann-Whitney $U$, with the same justification for its use. The Kruksal-Wallis takes the responses from the three groups and ranks them, sums up the ranks for each group and then applies a one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) to the mean rank values, not to the original scores.

For the analyses with the third research objective (variation in impact), the experimental group (2d) for the third year and for the fifth year were compared: between the 0- and 1-measurement and between the 1- and 2-measurement with all seven indexes and the four parental statements using the Mann-Whitney $U$ test. Then, a Kruskal-Wallis $H$ test was applied to reveal significant effects of the group to value by comparing the mean ranks of the three groups of parents at each measurement, with a confidence level of 95% and a significance level of .05.

3.4.8 Linking quantitative data to the qualitative exploration

The quantitative data will provide answers to the ‘What’ questions in my study: what is the nature of parents’ participation in ‘Parents Turn’ and what hinders and aids their involvement?; what is the impact of ‘Parents Turn’ on parents in respect to feeling informed, feeling able and compared to control groups?; what are the differences in the impact for parents with and without HE experiences themselves?; and what is the impact of ‘Parents Turn’ on the school? These questions are related to the research foci/objectives – involvement; variation in impact; and school as a (re)active agent – in my secondary analysis of the existing data (Subsection 1.5.2). These also provide a framework informing and supporting the qualitative exploration.

As explained in Subsection 1.5.4, the topics in the qualitative data collection were selected in line with the quantitative questionnaire and to provide insights into the ‘why?’ and ‘how?’ of the findings from the quantitative data. For ‘involvement’ the topics were: who initiated participation in ‘Parents Turn’ once the invitation arrived at
home; why was this participation initiated, what was the motive, and participation: who in the family were involved in the career intervention? For 'variation in impact' the topics were the impact on parental knowledge and skills, impact on parental self-efficacy, impact on parental role definition, impact on students and lasting behaviour. For the 'school as (re)active agent' the topics were: co-operation, approach to PT pedagogy, content PT, CEG and CEG communication.

Summary
The hypotheses related to the four research objectives in the secondary analysis of the existing data were presented. The preparation of the quantitative data for the re-analyses were highlighted as well as which quantitative data was used and why these were retrieved for the four research objectives and used for testing their hypotheses. I have also explained and justified the use of statistical procedures such as PCA, Mann-Whitney U, Kruskal-Wallis H tests. Finally, I clarified how the quantitative data provides a framework for exploring the qualitative data.

3.5 Re-analysis of the qualitative data
As I had been involved in the original evaluation, I had a comprehensive understanding of the dataset for my study.

3.5.1 Data collection
In Subsection 1.4.1., I described the data collection and the instruments used in the primary research. These were: (1) document review; (2) semi-structured, individual interviews with parents; and (3) a questionnaire with career teachers.

Document review
For the fifth research question (role of schools), the record of the monthly 'critical incident analysis' sessions with the career teachers of the experimental schools at intervention (Subsection 1.3.1) was reanalysed as will be explained in Subsection 3.5.3. I justify the use and the reanalysis of these data, to gain an understanding of the impact of the career intervention within the school.

Semi-structured, individual interviews
Qualitative data were collected in semi-structured, individual interviews (Appendix 6) with parents at the 2-measurement (group 2b and 3b) and at the 3-measurement
(group 2c and 3c). I justify the use of these data as they provide insights for answering each of my research questions.

**Questionnaire**

Qualitative data were collected through a questionnaire with the career teachers (group 4 and 5) at the 3-measurement (Appendix 5). Two questions were re-analysed:

- “Which were the most important impacts for the school? Please describe (briefly) the most important impact you observed. And next, can you please provide one or more examples of this?”;
- “Anchoring the impact of the career sessions HAVO 3/5. In my school, the career intervention sessions as designed and executed in the school year 2012-2013: (options)
  o are being executed integrally this school year;
  o are being executed in an adapted version, namely: (open);
  o are being executed integrally or adapted and have been extended to other departments, namely: (open).”

I justify the use of these data, to gain understanding of the impact of the career intervention within the school.

**3.5.2 The quantity and quality of the interview data**

In Subsection 3.3.2, the sample of participants/respondents has been described, including the interviews with parents at the 2-measurement (group 2b and 3b) and at the 3-measurement (group 2c and 3c). The total is 35 interviews of which 27 were with the parents in the experimental schools and eight in the control schools.

The quality of interview data is determined by reliability, bias, validity and generalisability. As I was the only interviewer and to increase reliability, all the interviews were recorded, and transcripts were completed in the weeks after the interviews. In case where the interviewee preferred not to be taped, paper notes were taken by me as interviewer, elaborated on the same day of the interview and entered in Excel. To prevent bias in my role as interviewer, I have been trained and experienced in interviews as part of my work as careers adviser and as (senior) trainer/consultant; and I was aware of the need to make the interviewee comfortable, feel safe and to show interest in what the interviewee was saying. In the case of a
face-to-face contact, I was aware of the appropriate body language. I avoided closed and leading, suggestive questions and personal opinions. Reducing bias of socially desirable behaviour of the interviewee was achieved by probing, while I also was aware of the limited self-awareness of interviewees (Subsection 1.4.1).

The interviews with parents were 30-minute in length and were standardised through the use of an interview schedule (Bryman, 2012). They were designed to be open-ended (Johnson and Christensen, 2014) and specified topics, selected in line with the quantitative questionnaire, were outlined in advance, based on analysis of the answers to the quantitative questions. Two experts from APS were involved to specifically validate the questions or themes (construct validity) to be included in the questionnaires. They also provided feedback on the structure of the interview schedules, precise wording and ordering (internal validity). The option for further probing during the interviews was part of the interview design. Ecological validity has been achieved by keeping the interviews at the schools, an environment familiar to the participants.

As for external validity and generalisability, the career teachers were asked to strive for a representational and diverse sample of participants (male/female, more and less involved, native and foreign born) to uncover as full an array of perspectives as possible (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, cited in Rudestam and Newton, 2007). Although every nth name on a list was systematically chosen, pragmatism dominated in the final composition: availability of parents for an interview face-to-face or by telephone at certain dates. So, there is no certainty that the findings apply to the population as a whole.

3.5.3 Procedures used to analyse qualitative data

There are various approaches to qualitative data analysis, such as analytic induction, grounded theory, critical discourse analysis and qualitative content analysis (Bryman, 2012). Except for the document review for the first research objective, I adapted thematic analysis, a “matrix based method for ordering and synthesising data” (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003, p.219) and the Framework Method (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003) as an appropriate approach to my qualitative data analysis, research questions, data and MMR. Thematic analysis and the Framework Method are not aligned with a particular epistemological, philosophical, or theoretical approach, and
are considered as flexible tools which are adaptable for use within various qualitative approaches (Boyatzis, 1998) that aim to generate themes. “A theme can be an outcome of coding, categorization or analytic reflection” (Saldana, 2016, p.15).

The interviews
For re-analysing the entire dataset retrieved from the interviews with parents at the 2- and 3-measurement, I followed the six prescribed steps by Braun and Clarke (2006, 2012): become familiar with the data; generate initial codes; search for themes; review themes, define themes, and write-up.

The initial open coding in Dutch of the same four transcripts of the interviews was carried out independently by me and by two colleagues with different backgrounds who went in ‘blind’. I justify this step to achieve initial inductive ‘data-driven’ coding and to suspend my awareness of relevant concepts and theories from the literature and my tendency of a ‘theory-driven’ approach to a later stage in the procedure of analysis.

We met twice to discuss the labels we had assigned to each passage in the four transcripts, why we perceived it as meaningful, what it told us about participants' views and how it might be useful for answering one or more research objectives and questions. After thoroughly reading and rereading the transcripts, in a third discussion, we looked for different relationships of the codes to the quantitative data and to the literature review and found that these aligned closely with many but not all of the findings. We decided that some codes were conceptually related and therefore should be grouped together, which refers to the inductive process of organising labels into categories for thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006, 2012). We agreed on top-level themes related to the research objectives; within each top-level theme, on a set of codes, each with a brief definition; and within the identified code, on potential sub-codes. This formed the initial analytical framework.

Then, I and a second researcher independently coded eight more transcripts using the initial framework, taking care to note any new codes or impressions and ideas which did not fit the initial set, until saturated. In a next meeting and following discussion, we revised the initial framework to incorporate new and refined codes. I justify these two steps as a way of thinking about the meaning of the data, to achieve inter-coder reliability and to achieve data reduction (Bryman, 2012).
I applied the final analytical frameworks (Appendix 11) to each transcript using the CASQAD, NVivo version 11. The quantitative data provided a framework for some of the themes, sub-themes and processes in the analysis of the qualitative data, as did the literature review, particularly the Desforges and Abouchaar model (Figure 7). Most (sub-)themes stem from the inductive approach to the qualitative data itself.

Once all data had been coded, I summarised the data in a framework matrix in Excel, using one sheet for each top-level theme. This matrix comprised one row per participant and one column per node, theme and sub-theme. The row of participants in the control group were marked yellow. In the cells I summarised data from the transcripts for each participant and node and referred to potentially memorable quotations within the cell. This framework matrix allowed for identifying patterns in and among the themes: repetition (things recur again), similarity (things happened the same way), correspondence (things happened in relation to specific actions or events) and frequency (how many times things happened). It also led to reviewing the themes to come to meaningful, clear and identifiable distinctions between themes in a discussion with the second researcher.

After analysing the data for the whole group, on each sheet I copied the matrix three times below the original: one with the data from the parents who both attained HE qualifications; one with the data of parents of whom one attained HE qualifications and one with the data of parents without HE qualifications. I repeated the identification of patterns in and among the themes and discussed these with the second researcher. I justify these steps as a way of discovering relationships and of connecting it to concepts of career guidance and parental involvement. Finally, in reporting my analyses, I added examples of rich descriptions from the interviews that relate to the themes, research questions, and literature.

Document review and questionnaire in regard to the fifth research question
The same six steps prescribed by Braun and Clarke (2006, 2012) were taken in re-analysing the documents at intervention (Appendix 12). The two questions from the 3-measurement questionnaire with the career teachers were analysed using Excel.

Summary
The re-analysis of the entire qualitative data set of the semi-structured interviews with parents in the 2- and 3-measurement, and the document review of the monthly
sessions with career teachers at intervention and two questions in the questionnaire with career teachers in the 3-measurement, were conducted with a thematic analysis approach. To access the quality of the interviews, elements of reliability, bias, validity and generalisability were discussed, as were the quantity of the group of participating parents. Details of how each of the six steps prescribed by Braun and Clarke (2006) has been followed up in analysing were reported.

3.6 Methodological considerations

3.6.1 Applying secondary analysis of existing data
As I was involved in the original evaluation, I was sure the data met with the conditions of relevance and appropriate relation to the problem, credibility, timeliness, accuracy and being affordable and usable. Disadvantages with secondary datasets, such as accessibility, location and understanding of the data-set, and different purposes of data collection, are not applicable in the case of my research. However, gaps in the data collection and sample size may have limited my study (Subsection 1.4.2).

None of the methodological issues raised by Heaton (1998) for secondary analysis of existing qualitative data are relevant in my research: neither the ‘problem of data fit’, as the data for the original evaluation are compatible with the secondary analysis; nor the ‘problem of not having been there’, as I was involved in the primary research and have executed all interviews in the qualitative data collection. An extensive outline of the original evaluation and the boundaries between the original evaluation and the secondary analysis of the existing data are provided (Subsection 1.4.1). Informed consent for the use of the data in the secondary analysis has been acquired (Subsection 3.9.1).

3.6.2 Translation
The original quantitative and qualitative data for this study are in Dutch. I have analysed the dataset in Dutch, and then translated what was applicable in terms of information and/or findings to English.

I recognise that there are issues in terms of transferring, lending or borrowing respectively, from concepts, terms from one cultural context to another (Sultana, 2012, 2017). But I feel that that these concepts, terms used are similar and not major
issues. The Dutch (semi-)professional careers community has been Anglo-American-oriented for quite a long time. Where concepts and terms are understood differently, as is the case with ‘career learning’ (Subsection 1.2.2), I have paid explicit attention to them and highlighted these differences when discussing the data.

Summary
Methodological considerations related to secondary analysis of existing data have been reviewed for my research. The issues of how has been considered and dealt with translation have been addressed.

3.7 Validity, reliability – trustworthiness
One methodological issue for the secondary analysis of existing qualitative data, raised by Heaton (2008, p.40), is the “problem of verification.” Can or should the results of qualitative research be verified in the same ways as quantitative research? This issue refers to the epistemological tensions between quantitative and qualitative methods and across various kinds of qualitative inquiry. In my research, I counterbalance the methods of verification derived from positivist-based approaches with alternative methods to help establish the ‘trustworthiness’ of my work, which according to Bryman (2012) consists of criteria such as credibility, transferability and confirmability.

Credibility corresponds with internal validity and refers to the acceptability of the account that a researcher arrives at. The establishment of credibility, therefore, requires that the research is carried out according to adequate research practice, with the findings being shared with knowledgeable peers as well as participants i.e. with the career teachers involved in the original evaluation (Subsection 3.9.2), which also serves to minimise the researcher’s own judgements.

In terms of establishing transferability, I produced a ‘thick description’, i.e. a rich narrative account of the career intervention (Subsection 1.3.4) and its design (Subsection 1.3.3). In this way, the context and significance of the group and the social aspects to be studied were presented comprehensively.

I ensured confirmability by minimising my own judgement through using peer experts and the career teachers to validate concepts, research questions and findings.
To estimate the trustworthiness of a study, Gorard (2014) presents a tool to observe its design, scale, dropout, outcomes, fidelity and validity. I would opt for two stars on his four-star scale for this study in relation to:

- **Design**: Matched comparison.
- **Scale**: Small number of cases per comparison group.
- **Dropout**: Initial imbalance or moderate attrition.
- **Validity**: Evidence of experimenter effect, diffusion or other threat.
- **Fidelity**: Clear intervention, with variation in delivery.

However, for the following, I would opt for three stars:

- **Outcomes**: Pre-specified outcome, not standardised or not independent.

**Summary**
I have shown how I established and scaled the ‘trustworthiness’ of my work by carefully considering credibility, transferability and confirmability.

**3.8 Reflexivity**
Nowadays, there is more awareness and acknowledgement of the researcher’s role in constructing knowledge as in the past, for which the term ‘reflexivity’ is used. Reflexivity as part of ‘transparency and coherence’ in the research methods employed, on how the interpretation was derived from the data and in articulating arguments, is one of the four quality criteria Yardley (2000, 2017) proposed for qualitative research. Qualitative analysis should show ‘sensitivity to the data and context’, a second criterion, by carefully considering the meanings generated by the participants, potentially relevant theoretical positions and ethical issues. ‘Commitment and rigour’ demand a substantial engagement with the topic, including thorough data collection and analysis, displaying expertise and skills in the research methods employed. The fourth criterion, ‘impact and importance’ refers to the requirement for all research to generate useful knowledge in a broad sense.

Reflectivity has various meanings in social sciences.

…researchers should be reflective about the implications of their methods, values, biases and decisions for the knowledge of the social world they generate [...] a sensitivity to the researcher’s cultural, political and social
context. As such, ‘knowledge’ from a reflexive position is always a reflection of a researcher’s location in time and social space. (Bryman, 2012, p.393)

Reflexivity involves researchers in being aware of both their own context as well as those of the participants and informers in co-constructing knowledge and is certainly important for my kind of research.

Reflection on my location and social space as researcher is demonstrated in Chapter 1. I was aware of the various roles and stakes in the project (Subsection 1.3.1) and took care of credibility and confirmability (Subsection 3.7). I described the Dutch context and (implicitly) my national position in the CEG field, which included a continuous awareness of my and ‘their’ power position in relation to the Ministry, the school-managers, the career teachers and respondents/participants. During the original evaluation and the secondary analysis of the existing data, I strived for openness and continuous dialogue with all parties, although, all parties tended to return to their ‘daily issues’ after the original evaluation.

Awareness of my previous positions, experiences, values, beliefs and knowledge I bring to the study, which may have influenced the research and potentially biased it were presented in Subsection 3.2.3 and 3.2.4 and will come back when I discuss the differences found for parental role-definition perspectives among the three groups of parents under the third research objective (variation in impact).

Summary

Reflexivity as a part of four current and flexible criteria to qualitative research has been explored.

3.9 Ethical considerations

My ethical considerations were included in the request for ethical approval of my study (Appendix 9), which was confirmed (Appendix 10).

3.9.1 Consent and withdrawal

The career teachers and school management of the control schools were informed by telephone and email, while the career teachers and their school managers of the experimental schools were fully informed verbally (28 March 2013 and 22 May 2014). In both cases, they were made aware of the nature and purpose of the re-use of data
collected in the primary research for the secondary analysis of existing data and the possibility to withdraw from the study.

The parents of the experimental and control schools were notified through the career teacher with a text on the re-use of data collected in the primary research for the secondary analysis of existing data and the possibility to withdraw from the study. This text (Appendix 9, annex 2) was part of the digital info graphic of the final measurement (May 2014), while the career teachers of the control schools informed and notified all parents by email with the same text.

3.9.2 Debriefing
The career teachers involved in the original evaluation were debriefed by email on the progress of the secondary analysis of existing data and yearly concepts and findings were discussed (26 January 2016 and 3 February 2016; 3 and 16 February 2017 and 27 March 2017). The involved parents, students and school managements were informed through the career teacher about the outcomes of this research with a summary of Chapters 6 and 7.

3.9.3 Confidentiality and protection of participants
In the thesis and eventual publications pseudonyms have been used for the names of parents, career teachers and schools involved. All possible identifying information has been removed to maintain confidentiality.

3.9.4 Secured access and appropriate approval for any resources
All data are owned by me and the intellectual property right is with me. Neither OCW nor APS have further rights to the data. OCW (personal communication, 6 February and 16 October 2013) and APS were verbally informed about and aware of the intention to use the collected data for other reasons than for which it was collected initially. OCW and APS are acknowledged in the thesis.

3.9.5 Data protection
The collection, storage, disclosure and use of research data complies with the Data Protection Act 1998. All data are stored in two copies on a password-encrypted part of an external hard drive, which has only been accessible to me, in two different buildings for six years.
Summary
Ethical considerations have been explained in the request for ethical approval of my study, which was duly confirmed.
4. QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

This chapter demonstrates that, based on the secondary analysis of the existing quantitative data, there are good reasons to believe that the parent-involved career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is effective. The research finds that the intervention is associated with a number of benefits for all participating parents which will be useful to them in supporting their child in career decision-making. The parents involved were more informed about the career and educational choices that their children were making. They decreased their information, guidance and support needs and reported an increase in their capacity to support their child in career decision-making. These effects were not found in the control groups to the same extent.

The research also found that the intervention has different effects on different groups of parents according to whether they have a degree or not. It also found that those parents who had been involved in the intervention were more satisfied with the CEG provision at school. They reported to have communicated more with school-staff.

The research used self-reported ratings completed by the parents before and after the intervention. These questions were designed in the original study to evaluate the intervention but have been re-analysed more deeply in this study. This analysis sought both to investigate the efficacy of the intervention and to identify areas that could be explored further in qualitative analysis to provide insights into the ‘why’ and ‘how’ of meeting each of the research objectives and questions.

In this chapter, the data are interrogated and reported against the hypotheses that were introduced in Subsection 3.4.1. The collected quantitative data and the analytical procedures for this purpose were explained in Subsection 3.4. The third and fifth years were analysed separately due to a lack of homogeneity between the two groups as described in Subsection 3.3.2.

In reporting p-values, denoting the statistical significance of results, I will use asterisks in my text with the following meaning:

* = $p < .05$, which indicates that there is a 95% chance of the found pattern being true;
** = $p < .01$, there is a 99% chance; and
*** = $p < .001$, there is a 99.9% chance.
4.1 To assess the nature of the participation in the career intervention

The first research objective aims to understand who participated in ‘Parents Turn’. The aim is not just to describe the parents who participated in the intervention but also to investigate whether any demographic factors influenced parents’ involvement. It might be predicted that each of the following structural factors will have some influence on participation: parents’ SES; being a ‘first-generation’ HE family; single parenthood and immigrant families. In addition, it can also be hypothesised that parents’ and children’s gender, birth-order, and the enthusiasm of the child and the parent to participate in the ‘Parents Turn’ intervention also made a difference to participation. I anticipate that I will find that more mothers participate than fathers, that the participation of boys and girls will be equal, and that the child’s invitation to participate will influence parents’ initial involvement in the career intervention and whether they are likely to ‘drop out’ (Gorard, 2014) of the intervention.

$H1.1_0 =$ Parental involvement in the school-based career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is not influenced by parents’ life context.

$H1.1_1 =$ Parental involvement in the school-based career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is influenced by parents’ life context.

For the hypotheses H1.1, the characteristics of the participant/respondent groups (2a, 2d) can be found in Subsection 3.3.2, and of the schools in Subsection 3.3.3.

4.1.1 Results for H1.1

Table 11: School characteristics, initial and continued participation at experimental schools for third (E3) and fifth (E5) years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Denomination</th>
<th>APC HAVO</th>
<th>Size whole school</th>
<th>Size academic year HAVO concerned</th>
<th>Initial participation</th>
<th>Continued participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 school 1</td>
<td>rural</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,638</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 school 2</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>Protestant Christian</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>1,244</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 school 3</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>generally special</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 school 1</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>1,171</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 school 2</td>
<td>rural</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 school 3</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>1,057</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APC (armoede-probleem-cumulatiegebieden) [poverty problem accumulation areas].
Sources: Denomination, size whole school: VO-raad (2011); VO-raad and Kennisnet (2015). APC HAVO department: Inspectie van het Onderwijs (2011); Size academic year concerned, initial participation rate (list of initial registration with career teacher), continued participation rate (participants list): statement by career teacher.
Parents’ SES, as expressed in its APC percentage in Table 11, seems not to have influenced their participation in the career intervention.

Parents’ SES is likely to be closely linked to their attainment of HE qualifications, for which the figures for the experimental group at intervention and post-intervention were analysed, as these include only the parents who were involved in the career intervention.

Figure 9: Percentages of parents’ HE qualification attainment for the experimental group in the third (E3) and fifth (E5) years

As shown in Figure 9, in the third year the group of parents having both attained HE qualifications was the largest, while the group of both parents having none was the smallest. For the fifth year it was the opposite: the group of both parents having no HE qualifications was the largest, amounting to almost half of the respondents, while the group of parents having both attained HE qualifications was the smallest.

This pattern is also mirrored in the educational level of the mother involved in the career intervention: in the third year 82.5% (n=94) were HE qualified, while in the fifth year the figures were 32.7% (n=32). I made the assumption that if the male respondent answered that his partner had attained HE, he referred to a female partner.
Figure 9 shows that about one-third (29.5%) of the parents involved in the career intervention were of ‘first-generation’ HE students (17.4% for E3 and 43.8% for E5). This mean percentage corresponds to national figures of ‘first-generation’ enrolment in Dutch HE (Figure 3).

Another well-known life context factor influencing the level of parental involvement is single parenthood. Table 12 shows that there were proportionally more single mothers than single fathers for both the third and fifth years. Table 12 also shows that the proportion of single parents who took part at pre-intervention (0-measurement) was higher than the proportion of single parents who participated at intervention (1-measurement) and post-intervention (2-measurement).

Table 12: Single parents in the experimental sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>E3</th>
<th></th>
<th>E3</th>
<th></th>
<th>E5</th>
<th></th>
<th>E5</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total sample</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of which:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single father</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single mother</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 and Table 14 provide further details.

Table 13: Single parents in the ‘one HE’ parent group across measurements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year group</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘One HE’ = one of the parents attained higher education qualifications.

Table 14: Single parents in the ‘no HE’ parent group across measurements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year group</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘No HE’ = none of the parents attained higher education qualifications.

Most single third-year parents in the career intervention can be found among the ‘one HE’ parent group, while single fifth-year parents can be found equally in the groups.
where one/‘one HE’ or none/‘no HE’ of the parents had attained HE qualifications. However, there were more fifth year ‘one HE’ single parents (20.0%) and more third year ‘no HE’ single parents involved in the career intervention (15.8%) than those responding pre-intervention.

These findings suggest that the career intervention attracted single parents. While single parents might often focus their energies on support at home (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003, p.44), they may have ‘calculated’ that it would be advantageous to them to participate in a school-based career intervention. However, no data are available on the number of single parents in the experimental schools.

As for foreign-born or immigrant families, at pre-intervention in the experimental group almost all respondents (95.2% for E3 and 91.3 % for E5) and their partners (92.7% for E3 and 92.9% for E5) were born in the Netherlands. Seventeen of the respondents were foreign-born and 16 indicated that their partner had not been born in the Netherlands. Three (1.15%) out of the 260 respondents in the experimental group indicated that both parents had not been born in the Netherlands.

The absence of immigrant and foreign-born families/parents was also apparent in the other measurements among the experimental group: two (1.45%) out of the 137 respondents at intervention, two (2.67%) out of 75 respondents at post-intervention and none of the 79 respondents in the 3-measurement were foreign-born parents. As one in five Dutch citizens has a foreign background (CBS, 2016a), this evidence suggests that being a foreign-born parent/family was a factor which influenced participation negatively. However, no data are available on the number of foreign-born families/parents in the experimental schools.

Observing Table 11, and the low participation seen in ‘E5, school 2’, the rural ‘site’, i.e. remote school location, which could be a barrier in time/distance to be involved in the career intervention, may explain the low participation. However, the sparse number of participants may also be explained by parents’ perception of the school/teacher invitation. The career teacher reported the dominant presence of some critical parents during the first session, commenting negatively on time-table school policy, which irritated both other parents present and the department leader.
As for parents’ perception of the invitation or willingness of their child to join them in the career intervention, some observations can be made. Table 11 above, comparing the actual participation in the career intervention to the potential participation, showed that fewer parents initially registered for the career intervention compared to the continued participation number, which meant that more parents showed up with their child and signed in on the participants list for each session.

Not all parent(s)-child pairs who registered for the four successive sessions of the career intervention attended all four of them, which is indicated in Table 15. Most parent(s)-child pairs attended three or four sessions: 72.8% for the third year and 60.3% for the fifth year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent(s)-child pair</th>
<th>E3: Number of sessions attended</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>E5: Number of sessions attended</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Total of all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother and daughter</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother and son</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father and daughter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father and son</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents and daughter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents and son</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown plus daughter</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown plus son</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of total</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Participants list: statement by career teacher.

Table 15 reveals the gender of the pairs (parent and child) in the intervention. In total 41.7% (n=73) is made up of the mother, especially in the fifth year (n=47: 56.6%). In the third year mostly both parents – in three cases the parents alternated – and their child attended the sessions (n=28: 30.4%), which (both parents-child pair) was the lowest kind of pair-participation in the fifth year (n=12: 14.4%).

As for child’s gender, parents with sons were in the majority. In the third-year career intervention fewer girls (n=39: 42.4%) than boys (n=53: 57.6%) participated with their
parents. This is also the case in the fifth-year intervention, where 83 (47.4%) girls and 92 (52.6%) boys participated.

More parents with a daughter rather than a son dropped out during the series of four sessions. In total 31 girls (53.4%) and 27 boys (46.6%) attended a maximum of two sessions with their parent(s): 10 girls and 15 boys in the third year and 21 girls and 12 boys in the fifth year. Three or four sessions were attended with their parents by 52 girls (40%) and 78 boys (60%).

As for birth-order, most parents participated with their eldest child: 59.3% (n=67) in the third year and 59.8% (n=58) in fifth year or with their second-born: 28.3% (n=32) in the third year and 29.9% (n=29) in the fifth year.

The attendance for the career intervention as shown in Table 16 was about the same for each evening, with the first session being visited most and the third session being visited least. An explanation for the latter might be that this session took place in the ‘busy’ month of December, the time for celebrating Sinterklaas (5 December), Christmas and holidays. At the first session some parents came without their child, not being used to visit a parents’ evening with their child.

Table 16: Attendance of parents and child in each of the four sessions in third (E3) and fifth (E5) years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First session parents</th>
<th>Second session parents</th>
<th>Third session parents</th>
<th>Fourth session parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total participants in each session</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% over sessions</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Participants list: statement by career teacher.

**H1.1: (Parental involvement in the school-based career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is influenced by parents’ life context) is supported.**

The evidence points to the probability that parents’ SES affects their involvement in ‘Parents Turn’: not only whether or not they are involved, but also when they are involved. The differences in the ‘first-generation’ HE participation for the third and fifth years suggest a different ‘weighting’ of the choice to be made (the cluster selection in the third year and the HE course selection in the fifth year) by HE-qualified parents in
general and mothers respectively. HE-educated parent(s), mothers in particular, seem more aware of the importance and impact of early educational choices on their child’s career development: they were present to a greater extent in the third-year intervention. This evidence points to the likelihood of HE attainment by parents and maternal level of education as a life-context factor influencing parental involvement.

The evidence suggests that about one-third of the participants in the career intervention were parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students, which mirrors national data. It also seems that a rural ‘site’ for the school has some likelihood of influencing participation.

The evidence suggests that the Dutch pattern of parental involvement in the transition from primary to secondary education (Cabus and Ariës, 2014) differed in this intervention at secondary level. Although it was mostly mothers (41.4%), comparably fathers were more present with their child (20.0%) in the intervention, or together with the mother (22.9%). In other words: fathers are more involved in educational decision-making at secondary level. Still, the evidence is consistent with findings that mothers have the more significant role for adolescents as an adviser for future plans and as co-deciding on career decisions.

The evidence supports the greater likelihood of the first-born benefiting; however, this may be explained by the fact that with the first-born the educational and career choices are new to their parent(s), whereas for their younger children they are already familiar with these choices.

More boys than girls were involved in the career intervention and more girls dropped out, which points to slight gender differences. Although drop-out rates are an important issue for the trustworthiness of a study (Subsection 3.7), data on this are missing in publications on parent-involved career interventions. For comparison purposes, future research on parent-involved career interventions should look at drop-out rates.

4.1.2 Summary for first research objective
The demographics of parents affected their involvement in the career intervention. SES, understood as linked to the HE qualification level of parents/mothers, influenced not only whether parents were involved, but also when they were involved.
HE-qualified parents/mothers seemed more aware of the consequences of early educational choices in their child’s (school) career. This evidence is entirely consistent with the key role of mothers in parental involvement (Reay, 1998) and as supporter and collocutor in the career development of their adolescent (Otto, 2000; Phillips and Newton, 2014). Single parents seemed to be attracted by the school-based career intervention, despite the time-investment. Foreign-born parents were largely absent, which is consistent with earlier findings on their distant relationship with Dutch schools (Denessen et al., 2001). However, no data are available on the number of single families and foreign-born families/parents in the experimental schools.

Parents of first-born children were in the majority, perhaps because in these cases both parents and students were new to the content and procedures of the educational and career decisions to be made.

4.1.3 Implication for qualitative research
To understand the involvement in the career intervention, participation data were assessed against factors in family/parents’ life context, identified in the literature as influencing parental involvement. By analysing the qualitative data, a greater understanding of what helps and hinders parents’ involvement in the career intervention (second research question) can be achieved. For instance: how parents and children reacted to the school’s initiative at home; how parents perceived the invitation to be involved by the school, teacher or their child; how their child mediated this parent-school liaison; the motives that parents and their child had to be involved with the programme; and why they might have participated in less than four sessions.

4.1.4 Implications for my research questions
Second research question: What hinders and aids parents’ involvement in such career interventions? Parents/mothers who are not HE-qualified themselves need extra attention to make them aware of the consequences of early educational decisions for their child’s career development. This motivation is also true for foreign-born parents, who additionally may have to overcome a larger cultural barrier to become involved.

Third research question: What is the impact of the career intervention on the parents, and does this differ between the experimental and control groups? The HE
qualification attainment of the parents in the review of the experimental schools was divided roughly equally between cases where both, one or none of the parents were HE-qualified, the latter being parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students, which mirrors national data on the presence of ‘first-generation’ HE students enrolled in first year HE (Figure 3). This enables a sound comparison for the third research question to understand if each of these groups of parents requires more or different support in a parent-involved career intervention.

4.2 II. To assess the impact of the career intervention on parents

In the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’, parental involvement in CEG is understood as supporting parents in their role in the career development of their child. This is achieved by making parents feel up-to-date and well-informed about the options available to their child (objective A) and to feel that they are able to apply this information in their interactions with their child (objective B). To evaluate if the career intervention worked, i.e. the objectives were met, I established hypotheses with each objective to test quantitatively the self-reported progress parents make against each objective.

The first set of hypotheses assume that parents are not fully aware of current developments in the education system that might influence the educational choices of their child. The school has a vital role in making them aware of the available options and their consequences.

H2.1₀ = Parents who were involved in the career intervention show no difference in feeling up-to-date and well-informed about the options of their child in comparison to the parents who were not involved.

H2.1₁ = Parents who were involved in the career intervention show a difference in feeling up-to-date and well-informed about the options of their child in comparison to the parents who were not involved.

The second set of hypotheses aim to explore if parents were able, for instance in conversations with their child, to apply what they learned in the career intervention. It might be predicted that if they are more aware of up-to-date information and feel more informed about the education system they will feel more able to talk with their child about educational and career decisions. Then, in testing the second
hypotheses, the focus will be on the parents’ perception of their parental role in the career development of their child.

**H2.2₀** = *Parents who were involved in the career intervention show no difference in feeling themselves able to make considered career decisions with their child and to be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process in comparison to the parents who were not involved.*

**H2.2₁** = *Parents who were involved in the career intervention show a difference in feeling themselves able to make considered career decisions with their child and to be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process in comparison to the parents who were not involved.*

For these hypotheses, the characteristics of the participant/respondent groups (2a, 3a) can be found in Subsection 3.3.2.

### 4.2.1 Results for H2.1

At pre-intervention, both of the experimental groups (E3 and E5) did not differ significantly from their control groups (C3 and C5) in their ratings of their current level of being sufficiently informed.

At intervention, comparing the 0- and 1-measurement, on the ‘current information level’ index, a significant increase showed both for the experimental (E3: \(r=.48^{***}\); E5: \(r=.36^{**}\)) and for the control groups (C3: \(r=.19^*\); C5: \(r=.20^*\)). On the ‘current information needs’ index, a significant decrease was found only for the experimental groups (E3: \(r=.28^{***}\); E5: \(r=.15^{***}\)).

Post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurements, on these indexes, both E3 (\(r=.28^{***}\)) and C3 (\(r=.49^{**}\)) showed a significant increase in their ‘current information level’, while only the fifth-year groups (E5: \(r=.38^{***}\); C5: \(r=.38^{***}\)) showed a significant decline in their ‘current information needs’.

By contrast, the experimental groups (E3 and E5) perform better than the control groups (C3 and C5) in terms of significant differences on the items of the ‘current information level’ and ‘current information needs’ indexes. Table 17 reports on the median, IQR, p-values and effect sizes of the items in the ‘current information level’ index at pre-intervention, intervention and post-intervention and Table 18 does the same for the items in the ‘current information needs’ index.
While after two measurements the data for the parents who were involved in the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ indicated that their information level had increased and their needs, as identified in the initial needs analyses, for each item had been met, this was not the case for the parents in the control groups (C3 and C5).

Table 17: The median, interquartile range (IQR), effect size (r) including p-values (2-tailed, .05) of the items in the 'current information level' index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 2.</th>
<th>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the (vocational) possibilities of the different cluster choices/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 3.</th>
<th>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the financial implications of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 4.</th>
<th>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the employment prospects of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 5.</th>
<th>Currently, I am sufficiently aware where I can find (more) information about the different clusters/HE courses which my child can choose from.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 6.</th>
<th>Currently, I understand my child’s perspective on the labour market sufficiently.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0 = 0-measurement, 1 = 1-measurement, 2 = 2-measurement.
N<sub>E3</sub> = 0-measurement: 145; 1-measurement: 64; 2-measurement: 50 respondents.
N<sub>E5</sub> = 0-measurement: 115; 1-measurement: 73; 2-measurement: 25 respondents.
N<sub>C3</sub> = 0-measurement: 70; 1-measurement: 37; 2-measurement: 32 respondents.
N<sub>C5</sub> = 0-measurement: 53; 1-measurement: 49; 2-measurement: 14 respondents.
Scale 1 - 5: 1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree.
*= p < .05; *= p < .01; **= p < .001
The data in Table 17 show that for each item, the information level of the parents in the third-year control group (C3) increased over the academic year but did so later when compared to the experimental groups. Moreover, as shown in Table 18, their information needs were not fully met, except for ‘personal support in career orientation’.

**Table 18: The median, interquartile range (IQR), effect size (r) including p-values (2-tailed, .05) of the items in the ‘current information needs’ index**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 8.</th>
<th>Currently, I need information on the financial implications of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Year</strong> 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 9.</th>
<th>Currently, I need information on the labour market perspectives of the chosen cluster/HE course of my child.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Year</strong> 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 10.</th>
<th>Currently, I need information on the courses possible in higher education for my child.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Year</strong> 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 11.</th>
<th>Currently, I need information on the vocational possibilities for my child.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Year</strong> 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 12.</th>
<th>Currently, I need information on personal support in the career orientation of my child.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Year</strong> 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>C3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0 = 0-measurement, 1 = 1-measurement, 2 = 2-measurement.

Nc3 = 0-measurement: 145; 1-measurement: 64; 2-measurement: 50 respondents.
Nc3 = 0-measurement: 115; 1-measurement: 73; 2-measurement: 25 respondents.
Nc3 = 0-measurement: 70; 1-measurement: 37; 2-measurement: 32 respondents.
Nc3 = 0-measurement: 53; 1-measurement: 49; 2-measurement: 14 respondents.
Scale 1 - 5: 1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree.

* = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001
The parents in the fifth-year control group (C5) experienced no improvement in their information level for four of the five topics. Bearing in mind that at the time of the post-intervention measurement the fifth-year students had graduated and left school (which explains the significant lower information needs of E5 and C5), the conclusion is that fifth-year parents in the control school (C5) only improved their information level on ‘the vocational possibilities of the different HE courses’.

An explanation for the observed delay in the increase of the information level and decrease of information needs on ‘financial implications’ (item 3 in Table 17 and item 8 in Table 18) is the prolonged political uncertainty about the amendment of the scholarship system in a social loan scheme during the academic year 2012-2013, and which finally became effective in 2015: ‘Wet Studievoorschot hoger onderwijs’ [Act study advance payment higher education] (2015).

The effect seen in both the ‘current information level’ and the ‘current information needs’ of the control groups (C3 and C5) may be caused by the two traditional information-centred sessions in the schools, one between the 0- and 1-measurement and one between the 1- and 2-measurement.

A second possible confounding variable for the fifth year only (E5 and C5), is the visit to open days of HE institutions; however, these cannot explain the large differences between the experimental and control groups.

**H2.1, (Parents who were involved in the career intervention show a difference in feeling up-to-date and well-informed about the options of their child in comparison to the parents who were not involved) is supported.**

The evidence suggests that parents in the experimental groups experienced an increase in information level and having their information needs being met on all the topics that had been raised in the needs analysis, while the parents in the control groups for most topics either did not experience improvement of their information level or their information needs were not met. This was especially the case for the fifth year.

**4.2.2 Results for H2.2**

Expectations on parental ability
Parents were asked to rate what they expected that their ability to support their child would be when the educational choice had to be made in that academic year. Figure 10 shows the results for the ‘current information expectations’ index among parents of the experimental groups as reported in each of the quantitative measurements. The results on the left side are for the third year (E3) and on the right side for the fifth year (E5) group.

Figure 10: ‘Current information expectations’ index results of parents in the experimental schools

0-m = 0 measurement, 1-m = 1 measurement, 2-m = 2-measurement.
N_E3= 0-measurement: 145; 1-measurement: 64; 2-measurement: 50 respondents.
N_E5= 0-measurement: 115; 1-measurement: 73; 2-measurement: 25 respondents.
Scale 1 - 5: 1=does not match expectation to 5: is in complete agreement with expectation.

A quarter of all the parents, both in the experimental and control groups, had high expectations (75th IQR = 4.00) from the start.

At intervention, comparing the 0- and 1-measurement, parents had significantly higher expectations of themselves in using information, pointing to more self-confidence regarding their ability to support the career process of their child as a result of ‘Parents Turn’. The median scores for both third-year as well as fifth-year parents in the experimental groups increased significantly, though these were rather small (E3: r=.14**; E5: r=.22***). The dispersion in the results of the experimental groups supports the view that this was true of many parents.

At post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurement, the medians for the experimental groups (E3 and E5) were constant at 3.75 and there were no significant differences. This could mean that parents felt able to make considered career decisions with their child when choices had to be made: their expectations came true.
For the control groups (C3 and C5) no significant differences were found at intervention and at post-intervention on this index.

The needs of parents for tools and tips to guide and support their child varied at pre-intervention. On the ‘current guidance and support needs’ index, the needs were lowest for the parents of the fifth control year (C5) and highest for the third experimental year (E3).

Figure 11: ‘Current guidance and support needs’ index result of parents in the experimental schools

At intervention, comparing the 0- and 1-measurement, only the third year (E3) of the experimental groups showed a significant but small decrease (r=.28***)) in the ‘current guidance and support needs’ index (Figure 11), whereas the control groups (C3 and C5) did not show any significant difference.

At post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurement, the ‘current guidance and support needs’ index results of all parents (E3, E5, C3 and C5) declined significantly. For the fifth-year parents (E5 and C5), an observation for the ‘current guidance and support needs’ index can be made: the medians were and remained lower over the measurements, compared to the medians for the third-year groups. This trend may indicate that fifth-year parents in general get involved in their child’s education and career process in earlier academic years.

The ‘current guidance and support expectations’ index measured the rating of what parents expected to be able to offer their child in career development in the spring with their (gained) guidance and support tools. Figure 12 shows the movements for ‘guidance and support expectations’ for the experimental groups. Remarkably, the Mdn of all groups (E3, E5, C3 and C5) were and remained 4.00 at pre-intervention.
and intervention, without any indication of significant difference for any of the groups. However, as the PCA indicated this index as a first component explained 20.8% of the variance for the third-year (E3 and C3) and 24.6% for the fifth-year (E5 and C5) parents, it is worthwhile observing it more closely.

Figure 12: ‘Current guidance and support expectation’ index results of the parents in the experimental schools

![Box plot showing the 'Current guidance and support expectation' index results for parents in the experimental schools.](image)

0-m = 0 measurement, 1-m = 1 measurement, 2-m = 2-measurement.
N_E3 = 0-measurement: 145; 1-measurement: 64; 2-measurement: 50 respondents.
N_E5 = 0-measurement: 115; 1-measurement: 73; 2-measurement: 25 respondents.
Scale 1 - 5: 1 = does not match expectation to 5 = is in complete agreement with expectation.

For all the measurements, a quarter of all the parents had the expectation (75th IQR = 4.00) that they would be able to support and guide their child. All parents in the E3 group increased their expectations to that level at intervention.

The median declined for all groups at post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurement, but a significant difference was only noted for the third-year experimental group (E3), albeit small (r=.21*). This showed that the expectations of parents in the third-year experimental group were not met for all in hindsight.

In summary of this first part:
The evidence suggests a ceiling effect in the two ‘expectations’ indexes. A ceiling effect can be observed in two ways:
1. It is impossible to trace a change if the score at pre-intervention is already maximal or almost maximal: median = (near) 4.00 and a quarter of all parents (E3, E5, C3 and C5) do have this expectation (75th IQR = 4.00) across all the measurements.
2. It seems that it is not the impact of the career intervention which is measured here but: “People’s judgement of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of actions, required to attain designated types of performances,” as Bandura (1986, p.391) defines self-efficacy: i.e. ‘I, as a parent, can do this’. The evidence suggests that we might have identified ‘parental self-efficacy’, which is one part of the parental capacity to be involved (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003, p. 5; Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

Nevertheless, the evidence points to the likelihood that the parents who were involved in the career intervention (both E3 and E5), and gained information, tools and support, increased their confidence as a parent to be able: ‘to work with their child on a considered choice’, ‘to estimate their child’s labour market perspectives’, ‘to oversee the financial consequences’ and ‘to be a fully-fledged conversation partner’.

All third-year parents in the experimental groups also raised their expectation to guide and support their child at the end of the career intervention; but six months later, their score may express not having seen that expectation fulfilled at the actual moment of decision-making. Raised self-confidence or raised expectations to guide and support their child were not found for parents in the control groups.

Furthermore, from the evidence it could be argued that the career intervention had an impact on the guidance and support needs of third-year parents in the experimental groups on specified outcomes in a positive manner: their needs for guidance and support declined significantly.

Parents’ perception of the parental role
This second part of testing the hypotheses H2.2 focuses on the parents’ perception of the parental role in the career development of their child, by investigating the data on the ‘parental role definition’ index and the four parental statements.

The ‘parental role definition’ index measures what parents perceive as their role in their child’s career development. For both the experimental and control groups, the median on the ‘parental role definition’ index was constant for all measurements (Mdn ≥ 4.00 at pre-intervention, intervention and post-intervention) without any significant difference for any of the groups at any of the measurements.
Within the index there was a significant but slight increase \((r=.17^*)\) for the third-year experimental (E3) parents for the item: ‘I talk regularly with my child about their educational and vocational choices’ at intervention. This may indicate that the career intervention effected an increased awareness of the upcoming choice and an increased communication with their child.

The four parental statements measured how parents consider controversial issues in their parental role in their child’s career development. For the ‘parental statements’, significant differences occurred with third-year parents for the item ‘I wonder sometimes if my child has enough general knowledge and experience to make an appropriate cluster selection/choice of course in HE’. For both groups (E3 and C3) the median declined significantly from 4.00 (IQR = 3.00 - 4.00) to 3.00 (IQR = 2.00 - 4.00): the effect was small for the third-year experimental group (E3: \(r=.15^*\), at intervention) and small to moderate for the third-year control group (C3: \(r=.26^*\), at post-intervention). The evidence points to the likelihood that third-year parents’ trust grew in their child’s own abilities to take up responsibilities in career development.

The item ‘I am aware what are the strengths and weaknesses of my child’ showed strong significant differences for all groups (E3, E5, C3 and C5) at post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurement, as shown in Table 19. During the academic year all parents became more aware of the capabilities of their child.

### Table 19: The median, interquartile range (IQR), effect size \((r)\) including p-values (2-tailed, .05) of the item ‘I am aware what are the strengths and weaknesses of my child’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 38</th>
<th>I am aware what are the strengths and weaknesses of my child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(0 = 0\)-measurement, \(1 = 1\)-measurement, \(2 = 2\)-measurement.
\(N_{E3} = 0\)-measurement: 145; \(1\)-measurement: 64; \(2\)-measurement: 50 respondents.
\(N_{E5} = 0\)-measurement: 115; \(1\)-measurement: 73; \(2\)-measurement: 25 respondents.
\(N_{C3} = 0\)-measurement: 70; \(1\)-measurement: 37; \(2\)-measurement: 32 respondents.
\(N_{C5} = 0\)-measurement: 53; \(1\)-measurement: 49; \(2\)-measurement: 14 respondents.
Scale 1 - 5: 1: does not fit with my-self-image to 5: does fit my self-image fully.
\(^* = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001\)

On the item ‘I am sufficiently able to support my child in his or her cluster/HE study choice’, only parents in the experimental groups showed a growth in self-confidence: at intervention, the fifth-year (E5) parents with median 4.00 (IQR = 3.50 – 5.00),
which is a significant but small difference ($r=.19^*$); at post-intervention, the third-year (E3) parents with median 4.00 (IQR = 3.00 – 4.00), which is a significant small to moderate difference ($r=.21^*$).

In summary of this second part
From within the index ‘parental role definition’ (third-year parents) and from the parental statements, it is evident that there were indeed changes in how parents perceive their role in the career development of their child. All third-year parents gained confidence in their child’s knowledge and ability to make career decisions. Only the parents in the experimental groups increased significantly their parental self-confidence in being able to support their child.

**H2.2** *(Parents who were involved in the career intervention show a difference in feeling themselves able to make considered career decisions with their child and to be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process in comparison to the parents who were not involved)* is supported.

A quarter of all parents already felt very confident and engaged in helping their child’s career development before the career intervention. This finding, which suggests that the career intervention and the review attracted a particular group of parents with a strong educational and career focus for their child, may be a consequence of biased sampling, or what is more the case, it is the consequence of volunteer bias, i.e. parents’ own agenda. However, quantitative data on a representative sample of parents by Cuconato and Walther (2013) and qualitative research (Katznelson and Pless, 2007, p.146; Ule, Živoder and Du Bois-Reymond, 2015) show the same strong focus.

It seems that parents involved in ‘Parents Turn’ increased their expectations of their own performance. From the evidence, it could be argued that the significant increase in self-confidence has a positive impact on their ‘parental self-efficacy’. These specified outcomes for the parents in the career intervention were the following: being able ‘to work with their child on a considered choice’; ‘to estimate my child’s labour market perspectives’; ‘to oversee the financial consequences’; ‘to be a fully-fledged discussion partner’; and ‘to be sufficiently able to support my child in his or her choice of cluster/HE course’.
The evidence suggests that a quarter of the parents in both the experimental and control groups perceived fully the career development of their child as part of their ‘parental role definition’. Furthermore, it suggests that the career intervention had an impact on third-year parents in talking more regularly with their child. All third-year parents became more confident that their child did have the knowledge and experience to make an appropriate career choice.

This evidence is consistent with the literature which suggests that the level of parental involvement is associated with parents’ perceptions of their role and their level of self-confidence in fulfilling that role (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). This ‘parental capacity for involvement’ – parental role definition and parental self-efficacy – explains whether parents were involved in school-based initiatives, next to the structural factors and features explored in relation to the first research objective (involvement).

4.2.3 Summary for second research objective
From the evidence, it could be argued that ‘Parents Turn’ is an effective intervention, which is useful to parents in supporting their child in career decisions. Parents who participated in the intervention felt up-to-date and well-informed, which was limited the case for the control group parents. Participating parents were also more likely to feel able to talk with their child about issues related to career decision-making than those in the control group. This suggests that ‘Parents Turn’ had a positive impact on ‘parental self-efficacy’. The evidence also points to impact of the ‘parental capacity’ to be involved by an enhanced perception of their role in supporting their child in career-decision-making.

4.2.4 Implication for qualitative research
The analysis of the qualitative data will help to show how parents experienced the ‘Parents Turn’ intervention. It will allow an exploration of how the content and the pedagogy of the intervention was experienced, what learning occurred apart from the objectives set and what the main messages were that parents got from participation. It will also allow for further exploration of the impact of the learning over the longer term.
4.2.5 Implications for my research questions

**First research question**: Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO? Overall, parents in HAVO have the greatest information and support needs at the year of the cluster selection. So, involvement should be considered as early as possible, i.e. in the third year in the Netherlands.

**Third research question**: What is the impact of the career intervention on the parents, and does this differ between the experimental and control groups? Findings from parents involved in the career intervention differ significantly in terms of impact from those in the control groups. Their information level increased, and their information and support needs declined. The parental capacity to be involved, consisting of ‘parental self-efficacy’ as well as ‘parental role definition’, was affected in a positive way.

4.3 III. To understand whether different support is needed for parents who have not attained higher education qualifications.

Samples were originally recruited to the study to include some diversity around whether the participating parents/mothers went to HE or not. The hypotheses under this third research objective aim to explore whether parents who have obtained an HE qualification, and thus have gained prior experience and knowledge of HE, experience the career intervention in a different way to those who have no such experience of HE. Are the impacts on those who have attained an HE qualification different to those without? It might be predicted that parents with greater personal exposure to HE will have less need of the career intervention. This may result in more limited increases in their ‘current information level’ than their counterparts who have not obtained HE qualifications. Also, it may be that ‘prior experience’ parents will show lower decreases in their current needs for information or for guidance and support after the career intervention than parents who did not obtain an HE qualification.

**H3.1**: The career intervention has the same impact for parents regardless of whether both, one or neither parent has attained higher education qualifications.
**H3.1**  The career intervention has a different impact for parents dependent on whether both, one or neither parent has attained higher education qualifications.

For the hypotheses H3.1, the characteristics of the participant/respondent group (2d) can be found in Subsection 3.3.2.

The responses were analysed of groups of parents (a) who both attained HE qualifications (‘both HE’), compared to parents (b) where one of each (‘one HE’), or (c) none of the parents (‘no HE’) attained HE qualifications.

A potential limitation of the approach taken is that single-parent families are not fully differentiated within this analysis. Clearly, single-parent families can only be represented within either the ‘one HE’ or ‘no HE’ groups. Table 13 provides an insight into the composition of the ‘one HE’ group, revealing that the majority in this group are not single parents (combining E3 and E5, only just over a quarter are single-parent families). For the third year, most single parents can be found in the ‘one HE’ group, whereas for the fifth year the proportion of single parents was the same for the ‘one HE’ and ‘no HE’ group (Table 14). This is further evidence of the differences between the third- and fifth-year experimental groups (Subsection 3.3.2) and provides further justification for the need to continue to analyse these two groups separately.

*4.3.1 Results for H3.1*

**Analysis of the H2.1 hypothesis:**

*Parents who attended the career intervention show a difference in feeling up-to-date and well-informed about the options of their child in comparison to parents who did not attend.*

Analysis of this hypothesis with all parents revealed that attendance at the career intervention helped parents to feel informed about their child’s options for clusters, HE and career. This finding has been cross-referenced with parents attained HE qualifications by looking at two indexes: ‘current information level’ and ‘current information needs’.

**Results for H2.1:**

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Table 20 provides insights into the significant differences found for each group and each year in the experimental group at intervention (comparing the 0- and 1-measurement) and post-intervention (comparing the 1- and 2-measurement).

In the tables in this Subsection, the first column indicates the row for the index concerned. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test, revealing any significant effects of the group to value, are italicised. Firstly, I will discuss the results for the third year, and then for the fifth year.

As shown in Table 20, all third-year (E3) parents experienced an increase in their career information level at intervention, which was large for ‘one HE’ and ‘no HE’ parents. This information increase continued at post-intervention for ‘both HE’ and the ‘no HE’ parents. However, while the career information needs declined for ‘both HE’ as well as ‘one HE’ parents, the information needs of ‘no HE’ third-year parents did not decline and differed significantly as a group from ‘both HE’ parents.

Table 20: Significant differences ‘current information level’ index and ‘current information needs’ index of the parents in the experimental group, according to HE attainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Both HE</th>
<th>One HE</th>
<th>No HE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current information level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention: Third-year parents experienced an increase of their information level (r=.40***).</td>
<td>Intervention: The information level showed an increase in both the third (r=.58***) and fifth (r=.52***) years.</td>
<td>Intervention: The information level showed an increase in both the third (r=.50***) and fifth (r=.37***) years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-intervention: Third-year parents experienced an increase of their information level (r=.19**).</td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-intervention: Third-year parents experienced an increase in their information level (r=.46**).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current information needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention: The information needs of third-year parents decreased (r=.30***).</td>
<td>Intervention: The information needs decreased in both the third (r=.35***) and fifth (r=.26***) years.</td>
<td>Intervention: In the third year, the information needs stay higher (r=.31**) compared to ‘both HE’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-intervention: The information needs in the fifth year decreased (r=.46**).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Both HE’ = both parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘One HE’ = one of the parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘No HE’ = none of the parents attained higher education qualifications. *= p < .05; **= p < .01; ***= p < .001

The ‘one HE’ and ‘no HE’ fifth-year parents experienced an increase in their information level at intervention. At that time, the information needs of the ‘one HE’
parents declined. The ‘no HE’ parents showed a decline in their information needs at post-intervention.

Thus, for the 2.1 hypothesis (*Parents who attended the career intervention show a difference in feeling up-to-date and well-informed about the options of their child in comparison to parents who did not attend*) the evidence suggests that, while fifth-year parents who had both attained HE qualifications seemed to have heard ‘nothing new’, all other parent-groups felt more informed as a result of being involved in the career intervention. This was particularly strong for all third-year parents’ groups. In the six months after the careers intervention, third-year parents who had either both attained HE qualifications or had not attended HE themselves showed a further increase in their information level.

After the career intervention, all except ‘no HE’ parents reported a decrease in their information needs. Fifth-year parents of these ‘first-generation’ HE parents indicated that they had no further information needs six months later. The evidence points to the likelihood that although ‘no HE’ third-year parents experienced a moderate to large extension of their information, they still felt that they did not know everything they needed to make an informed decision.

**Analysis of the H2.2 hypothesis:**

*Parents who attended the career intervention show a difference in feeling themselves able to make considered career decisions with their child and to be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process than parents who did not attend.*

Analysis of this hypothesis with all parents revealed that attendance at the career intervention helped parents to increase the expectations of their own performance in supporting their child’s career development both with the information gained as well as with tools to guide their child. As a result, all parents felt significantly more able to support their child.

These findings have been cross-referenced with parents’ HE qualifications by looking at four indexes – ‘current information expectations’, ‘current guidance and support needs’, ‘current guidance and support expectations’ and ‘parental role definition’ – and at four ‘parental statements’. Combining the first three indexes provides insights
into parental sense of self-efficacy, while the ‘parental role definition’ index and the ‘parental statements’ provide insights into how parents perceive their role in the career development of their child.

Results for H2.2:

Expectations on parental ability

Table 21 provides insights into the significant differences found for each group and each year in the experimental group at intervention (comparing the 0- and 1-measurement) and post-intervention (comparing the 1- and 2-measurement). In the table, the first column indicates the row for the index concerned. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test are italicised. Firstly, I will discuss the results for the third year, and then for the fifth year.

At intervention, ‘one HE’ third-year parents increased their ‘information expectation’, which expresses parents’ sense of self-efficacy in using the information acquired, and were significantly more self-confident in this respect compared to ‘no HE’ parents. However, at post-intervention, ‘one HE’ parents felt both less self-confident with information expectations (significantly less compared to what ‘both HE’ parents experienced), as well as less self-confident with guidance and support expectations, which means parents’ sense of self-efficacy in using the guidance and support tools acquired.

Except for the ‘no HE’ parents, the guidance and support needs decreased among third-year parents at intervention, comparing the 0- and 1-measurements.

In the fifth year, ‘one HE’ and ‘no HE’ parents felt that their self-confidence in using the information acquired increased at intervention. At that time, ‘one HE’ parents showed less guidance and support needs, which was significantly lower compared to ‘no HE’ parents. The latter group felt this lower need only at post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurement.
Table 21: Significant differences in ‘current information expectations’ index, ‘current guidance and support needs’ index and ‘current guidance and support expectations’ index of parents in the experimental group, according to HE attainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current information expectations</th>
<th>Intervention: Parents increased their current information expectations in the third ((r=.23^<em>)) and fifth ((r=.26^</em>)) years.</th>
<th>Post-intervention: Third-year parents decreased their current information expectation ((r=.33^{**})).</th>
<th>Intervention: Third-year parents had lower current information expectations compared to ‘one HE’ ((r=.33^{**})). Fifth-year parents ((r=.26^*)) increased their current information expectations.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current guidance and support needs</td>
<td>Intervention: Third-year parents decreased their current guidance and support needs ((r=.40^{***})).</td>
<td>Intervention: Parents decreased their current guidance and support needs in both the third ((r=.23^{<strong>})) and fifth ((r=.26^{</strong>})) years.</td>
<td>In the fifth year, the current guidance and support needs are significant lower ((r=.36^{**})) compared to ‘no HE’ parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current guidance and support expectations</td>
<td>Post-intervention: Third-year parents showed a decrease ((r=.34^*)) in their current guidance and support expectations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Both HE’ = both parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘One HE’ = one of the parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘No HE’ = none of the parents attained higher education qualifications. *= p < .05; **= p < .01; ***= p < .001

Parent’s perception of the parental role

No significant differences were noted for any of the groups across the three measurements on the ‘parental role definition’ index. However, significant differences were found at pre-intervention on ‘parental statements’ among ‘no HE’ parents compared with ‘both HE’ parents. Third-year ‘no HE’ parents showed a lower mean rank \((r=.20^*)\) on the Kruskal-Wallis \(H\) test compared with ‘both HE’ for the statement
‘I am aware what are the strengths and weaknesses of my child’. Fifth-year ‘no HE’ parents showed a lower mean rank ($r=.23^*$) on the Kruskal-Wallis $H$ test compared with ‘both HE’ for the statement ‘I wonder sometimes if my child has enough general knowledge and experience to make an appropriate cluster/study selection’. These results point to significant subcultural differences in parental role perspective of ‘no HE’ parents (third year) and having less confidence in their child (fifth year), compared to ‘both HE’ parents before the career intervention.

At intervention, comparing the 0- and 1-measurement, ‘one HE’ fifth-year parents, showed a decline ($r=.26^*$) for the statement ‘I would steer my child to other thoughts if I dislike a cluster, study or profession’, rethinking their view on influencing their child. ‘No HE’ fifth-year parents showed an increase ($r=.24^*$) for the statement ‘I am sufficiently able to support my child in his or her cluster/study choice’, confirming their growing sense of self-efficacy seen in being able to support their child.

The parental statement showing most differences was ‘I am aware what are the strengths and weaknesses of my child’ among two groups. At post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurement, ‘both HE’ parents of third ($r=26^{**}$) as well as fifth ($r=42^*$) years showed an increase for this statement as did ‘no HE’ fifth-year parents ($r=.31^{**}$). In conclusion, parents who were both higher-educated learned to be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of their child, while this item seems to be significantly differently perceived as part of their parental role by parents in the third year who were not both higher-educated themselves.

Thus, for the 2.2 hypothesis (*Parents who attended the career intervention show a difference in feeling themselves able to make considered career decisions with their child and to be a fully-fledged conversation partner in the career decision-making process in comparison to parents who did not attend*), the evidence points to the likelihood that the career intervention impacts mostly positively on parents’ sense of self-efficacy in using information and guidance and supporting their child in career development of ‘one HE’ parents and least on ‘both HE’ parents.

The evidence suggests a limited impact of the career intervention on the parental role definition of parents who both attained HE qualifications. Impact is noted for the ‘one HE’ fifth-year parents who rethought their parental role in the fifth year.
The evidence differs for ‘no HE’ parents. ‘No HE’ third-year parents showed a significantly lower sense of parental self-efficacy in making use of the information gained compared to ‘one HE’ parents at the end of the career intervention. They had a significantly distinct perspective on their parental role regarding the awareness of weaknesses and strengths of their child compared to ‘both HE’ parents at the start, and the career intervention seems to have had no impact in this respect.

Then again, ‘no HE’ fifth-year parents compared to ‘one HE’ parents showed significantly less confidence in their child’s decision-making knowledge and skills at pre-intervention, which has been found to impact strong these abilities of students (Keller and Whiston, 2008). They showed an increase in their sense of parental self-efficacy in making use of information at the end of the career intervention; and six months later, a decrease in their guidance and support needs and a feeling of being more able to support their child.

In conclusion: expectations and needs in parental self-efficacy in using information and guide and support their child’s career development for ‘no HE’ third-year parents seem not to have been met through the career intervention in contrast with ‘no HE’ fifth-year parents.

4.3.2 Summary for third research objective

**H3.1** *(The career intervention has a different impact for parents dependent on whether both, one or neither parent has attained higher education qualifications)* is supported.

The evidence suggests that all groups of the experimental schools showed significant differences at the end of the career intervention, but the impact of the career intervention differed significantly between groups: whether both, one or neither parent has attained higher education qualifications. The evidence also points to the likelihood that cultural differences existed between groups of parents of their parental role definition, which is consistent with the statement by Desforges and Abouchaar (2003, p. 46) that: “Role definitions are complexly shaped by family and cultural experiences (…) Subcultural differences (in terms of socio-economic class) are also evident.”
The impact of the career intervention showed up least with both HE-qualified parents. In the third year only, they increased their information level and decreased their information, guidance and support needs. In both years, their self-efficacy in knowing enough and in providing guidance and support to their child’s career development did not change: it was there all the time. The career intervention made the difference, in that the third-year parents had ‘a boost’ in their information level, and all both HE-qualified parents raised their ‘awareness of the strengths and weaknesses’ of their child.

Parents where one was HE qualified experienced an increase of their information level, decreased their information, guidance and support needs and increased their self-efficacy in making use of information, guidance and support tools to help in their child’s career development. Fifth-year parents also were less likely to want to ‘steer’ their children’s career. However, third-year parents of whom one of each is HE-qualified showed a fluctuating parental self-efficacy. After the career intervention, they felt more able to make use of information, guidance and support tools, but six months later, compared to their rating immediately after the career intervention, they felt significantly less confident in their knowledge and ability to support their child’s career development. It looks as though these parents felt unsure, maybe as a result of having experienced falling short or having decided under doubt at the actual cluster choice making, which took place a few months after the career intervention.

The parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students in both years increased their information level, yet the patterns for each year are contrasting. Fifth-year parents decreased their information, guidance and support needs and increased their knowledge and ability to support their child. They gained confidence in themselves to help and support their child and gained confidence in their child’s ability in decision-making, the latter not being there before the career intervention. The importance of this finding is that the nature of parental involvement that is most beneficial to their child is expressing confidence, providing guidance and supporting autonomy (Carter, 2002), which leads to the development of self-directed career exploration by students (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006).

The needs of third-year parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students in both information as well as guidance and support persisted, and the evidence points to the likelihood
that these parents still felt that they did not ‘have’ all the information or the skills or tools that they perceived they needed to help their child or them to make an informed decision with their child.

4.3.3 Implication for qualitative research
To better understand the variation in impact, the suggested issues for the two previous research objectives for analysing the qualitative data (implications of involvement and impact) could be applied to the three groups of parents. In particular, the qualitative analysis could look at the differences in needs between the different groups of parents.

4.3.4 Implications for my research questions
First research question: Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO?
Parents without HE qualifications can benefit from being involved in CEG early on.

Fourth research question: Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have attained higher education qualifications, in order to effectively support their children’s career building? The impact of the career intervention differed significantly among parents where both, one or none had attained HE qualifications. Parents where one or none attained HE qualifications themselves seem to need more or different support, but the quantitative findings do not reveal what or how. There were fluctuations in the self-confidence of ‘one HE’ parents as well as persistent information, guidance and support needs of ‘no HE’ parents in the third year. Parents where none compared to where both had attained HE qualifications have a significantly different understanding of being aware of their child’s strengths and weaknesses (third year) and have less confidence in their child’s abilities (fifth year) (cf. Subsection 2.2.1: Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1997; Hornby and Lafaele, 2011; Lareau, 2011). However, after the intervention, fifth-year parents of ‘first-generation HE’ parents confirmed their growth in self-efficacy in being able to support their child.

4.4 IV. To assess the impact of this career intervention on the school
There are good reasons to believe that the parents involved in the career intervention benefitted. But are there also public benefits, besides these private ones: i.e. benefits for the school as an organisation and from which all students profit? It seems
plausible to assume that the latter is the case, as all parents have the opportunity to be more aware of and involved in the CEG a school offers, and to have intensified parent-school relationships.

\[ H4.1_0 = \text{The schools that executed the career intervention do not show more observable public benefits in comparison to the control schools.} \]

\[ H4.1_1 = \text{The schools that executed the career intervention show more observable public benefits in comparison to the control schools.} \]

For hypotheses H4.1, the characteristics of the participant/respondent groups (1, 2a, 2d, 3a) can be found in Subsection 3.3.2.

Three topics were explored to acquire insights into public benefits:
(i) experiences of cooperating with the school in making considered career decisions;
(ii) experiences of the ‘current guidance and support level of the school’, and the ‘satisfaction with each session’; and
(iii) the level of appreciation of the career provision in the experimental schools before and after ‘Parents Turn’.

4.4.1 Results for H4.1

Experiences of co-operation
A third objective of ‘Parents Turn’ was: C. To be able as a parent to make considered career decisions with the child in co-operation with the school.

Pre-intervention, all parents in the experimental and control schools expected the co-operation of the schools with the choices that had to be made (Mdn = 4.00 for all the experimental and control schools, IQR = 4.00 – 5.00 for E3 and C3, IQR = 4.00 – 4.00 for E5 and C5). The significant decline in the IQR, for all groups except the fifth-year experimental group (E5) at post-intervention, comparing the 1- and 2-measurement, can be explained by the fact that they have already made the choice of cluster or HE course.

As shown in Table 22, the significant decline found for the whole group did not occur for the third-year experimental ‘no HE’ parents across measurements. Fifth-year experimental ‘No HE’ parents increased their expectations to co-operate significantly at intervention, and decreased significantly at post-intervention, both with a medium effect.
Table 22: Significant differences in co-operation expectations for involvement of parents in the experimental group, according to HE attainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Both HE</th>
<th>One HE</th>
<th>No HE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-intervention: Third-year parents showed a decrease (r=.39***) in their expectation to co-operate with the school in the choice to be made.</td>
<td>Post-intervention: Third-year parents showed a decrease (r=.34**) in their expectation to co-operate with the school in the choice to be made.</td>
<td>Intervention: Fifth-year parents showed an increase (r=24**) in their expectation to co-operate with the school in the choice to be made.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Both HE” = both parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘One HE’ = one of the parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘No HE’ = none of the parents attained higher education qualifications. * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001

In summary of this first part:
Apart from their educational level, all parents – experimental and control – expect to co-operate with the school in the educational and career decision-making of their child. The career intervention effected to increase such expectation with fifth-year parents of ‘first generation’ students, which declined after the career intervention took place as it did with third-year parents who both or one are HE-qualified.

Experiences of provided guidance and support by the school
The ‘current guidance and support level of the school’ index refers to the nature of the guidance and support the school provided to the parents and their child.

When comparing the experimental and control schools at pre-intervention, parents in both control schools – in contrast to the experimental schools – shared the perception that the school provided them with sufficient information about the future career possibilities of their child; and parents in the third-year control group (C3) felt that the school provided their child with in-depth guidance to make considered choices.

At intervention, comparing the 0- and 1-measurement, all groups showed a significant difference on the index. Figure 13 shows the results for the experimental groups and Figure 14 for the control groups. On the left side are the results for the third year, and on the right side the results for the fifth year, in each measurement.
Figure 13: ‘Current guidance and support level of the school’ index results as experienced by the parents in the experimental schools

At intervention, comparing the 0- and 1-measurement, for the ‘current guidance and support level of the school’ index the increased median of the third-year experimental group (E3) was a (very) large effect ($r=.67^{***}$), while for the fifth-year experimental group (E5) the effect was moderate ($r=.36^{**}$).

Figure 14: ‘Current guidance and support level of the school’ index results as experienced by the parents in the control schools

0-m = 0 measurement, 1-m = 1 measurement, 2-m = 2-measurement.

$N_{E3}= 0$-measurement: 145; 1-measurement: 64; 2-measurement: 50 respondents.

$N_{E5}= 0$-measurement: 115; 1-measurement: 73; 2-measurement: 25 respondents.

Scale 1 - 5: 1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree.
The median of the third-year control group (C3) increased, which was a moderate to strong difference ($r=.45^{***}$), as did the median of the fifth-year control group (C5), which was a small difference ($r=.20^{**}$). At post-intervention, there were no significant differences for this index for any group.

Table 23: Significant differences in ‘current guidance and support level of the school’ index results of parents in the experimental group, according to HE attainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Both HE</th>
<th>One HE</th>
<th>No HE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intervention:</strong> Parents experienced an increase of guidance and support by the school in both the third ($r=.60^{**<em>}$) and fifth ($r=.13^{</em>}$) years.</td>
<td><strong>Intervention:</strong> Parents experienced an increase of guidance and support by the school in both the third ($r=.70^{**<em>}$) and fifth ($r=.26^{</em>}$) years.</td>
<td><strong>Intervention:</strong> Parents experienced an increase of guidance and support by the school in both the third ($r=.50^{*<strong>}$) and fifth ($r=.49^{</strong>}$) years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Post-intervention</strong> Third-year parents showed a decline ($r=.17^{**}$) of experienced guidance and support by the school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Both HE’ = both parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘One HE’ = one of the parents attained higher education qualifications; ‘No HE’ = none of the parents attained higher education qualifications. * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001

The experience of ‘current guidance and support level of the school’ for parents did not differ between groups: the significant increase at intervention was apparently experienced by all parents (E3 and E5), with no effect of group on value as shown in Table 23. Only the third-year ‘one HE’ parent-group showed a significant decrease with a small effect size at post-intervention.

**Satisfaction with each session**

The review of satisfaction with the career intervention in the Second Review also involved parents who attended one, two or three sessions, which explains the differences in the number of respondents seen in Table 24.

Table 24: Rating of four sessions at experimental schools by the parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Session 1</th>
<th>Session 2</th>
<th>Session 3</th>
<th>Session 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
<td>IQR</td>
<td>Mdn</td>
<td>IQR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 Second Review</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.00 - 4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.00 - 4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 Second Review</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00 - 4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.00 - 4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$n_{E3\text{second review}}= 79, 79, 80$ resp. 75; $n_{E5\text{second review}}= 37, 38, 36$ resp. 42. Scale: 1-5: 1: very bad to 5: excellent.
Table 24 shows that parents at the experimental schools rated each of the four sessions on a scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (excellent) with a median of 4.00, while the third session for E5 was rated as 'excellent' by the parents (Mdn = 5.00).

The control schools had two information-focussed sessions during 2012-2013, the rating for which is shown in Table 25.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Session 1</th>
<th>Session 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mdn</td>
<td>IQR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00 - 4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00 - 4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N_{C3}= 54 resp. 60; N_{C5}=11 resp. 5.
Scale: 1-5: 1: very bad to 5: excellent.

The evidence of both the 'current guidance and support level of the school' as well as 'satisfaction with each session' raises the question of what the comparable rates of parents in the experimental and control schools means. Are these a consequence of the differences found between experimental and control schools at pre-intervention? We might see the loyalty of parents with their child's school. Or, perhaps we can observe here a Hawthorne effect (Mayo, 1933) in the rating of all respondents: they were aware that they were taking part in an experiment and of the attention they were getting, despite the 'blinding' of the respondents in the control group.

In summary of this second part:
All parents, whether in the experimental or control groups, the third or fifth year, and having attained HE qualifications or not, experienced an increased level of guidance and support by the school during the career intervention period.

The satisfaction of parents with the sessions offered in both experimental and control schools was high. The evidence raises the question of whether the parents’ results in the experimental and control groups were comparable: there were initial found differences in satisfaction with the careers provision, but this may also be affected by loyalty with their child’s school; or an effect of being aware that they are taking part in an experiment and getting attention.

**Appreciation of the career provision in the experimental schools**
In Table 26, the ratings of three dimensions of the career provision at the experimental schools are provided. Table 26 shows the rating before the career
intervention, in 2011-2012 (First Review), and after the career intervention in 2012-2013 at post-intervention. For the latter, the rating of both the parents involved in three or four sessions (E3 and E5), as well as those involved in less than three sessions is available (Second Review).

Table 26: Ratings of career provision in experimental schools before and after the career intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Overall information for the choice to be made</th>
<th>Exploration of the choice to be made</th>
<th>Guidance with choice to be made</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 First Review</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 Second Review</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 First Review</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 Second Review</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-2013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 First Review</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 First Review</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 Second Review</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n_E3firstreview=111; n_E3secondreview=119; n_E5firstreview=80; n_E5secondreview=49.
Scale 1 - 10: 1: very bad to 10: excellent.

On a 10-point Likert scale, the rating for ‘overall information for the choice to be made’ and ‘exploration of the choice to be made’ offered by the experimental schools increased since it was rated by the parents for the academic year 2011-2012. This rating was the highest for the parents who were involved in three or all sessions of the career intervention. However, parents who attended less than three sessions of the career intervention in the experimental schools also showed an increased rating on the three dimensions.

For E3 the difference is statistically significant with a small effect on two dimensions: ‘overall information for the choice to be made’ (r=.24***); and ‘guidance with choice to be made’ (r=.18*), and moderate on ‘exploration of the choice to be made’ (r=.30***).
For E5 the difference is only statistically significant with a small effect on the dimension ‘exploration of the choice to be made’ (r=0.19*).

Contact with tutor/career teacher

As shown in Table 27, the level of contact with tutors/career teachers on the choice to be made was very low in the experimental schools in 2011-2012, before the career intervention (First Review). More than one-third of parents indicated that they had contact with the tutor and/or career teacher of their children in the third (36.0%) and fifth (40.0%) years respectively.

The data at post-intervention of the parents who were involved in three or four sessions of the career intervention showed that 46.0% of the E3 group and 52.0% of the E5 group indicated that they had contact with the tutors and/or career teachers of their children. This shows that proportionally more parents who took part in the intervention had contact with the tutor and/or career teacher of their children than was the case before the intervention.

Table 27: Contact with tutor/career teacher on the choice to be made in the experimental schools before and after the career intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year</th>
<th>Group measurements</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td>E3 First Review</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-2013</td>
<td>E3 Second Review</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td>E5 First Review</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-2013</td>
<td>E5 Second Review</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data for parents who were involved in less than three sessions of the career intervention (Second Review) show that their contact was not only lower than for those parents involved in three or four sessions (E3 and E5), but also lower than for the parents at the experimental schools before the career intervention (First Review). About two-thirds of the parents (65.5% and 65.2% respectively) did not have any contact with the tutor or career teacher about the choice to be made: this was found both before and after the career intervention took place.

However, statistically there was no significant difference between any of the groups: $X^2(5)=4.60, p=0.047$ (two-sided) and Cramér V=.10.

In summary of this third part:
The evidence points to the likelihood that a career intervention which involves parents leads to a higher appreciation of the career provision among all parents (public benefit), but especially among third-year parents and especially for ‘exploration of the choice to be made’.

The evidence suggests that for the parents who were involved in three or more sessions of the career intervention, about half had personal contact with the tutor or career teacher on the choice to be made, which is an improvement of around ten per cent. For public benefits, however, parents who were either not involved or less involved in the career intervention had less contact with the tutor or career teacher, also compared to the previous academic year of the experimental schools.

**H4.1** *(The schools that executed the career intervention show more observable public benefits in comparison to the control schools)* is supported.

All parents, despite their educational level, expect to co-operate with the school in the educational and career decision-making of their child, which is not in line with the suggestion in general parental involvement research that lower SES parents want to separate home and school (cf. Denessen *et al.*, 2001; Hornby and Lafaele, 2011).

The evidence points to the likelihood that any parent-involved career intervention shows a public impact on the school as an organisation, from which all students benefit. The appreciation of the CEG and support offered by schools to parents and students increased. For parents involved in the career intervention this means CEG in general and specifically of the ‘exploration for the choice to be made’.

Proportionally, more parents who were involved in the career intervention had contact with the tutor and career teachers, compared to what parents had reported in the previous year. These public benefits are all significant, but the effect size is small, which is consistent with Nechyba, McEwan and Older-Aguilar (1999), who also found significant but small public benefits with parental involvement. The public benefit of the career intervention was the highest for the third-year experimental schools.

**4.4.2 Summary for fourth research objective**

From a public perspective, all parents expect co-operation with the school. They experienced and highly appreciated the guidance and support offered by the school during the period of educational and career decision-making by their child.
From a public perspective, the evidence suggests that the parent-involved career intervention increased appreciation for three dimensions of the career provision at school significantly but with a small effect. Third-year parents were most likely to feel that they benefitted. While parents involved in most sessions of the career intervention felt they benefitted from more personal contacts with school staff, those parents who were not or less involved had fewer personal contacts with school staff on their child’s choice to be made.

4.4.3 Implication for qualitative research

To better understand the impact of the career intervention on the school, the qualitative data analysis will investigate if parents experienced co-operation from the school in the choices to be made by their child, but also how parents do understand co-operation in this respect. It will also examine if the parents as well as the career teachers, as stakeholders in the career intervention, observed an impact of the career intervention on and within the school organisation.

4.4.4 Implications for my research questions

First research question: Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO? and fifth research question: What is the role of the school in enabling a parent-involved career intervention? All parents, whether being both, one or none HE qualified, expected the school to co-operate with them in CEG.

Fourth research question: Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have attained higher education qualifications, in order to effectively support their children’s career building? There was no difference in the experience of the current guidance and support level of the school related to HE-qualification attainment.

Final conclusions and implications for qualitative research

Involvement of parents in the career intervention seems to be influenced by factors identified in the literature. SES, closely linked to the attainment of HE qualifications, appeared not only to influence whether to be involved, but also when, which points to the likelihood that lower-educated parents are less likely to be aware of the consequences of early educational choices for their child’s career. The qualitative research could build on this to help answers the research questions on issues as
their involvement’s motive, their child’s mediation and reasons for dropping out of the career intervention.

In contrast to the control groups, parents in the experimental groups: increased their information level, having their information needs met; increased their parental self-efficacy in various specific aspects of locating and processing information, using guidance and support tools; and felt more able to support their child in career decision-making. The qualitative data analyses might reveal why and how involved parents learnt from ‘Parents Turn’. These quantitative results, however, differed among parents with and without HE-qualification attainment. A pattern of persistent information, guidance and support needs, and fluctuations in the self-confidence for the parents without HE qualification attainment could be observed, for which the qualitative data analyses might be revealing in understanding what their needs might be.

Not only the parents involved but also the school benefitted from the career intervention. These public benefits are significant but small, in accordance with earlier findings. The qualitative data analyses may reveal the impact of the career intervention on and within the school.
5. QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

This chapter demonstrates that, based on the qualitative data, it could be argued that the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ was effective for all groups of parents involved. The quantitative data analysis provides insights about what parents learned; the qualitative data shows why and how they learnt from the career intervention. It finds that the school plays an important role in making parents aware of the need to prepare young people for career decision-making. The career intervention not only affected parents’ knowledge and skills, but also impacted upon their parental self-efficacy and parental role definition and facilitated them in guiding and supporting their child. The innovative approach of ‘Parents Turn’ enabled learning, enhanced by family learning and community interaction.

The research also found that the intervention had different effects on different groups of parents according to whether they have had experiences of HE themselves. The evidence suggests that in families where only one or none of the parents had HE qualifications the career intervention was particularly important in assuring them of being informed about the options available. The impact of ‘Parents Turn’s’ pedagogy on family learning and community interaction differed: compared to other parents, the parents without HE qualifications reported no impact on their parental self-efficacy, and no impact on the parent-child interaction at home after the career intervention.

Besides the private benefits for those involved in the intervention, the research also found impacts upon the school, from which all parents and students benefitted: these were public benefits.

In the analysis of the qualitative data of the interviews with parents, six top-level themes were identified:

1. ‘Parental capacity for involvement’, with the elements that affected parents’ involvement in the career intervention.
2. ‘Parents Turn as parent-child-school interface’, in which parents reported on their affective, process- and content-based experiences with the career intervention.
3. ‘Impact on parents’ due to the intervention.
4. ‘Impact on students’ as reported by parents.
5. ‘Impact at home on career communication’ between the parent and the child following the career intervention.
6. ‘School as active and reactive agent’ in the initiatives, provisions and communications between school and parents, both in general and in CEG as reported by the parents.

Each of these top-level themes has several sub-themes, which are set out in the full code book in Appendix 11. This appendix also provides the numbers of sources and of references for each sub-theme. The present chapter follows the structure of the top- and sub-themes of the code book in the subsections. The findings of each of these top- and sub-themes will be reported, as well as summarised and analysed in relation to the five research questions, identified in Subsection 1.5.2. In reporting, I will use my identification character for each participant. More details about gender, age, gender of child, age of child, HE-level of parents and birth order of child can be found in Appendix 7.

The most significant themes from both the quantitative and qualitative findings will be discussed and reflected upon in Chapter 6.

5.1. Top-level theme 1: Parental capacity for involvement

This theme describes what parents reported on the elements influencing their involvement in ‘Parents Turn’. It consists of six sub-themes: initiative; participation; motive: parental knowledge and skills; motive: parental self-efficacy; child’s mediation; and drop-out.

5.1.1 Initiative and participation

Initiative describes the person who, when the school invitation was received at home, initiated the involvement in ‘Parents Turn’, while the sub-theme participation indicates the persons who were involved in the intervention. It appeared that mostly it was mothers who took the initiative at home to take part in ‘Parents Turn’ (9 out of 16), followed by “both parents” (4 out of 16) and “father” (2 out of 16). In one case, the child took the initiative (X). These data mirror the quantitative data in respect of participation in the ‘Parents Turn’ sessions: mostly mothers and their child (11 out of 16), fathers and their child (3 out of 16) and least both parents and their child (2 out of 16).
5.1.2 Motives

Why did parents take part? The sub-theme motive: parental knowledge and skills refers to parents’ judgement of their capability to effectively locate and process current information about options in the education system. The sub-theme motive: parental self-efficacy refers to parents’ judgement of their own capability to make use of information and to guide and support their child’s career development. The motives for all parents to be involved stemmed from their lack of current, up-to-date information on educational options, especially with their eldest child. But this ‘information’ motive is not ‘straightforward’ and is connected to other concerns in supporting their child’s career development which can be located in parental self-efficacy. In cases where both parents were HE-educated, they referred to the significant changes in education and in weighting of thinking patterns about education since they as youngsters were dealing with the issue (R, T, Y, BB). For instance:

These are important moments. I had such an idea as that choices are decided upon now. Here you will get the information which is important for the next 20 years in your life (...) The fact that going to HE after HAVO is quite normal: when I was in HAVO, 80% of my fellow-students went for a job after the exams. I never went to an open day or had an information meeting. Then the standard was: look for a job. Now the standard is: you are studying after HAVO. (T)

I understood it is all quite a lot more important and different than in my own times. (BB)

This differs markedly from the motive of parents of whom one or none were HE-educated, which stemmed chiefly from their need to be assured. These parents wanted to know what the child was going to talk about when making choices as they lacked personal experiences with this type of secondary education and HE (U, W); their child was not saying very much about it (Q) or they had the impression that their child had no clue or was too little involved in the issue (S, DD, EE):

It seemed to me very useful., because she did not tell very much about it [clusters]. And I was curious. I did not know what it looked like and how it [the
procedures, HE] went about. It was all new for me and for my daughter as well. (Q)

5.1.3 Child’s mediation

The sub-theme child’s mediation describes the child’s reaction to the school-parent-student initiative at home and their suggested participation. The child’s willingness to be involved with his/her parents in the career intervention differed, but there were no differences here related to parental HE-level. Some students thought it a promising idea and agreed immediately. Some were neutral and went along with the idea. However, various parents (F, M, V, W, EE) reported that their child was reluctant, arguing e.g. that is was “not necessary” or “we did that in school already.” Only after several discussions did the child agree to take part with his/her parents. One student with no HE-educated parents continued to be reluctant – “these sessions are boring” – and she and her parent dropped out of the intervention after the second session (W). This is the single finding in the qualitative data for the sub-theme drop-out, describing the reasons for not attending all sessions.

Summary

Mothers were more likely than fathers to take the initiative and participate in ‘Parents Turn’. The evidence suggests that the motive to take part in a parent-involved career intervention differed in relation to the HE-level attainment of the parents. Parents who were both HE educated were aware that their level of information about options in the education system needed to be updated if they were to guide and support their child well. Parents of whom one or none were HE-educated themselves, also lacked this current information, but their main motive was that the career intervention should reassure them as a parent, since their child was not an information resource for them in this respect and they observed that their child might also be unsure about the choice to be made. Willingness/unwillingness of the student to participate in the school-parent contact was found almost equally amongst different types of family and did not seem to be related to parental HE educational level.

5.1.4 Implications for my research questions

Second research question: What hinders and aids parents’ involvement in such career interventions? The qualitative data analysis supports the outcomes of the quantitative analysis and is in line with the research evidence on mothers having the
more significant role for adolescents as advisers for future plans and as co-deciding on career decisions, shown in this research by taking the initiative and participating in ‘Parents Turn’. The qualitative analysis also supports the research literature in indicating that the child’s willingness to participate in a school-parent-student initiative is influential on the success of the initiative. There is evidence that this affects the initial involvement, and there is some evidence that it also affects continued involvement or dropping-out.

**Fourth research question:** Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have attained higher education qualifications, in order to effectively support their children’s career building? The qualitative data analysis suggests different motives of parents to be involved in the career intervention, which could be related to their HE-level attainment. Parents of whom one or none have attained HE qualifications themselves not only need current information on options in the education system: they also need assurance – and in this way differ markedly from parents who have attained HE qualifications themselves – as their child is less likely to share information with them or be sure about the information and the decision-making him/herself.

5.2. **Top-level theme 2: ‘Parents Turn’ as parent-child-school-interface.**

The theme ‘Parents Turn as parent-child-school interface’ describes the experiences of parents, emotionally, process- and content-wise with this career intervention. It consists of six sub-themes: co-operation; emotion with, appreciation of ‘Parents Turn’; learning-activity approach in ‘Parents Turn’; family learning in ‘Parents Turn’; community interaction in ‘Parents Turn’; and content of ‘Parents Turn’.

5.2.1 Co-operation

‘Parents Turn’ was introduced to involve parents together with their child in CEG in HAVO. Involvement is understood as supporting parents in their role in the career development of their child. The sub-theme *co-operation* describes parents’ experiences in the sense of collaboration parent-child-school.

Most parents experienced collaboration between all parties through participating in ‘Parents Turn’. Parents felt involved (D, F, W, X, Y, DD), and felt that school staff were collaborating in the sense of “thinking along” with them as parents (K, Q) and “participating in good conversations” (H, FF). Some parents experienced the
collaboration up to a certain point: for example, as the school giving the opportunity for parents to choose to be involved (A, I). On the one hand, parents expressed this ‘collaboration up to a certain point’ negatively, referring to: the abrupt cessation of communication after the ‘Parents Turn’ sessions (AA, P); the absence of a one-to-one conversation between parents, child and tutor/career teacher (J); or the school providing no clear feedback, advice or opinion (S, EE). On the other hand, parents reported positively that they were supported with frameworks and guidance for the process they as a parent went through with their child (M, R), from which both parent and child benefitted (C). Parents also felt informed about how to come to a choice and how to support their child. In addition, as parents became more familiar with the CEG provision, they could tune this in better with what they did at home, such as having conversations and encouragements (B, F, L, T). No notable differences were observed between the different parental HE-level groups for the theme of co-operation. The control group did not experience co-operation with the school, but felt informed by the school (G, N); proportionally more parents of the control groups reported one-to-one conversations between the student or parent and the tutor/career teacher in the final stages of career decision-making.

5.2.2 Learning activity approach
The sub-theme approach to ‘Parents Turn’ pedagogy describes parents’ experiences with the career intervention’s pedagogy as a leaning activity. How unusual the approach adopted for this topic was, for both school and parents, was expressed by one parent “During the first session it took some time to get used to this way of working, I also think for the school” (E). Parents summarised their feelings, emotion about the ‘Parents Turn’ pedagogy as “nice”, “pleasant”, “positive”, “constructive”, “valuable” and “entertaining”. They experienced the pedagogy as “an interactive approach” (I, Q, Y) and thought it a well-organised, thought-out programme (E, R, V, Y), bringing new perspectives (C). They were “happy with it”, appreciating the initiative (C), which interrupted the as ‘isolated’ experienced parent-child conversation at home (K, M, Q), brought them more than they had expected beforehand (L), or made them aware of the importance and urgency of the-next steps (W) with a broader frame of reference (X). However, one year after ‘Parents Turn’, one parent from the third-year (BB) and one parent from the fifth-year experimental schools (DD)
wondered how far the sessions had given them and their child benefits compared to the ‘normal CEG’ and how far it had helped ultimately in the process.

No notable differences were observed between the different parental groups in terms of HE-level attainment regarding their feelings about or appreciation of the pedagogy of ‘Parents Turn’. The parents in the control school did not report any such reactions in relation to the meetings offered by their school.

Some parents in the experimental schools observed the group process among the students present, mainly at the first session, which the parents connected to ‘puberty’: acting tough, and laughing with each other (C, F); being embarrassed to ‘sit there with their mom’ (D) or because the parent was active in discussions (M); and feeling uncomfortable because no friends or classmates were present (V). Parents observing this realised that their child was not as involved in the process of decision-making as expected (F), did not see their parents yet as equal partners (K) or had to be supported in maintaining their position in the peer group as well as in developing independent thinking (C).

A few parents criticised the group size (M, EE) because the presence of many students hindered the individual co-operation of school staff with parents and the dialogue between them (T). Working with a large group was considered less suitable for students and parents in doubt about their child’s interests and their educational options (EE).

Parents enjoyed the interaction with other parents, which they considered a strong feature of the programme, as parents not only ‘consumed’ but also provided an active input (Y): the programme was not just pre-cooked by the school but also co-constructed by the parents themselves (C). Parents felt that school staff listened carefully to feedback and subsequently in the next session use had been made of it: “it mattered what you said” (C).

Negative feedback included a parent feeling forced to sit with her child at the computer to look for certain programs (D). Another parent discovered in the final session that a student’s results and the advice of the subject teacher would be decisive for the final cluster choice to be made: “Being so, arguments for the choice and advice should be exchanged in a conversation of parent, child and tutor” (P).
Where neither parent had attained HE qualifications, the parents concerned did not report on their experiences with the group process and group size, or offered other feedback on the pedagogy of the learning activity.

5.2.3 Family learning
The sub-theme approach to ‘Parents Turn’ family learning describes how the pedagogy impacted upon the family in terms of the way in which learning continued within the family. Parents reported on what happened while travelling together to and from the sessions, and how having the same experience together affected the bond between the parent and child positively, resulting in increased mutual trust and more and better-quality discussions, in which other family members could also be involved, at home:

In such a process you go to school together and you actually discover and experience things together. We discuss it beforehand and subsequently with each other. And that means that you are going to talk about it in a different way. I think in a better way. (E)

I worked four sessions with my child, which was not the case previously. When you drive back home, it is then very easy to discuss because of what you both experienced that same evening. It eases our relationship as we have spoken about the same subjects. (M)

Other testimonies on family learning included:

Be better conversation partners for him: he involves us in his questions and considerations. (U)

The test he did and we also, but as parents, resulted in extended discussions. Features found in the test, were recognised by other family members, but not by him. We laughed and talked about it of course. (V)

Already on the bike home afterwards, we started serious conversations. (Y)

Family learning reports were not made by parents of whom neither had attained HE-level qualifications themselves or by parents in the control groups.
5.2.4 Community interaction

The sub-theme approach to Parent Turn community interaction describes parents' experiences with multiple resources from the wider school community in the career intervention. The community interaction took place among the parents and in ‘speed dates’ with the parents, older students and alumni who were present. Parents reported on the sharing of LMI and career values (C, AA):

This speed date provided interesting perspectives. My son now knows what his mother is doing for a job and what the parents of his friends are doing (…) Various children became aware of the relative importance of 'becoming rich' in a career. (C)

Parents and students learned from the narrative experiences of older students and alumni (I, BB, X, V). Parent DD reported having learned a different parental role by observing other parents interacting with their child. The community-interaction aspect in ‘Parents Turn’ also re-assured parents:

I note that fellow parents and students also worry about the choice. (D)

One evening we met with senior and former students who have already made the choice. Apparently, my child will also develop like that. It gave me the feeling: it will be fine in the end. (E)

Community-interaction reports were not made by parents neither of whom had attained HE-level qualifications themselves, or by parents in the control group.

5.2.5 Content of ‘Parents Turn’

The sub-theme content of ‘Parents Turn’ describes parents’ comments on the content of the career intervention. On reflecting, some parents considered the programme less suitable for students who had no clue at all (J) or were in doubt of their interests and options, and should be approached more individually next to the sessions (EE). However, the career intervention was not intended to meet the wish of one parent that the outcome of the career intervention should be “The Choice” (J). While one parent wanted more ‘speed dates' with older students, alumni and young teachers (X) or this part of the programme to be extended with work shadowing (X), another parent doubted if children understood the content of professions sufficiently beforehand to make serious choices for one of the ‘speed dates’ with parents (P) or
wondered if any child could be expected to put to-the-point questions (AA). Reducing the number of sessions by working in interest groups (A) or by handing out a reader beforehand (W) were connected to the wish to spend time on a parent-student-tutor/career teacher conversation on the best options for the child (S). A final suggestion was to pay more attention to the transition from HAVO to VWO, which requires choosing an extra subject at the time of the cluster choice. Two parents noted the importance for the students involved in the career intervention of the incentives (a dispensation for a CEG task; a gift voucher) provided by the school (F, R).

**Summary**

Most parents involved in ‘Parents Turn’ experienced collaboration with the school, as school staff supported both the parent and their child in career decision-making by ‘thinking along’ with them. A few parents critically remarked that the school’s input was restricted to providing the parents with information and frameworks, which facilitated the parent to go through the process with their child during the sessions. Nevertheless, parents were almost unanimous about their positive experiences with, and appreciation of the pedagogy of, ‘Parents Turn’. The interaction, the active contribution of the parents present to realise the programme and the school’s response to parents’ feedback to the programme, were all considered strong pedagogical features. The learning amongst parents and child went on beyond the sessions, including involving other family members, and resulted in more mutual trust in the relationship between parent and child and more constructive conversations. Involving members of the wider school community in providing their experiences also enriched the programme for both the parents and their child. However, some parents considered the pedagogy, the group size and the content less suitable for students and parents in doubt about their interests or their options, as they needed a more individual approach. The group of parents neither of whom were HE-educated, stands out in its absence of feedback on elements of the pedagogy of the learning activity, and on reports of family learning and of community interaction.

5.2.6 *Implications for my research questions*

**First research question:** Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO? The qualitative data analysis provide evidence that co-operation or collaboration with
parents in the career decision-making process of their child is expected by all parents regardless of their HE-level attainment.

**Third research question:** What is the impact of the career intervention on the parents, and does this differ between the experimental and control groups? The control group did not report having experienced co-operation with the school in career decision-making, in contrast to the experimental group, although they reported proportionally more one-to-one conversations of student or parent with tutor/career teacher in the final stage.

**Fourth research question:** Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have attained higher education qualifications, in order to effectively support their children’s career building? The qualitative data analysis provide evidence that co-operation or collaboration with parents in the career decision-making process of their child is expected by all parents, regardless of their HE level attainment. Parents who had not attained HE qualifications themselves felt happy with the career intervention and reported that the school’s initiative, informing them and taking the parent and child out of isolation of the conversation at home were appreciated. But notably, there was no evidence of family learning or impact of community interaction being reported by parents without any HE qualification. In the case of community interaction, it might be that they experienced equality among the community, but no authority and subconsciously wanted to place the responsibility on the school.

5.3. **Top-level theme 3: Impact on parents**

This theme describes the impact parents reported that being involved in the career intervention had had on themselves. It consists of four sub-themes: impact on parental knowledge and skills; impact on parental self-efficacy; impact on parental role definition; and impact on lasting behaviour.

5.3.1 **Impact on parental knowledge and skills**

The sub-theme *impact on parental knowledge and skills* describes the effects parents reported on their capability for effectively locating and processing current information about options in the education system. Parents reported impact on their knowledge and skills due to ‘Parents Turn’ in relation to first-hand information on clusters (E, G),
and on HE studies (I), and guidelines on how to look for information in “the maze of HE studies” (FF).

As a result of the career intervention, most parents reported not only being informed and up-to-date but also having developed a broader awareness of how clusters, HE studies, professions and LMI related to the choices that their child was making, and the consequences of these choices.

Various parents reported that they had learnt an approach to career decision-making and became aware of the importance of “a well thought through choice nowadays, which needs to be explored and prepared well in advance” (BB, Q, S, U, W). Other related comments were:

Those new ideas for both parent and child actually lead automatically at home to more attention for career development and more contact with your child. (E, AA)

We are well informed about the steps to undertake. If you compare that to parents of friends who were not involved in ‘Parents Turn’: they are not busy with the issue at all. And yes, we knew: now comes this and then that … we knew the steps so to say. (V)

Having learned about various perspectives and approaches to career decision-making (L, M, P, Q, DD, EE) was reported by one parent in these terms:

The choices you make now do not lead to a straitjacket, but any adjustments to the course can be drastic (…) Thinking in a structured way from internal ambitions and motives in the process appealed to me and helped a lot in our career decision-making. Now, I see it more as a process. It has led to an insight into how you can approach this type of problem together with your child. (Q)

There were no differences in the impact in parental knowledge and skills between the three HE-level groups. The parents in the control groups reported impact only on their information level on clusters or HE studies and on finances.
5.3.2 Impact on parental self-efficacy

The sub-theme impact on parental self-efficacy describes the results parents reported on their judgement of their capability to make use of information and to guide and support their child’s career development. This impact might refer to more self-confidence and self-assurance, as one parent reported:

We both as parents, besides our child, have also become calmer and it is easier to talk about it as we also met with other parents. To be honest… I did not look forward to this cluster choice as I remember my parents didn’t understand, how they reacted and how I provoked with my subject choice. (C)

Other parents felt reassured by ‘Parents Turn’ as they observed that the career intervention worked out positively for them as parents as well as for their child (A) and felt sure their child was going to make ‘a good choice’ (D, F, S):

It was also that there was something to talk about and that we were also much more aware to let things simmer. That has also been a big point for us that has tempered the panic: ‘Oh, what to do now, because he does not know’. That there was just a simmering time. (Y)

One parent experienced not being alone in the career decision-making process with the child (Y). Another parent was able to control her tendency to exercise control, as she understood which decisions and tasks would come next and when (EE). Parents of whom none had HE qualifications themselves did not report any impact on their parental self-efficacy; the same was true of the parents in the control group.

5.3.3 Impact on parental role definition

The sub-theme impact on parental role definition describes the results parents reported on their beliefs regarding what they were supposed to do in relation to their child’s career development and their behaviour in relation to those beliefs. When reflecting on their parental role, many parents referred to puberty or young adolescence as influencing both their child’s and their own behaviour. Parents referred to their own career decision-making at that age (B, C, T), or observed unwillingness (F) or not communicating on the part of the child (B, V), or their child obviously having something else on their mind like their social life (F, I, W). It made these parents realise they should not push or direct but had to guide their child in a
way that respected him/her becoming more independent (T, U). Following up on this is not easy for the parent (K) but happens “in good harmony” (R). However:

I thought when seeing the older students: probably it will all be well in the end, because observing these students’ behaviour, indeed they have their puberty phase behind. (E)

Not all parents reported acting differently towards their child due to ‘Parents Turn’. In particular, some of the parents of whom one had attained HE-qualifications emphasised that basically their role definition or their ways of acting were not different compared to before the career intervention (U, AA), however, contradictorily, now tried not to direct (EE) and had more conversations (AA). Parents who reported acting differently said that “The difference is that we as parents left our old thinking patterns” (Y) and recorded that their pushing, pulling or directing has declined in favour of guiding, stimulating, putting the initiative and responsibility more with their child (M, Q, T, U, X, BB, EE) and having many more conversations (Y).

These different ways of acting were related to parents perceiving their role differently since being involved in ‘Parents Turn’. Parent P remembered that this different parental role perspective was made especially clear by the school in the first session. As their child was older since ‘Parents Turn’ and now taking up more responsibility, parents noticed differences in their parental role in favour of guiding (R, W, Y), as both parent and child had a sense of urgency and the importance of early preparations for next steps (T, U, W). Parent DD reported learning a different parental role by observing other parents interacting with their child.

5.3.4 Lasting behaviour
The sub-theme lasting behaviour describes effects parents reported on their parental competence to act and decide in relation to new career decisions, due to the career intervention. One year after the intervention, half of the parents involved mentioned one or more aspects in the next step in career development of their child and showed a sense of urgency in preparing for the HE-studies decision (7 out of 12 third-year experimental parents), which they attributed to the career intervention. However, the sense of urgency was less the case for parents neither of whom had attained HE qualifications themselves, and also for third-year control group parents, who concentrated on short term issues such as “homework” and “marks” and saw no
urgency to start preparing for the next step. All fifth-year parents, except for the parents whose child had failed exams or dropped-out, were aware of one career decision to be made over the next few years in HE, without any current urgency.

**Summary**
The career intervention impacted upon parents’ capability for effectively locating and processing information about options in the educational system and LMI, broadened their awareness of the internal coherence of the information and offered them a structured way to guide and support their child in career decision-making. This impacted upon the parental-efficacy of parents for whom both or one had HE qualifications and (re-)assured these parents in guiding and supporting their child. The career intervention impacted upon the parental role definition and their ways of acting towards their teenager or adolescent of the majority of parents in the direction of guiding, stimulating, putting the initiative and responsibility more with their child, and having more conversations. One year after the intervention, half of the parents involved were aware of multiple aspects of their child’s next career decision and showed a sense of urgency in preparing for that decision.

5.3.5 **Implications for my research questions**

**Third research question**: What is the impact of the career intervention on the parents, and does this differ between the experimental and control groups? The qualitative analysis suggests impact in the experimental group on parents’ broad awareness of options in the education system, on the capability for effectively locating and processing current information on this, on a structured approach in career decision-making and on how to guide and support their child in this process. The control group reported an increased level of current information only. There was evidence pointing to the likelihood that the career intervention had impacted on parental self-efficacy and on the parental role definition of parents in the experimental group, while such impacts were not reported by parents in the control group. Whereas parents of former third-year students in the experimental group were actively involved in preparing for the next career decision, this was not found for the control group.

**Fourth research question**: Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have
attained higher education qualifications to effectively support their children’s career building? The qualitative analysis suggested that there were no differences in impact in parental knowledge and skills between the three HE-level groups (in which both, one only, or none of the parents had HE qualifications themselves). Parents without HE qualifications did not report any impact on their parental self-efficacy, and seemed to have less of a sense of urgency in preparing for the next career decision with their child. Parents of whom one had attained HE qualifications were hesitant and rigid in observing another perspective on their parental role definition and in acting differently based on that change.

5.4. Top-level theme 4: Impact on students
The theme ‘impact on students’ describes what parents reported about the observed impact of the intervention on their child. It consists of three sub-themes: impact on the student’s knowledge and skills; impact on the student’s sense of urgency and importance; and impact on the student taking control.

5.4.1 Impact on student’s knowledge and skills
The sub-theme impact on student’s knowledge and skills describes the effects parents reported on their child’s capability for effectively locating and processing current information about options in the education system. Parents observed that the involvement impacted upon their child’s knowledge of educational options and consequences in general or in specific areas such as the financial issues when entering HE (K); and upon where and how to find information on HE studies and their quality (FF). In the parents’ eyes, students became more aware of the future (W), developed a broader scope of the relationships between clusters, subjects, HE-studies and working life (X, Y) and could think about these areas in more complex ways (I). The assessment in ‘Parents Turn’ was found to be informative by some students in (re)considering options (FF, DD). Rethinking the initial choice could consist of ignoring negative advice about a subject (V), exploring and tasting mathematics on a more difficult level (C), finding out that it was not a clever idea to make certain choices to please parents (U) and taking up an extra subject to enable a possible transition to VWO (C, E).
5.4.2 Impact on student’s sense of urgency and importance

The sub-theme *impact on student’s sense of urgency and importance* describes the effects parents reported on their child’s attitude to their current career decision-making one year after the career intervention. According to the parents, ‘Parents Turn’ impacted upon the student’s sense of urgency and importance: “there is a life after school” (M, Y, AA), “career decision-making is important” (C, E, Y) and “be active in that area early on” (V). This put some students at ease in relation to their current career decision-making (C, Y). Some students however, realised slowly what next steps involved (P) and some were in denial or procrastinated over exploring next steps in career decision-making (B, T BB). Two fifth-year students dropped out of their chosen HE study and their parents observed that they were in doubt about what to do next and how to explore options (DD, EE).

5.4.3 Impact on student taking control

The sub-theme *impact on student takes control* describes the effects parents reported on observed autonomous actions by their child in career decision-making. Parents from both the experimental and the control groups reported that their child was getting on well in the cluster or HE study their child had chosen. And 7 out of 20 parents – both former third- and fifth-year students – observed that their child had taken control of career decision-making themselves and parents were less in the lead (M, FF, S, AA, Q), especially if they had entered HE in the meantime.

Summary

Parents observed impacts of the career intervention on their child’s knowledge and skills to (re)consider their career decision and gain confidence in the future. Students’ involvement in ‘Parents Turn’ had raised their sense of the importance and urgency of actively making career decisions. Most students were ‘on track’ in their present study and in the meantime, some had taken the lead in the career decision-making process.

5.4.4 Implications for my research questions

**First research question:** Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO? The evidence suggests that being involved as parent and child in this career intervention made students realise the importance of career decision-making, the need to explore from an early stage and their own role in this. This may have encouraged the child to
take more initiative in their next career steps or being motivated for school, shown by ‘getting well underway’ in their current education, the latter in line with the effects of guidance in the research literature (Christensen and Søgaard Larsen, 2011).

5.5. Top-level theme 5: Impact at home on career conversations
The theme ‘impact at home on career conversations’ describes the impact parents reported of the communication at home on career development with their child after the career intervention finished. It consists of two sub-themes: impact on the quality of parent-child interaction; and impact on encouragement.

5.5.1 Impact on parent-child interaction quality
The sub-theme impact on parent-child interaction quality describes the effects that parents reported on the nature of their communication with their child after the sessions had finished. Only one of the parents interviewed reported that his son was unwilling to talk about these matters after this (T). Most parents, except where none of them had attained HE qualifications themselves, reported a positive impact of the career intervention on the parent-child interaction at home. Parents now knew as much about these matters as their child, and this was the basis for ‘good’ conversations (D), in which other family members were also involved at the dinner table (Y). While parents noted that their relationship with their child regarding school had previously been demand-driven (“What did you do in school today?”), now both child and parents asked each other questions on wider career and life-issues or discussed the parents’ work (E, V). Parents indicated that the issues which were being discussed at home could never have had the depth or been on the agenda without the sessions (C), such as seeing through the marketing stories of providers of HE studies (R). Involvement also influenced the broader relationship or bond between parent and child: having the same experience and information led to talking with each other differently, in ‘a better way’ and more actively. One parent observed that their child became self-confident, able to link what had happened in CEG after the sessions with them as parents (X).

5.5.2 Impact on encouragement
The sub-theme impact on encouragement describes the effects that parents reported of their own active involvement in the career development of their child at home. At home, regardless of their own HE level, all parents encouraged their child in his/her
career development. They stimulated him/her to visit open or taster days or career fairs of HE-institutions in the company of a parent or a sibling in order to find out about the various studies and their objectives, and to have some experience of them. Parents sometimes had to push their child or drag him/her along to such days (Y, AA), making question lists and a plan to keep their child on track and put him/her at ease (S). Thereafter, a single parent supported the child in comparing possibilities and the wider consequences of the choice (A). Parents also explored the internet themselves to suggest possible HE studies to their child, being aware not to push (M) and prompting their child to explore the internet and specific websites themselves (T).

**Summary**

After the career intervention, at home, the parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students limited their guidance and support of their child in career development to encouragement. They stimulated their child to visit HE studies, whether or not in the company of the parent, and to explore the internet themselves. In the case of parents both or one of whom had attained HE qualifications, they too applied this encouragement, but in addition reported on the improved quality and intensity of the interaction with their child, in content as well as in level of processing.

**5.5.3 Implications for my research questions**

**Third research question:** What is the impact of the career intervention on the parents, and does this differ between the experimental and control groups? The qualitative analysis suggested that parents in the experimental group experienced a positive impact of the career intervention afterwards on the parent-child interaction at home, which enabled them to discuss issues that parents would have thought out of bounds without the career intervention. Also, the bond between parents and child was impacted upon positively. Parents in both the experimental and control groups encouraged their child to actively explore options during the career decision-making process, including activities in which parents might be involved.

**Fourth research question:** Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have attained higher education qualifications, to effectively support their children’s career building? The qualitative analysis points to the likelihood that parents of whom none had attained HE qualifications did not experience any impact of the career
intervention on the parent-child interaction at home. However, they encouraged their children to explore options, as did parents of whom both or one had attained HE qualifications.

5.6. Top-level theme 6: School as active and reactive agent

This theme describes parents’ impressions, expectations and experiences with the initiatives, provisions and school-parent communications. It consists of three sub-themes: initiating contact and communication; CEG communication; and CEG.

5.6.1 Initiating contact and communication

The sub-theme initiating contact and communication describes parents’ perception of the school’s attitude towards parents’ questions and needs in general. Most parents in the third-year experimental group (A, C, D, E) indicated that their school was open to the questions and needs of parents, as both tutor and teachers were accessible and approachable, and communicated by mail and phone. Their school organised events and gave a signal if something needed to be done. Still, some parents were not open to such school initiatives (A, I, M) and might, as one parent remarked, “put the responsibility on the school” (I). On the other hand: “If you oblige people to attend school activities, they are going to protest” (K).

Even if the school initiated contact and communicated with parents, the parents (C, D, K,) reported experiencing a distance between home and school compared to their experiences with primary school:

In our opinion, our son has to choose his own path, which makes the distance between the school and parents even larger. But [referring to ‘Parents Turn’] that has been reduced now. (U)

In primary school, the parent is the customer; in secondary, the child is the customer. As secondary school is quite another world compared to primary school, there is the subtlety of just taking the initiative or lead. (C)

When the school took the lead through the ‘Parents Turn’ initiative, this activated both parents and students (M). Parents were stimulated in contacts with school, asked themselves more questions and looked for available information (E). Parents also observed that the intervention gave their child a helping hand, ideas and suggestions
for further action (DD, I, L). But one parent noted that there was more to taking the lead with an intervention such as ‘Parents Turn’:

It is actually more of a platform where you come together with your child. Also, the school environment does something to your child. So, my son thinks, “Oh, this is important. I have something to do with this and that is not because at home there is a fuss about something that I did or did not do.” So, that is what I think as a parent: issues you cannot get on the agenda at home, are put on the agenda here. (C)

Other parents reported how the initiative triggered students’ thinking:

My parent and school are in contact and I want to belong to that connection. I have to stay with it and I have to contribute myself to my cluster choice. (E, EE)

I observed that he is more active in listening, thinking and answering when he is with the career teacher, teachers and other students then when it comes from me and I see him thinking: “There is my mom again.” It seems ‘strange eyes’ compel him to be more active. (I)

5.6.2 CEG communication
The sub-theme CEG communication describes parents’ impressions, expectations and experiences with initiating contact and communication on CEG before and after ‘Parents Turn’. ‘Parents Turn’ was a turnaround in the ‘usual’ CEG communication-traffic between school and parents on school procedures in relation to decisions and choices to be made:

Normally you are confronted at home with what a child has filled out at school, now we did it together. (C)

As a rule, students are supposed to inform their parents on general and specific information they receive in the classroom or in a one-to-one conversation at school. Various parents were aware that they had missed such information, that they had no picture of what the school did and what did (not) happen, and that they were unable to judge if the school did enough (D, G). They were missing information as their child was not always communicative (D), or was unwilling to communicate or might have
forgotten on the way back home (I). Students might also not initiate a discussion about an issue of this kind at home (C).

However, after ‘Parents Turn’ at each experimental school, the mutual school-parent communication that had been initiated stopped abruptly (P, AA, BB, EE). This was especially noted by third-year parents in the experimental schools:

During the sessions, the school takes you by your hand. After that, filling out the preliminary cluster choice, we did not hear anything, and also did not receive any feedback via our child. (P)

The process of making the definite cluster choice went silently: all of a sudden that went via child and school. (E)

One year after the intervention, parents indicated that – as before – they did not know what the school was currently doing in guiding and supporting their child in career development or with the CEG provision the school offered to all students (X), and what they were supposed to initiate as a parent to supplement this (R). This criticism was independent of sustaining ‘Parents Turn’ as a provision in the next academic year in the experimental schools.

5.6.3 CEG

The sub-theme CEG describes parents’ impressions, expectations and experiences of the provision at school to guide and support all students in career decision-making. Through ‘Parents Turn’, parents were impressed by the CEG programme as presented at the sessions (Y, I). But parents also made several suggestions related to CEG, as they observed that the current CEG programme did not appeal to or engage their child (G, BB) and activities did not open up or confront students with alternatives (G, T). Parents recommended internships and other ways to learn about professions and studies “in the real world” (M), as well as an exchange of impressions among student peers about HE open and taster days that had been visited (P).

After ‘Parents Turn’, parents expected the school through its CEG provision to stay in touch with each student over their next career steps and to continue to stimulate them. Parents also expected the school to provide more support when a student had no clue, was in doubt about interest and/or options or was meeting barriers (D, J, Q).
Various parents reported that they expected and thus were missing the school’s initiative in setting up one-to-one conversations with their child, as well as with themselves as parents, with a tutor or career teacher (X, U, Y). One parent emphasised that the school should give an opinion or advice: “They have a five-year experience with her. What does the school think about the direction of study and could we have a conversation on that?” (EE).

Parents also desired CEG-related support for themselves in their parental role:

The school has much more insights and contacts, which makes the career search more structured. And LMI is important. (D)

I am aware of my responsibility as a parent, but it is often a search for different stimuli in the process. (Y)

These expectations of CEG and CEG communication did not differ according to parental HE-level attainment and were also expressed by parents in the control schools (G, H, CC).

Summary
Although parents might find that their school took initiatives, and was communicative and open to the questions and needs of parents, a distance between home and secondary school in general was still experienced. Taking the lead in involving parents in the career decision-making of their child at school not only bridged this distance: it also activated both parents and students, and raised their sense of the importance and urgency of the career decision-making process. By the career intervention the school created a platform for interaction in the school environment, and set an agenda and game rules for both parents and students. However, after the sessions, the communication returned to the former one-way traffic and parents were left puzzled by this.

Parents were aware, before and after the career intervention, that they were missing information on the CEG provision in general and for their child, as the school overestimated how well students would inform their parents on what was going on in CEG in general and with their individual guidance in conversations with teachers, the tutor or the career teacher. Parents expected the school to be active in keeping an eye on the career decision-making process of every student, to customise the
provision to their needs, to initiate individual student-tutor/career teacher conversations and student-parent-tutor/career teacher consultations in the final stages of career decision-making, and to exchange mutual perspectives on options. Parents also reported having needs which the school could help them with in supporting their child in CEG.

5.6.4 Implications for my research questions

First research question: Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO? The evidence presented under this theme supports earlier findings (Arrington, 2000; Otto, 1989) that parents do have needs in supporting their child in educational planning and career decision-making. The evidence provides feedback on the parents’ expectations of the CEG provision for all students.

Second research question: What hinders and aids parents’ involvement in such career interventions? Also fifth research question: What is the role of the school in enabling a parent-involved career intervention? The findings in the qualitative data analysis point to the likelihood of the vital role of the school in initiating to involve parents in the career development of their students. Its impact involves activating both parents and students, and raising their sense of the importance and urgency of career decision-making. In a subtle way, with the career intervention, the school can steer the career-decision process going on in the school, between parent and child, and at home. It seems that taking the lead in this way is a turn-about in the ‘usual’ school-parent communication of Dutch secondary schools, demonstrated when the experimental schools ceased this strategy after the career intervention and parents realised only slowly that they had done so. The analysis also provides evidence of a returning feeling of being uninformed and of mistrust among the parents involved, as well as a wish for further three-way conversations between the parent, student and tutor/career teacher.

5.7. Impact of the career intervention within the school

Because parents, by definition, cannot perceive the impact of the career intervention on the school internally, the only source to rely on for this impact are the career teachers involved. There are two resources for this: the record of the monthly ‘critical incident analysis’ sessions with the career teachers of the experimental schools at intervention (Subsection 1.3.1), and the questionnaire at the 3-measurement. These
resources were analysed as described in Subsection 3.5.2. Each of the themes are set out in the full code book in Appendix 12, which also provides the numbers of references for each sub-theme. The present chapter follows the structure of the code book.

5.7.1 Impact within school at intervention

The record of the monthly ‘critical incident analysis’ sessions with the career teachers of the experimental schools at intervention revealed three themes.

The first theme describes career teachers’ efforts to involve and keep participants on board in ‘Parents Turn’. The career teachers in each experimental school had to call parents who had registered for the sessions, but for example did not show up or did call after the second session and said: “We made our decision! We will not be present at the next session.” Also, students had to be informed and motivated to stay involved, either by the career teacher or the tutor, without or with incentives (such as a dispensation for a CEG task or a gift voucher) – three schools decided to offer incentives.

The second theme describes career teachers’ efforts to establish widespread support, commitment and ownership for ‘Parents Turn’ within groups in the school. This involved:

- Career teachers of other departments being informed and eventually involved on a voluntary basis.
- Tutors being informed about the career intervention and asked for their voluntary co-operation, which included that they had to be present for instructions one hour earlier before each session.
- Teachers being informed in the teacher meeting before and after each career session, and eventually being involved in and verbally instructed with the script for one of the sessions.
- School management being informed about the progress of the career intervention. In three schools the department leader was actively involved in delivering the career intervention.

The third theme describes the several challenges in the career intervention itself:
- One sub-theme was *logistical challenges*: e.g. lighting conditions; keys missing; no internet; failing printers; tutors coming too late for the instruction or not showing up at all; teachers lacking time discipline in presenting.

- A second sub-theme was *challenges in the interactive approach*: e.g. interventions by parents or students unbalancing the career teacher; critical parents irritating other parents; pace differences between small groups; handling (out of order) questions; a reluctant student; an overenthusiastic, dominant parent; in small groups, mothers taking care that everyone could contribute and be heard, but fathers not doing so.

- A third sub-theme was: *dealing with parents’ reactions to the pedagogy*. This differed between schools as expressed by career teachers in their comments, e.g. “Grateful.” “Not that critical yet.” “Did not dare to ask questions in a plenary initially.” “Parents are conditioned to one-way information traffic.” “Parents were positively surprised they have to do something.” “They want more interaction and less plenary introductions.”

- The last shared sub-theme was *worries about the parents of students in the school who were not involved*. Who are we really missing? But what if they all come?

**5.7.2 Impact within the school one year after the intervention**

Five out of the six career teachers in the experimental schools and those in both of the control schools shared their observations of the impact of ‘Parents Turn’ on their school by filling out a questionnaire at the 3-measurement, one year after the career intervention.

At the experimental schools, an *awareness, understanding and general support* had grown among school-staff and school-management that parents needed more knowledge about clusters, optional subjects, HE studies, possibilities and consequences:

> Although uncomfortable at the start, school-staff reacted mainly positively afterwards. School-management realised how important these sessions were and co-operated fully. (E3, school 3)

*Tutors were involved more actively in CEG* than before the career intervention: increasing their knowledge of clusters, HE studies, opportunities and consequences,
and their skills for providing career guidance (E3, school 1 and 3; E5, school 1 and 3). As a result of the career intervention, tutors increased their initiation of CEG-related communications (E3, school 1 and 2; E5, school 1):

Tutors are more at ease to contact students and parents and they have the idea that the quality of the contact improved. (E5, school 1)

Parents and students are more often invited together by the school staff for parent-teacher meetings. (E5, school 3)

For each of the career teachers, ‘Parents Turn’ has been a professional development experience:

Knowledge of the meaning of parents in career decision-making of students, of parental involvement in general. (E3, school 1, 2 and 3; E5, school 1 and 3)

How to put parents on the right track to have conversations with their child: without these evenings, many parents do not talk with their child on this subject. (E3, school 3)

Skills development for better presentations for parents. (E3, school 2; E5, school 1)

Strengthening of skills to direct tutors in CEG. (E5, school 1)

The career teachers reported that they were now less oriented towards ‘information’ and focusing more on ‘the process’ of career development in their work. The career intervention had an impact on the co-operation of the career teacher with colleagues, tutors and teachers. It had led to the strengthening of their position as a career teacher and of CEG in the school (E3, school 1, 2 and 3; E5, school 1 and 3).

In the control schools, one of the career teachers reported that, due to being involved in the project, she had intensified her non-personal mail contact with parents on information and had asked for their opinion more often.

As for sustaining the career intervention, two out of the six experimental schools had implemented ‘Parents Turn’ fully after the experimental phase. One experimental school had done so for the third year and one for the fifth year, where more than 50%
of the parents were involved in the initial career intervention. In the third-year experimental school, school management and teachers noted after the sessions the explicit expectation of continuation of the provision by new and already-present parents, so that: “Parents whom are involved in this year’s career intervention are also encouraged by last year’s parents” (E3, school 3). In the fifth-year experimental school, the tutors insisted on continuation:

> On those evenings we speak with many parents and students regularly and it is about essential matters. This is a big investment at the start of the year, but it will pay back as it gives us an advantage throughout the school year in both our tutoring and CEG. (E5, school 1)

These two schools also extended the formula of ‘Parents Turn’ to other educational departments and grades, not only on CEG issues but also on issues such as homework.

The management of two experimental schools, one for the third year and one for the fifth year, decided to limit the career intervention to one or two sessions. This was not because of the reactions from parents and students, but mainly because of essential school management issues such as not overloading school staff with activities after school hours (E3, school 2; E5, school 2).

Two of the six experimental schools did not continue ‘Parents Turn’ (E3, school 1; E5, school 3). When one career teacher moved into a management position at another school, the school management decided, with her successor being new to the career teacher position, to change to one evening with workshops. The other career teacher started a private course which could not be combined with the career intervention in the evening hours, and later took a job at another school.

Both career teachers in the control schools wanted to learn more about the career intervention. Two other Dutch schools have been coached by the career teacher of one of the experimental schools and by the researcher in designing their own tailored ‘Parents Turn’ career intervention for the fourth or fifth year of HAVO in 2014, which has since been implemented and extended to other educational departments and grades.
Summary
There is evidence to suggest that the career intervention had an observable impact on the school as an organisation. However, this evidence is limited to the career teachers as a resource. At intervention, career teachers had to make efforts to keep both participants and school staff involved. The intervention itself challenged the career teacher in logistical and/or pedagogical respects. One year after the career intervention, the career teachers suggested observable impacts and public benefits for the school: increased interaction among the school staff, development of the knowledge and skills of the career teachers and tutors, and intensified communication with parents on general and CEG matters. The latter is also a public benefit at one control school, as the career teacher reported informing parents more often by mail and being more aware of their opinions.

5.7.3 Implications for my research questions
Fifth research question: What is the role of the school in enabling a parent-involved career intervention? The evidence points to the likelihood that there were public benefits for all parents and students of the experimental schools: co-operation and learning among school staff about career decision-making, and the role and needs of parents affecting the school as a reactive agent. Public benefits as an active agent include: being aware of parents’ needs; applying what had been learned through initiating communication; and intensifying the communication with parents by tutors and career teachers.

Final conclusions
The qualitative data provide insights on the subtleties of parents’ experiences with ‘Parents Turn’. The research literature finds that mothers have a more significant role for adolescents than fathers as an adviser for the future and in co-deciding on career decisions. The data supported this finding, demonstrating that it was mostly mothers who took the initiative and participated with their child in ‘Parents Turn’. However, the child’s mediation proved a major helping or hindering factor for involvement, especially for the initial participation.

The evidence presented in this chapter suggests that parents’ motives to be involved differed in relation to their level of HE attainment. All parents are in need of ‘What’, ‘Where?’ and ‘How?’ to find current information on educational options. Parents who
had attained HE-level qualifications themselves needed an update. Parents without HE-level attainment were in need of being assured as they lacked experiences of HE themselves, and their child was not or could not be the information source, as the schools implicitly assumed they would be in their communication and procedures.

The career intervention impacted upon parents’ and students’ knowledge and skills and went beyond their expectations by developing a broader awareness of the education options, of LMI and of a structured approach to career decision-making. The evidence suggests that the career intervention had an impact on parental self-efficacy, parental role definition and their ensuing behaviour, although this was either not reported or was reported in a limited way by parents of whom one or none had attained HE qualifications themselves. The evidence points to the likelihood that, after the career intervention, parents of whom both or one had attained HE qualifications experienced an impact on the nature and quality of the conversations with their child at home, which was not the case for parents without HE qualifications. However, at home, all parents encouraged their child to explore options in various ways and were also involved in these activities as parents.

The school, taking the lead in involving parents in the career decision-making of their child, can create an influential platform for discussion in school and at home with all parents and students. Parents appreciated the innovative pedagogical approach in the career intervention, which also came with family-learning and community-interaction features. There are not only private benefits but also public benefits for a school from initiating such career interventions, both as a reactive agent through co-operation, learning and growing understanding about parental involvement and CEG among staff and also as an active agent through initiated and intensified communication with parents.
6. DISCUSSION
In reflecting upon Chapters 4 and 5, some interesting and critical findings emerged which I will discuss in this chapter in more detail. I will connect this discussion to relevant literature and use this to draw out the contribution that my study makes to knowledge in the field.

The first key theme I will point out is that parents have varying capacities to support the career development of their child and that this capacity can be enhanced through interventions. My research conceptualised a model of this parental capacity, which is made up of three sub-constructs: parental knowledge and skills; parental self-efficacy; and parental role definition. I linked this construct of parental capacity to the broader literature, both on parental involvement and on career studies. This is a significant theme as it is key to understand the elements of the parental capacity.

In the second subsection, I present the second key theme. I will argue that the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ which I co-designed with the career teachers was effective for three reasons: the inclusion of a learning-activity element; the family learning approach; and the community-interaction fostered through the intervention. This theme shows how parental capacity can be developed through a parent-involved career intervention.

My third key theme points out that the ways in which the career intervention worked differed for different groups of parents, related to their own level of HE attainment. In other words: the career intervention offered different benefits for these different groups. Broadly, it offered all parents current information and understanding of the options and procedures in secondary education and in applying for HE. For parents with experiences in HE, this meant an update and understanding of how the picture had changed. For parents with lower levels of education, it introduced new information and also served to reassure the parents. Subcultural differences also showed in a pattern of persistent lack of sureness among third-year parents of whom one or none had attained HE qualifications themselves. For parents where neither had attained HE qualifications, there were also persisting information, guidance and support needs. This is a significant theme as to understand the differing initial needs, differing impacts and potentially different approaches needed to build parental capacity for different groups of parents.
My fourth key theme is that schools are critical to delivering this kind of intervention and are capable of doing it, but also struggle to sustain these kinds of changed relationships in communication and with family learning and community interaction in the long run. That is because schools and the education system are not currently set up to do so. This is a significant theme as to understand why internationally many parent-involved career intervention did not sustain and why there is the need for local and national policy in this area as will be presented in Chapter 7.

I will discuss each of these four key themes in turn in this chapter.

6.1 Parental capacity in the career development of their child

My research on the impact of the career intervention on the parents showed impacts in three areas: parents’ knowledge and skills; their self-efficacy; and their role definition. This finding leads to proposing a construct of ‘parental capacity to support their child’s career development’, as depicted in Figure 15.

Figure 15: Construct of parental capacity to support their child’s career development

This construct and its three dimensions can help to advance thinking and knowledge in this field. Each of the three sub-constructs consists of items as indicators for the capacity of parents to be involved (Appendix 13). It thus addresses the frequent criticism of the vagueness of the term ‘parental involvement’, and its complexity and multi-dimensionality, as well as the variety of operationalisations needed to assess parents’ levels of involvement (Subsection 2.3.1). Each of the (sub-)constructs will now be discussed.

6.1.1 Parental capacity

The human capital of parents consists not only of their education, training or certification (Coleman, 1988), but in my view also of their capacity to help and support their children in education and career development. Capacity refers to “an
amalgam of skills, values, motivations and opportunities, which are shaped by personal attributes and/or social structures” (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003, p.49).

In the model developed by Desforges and Abouchaar (Figure 7), ‘parental capacity for involvement’ comprises ‘parental self-efficacy’ and ‘parental role definition’, both of which are motivating belief systems originating from the theoretical model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997). Both are “modifiable by educational processes in the school” (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003, p.49), which my findings underline (Subsections Results for H2.2; 5.3.2 and 5.3.3).

In a later study, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler identified an instrument, the perception of ‘parental knowledge and skills’, referring to “parent(s)’ considerations about the nature of involvement activities they might possibly undertake with a reasonable likelihood of being successful” (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005, p.114).

However, in my research ‘parental knowledge and skills’ in supporting their child’s career development in terms of content appeared to be different from this, as outlined in Subsection 6.1.2.

6.1.2 Parental knowledge and skills
Katznelson and Pless (2007) found that most parents are interested in the choices their child makes in education but lack the knowledge of current possibilities in the education system and the labour market and thus lack “the ability to help and support young people in their choice of education” (Katznelson and Pless, 2007, p.133).

Here, parental capacity is understood as the ‘knowledge’ parents have which is basic to their involvement in their child’s career development.

Van de Werfhorst (2015) found that parents’ knowledge of the Dutch education system was related to their level of education (Figure 8). He indicated that the lack of this knowledge is likely to be an essential element in explaining educational inequalities (Subsection 3.4.1).

While ‘information’ is mostly understood as facts provided or learned about – for example, LMI or information about educational options – ‘knowledge’ is understood as information that is experienced and reflected upon, providing a basis for action, i.e. being ‘knowledgeably informed’. Sweet and Watts (2006) argue that one of the implications of the increased number of ‘first-generation’ HE students is the importance of providing enhanced CEG for them, prior to entry: “Career guidance can
develop and support informed consumers” (Sweet and Watts, 2006, p.24). Informed individuals make more effective decisions (Sampson et al., 2003). Information is a valuable aspect of career interventions; however, it is “not by itself sufficient (…) more information is not necessarily better than less information if people have no idea how to use it” (Grubb, 2002, pp.4-5). Accordingly, the capability for effectively locating and processing relevant information needs to be developed (Peterson et al., 2003), meaning that effective knowledge must also include skills.

Another valuable addition to this ‘parental knowledge and skills’ sub-construct in parental capacity to support their child’s career development is that the information inherent in social relations is an important form of social capital providing a basis for action (Coleman, 1988). Information is not only available in written or digital format, but also in or via the networks of the family and of the school-community, as will be explained in the Subsections on family-learning (6.2.2) and community-interaction (6.2.3).

Acknowledging ‘parental knowledge and skills’ (i.e. the capability for effectively locating and processing relevant information on options in the education system and labour market, whether available in written or digital forms or through networks) as a sub-construct of parental capacity is a helpful contribution to knowledge in the field of parental involvement, career studies and social justice.

6.1.3 Parental self-efficacy

As part of the parental capacity in their child’s career development, ‘parental self-efficacy’ refers to the degree to which a parent feels able to make a difference in this respect. This depends on an interaction between beliefs and a sense of personal competence which creates a ‘can do’ attitude and/or ‘being able’ confidence and a stronger likelihood of engaging in relevant parental activities. In career studies, Solberg et al. (1995), drawing on Bandura (1977), define self-efficacy as the degree of confidence that individuals (i.e. students) have in their ability to engage successfully in actions such as career search. Although an extensive literature exists on the influences parents evince in the career development of their child both implicitly and explicitly (Subsection 2.2.5), to the best of my knowledge there is no research on the components of ‘feeling capable as a parent’ to provide help and support in their child’s career development.
While analysing my quantitative data, I observed that two indexes did not measure the impact of the career intervention on parents’ expectations as such, but rather measured the confidence of parents that they were able to make a difference in helping and supporting their child’s career development (Subsection 4.2.2). I recognised this confidence as ‘parental self-efficacy’.

These findings of my research are a contribution to knowledge in the field of parental involvement, career studies and social justice. Parental self-efficacy is a theme which is rarely discussed in the literature about parental involvement, but it deserves explicit attention according to Bakker et al. (2013). I too contend that this attention is urgently needed in the careers literature, firstly because I found that the parent-involved career intervention impacted upon parents’ self-efficacy beliefs and ensuing actions. Secondly, because the uncertainty pattern found in parental self-efficacy with lower-educated parents might be interpreted as risk aversion and time-discounting preferences, which could explain some of the secondary effects of social origin on educational attainment causing educational inequalities (Subsection 2.2.4).

6.1.4 Parental role definition
Parental role definition includes a sense of personal or shared responsibility for the child’s educational achievement, career development, and their concurrent beliefs about being engaged in these. A key factor in shaping parents’ perspective on their role is their attribution of responsibility for education and career decisions. This is influenced in complex ways by family and cultural experiences, and ethnic and SES values (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1997).

Career and other teachers and researchers may have a parental role ideal which almost by definition excludes other, mainly lower-SES parents, who are lacking the required social (cf. Coleman, 1988) and cultural (cf. Bourdieu, 1986) capital to comply with this ideal (Bakker and Denessen, 2007; Lareau, 2011).

6.1.5 Discussion
Cultural and class values certainly can be identified in the items I used in the ‘parental statements’ in my research. For example, the item ‘I think it is important to be aware of the school performance of my child’ all along the measurements had the maximum median (5.00): this confirms the educational focus of parents involved in the intervention and the quantitative measurements (parents in the control groups
also had this focus), which is entirely consistent with the research literature (Cuconato and Walther, 2013; Katznelson and Pless, 2007; Ule, Živoder and Du Bois-Reymond, 2015). A second example is the parental statement 'I am aware what the strengths and weaknesses of my child are', which showed a significant difference between those parents where both had been higher educated and those where neither had been higher educated.

Substantive and methodological dilemmas for future researchers on the ‘parental role definition’ are at stake here, especially in relation to biased variables and interpretation of results. As shown above, taking the effort as a parent to be involved in the career intervention and/or to fill out a related questionnaire tends to attract a certain group of parents, which may lead to what looks like a biased sample, but not if considered that the strong focus on education is consistent with the research literature. Within the sample, however, are the variables, as with the strengths and weaknesses, measuring ‘real’ differences? It seems more likely that in the parental statements biased variables were used as a consequence of the parental role ideal and the unconscious, shared values of the researcher, informants and peers in constructing a questionnaire, informed by the literature. Being unaware of or ignoring differing parental role definitions, even within a sample with the same national cultural values (cf. Arulmani, 2007; Bandura, 1989; Hofstede, 2001; Law, 2013), will explain why results can end up with false findings.

**Summary**

The development of a construct for ‘parental capacity in their child's career development’ is one of the contributions to knowledge made by this study. It refers to parents' belief and ability to be involved in, help and support their children in educational planning and career decision-making. This construct is made up of three sub-constructs – parental knowledge and skills; parental self-efficacy and parental role definition – with items and aspects that will contribute to greater clarity about the understanding of the term ‘parental involvement’ in the field. The sub-construct ‘parental knowledge and skills’ is a specific addition to the existing models of parental involvement, with an acknowledged meaning in the field of career studies. The sub-construct ‘parental self-efficacy’ has unjustly received little attention both in the field of parental involvement studies and in career studies. Awareness of differences in
cultural perspectives is particularly the case for the sub-construct ‘parental role definition’ and is in line with the existing literature.

6.2 Effectiveness of the career intervention
Internationally, interventions have been designed to involve parents in adolescents’ career development since the 1960s. I interrogated the interventions found and developed a taxonomy – which is part of my contribution to knowledge – distinguishing the approaches of the parent-involved career interventions: (a) information-focused interventions; (b) family learning; and (c) family counselling or family therapy (Subsection 2.4).

In these terms, the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is an example of ‘family learning’. ‘Parents Turn’ demonstrated that it is worth working with parents and that it is possible to develop an intervention that works and engages parents. My analysis about why this is the case with the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is based on three reasons: these are related to its pedagogy and the way it leveraged the family as well as the community to enable parents and students to make decisions in context.

6.2.1 Learning activity approach
The career intervention was designed by paying close attention to the pedagogy needed for the learning of parents in interaction with their child and considering how this learning was best facilitated by school staff in the setting of the school.

The twelve requirements of a learning programme (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick Partners, 2009-2015) served as first stepping-stones for the design of the career intervention: each of these requirements, and how they influenced the design and delivery of ‘Parents Turn’ has been described in Subsection 1.3.3.

Being aware of parents as adult learners in the audience was another concern. One-way informing or lecturing may be the ‘typical approach’ on occasions such as plenary parents’ evenings in schools. However, if aiming for parental learning, both designers as well as facilitators of the career intervention should be aware of what we know about adults as learners (Subsection 1.3): this is an underexposed challenge in the field, particularly for school staff. For example: adults want to be actively involved in what, why and how they learn; and adults have life experiences which they want to

A third focus was an understanding of the need for help among parents in the context of the complexity of today’s society. The intended learning of the parents (and the students) in the career intervention was directed towards empowering them, not making them (more) dependent on ‘professionals’ (Van der Wolf, 2013) from the school.

The findings of the research confirm parents’ appreciation of the learning activity approach, particularly for the feature ‘engagement’: involving participants actively and having them contributing to the learning experience (Subsection 5.2.2). Some parents thought, however, that working with a large group is less suitable for students in doubt about their interests and options.

6.2.2 Family learning approach
Whereas students are absent on the typical plenary parents’ evenings in secondary schools in the Netherlands, one of the success factors of ‘Parents Turn’ was having both parent(s) and child actively involved. The career intervention built on the relationship between parent and child. Findings showed that the career intervention meant that they established another, stronger bond in which both became familiar with the same information, skills and tools, learning about and practising ‘on the spot’ each other’s roles in the career development process (Subsection 5.2.3).

An important consideration here, as part of the pedagogy of the career intervention, is the changing parent-child bond, in which the adolescent has a growing need for autonomy and the parental role changes over time. Parent involvement may consist of concrete help, but the nature of the involvement that is most beneficial to their child is expressing confidence, providing guidance and supporting autonomy, all of which are in the affective, attitudinal sphere (Carter, 2002), which leads to the development of self-directed career exploration by students (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006). Findings show that this attitudinal change was reported as part of the impact the career intervention had on their parental role definition (Subsection 5.3.3).

The family learning formula seems to be a public gain from the career intervention for some of the experimental schools even when the career intervention had not been
sustained. Since the intervention, it has been extended in these experimental schools by involving both parent and child in the existing plenary parents’ evenings (Subsection 5.7.2).

6.2.3 Community-interaction

Although the careful design of the career intervention focused on facilitating the learning of adults and the changing child-parent relationship, the strength of using the wider school-community in the career intervention emerged as a bonus. The career intervention facilitated the interaction between the young person and his/her parent(s) and their learning, while also introducing them to and using the wider community of parents, students and school, e.g.
- parents sharing values on their own role and the role of school staff in a plenary;
- parents sharing considerations of ‘what is a career?’ in small groups, which were observed and discussed by students afterwards; and
- plenary or small-group presentations by older students of ‘do’s and don’ts’ in making choices.

While older students and other parents were deliberately used in the intervention – meeting the feature of ‘engagement’ in the learning activity approach – a deeper analysis of the data in the secondary analysis suggested that the nurturing of an attitudinal and behavioural change in the parents and students had come about in an undirected way by engaging them in other surroundings with other parents and students, and also by providing them with subjective information models (Subsection 5.2.4).

This evidence relates to the social learning theory of Bandura (1977). He stated that behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning. Models, in this case other parents and students, are an important source for learning new behaviour, including skills and attitudes. The inherent sharing of values which seems to take place in the child-parent-school-community, the social structure, is reminiscent of the community theory of career development developed by Law (1981). Law argues that some of the most influential factors in career choice relate to events which occur in the context of ‘community-interaction’ between the individual and the social groups of which the person is a member, through expectation, feedback, support, modelling and information. The evidence also supports the

The importance of both family learning as well as community-interaction lies in the effects of social capital on human capital creation (Coleman, 1988). Indeed, family learning in ‘Parents Turn’ enabled and promoted strong relationships between parents and their child – i.e. social capital – which are conditions necessary to share the human capital of the parents with their child. Community-interaction facilitated parents and students in encountering social capital outside the family in the wider school-community, through which the resources of other individuals could be accessed, borrowed or leveraged (Daly and Finnegan, 2010). Putnam (1995, 2015) drew the distinction between ‘bonding’ and ‘bridging’ social capital: bonding occurs when one is together with ‘our kind of people’; bridging occurs when one is socialising with people who are not like you. Coleman (1988, p.S106) stated that the more a school-community shows closure (“parents’ friends are the parents of their children’s friends”), the stronger the mutual trust which facilitates co-operation and the exchange of norms. On the other hand, Burt (1995) argues that if the community-interaction is mainly used for exchanging ‘small favours’, as for example in giving information or advice, large and loose communities with low closure are more effective, because they maximize access to these interactions.

6.2.4 Discussion

A preference in the parental involvement literature is a whole-school or comprehensive approach (Goodall and Vorhaus, 2011; See and Gorard, 2015). A whole-school approach means that the career intervention is part of a broad combination of initiatives, actions and measures within a comprehensive policy to engage parents through the curriculum, governance, stakeholder and community involvement, long-term planning, monitoring and evaluation. Whole-school approaches call for the entire school community to be actively engaged: students, teachers, parents, school management and board.

A whole-school approach was not the case with ‘Parents Turn’, as it was a stand-alone activity. Does effective parental involvement in CEG need a whole-school approach? Ideally it would, but it proved not to be essential, at least with the present sample. My sample was predominantly ‘white’, higher-educated in the third year and
lower-educated in the fifth year. But would the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ also work in the context of an (urban) secondary school with, predominantly, parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students and/or foreign-born parents and students? It would seem likely that secondary schools in such a context would benefit from a whole-school approach to parental involvement as developed by Lusse (2013) to prevent school drop-out. The ten success factors to improve contact with parents can be perceived as three stages, as depicted in Table 28.

Table 28: Ten factors for success to improve contact between parents and school in urban secondary education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors for success to make CONTACT between school and parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School makes sure parents feel welcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School becomes acquainted with all parents at an early stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School has contact with a parent or another carer of the child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors for success to CO-OPERATE between school, parents and pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School always invites pupils to attend regular contact moments with their parent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School makes sure there is dialogue and an exchange of information with parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School feeds the conversation between parent and child at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School (also) pays attention to positive things</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors for success to support the CAREER PERSPECTIVE of the student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School takes pupil’s school career as a focal point in its contact with parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School initiates a plan focused on points of development for the pupil, clearly indicating the roles of the pupil, parent and school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School discusses disappointments regarding school career with parent and child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Lusse, 2013, p.249.

When an incidental intervention is developed into a comprehensive approach, schools need to establish a relationship between parents and school: initiating contact is a precondition. When this first stage is under control (Lusse, 2013), the second stage seeks to maintain contacts and to work towards a reciprocal relationship. A third stage for a successful co-operation between school, parents and students requires interventions to support the career perspective of the student. Specifically, the topic of career development appeared to be most promising for the content of the parent-school contact (Lusse, 2013).

The Individualised Learning Plans (ILPs) approach (Solberg et al., 2014), involving parents in some US states with student-led parent-student-teacher conferences, would also fit into this third stage. This US strategy raises specific awareness of the need for additional (financial, public) resources to break down barriers that hinder parental involvement, such as being in a minority with problems like language, communication, mismatched working hours, lack of transport and/or child care. The relationship of this group with teachers is substantially different (OECD, 1997).
Both examples, Lusse’s Ten Success Factors and ILPs, targeted ‘hard to reach’ parents. The intervention worked on an individual basis, as these parents tended to avoid plenary session with other parents (Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1997). Both interventions focus on establishing a stronger parent-school partnership, based on the needs of the student. One feature which is shared with the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ is that both parents and their child are involved. But parents and students in the intervention on an individual basis will miss out on the benefits of community-interaction as reported by the parents involved in ‘Parents Turn’.

Summary
A contribution from this study to knowledge in the field is that a parent-involved career intervention of the nature we designed and delivered in ‘Parents Turn’ had three key approaches to be effective. The first was its pedagogy, by following up on Kirkpatrick’s’ twelve requirements for designing a learning programme, alongside the awareness of adult learners’ features and the striving for participants’ empowerment. The second was the family learning approach, which enabled and promoted the physical presence and strong relationships between parents and their child to share the human capital of the parents, also making each of them aware of their changing role. The third was community-interaction, which enabled sharing of tactical knowledge, enlarging the individual’s social network, along with family gains enabling them to make choices in context.

Another contribution to knowledge in the field is that the findings on the efficacy of the career intervention, as evidence, further support the international trend to evolve from individual-based to community-based careers work (Subsection 1.3), for which ‘Parents Turn’ can provide one model for how this can be achieved.

6.3 Differing impact of the career intervention
The general picture for the parents who were involved in the career intervention was that they improved their capacity to support their child’s career development. They now had updated knowledge of present and future possibilities, and had developed a broader awareness of how clusters, HE studies, professions and LMI related to the choices that their child was making, and the consequences of these choices.

They were more self-confident in being able to provide help and support to their child, which pointed to enhanced parental self-efficacy and a better understanding of their
parental role. A stronger parent-child bond was reported one year later, as well as lasting behavioural outcomes for the parents. Parents were coaching their child and encouraging and appreciating their child’s own initiative.

But the impact differed between parents who had both attained HE qualifications (both HE) and parents of whom one (one HE) or neither (no HE) had attained HE qualifications.

6.3.1 Both HE

In the quantitative findings, the impact of the career intervention showed up least with ‘both HE’ parents. These parents were motivated to be involved in the career intervention as they were aware that they lacked up-to-date and regularly changing information on educational options and on societal trends such as the importance of continuing in HE.

Only the third-year parents increased their information level and decreased their information, guidance and support needs. It seemed that the career intervention provided the third-year parents with a ‘boost’ in their information level. In both the third and fifth years, parents’ self-efficacy in knowing enough to provide guidance and support to their child’s career development did not change: it was there all the time. However, all parents raised their ‘awareness of the strengths and weaknesses’ of their child, and in the interviews reported more self-confidence as part of their parental self-efficacy due to the career intervention.

‘Both HE’ parents appreciated the career intervention for engaging them in the learning activity and reported qualitatively on how sharing the same experience during the sessions affected the parent-child bond positively, resulting in increased mutual trust and intensified discussions in which other family members could also be involved at home. The majority of these parents reported acting differently towards their child following the career intervention and related this change to perceiving their role differently. They tended to be less likely to push, pull or direct their child, and more likely to guide, stimulate and place the initiative and responsibility more with their child, not only in career but in other personal development areas as well. One year after the career intervention, the ‘both HE’ parents showed that they understood the need for their child to make a next career decision, felt the importance and urgency of this decision, and were actively involved in this process.
6.3.2 One HE

The motivation of ‘one HE’ parents to be involved in the career intervention was their need for current, up-to-date information on educational options, but they also tended to need assurance. This stemmed from lacking personal experiences with this type of secondary education and HE. They also felt that their child was not able to provide them with all of the information that they required. One year after the career intervention, some of these parents reported that they knew more ‘about the possibilities’ and what would come next, that the career intervention had worked out positively for their child and themselves, and that they were confident that their child was going to make ‘a good choice’.

‘One HE’ parents experienced an increase in their levels of information, and a decrease in their information, guidance and support needs. They increased their self-efficacy in making use of information, guidance and support tools to help in their child’s career development. Fifth-year parents also were less likely to want to ‘steer’ their children’s career. However, third-year parents showed fluctuating parental self-efficacy. After the career intervention, they felt more able to make use of information, guidance and support tools; but six months later, compared to their rating immediately after the career intervention, they felt significantly less confident in their knowledge and ability to support their child’s career development. These parents may have become less sure following the actual cluster choice-making which took place a few months after the career intervention.

As with ‘both HE’ parents, in the interviews the ‘one HE’ parents appreciated the career intervention for engaging them in the learning activity, for enabling them to share the same information and experiences with their child, for improving their parent-child bond and mutual trust, and for having led to more discussions at home.

In particular, some of the parents of whom one had attained HE qualifications emphasised that basically their parental role definition and their subsequent actions were not different from what they had been before the career intervention. Contradictorily, the majority of the ‘one HE’ parents tried not to direct, had more conversations, showed a sense of importance and urgency for the next career decision by their child, and were actively involved in this process.
6.3.3 No HE

‘No HE’ parents were less present in the third-year career intervention, which suggests that these parents were less aware of the importance and impact of early educational choices on their child’s career. Like ‘one HE’ parents, these parents were motivated to be involved in the career intervention mainly by their need to be reassured. They lacked experiences of their own with this type of secondary education and HE, and reported that their child was unable to provide them with the information that they needed.

The quantitative results showed that parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students in the third and fifth years increased their information level, though with differing patterns. In contrast with third-year parents, fifth-year parents decreased their information, guidance and support needs and increased their confidence in their knowledge and in feeling able to support their child. They gained confidence in themselves and in their child. The importance of this finding is that the nature of parental involvement that is most beneficial to their child is expressing confidence, providing guidance and supporting autonomy (Carter, 2002; Whiston and Keller, 2004), which leads to the development of self-directed career exploration by students (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006). There is evidence that this behavioural change was the case with ‘both HE’ parents, acknowledged by some ‘one HE’ parents and also by fifth-year ‘first-generation’ parents.

The needs of ‘no HE’ third-year parents in both information as well as guidance and support persisted, and the evidence points to the likelihood that these parents still felt that they did not ‘have’ all the information, skills or tools that they perceived they needed to help their child or to make an informed decision with their child.

Notably, ‘no HE’ parents did not provide any feedback on the career intervention approaches, and moreover did not report any impact from family learning or community interaction or any positive impact of the career intervention on the parent child interaction at home. They did not report any impact on their parental self-efficacy or on being re-assured. Just one of these parents reported acting differently to their child, due to knowing more about the opportunities since the career intervention and in having more conversations. However, the sense of urgency for
the next career step of their child and in being actively involved was less when compared to the other parent groups.

6.3.4 Subcultural differences within the school population

The value that parents made on the parental statements regarding their parental role, their beliefs about what they are supposed to do, and their behaviour that followed those beliefs, revealed significant differences of perspectives between the three groups of parents.

Particularly remarkable are the differences in the parental statements before the career intervention between ‘no HE’ parents and ‘both HE’ parents. Third-year ‘no HE’ parents showed a lower mean rank (r=0.20*) compared with ‘both HE’ for the statement ‘I am aware what are the strengths and weaknesses of my child’. Fifth-year ‘no HE’ parents showed a lower mean rank (r=0.23*) compared with ‘both HE’ for the statement ‘I wonder sometimes if my child has enough general knowledge and experience to make an appropriate cluster/study selection’. This evidence is in line with the literature reporting subcultural differences in terms of SES in parental role definition (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003).

After being involved in the career intervention, ‘one HE’ third-year parents showed less support for the statement ‘I would steer my child to other thoughts if I dislike a cluster, study or profession’, revealing a rethinking of their view on influencing their child. ‘One HE’ fifth-year parents increased their self-confidence: ‘I am sufficiently able to support my child in his or her cluster/study choice’.

The parental statement showing the most significant differences was ‘I am aware of what the strengths and weaknesses of my child are’. Six months after the career intervention, ‘both HE’ parents showed a medium to large increase in their support of this statement, while ‘no HE’ fifth-year parents showed only a medium increase.

6.3.5 Discussion

The impact of the career intervention differed for cases where both, one or none of the parents were HE-qualified, pointing to the likelihood that subcultural differences existed between groups of parents in this respect.

The pattern of persistent information, guidance and support needs after being involved in the career intervention among ‘one HE’ and/or ‘no HE’ third-year parents
is remarkable. It resembles findings in the Australian ‘Parents as Career Transition Supports Programme’ for parents of youth at-risk (12-15-year-olds preparing for transition to work or further education), which showed that 32% of all the participants still felt they did not know enough to help their child and 16% were not sure (Bedson and Perkins, 2006). Similarly, the ‘one HE’ and/or ‘no HE’ third-year parents in my research also indicated that they enjoyed the sessions and that following them they knew much more, but were unsure.

I suggest that these findings are consistent with wider research on educational inequalities explained by the secondary effects of social origin, which relate to educational decisions made in secondary education (Boudon, 1974). These decisions differ across SES groups, for which Breen, Van de Werfhorst and Jæger (2014) proposed the Relative Risk Aversion theory, combined with time-discounting preferences (i.e. horizon in making educational choices) as explained in Subsection 2.2.4. Parents with advantaged socioeconomic backgrounds tend to prefer their child to go on to HE, even if there is a risk of failure in HE, and tend also to look at the whole educational and work-career future that follows. In contrast, parents from less advantaged socioeconomic backgrounds are more averse to taking risks in relation to educational options they are not familiar with choosing, and tend to have a short-term horizon in relation to their child’s educational and work future. These secondary effects were found strongly in the transition from Dutch secondary education to HE, explaining for 81% to 94% the differences in HE choices among HAVO students (Büchner and Van der Velden, 2013). As explained in Subsection 2.2.4, this tentative perspective for the differences found in choices made by students is in line with the sociological ‘careership’ theory of career decision-making (Hodkinson and Sparks, 1997).

Van den Brink (2002), observing Dutch society over many years, found that differences in the degree to which Dutch citizens make up their own opinions on societal issues are significantly correlated with their level of education/training and their feelings of (in)security. His findings in his empirical study on citizens and citizenship “allows for an important conclusion: the less citizens have been educated/trained, the sooner they are subject to confusion or doubt normatively. Conversely, HE educated have little doubt about good or bad” (Van den Brink, 2002, p.67). Those who are insecure have little trust in ‘others’ socially, have substantive
doubts about ‘good and bad’ and tend to guard themselves with a preference to authoritarian politics (Van den Brink, 2002). Van den Brink is the first to present caveats to these rather ‘black and white’ perspectives. Nevertheless, his results could provide valuable perspectives on considering and adding understanding to the insecurity patterns found between the ‘one HE’ and ‘no HE’ parents in my research. It could also provide a plausible explanation for my qualitative finding that ‘no HE’ parents did not report on some success features of the career intervention as other groups of parents did: in particular, on the ‘engagement’ feature of the learning activity approach, the family-learning approach, or the ‘community- interaction’.

I suggest that these parents are quite new to consciously reflecting on communication and thoughts, meta-communication and active listening as offered in ‘Parents Turn’, as they had not had to learn and had not been trained to reflect on their own behaviour and its possible effects. This might explain why parents of whom one had attained HE qualifications were hesitant and rigid in observing another perspective on their parental role definition and the different actions based on that change. Also, lower-educated parents tended not to have an openness to or ‘fluency’ in reconsidering other parental role norms in helping and supporting their child in career development. In addition, it would be in line with my explanatory assumption that in the case of community interaction, these parents may have experienced that there was room for opinion and any shared values, ‘equality’ in the community but they did not experience authority in these shared opinions and values, and accordingly these parents subconsciously wanted to place the responsibility for career decision-making at the door of the school.

Finally, this might also explain why the feature of family-learning was not effective or was less so for this group: the meta-cognitive nature of the questions with which the parent-child pair had to practise were not only new to them, but also were not fully understood. Thus, these experiences could also not provide a base for continued conversations in the family and at home.

**Summary**

One contribution to knowledge in the field that I have demonstrated in my research is that important conceptual ideas relating to parental capacity in relation to their child’s career development can be observed and measured, that some aspects of these
constructs are malleable, and that it is possible to change or modify this parental capacity with a parent-involved career intervention of the nature we designed and delivered in ‘Parents Turn’.

Another contribution to knowledge in the field is the detailed insights into the differing impacts of the career intervention for groups of parents according to whether or not they were HE-educated themselves. The subcultural differences related to HE-level attainment were particularly observable in the results on parental role definition. Although the impact for ‘both HE’ parents showed least in quantitative terms, qualitatively these parents, and ‘one HE’ parents, praised the initiative and the approach by the school, benefitted from the community interaction and the family learning with a strengthened parent-child bond, and were open to change in their parental beliefs and actions to support their child by expressing confidence, providing guidance and supporting autonomy: the most beneficial parental involvement according to Carter (2002).

The quantitative findings with ‘one HE’ parents showed a significant increase in their level of information and a decrease in their guidance and support needs. However, parental self-efficacy initially raised and then declined with third-year parents, and some of these parents thought that their parental role definition and their subsequent actions were not different from what they had been before the career intervention. The ‘no HE’ fifth-year parents showed a comparable trend to ‘both HE’ parents. The third-year parents, however, persisted in their information, guidance and support needs, a pattern which – also found with ‘one HE’ parents – I interpret as unsureness. This interpretation is in line with the mechanisms of secondary effects of social origin, including risk aversion and time-discounting preferences, supported by a Dutch study (Van den Brink, 2002) which found subcultural differences of feeling sure, trusting others socially, normative stability and active societal engagement among parents with and without HE qualifications. If this is accepted, there are consequences for the parental involvement approach to be used with parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students.

6.4 School as context for the career intervention

Since 2000, Dutch secondary schools have had a unique role in career development as a consequence of CEG becoming mandatory and the only public career service.
External career services have faded away and nowadays only offer limited private availability, with little accessibility to individuals: only four per cent of the revenues generated in these former services originate from individuals and 16 per cent from educational institutes (Hughes, Meijers and Kuijpers, 2015). Consequently, most parents and students can only turn to the school for career services.

Students put their parents first in their process of career decision-making and position the school at a further distance compared to parents, confirming earlier findings both nationally (Schut, Kuijpers and Lamé, 2013) and internationally (McMahon, Carroll and Gillies, 2001; McMahon and Patton, 1997; McMahon and Rixon, 2007). However, an important addition to these findings is that in students’ perceptions, school and parents are not competitors but are complementary: the school provides professional and formal information, guidance and advice, while parents provide affective guidance and advice (Oomen, 2013c, 2016c). Gradually, in students’ eyes, parents are supposed to evolve from ‘tell their own experiences’ and ‘explore together’, to take on the role to ‘mediate for their child’s questions’ to the stage of ‘providing advice and/or an opinion’. Parents also perceive the role of the school in youngsters’ career development as complementary, as can be deduced from their information needs and expectations of CEG reported in this research (Subsection 5.6.3). The research literature states that lower-educated parents desire to separate home and school (cf. Denessen et al., 2001; Hornby and Lafaele, 2011), but my findings indicate that parent-school co-operation in matters related to CEG is expected by all parents, regardless of their educational level (Subsection 5.2.1). Thus, the role of the school in career development is both unique and important for students as well as for their parents.

In my study, the initiative by the school was not surprising for some parents, but it was strongly appreciated. Parents not only felt informed or re-assured, but by taking the lead in involving parents in the career decision-making of their child, the school activated both parents and students in the career decision-making process from an early stage. Through the career intervention the school created a platform in the school environment, and set an agenda and game rules for both parents and students, which was continued and extended afterwards at home, indicating the value of the school’s initiative.
As Warps (2013) found, CEG offered by the school is likely to be more effective if it includes an element of involving parents. This is not only linked to the policy rationale for preventing early school-leaving and drop-out, but also because the benefits of bringing together the three parties are both private and public, as this research has shown in Subsections 4.IV and 5.7.

In practice, however, schools find this kind of activity hard to handle. The longer-term outcome of this career intervention in the six schools was not what the career teachers and I were really hoping for: in four out of the six schools, the initial career intervention was not sustained (Subsection 5.7.2). Also, the career intervention proved harder to handle than estimated initially, as reported in Subsection 5.7.1.

As societies lack institutions that can support community interaction and family learning in the career field, parental involvement in CEG is pushed into the educational structure in most countries. The fact that schools seem to struggle with this – not only in my research, but around the world this seems to be the rule rather than the exception – indicates the need for stronger theory and research in this area.

6.4.1 Discussion: A system’s shift
I will start with a concise introduction to school systems theory as a backdrop to developing a deeper understanding of my observations on ‘Parents Turn’ over time.

In systems theory, a school is understood as a system, a whole, consisting of an interrelated set of elements, functioning as an operating unit (Senge, 2006). A school is an ‘open’ system, meaning that it interacts with the environment, which is composed of other systems in a superordinate whole. A school is both a community in its own right and part of a wider community.

Systems theory helps to see education as a (production) process: input, throughput and output (Biesta, 2010b). The ‘industrial perspective’ for this will be justified in Subsection 6.4.2. The inputs come from the environment: human resources such as staff, financial, physical and information resources. The throughputs refer to the transformation of the inputs to achieve the desired outputs, which include: (i) an operational sub-system, i.e. the interaction of ‘elements’ as teacher and students, with “students trying to make sense of what teachers are saying and doing and, through this, learning from their teachers” (Biesta, 2010b, p.10); (ii) an awareness
sub-system scanning the environment for opportunities and threats; and (iii) a monitoring and control sub-system for necessary adjustments of the system (Checkland, 1981). The outputs are the products of the transformation to the environment, which in social systems, such as schools, are the attainment of goals or objectives and fulfilling the raison d’être of the system.

A system receives feedback on inputs, throughputs and outputs, from within and between systems. The nature of the feedback is recursive: “nonlinear, acausal, mutual and multidirectional” (Patton and McMahon, 1999, pp. 162-163). In the educational system, students and teachers operate as reflexive agents who can act in numerous ways depending on their perception and interpretation, so that their feedback may alter the direction of the system (Biesta, 2010b).

Essential to a systems approach is an understanding of the feedback loops within a system: not a linear deductive sequence of cause and effect. According to Senge (2006), the structures of a system challenge the behaviours of its agents, which will lead to events. Only a structural method of explaining will lead to identifying the fundamental cause of a problem at the system level, as I will apply below.

Biesta (2010b) suggests that the key principle for managing an educational system lies in complexity reduction, i.e. reducing the number of ‘options’ for action for the ‘elements’ in the system. Openness and potential influences from outside can be reduced, e.g. by school buildings which isolate learning from daily life, and by time-tables setting temporal boundaries for the learning. The key way to reduce and control ‘meaning making’ of students is assessment and examinations, in which only those elements of schooling that are considered valuable are included. Reducing the recursivity of the system can be achieved by either blocking or controlling feedback loops in the operational sub-system, e.g. by teachers’ meetings or complaints procedures.

Returning to ‘Parents Turn’, at one level the career intervention looks like a modest intervention: schools are running a few classes after school, facilitating the parent-child communication and improving parental capacity. These features reduce the influences from outside for the school and make them controllable from a school system theory perspective.
But various factors inside the school turn the career intervention into a radical change for the school. Most of these can be found in the shared observations of the career teachers (with in italics my indication of the impacted operational sub-system factors fueling the feedback loops):

It is unusual to have, for any issue in the school: demand-driven sessions (communication), with parents and students together, voluntarily, interactive and with a sequence of sessions (pedagogy), with participation varying between 13 and 49 pairs of parents and students (scale).

To this can be added the facts that career teacher(s), tutors and other teachers as well as the department leader and older students were involved (co-ordination), and that the career intervention took place after lessons (day structure; budget), and with a variety of room and other technical requirements (operational systems).

By these ‘unique’ and cumulating factors, a different phenomenon appears in the operational subsystem, which challenges the limits of the complexity the schools can handle. This disrupts the school system, with the risk that it has to reformulate itself, and will counteract the disequilibrium with feedback to maintain a steady state. This feedback may come from various directions, such as tutors not showing up at all, teachers lacking time discipline, reluctant students and critical parents. Somewhere in the process, school management teams will pick up on the feedback loops with their own feedback in their role of monitoring and controlling the school system.

The nature of school management’s feedback differed among the schools, as reported by the career teachers. One school management team reacted by emphasising that “The career intervention should not hinder the cluster selection procedure”, which ended up with students making their definite educational choice by a certain date in order to enable the school’s next-year planning (groups, teaching staff, timetable and classroom requirements). Another school management team reacted by: checking if the school would be held accountable for parental involvement in CEG; questioning if the school should be involved in research; and complaining about workload and time investment – too many school staff had to be present, but had to participate too little in the programme. One school management team required a task description for the tutors and career teacher. All this is ‘balancing’ or stabilising feedback, with an attempt to delay or restrain the changes
taking place and to reduce or adjust the gap between the present state and the desired school goals. However, ‘reinforcing’ feedback – more movement in the same direction – could also be recognised: some school management teams desired a similar programme in other departments.

The proof that the limits of complexity were encountered in most of the schools came after the career intervention ended. Firstly, parents reported that the communication with the school stopped abruptly, with complaints about lack of communication. Secondly, school management teams decided on a (very) reduced parent-involved career intervention, whereby the nature of the intervention easily turned into the traditional information-centred session and the intended pedagogy got lost: the system archetype of ‘drifting goals’ (Senge, 2006).

The gain, or maybe the limit, in some experimental schools seemed to be the formula of ‘interactive sessions for parents with their child’. In these schools, children now accompany their parent(s) on parents’ evenings and there is an attempt at two-sided communication. The formula has been extended to CEG in other departments in the school and to other issues.

The failure of parent-involved career interventions in schools, despite their positive research results, seems quite common when reviewing the literature (Subsection 2.4.4). The story seems to be that parent-involved career interventions in schools are not sustained, as was the case with ‘Parents Turn’. This will be further elaborated in Subsection 6.4.2.

6.4.2 Discussion: the school/educational system

This experiment of a parent-involved career intervention as an educational innovation is an example of the ‘system’ as the silent and unacknowledged historical barrier to parental involvement. This system, as Henderson and Berla (1994) argued, has historically been organised along factory lines and this continues today. Senge (2012) depicts this industrial-age perspective in the present educational system, with the dominant archetype of a group of students of about the same age and academic proficiency working with one teacher in front, who does not co-operate or co-ordinate with a teacher from another subject. Watts (1983, p.9) cites Bowles and Gintis, who in 1976:
…have argued that in many key respects the structure and social relations of education accurately reflect and reproduce the structure and social relations of the work-place. Both are organised hierarchically; in both, alienated workers are motivated by extrinsic rewards (examination marks in school, pay at work); and in both, work tasks are fragmented.

This industrial-age picture can easily be recognised in Dutch secondary schools (WRR, 2013). While initially this way of organising was an effective way to serve children, approaches to education have changed and the introduction of ICT has accelerated these changes. However, schools are still organised in age and academic-programme groups of 30 students per class, traditionally in lessons of 50 minutes, between 8:00am and 4:00pm daily. The mandatory requirements are a demanding task for the timetable designer in each Dutch school: the number of teaching periods for students in the first nine years is 8,640 hours, far in excess of the OECD average of 7,570; full-time teachers have to teach 750 hours/yearly, against the OECD average of 643; and in the time-tables free periods for students are not favoured. School management deters or protects (Noordegraaf and De Wit, 2012) teachers from spending time on anything outside the core tasks of the school towards the students for whom they are held accountable.

Communication on CEG issues of schools with parents is usually limited to one or two non-personalised information-focused interventions in the academic year when an educational choice has to be made. Schools communicate both non-personalised and personalised information with parents via their child, written and/or orally. However, also parents in my research indicated that this preferred channel of the school is not trustworthy, as the child may forget or does not communicate that well with parents on such matters.

Schools may argue that the foundation for communication with parents on their child’s career development issues is the parents’ responsibility as long as they are minors. However, this perspective ignores the politically driven shift of responsibility for education from state and school to the family, a responsibility which is now shared by student and parents. School work is often a central focus in the parent-child relationship (Ule, Živoder and Du Bois-Reymond, 2015), as is career development (Young, Paselinkho and Valach, 1997). There can be tensions in this relationship:
parents feel the need to encourage and foster school progress, while adolescents have a growing need for autonomy (Backe-Hansen, 2005). On the other hand, some parents become the confidante and adviser of their child for personal, educational and career issues.

Dutch schools may claim that they already provide individually-based personal advice and conversations on students’ educational and career issues, referring to the individual parent-teacher-meeting (so-called ’10-minute conversations’) several times a year. However, parents reported these were all subject-progress based: not a single individual parent-teacher-meeting – including the conversation with the tutor – was about their child’s choice/career perspective. This can also be an explanation for the reported need for such conversations, as expressed by almost a quarter (28.8% in the third year and 21.3% in the fifth year) of the responding parents in the First Review (Appendix 1).

Parents now expect the school to have three-way conversations of parent-student-tutor/career teacher to share their perspectives, in other words, expect the school to have a holistic view on the choice and career development of each child. Despite my perspective on school staff as reflexive agents, the underlying dynamic of the school system, especially in secondary schools where dozens of subject teachers are involved, makes it understandable that tutors cannot live up to this parental expectation.

In other words, to involve parents in CEG instead of simply informing them can be realised, but it over-challenges the present school system. It is relatively easy to push a school through a project, but this topic is not a priority issue for schools. Thus, when the project is over, the apparent shift is undone, and schools revert to ‘normal’ conduct.

Since parental involvement is by nature an activity taking place outside the lessons, placing an extra burden on school staff, I would argue that parental involvement is not a priority issue for many schools in general (Griffith, 1998; VO-raad Monitoringscommissie Goed Bestuur VO, 2018) and in relation to CEG in particular. Secondary schools in general are not aware that school policies and practices which enhance relationships with parents and improve their level of satisfaction with their
child’s school are not only rewarding for young people but also assist schools in achieving their performance goals (Hampden-Thompson and Galindo, 2017).

Moreover, the present school/educational system is inflexible and counterproductive to parental involvement, and unable to adjust to societal developments regarding the shared family responsibilities for education and career development. To achieve parental involvement in CEG in the long run, some school/educational system change is necessary. I will explore what might drive the change on local and public policy level in Subsection 7.2.

Summary
Exploring the reasons for the lack of sustainability of parent-involved career interventions in general, and using the experiences in ‘Parents Turn’ as a case-study, the current school system as a barrier has been identified as a structural, systemic cause. Although such a career intervention seems quite moderate, various unique and cumulating factors in the school organisation give rise to a system’s shift which challenges the limits of the complexity schools can handle. School management commonly intervened to return to the ‘normal’ state. The systemic barriers are recognisable at school level as well as at education-system level.

Final conclusions
In this chapter, I have presented and discussed the most important findings that came out of the thesis.

The findings of the impact of the career intervention revealed three areas where parents benefitted from being involved in the intervention to help and support their child in career decision-making: their knowledge and skills; their self-efficacy; and their role definition. I discussed this finding and introduced the parental capacity construct in more detail.

My research demonstrates that a parent-involved career intervention in the academic streams of secondary education is feasible, and that it is possible to identify positive impacts on parents from such an intervention in relation to their ability to support their child in career decision-making. I focused on the specific features that made the career intervention effective pedagogically. I summarised these as: the learning-
activity approach, which is linked to adult learning; the family learning approach; and community-interaction.

A. significant finding in my research was that the impact of the career intervention differed for parents according to their own experiences with HE. Even before parents were involved, there were significant differences, and differences continued to be evident in the impact found for the various groups of parents. These findings were discussed in more detail in Subsection 6.3.

The last key-theme, the context in which the career intervention happened seemed critical to reflect on and discuss in order to develop a deeper understanding of why the career intervention was not sustained in most of the experimental schools and what seems to be the rule rather than the exception in the empirical literature. I discussed some of the challenges and limitations of such interventions and examined the difficulties of fitting them into school systems, and what this means for innovations related to parental involvement and ultimately for policy.
7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this study has been to gain an understanding of: (i) the involvement of parents in CEG in HAVO; (ii) the impact in general and the variations in impact of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ on the ability of parents to support the career development of their children; and (iii) the development of the schools’ capacity to deliver a sustainable parent-involved career intervention.

The red thread for my data analysis, drafting conclusions and recommendations is the purpose of my secondary analysis of the existing data, as indicated in Subsection 1.5.1: (i) to develop theoretical knowledge by describing the socially constructed realities as precisely as possible, giving a critical account of ‘structures’ and ‘agents’ as key features of the social world, but not as final answers to what reality is; and (ii) to contribute to the transformation of these behaviours.

I have critically reflected on my credentials as a researcher in Subsection 3.2 and on my choice of approach and tools in the subsections of Chapter 3. I have applied the criteria for reflexivity in Chapters 4, 5 and 6 to show both how I derived my findings from the data and my sensitivity to context. I also applied these criteria in this chapter.

In the secondary analysis of existing data, a mixed-methods approach was adopted. Although major research studies have been reported on parental involvement in general, fewer studies have been directed at secondary education, or have reported on parental involvement in CEG, or have had a focus on parents’ learning and their perspectives in these interventions. This study has provided insights into the parents’ capacity to be involved in and to influence their child’s career development during their secondary schooling, consisting of their knowledge and skills, their parental self-efficacy and their parental role definition in this area, which allowed for developing a construct of parental capacity. The key message from this inquiry is that a school-initiated career intervention involving parents, in the form of a learning-activity for adult learners, family learning and community interaction, can potentially build and enhance parents’ capacity to help and support the career development of their child. However, the career intervention works for different parents in different ways, related to their HE level of attainment. Moreover, one of the critical issues to think about in
relation to the sustainability of the career intervention is the context in which it takes place: the school and education system.

I start this chapter with a subsection in which I will restate my findings with conclusions under each of my research questions. This subsection is followed with recommendations for practice, policy and research respectively, as drawn from the data analysis and findings of my study.

7.1 Restating my findings and conclusions

7.1.1 Why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO?
A school could involve parents in CEG in HAVO for various educational and socio-political reasons:

i. to improve the efficiency of the educational system, with a focus on reducing drop-out and absenteeism (OCW, 2011b, 2013b) or on increasing students’ chances of making a successful choice of study in HE (Warps, 2013);

ii. to combat educational inequalities, with a focus on improving CEG for lower-SES and non-native students (OCW, 2016b);

iii. to acknowledge the parental influence on schooling decision-making as demonstrated in the research literature, to meet the desire of Dutch secondary school students to include parents structurally from the first year onwards in CEG (Schut, Kuijpers and Lamé, 2013) and to acknowledge the complementary key role for the school in the career development process as perceived by both parents and students (Oomen, 2013c, 2016c).

The findings in my research indicate that there are diverse reasons for HAVO schools to involve parents in CEG. All parents, whether both, one or none are HE-qualified, expected the school to co-operate with them in CEG.

Schools might be motivated by the fact that parents have their own needs in supporting their child in educational planning and career decision-making. Parents in HAVO have the greatest information and support needs during the year of the cluster selection, i.e. the third year of secondary school in the Netherlands.

Also, involving parents in a school-initiated career intervention raised their and their child’s awareness of the importance and urgency of exploring and preparing career decision-making well in advance. Both parents and students were activated to take
on their own role in the process, which appeared to put the school staff in one experimental school at ease.

A last reason why HAVO schools might seek to involve parents in CEG is, that by taking the lead through initiating a parent-involved career intervention, the school can seek to steer the career decision-making process going on in the school, and between parent and child at home.

7.1.2 What hinders and aids parents’ involvement in such career interventions?
This study suggests that the involvement of parents in the career intervention is influenced by the parents’ gender, parents'/mothers’ HE attainment, their life context, the parental capacity to be involved, their child’s birth order and parents’ perceptions of the school’s invitation. Vital for parents’ initial and continued participation in the career intervention was the willingness of their child to collaborate at the parent-school interface.

*Parents’ gender* is influential: mothers were found to have a particularly prominent role as initiators for involvement, advisers for future plans, and co-decision-makers in relation to the career decisions of their adolescent child(ren).

Early involvement was found to be negatively influenced by the *parents/mother not being higher-educated themselves*. Lower-educated parents are harder to encourage to participate in parental involvement activities (Jónsdóttir, 2013) and in career activities open to all parents (Katznelson and Pless, 2007), and tend to avoid plenary sessions with other parents (Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1997; cf. Semple, 1993). Their absence also seems to be related to lower awareness of the importance and impact of early educational choices on their child’s career development. Both – parents/mother lower-educated and less awareness of the impact of early educational choices – were factors that were to a greater extent present in the third-year intervention.

As part of the life context, *single parenthood* was found to be less of a barrier to parental involvement in the career intervention than might have been expected from the research literature. Single parents tend to focus on parental support at home opposed to parental involvement in school, due to the limitations on their time (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003); but they may have calculated their ‘gains’ from
being involved in the intervention in time or in being both informed as a parent and a student. However, immigrant and foreign-born families were barely present in the career intervention and in the review, which suggests that cultural factors influenced participation.

Involvement was found to be positively influenced by parents’ self-efficacy and their parental role definition if that incorporated being involved in the education and career development of their child. This finding is consistent with the research literature which suggests that the level of parental involvement is associated with parents’ perceptions of their role and their level of self-confidence in fulfilling that role (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

Involvement was found to be positively influenced by birth order. First-born children benefitted most from being involved in the career intervention. This may be explained by preferential treatment (Cabus and Ariës, 2014) and the fact that the educational and career choice procedures and options were also new to their parent(s).

In analysing what might be the reason(s) for the involvement of only a small group of parents at one experimental school, one finding (Subsection 4.1.1) was that the perception of the invitation to be involved by the school or teacher could be the explanation (Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1995, 1997). However, the rural site could also explain this, or (previously) dominant parents at parents’ evenings (cf. Semple, 1993).

(Un)willingness of their child to actively mediate in the parent-school relationship influenced parents’ decisions to get involved initially and to continue their participation in the career intervention. Some parent(s) had to talk with their child several times before the child accepted joining the parent(s). One parent withdrew/dropped-out from the sessions when her child showed resistance. This finding is consistent with findings in career research on the way that the relationship between parent and child can be continuously reconstructed (Young et al., 2001; Young, Paselinkho and Valach, 1997).
7.1.3 What is the impact of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ on the parents, and does this differ between the experimental and control groups?

Findings from parents involved in the career intervention differed significantly from those in the control group. These allow for the conclusion that, compared to the control group, the parental capacity of the parents in the experimental group to help and support their child’s career development in the short and longer term improved in several areas: their knowledge and skills; their parental self-efficacy; and their parental role definition. This is relevant as studies show that family/parents’ encouragement, emotional support and autonomy support influence their child’s maturity and career development (Carter, 2002; Whiston and Keller, 2004), which further supports his/her development of self-directed exploration (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006).

Parents reported that they developed parental knowledge and skills in career development. Parents’ information level increased, and their information needs decreased significantly on all items that were found through the needs analysis, and this happened earlier in the academic year compared to the control groups. Parents reported that the information they received was broader, was placed in a longer perspective and gave them new insights on topics related to career selection such as how to approach career decision-making. The control group reported an increased level of current information for limited issues only.

Parents increased their parental self-efficacy, including the self-confidence to be able: ‘to work with their child on a considered choice’; ‘to estimate their child’s labour market perspectives’; ‘to oversee the financial consequences’; ‘to be a fully-fledged conversation partner’; and ‘to be sufficiently able to support my child in his or her choice of cluster/HE course’. Parents experienced a significant decline in their guidance and support needs to support their child in career development. Only the parents in the experimental group increased significantly their parental self-confidence in being able to support their child. Over the academic year, all third-year parents, also including those in the control group, gained confidence in their child’s knowledge and ability to make career decisions.

Third-year parents were open to change aspects of their parental role definition. Participants developed insights into their own role which were reflected, for instance,
in parents’ awareness to turn to coaching their child and to stimulating their child’s autonomy instead of steering them, which may have a wider remit than career development. Parent-granted student autonomy is important as it leads to the development of self-directed exploration in career (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006). All parents were found to be talking more regularly with their child, and with more self-confidence, to support their child in career decision-making. The control group did not report any impact on their parental self-efficacy and parental role definition.

In contrast to the control group, parents in the experimental group experienced a positive impact of the career intervention on the parent-child bond and their interaction at home, which enabled them to discuss issues that parents thought out of bounds without the career intervention.

None of these behavioural outcomes of improved parental capacity were reported in the control group. Most parents involved reported having acted differently since the career intervention, mainly by having more frequent constructive career conversations with their child. Overall, among parents involved in the career intervention, clarity and a sense of urgency prevailed for the next career step.

Parents reported lasting behavioural changes, one year after the career intervention. They had more knowledge and understanding of the possibilities and consequences of choices of clusters for further and higher education. They had more conversations at home with their child about the career choices. But parents in both the experimental and control groups encouraged their child to orient him/herself actively, in which they participated for instance by joining them in open days or looking together for information on the internet.

Parents involved in the career intervention experienced co-operation from the school in the career decision-making of their child. The control group did not report having experienced co-operation with the school in career decision-making, although they reported proportionally more one-to-one conversations of student or parent with tutor/career teacher in the final stage.
7.1.4 Do parents who have not attained higher education qualifications themselves require more or different support from those who have attained higher education qualifications, in order to effectively support their children's career building?

About one-third of the participants of the career intervention across the third and fifth years were parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students, i.e. students with neither parent having experienced HE: this is very similar to the percentages found in Dutch HE enrolment. The two other groups found and compared were parents who had both attained HE qualifications, and cases where only one parent had attained HE qualifications. The findings for each of the groups were reported and discussed in detail in Subsection 6.3.

The findings allow for the conclusion that both the initial needs of parents involved in the career intervention and the impact of the career intervention itself differed significantly among parents of whom both, one or none had attained HE qualifications, in the areas of parental self-efficacy and parental role definition.

The initial needs of parents involved in the career intervention differed significantly. Parents who were both HE-qualified sought to be updated and to get an understanding of how the conditions for applying for clusters and HE studies had changed in order to support and help their child in career decision-making, while for lower-educated parents involvement in the career intervention was primarily serving their own assurance.

The career intervention impacted upon the level of parental knowledge and skills for all except the fifth-year parents who had both attained HE qualifications.

The career intervention did not impact upon parents’ self-efficacy in the case of parents where both or neither were HE-qualified. A fluctuating impact showed for third-year parents of whom only one had attained HE qualifications. The pattern of being unsure as a parent of how to make use of information, guidance and support tools to support their child’s career development persisted for third-year parents where one or neither were HE-qualified.

The findings also allow for the conclusion that before the intervention there existed significant subcultural differences in their parental role definition of being involved and supporting their child’s career development between parents of whom both, one
or none had attained HE qualifications. Parents who had both attained HE qualifications and fifth-year parents who were lesser-educated were impacted significantly by the career intervention. I have suggested that the contradistinction in some responses of parents of whom one was HE-qualified of the impact on their parental role definition could be related to the parental level of having learned and/or being trained in conscious reflection.

Despite the impact of the career intervention on their parental capacity, parents with lesser educational backgrounds remain unsure about their parental capacity. This can be related to findings in the research literature for lower-educated parents (Van den Brink, 2002), and about the mechanism of risk aversion and time-discounting preferences, which help to explain the secondary effects of social origin (Boudon, 1974; Breen, Van de Werfhorst and Jæger, 2014).

Parents without HE experiences benefitted less from the pedagogical elements of ‘engagement’, ‘relevance’ and the community-interaction component of the career intervention. I suggest that this is related to the unsureness in social affairs and contexts that has been found for lower-educated parents (Van den Brink, 2002), which makes them less open to the experiences, values, opinions of others. This might then be related to the findings of the extent of school-community closure (Burt, 1995; Coleman, 1988). I suggest that Dutch lower-educated parents encounter an unknown ‘equality’ in these sessions and not the authority in the ‘experiences, values, opinions’ they seek. It may be that they unconsciously want to place the responsibility for the ultimate decision with what they perceive as the authority in these matters and this context: the school.

Parents without HE experiences benefitted less from the family-learning component of the career intervention. I suggest this is related to the nature of the parent-child exercises in the career intervention, which assume reflective, meta-cognitive and active-listening skills, that these parents may not have learned or been trained in, since for example these skills were not necessary in their occupation. This may explain why these parents also benefitted less from the impact of the career intervention on the parent-child bond and/or at-home involvement.

Accepting these suggestions with the findings allows for the conclusion that parents who have not attained HE qualifications themselves require more or different support.
from those who have attained such qualifications, in order to effectively support their children’s career building.

7.1.5 What is the role of the school in enabling a parent-involved career intervention?
A school investing in communication, in parent-school co-operation and in enhancing parental behaviour at home may assume more student success at school (Jeynes, 2007, 2012; Hampden-Thompson and Galindo, 2017). However, the research literature in both parental involvement and careers work seems not to be convincing in this respect, but agree on its effectiveness in relation to (adolescents’ perception of) shown parents’ interest and stimulation to do well at school (Bakker et al., 2013) and expressing confidence, providing guidance and supporting autonomy (Carter, 2002), which leads to the development of self-directed career exploration by students (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006).

Reasons for involving parents in CEG were listed in Subsection 7.1.1. They included the explicit role a school can play in the career development of their students by taking the lead with a parent-involved career intervention.

Private benefits as found in this inquiry were detailed in Subsection 6.3, with a focus on parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students, with a conclusion in Subsection 7.1.3. Half of parents who were involved in three or more sessions of the career intervention had personal contact with the tutor or career teacher on the choice to be made, which is an improvement of around ten percent compared to a situation without ‘Parents Turn’-involvement. The career intervention led to a higher appreciation of the career provision, especially for ‘the exploration of the choice to be made’.

Alongside the private benefits, the school and all students also benefitted in the end (Subsections 4.IV and 5.7). These public benefits from the career intervention are all significant, but the effect size is small, which is consistent with earlier findings (Nechyba, McEwan and Older-Aguilar, 1999). Positive results for the school as an organisation included: career teachers reporting observable impacts on themselves as members of the school staff; an increase in the tutors’ competencies in CEG; and extending the formula of ‘interactive sessions for parents with their child’ from CEG to other departments in the school and to other subjects.
However, it proved hard for the experimental schools to continue the parent-involved career intervention, which is entirely consistent with previous findings (Subsection 2.4.4). A parent-involved career intervention in secondary education is an educational innovation and should be dealt with as such. This does not automatically imply the need for a whole-school approach. But I suggested that the composition of the school population is leading for the decision on the nature of the career intervention, which then will be decisive for the extent of the educational innovation within the school organisation. In the case of a school with a large population of lower-educated and/or non-native parents, a whole-school approach to parental involvement in CEG might be a sensible way forward.

7.2 Recommendations

7.2.1 Food for thought for practice
I should like my inquiry to be a basis for developing knowledge and support for professionals to look differently at practice by picturing problems and solutions and thus being enabled to transform their own practice (Biesta, 2007).

Parental involvement in CEG is not an easy undertaking and, as this study shows, can be a disrupting task for a school. It is also not a light challenge to take up: once the school makes a start with it, there is no way back without risking damage to the relationships with parents (e.g. third-year parents were particularly disappointed when the guidance and support offered by the school declined after the career intervention).

Thus, despite the fact that mandatory CEG is now the only public careers provision for Dutch students, and despite the OCW call for parents to be involved in CEG, I would plead that any school considers carefully beforehand what both ‘CEG’ and ‘parental involvement’ will mean for their school. Also, because the school staff’s role is to lead in this innovation, they should consider how to use external career professionals in a facilitating role.

It is worthwhile for anyone interested in picking up this educational intervention to add to it by taking on board my discussion and reflections as presented in Subsection 6.4. The parent-school relationship should not be reduced to a static series of concrete activities (Jeynes, 2010). Meeting Kirkpatrick’s twelve requirements of an
effective programme aiming at learning is one way forward (see Subsection 1.3.3). Following the four features for an effective parental engagement strategy as developed by Goodall and Vorhaus (2011) – planning, leadership, collaboration and engagement, and sustained improvement – is another. Below are some further suggestions based on what worked and what did not work so well in ‘Parents Turn’, and additional recommendations drawn from the analysis and findings from this research.

Planning
Planning means embedding the career intervention in a strategy. This includes having clarity upfront about the mutual role expectations and contribution of the school management, career teacher, tutor, teacher, parent and child in CEG. It means encouraging for instance an active attitude of parents in reacting to school invitations and participating in school activities throughout the school career of their child, as well as in this specific career intervention.

Setting the objectives for the career intervention demands a school or research organisation to be realistic: for instance to check if there are the financial resources to show that the career intervention will result in ‘better’ choices by the students involved. These objectives are to the fore in setting up the monitoring and evaluation of the private and public benefits of the career intervention. In addition, short, plenary and/or informal evaluation at the end of each session were informative and rewarding for school staff.

Parents should be enabled to take the sessions into account in their own planning. That is why, at least three months before the start, clarity about the dates and times for the career intervention is helpful, as well as what the career intervention involves and what is expected from participants.

The involvement of parents in CEG in HAVO should begin as early as possible. Parents in the third year have the greatest information, guidance and support needs. The overall impact of the career intervention was higher for third-year parents, who were open to changing aspects of their parental role, and who also acknowledged the impact of what had been learnt in the career intervention for the activities and decisions associated with their child’s next career step(s). Parents were talking more
regularly with their child and were more confident that their child had the knowledge and experience to make an appropriate career choice.

Specifically, attention to involving the parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students is important. Their parents/mothers need extra attention to make them aware of the consequences of early educational decisions for their child’s career development. Extra efforts seem needed to involve non-native families and students who, besides being unaware of these consequences, are less likely to attend parent-involved career sessions at school as they may have to overcome larger cultural and practical barriers to become involved. Sensitivity is needed to the circumstances of these ‘hard to reach’ parents: What do they want and need? Does the career intervention challenge them logistically, culturally, linguistically? What about flexible and individual arrangements?

Parents appreciate it if they feel that they are heard from the start. A comprehensive needs analysis among parents beforehand can be planned, and the results presented to them, as well as how their needs are translated, as the ‘red thread’ for the sessions of the programme. Also, students can be heard and motivated to be involved with their parent(s) by a similar needs analysis.

Participants could also be heard in another way: the group size must not deter participants from asking a question in a plenary, either because the group is too large or because it is too small. Fifty parent(s)-child pairs seem the absolute maximum to manage in this kind of session; ten pairs the minimum.

Leadership
This study made aware that a parent-involved career intervention requires distributed shared leadership between a senior manager and the career teacher(s). Together they work on establishing widespread support, commitment and ownership among the school staff and the wider school-community, e.g. the parents' council. The senior manager and career teacher will meet with the relevant school staff, who may question their involvement in the initiative (“Are we also supposed to do that?”) or be unwilling to communicate with parents and their children.

Also, school management may resist, as national politics and congruent (management) accountability are complex and tend not to favour activities outside
the current core business of schools. However, the commitment of school management throughout the process of planning, designing, delivering and evaluating the career intervention is needed. It is recommended to support the organisational learning (Subsection 7.2.2), both by improving leadership of school management as well as by facilitating the professional development of school staff.

A handy tool turned out to be a script for each session, detailing the ‘What?’ ‘How?’ and ‘When?’ This supported the leadership-role in the preparation, the time-keeping and the communication of expectations among the school staff involved.

**Collaboration and engagement**

The role of the school as an active and reactive agent includes initiating the contact with parents. This stage, with several steps as indicated in Table 28, is a precondition for the stage of establishing successful co-operation between parents, students and school.

An analysis and full understanding of what this ‘co-operation’ or collaboration entails as perceived by each of the three parties is necessary to create clarity and explicitness in mutual expectations. Collaboration:

- Offers the opportunity to communicate about progress both academic and in career development. A review is recommended of the traditional parent-teacher-meetings (‘10-minute conversations’) in terms of whether they meet the career-development objectives adequately according to teachers, parents and students. If not, schools may develop the courage to replace one or more of these meetings with a parent-student-involved career intervention like ‘Parents Turn’.
- Involves two-sided communication, oral and written: in general; about what the school offers in CEG, and what can be expected from the school and what the school expects from parents in this respect; about school procedures and decisions in CEG; and insights into how the school perceives what is feasible, optimal and challenging for each child. This communication can be supported by ICT. Both parents and teachers may see it as an advantage to be able to communicate at any time convenient to them, without eroding the border between home and school (Grant, 2011).

Communication opportunities also include more flexible and individual arrangements for some ‘hard to reach’ parents, minimising barriers in the contact between parents,
child and school as indicated under ‘Planning’ above. At school, this includes the preparation of school staff to make contact, communicate and facilitate the parent-student-school co-operation. Additional competencies for career teacher and tutors are needed in CEG (Oomen, 2013b, 2016b) and for teachers in general to engage effectively with parents. CEG, tutoring and conversations with parents (especially with their children present) are not part of initial teacher training. It is not only about having the right approach to engaging parents, but also about attitudes. Teachers can feel uncomfortable with parents with a lower SES and/or different cultural-ethnic background (Bakker et al., 2013).

The school can be supportive of the child’s mediating role to enable the involvement and the engagement of both parents and students. It might be useful to raise the interest of students in being involved in such an intervention (Deslandes and Bertrand, 2005). It is recommended to inform and motivate students to be actively involved, and to do this by gathering and analysing their needs and interests in the co-operation between parents, school and student in their career development. Reluctance on the part of the child, pointing to the continuous restructuring of the parent-child relationship in actions that both undertake in career development (Young et al., 2001; Young, Paselinkho and Valach, 1997), was found in the research to be a barrier to staying involved in ‘Parents Turn’. Taking stock of the needs of the students could be combined with exploring how students can invite their parents to assist them (Deslandes and Bertrand, 2005) in, for instance, CMS development.

Proactive collaboration and engagement include acknowledgment of the continuous restructuring of the parent-child relationship in adolescence, by inviting parent(s) and their child to participate voluntarily. Also, during the sessions, it is important to stay sensitive to the parent-child bond and aim at empowering both the parent(s) and the child.

Engagement also means thinking over and planning the active contributions that each parent can make in the programme.

CEG has a role to play in enhancing the self-efficacy of lower-educated parents in particular. This could be enhanced in delivering a career intervention such as ‘Parents Turn’ by paying attention to their specific needs. Suggestions include demonstrating every exercise that involves active listening and, supported by model
student feedback, discussing the outcomes with parents. ‘First-generation’ HE students and their parents could have benefitted more from the career intervention if, being aware of the community-interaction dimension in their learning, a higher number of successful local ‘models’ of (parents of) ‘first-generation’ HE students had been introduced deliberately into the career intervention. This would provide the opportunity to discuss extensively the decrease in the enrolment of ‘first-generation’ HE students and the changes from the scholarship system to a social loan scheme in relation to the ‘What?’, ‘How?’ and ‘When?’ of risk-taking. Also, in the case of enhancing the self-efficacy of lower-educated parents, personal contact between the parent(s), student and tutor/career teacher is a sine qua non. Whether it is a whole-school or an incidental approach such as ‘Parents Turn’, school staff performing these interviews should be aware both of the secondary effects of social origin in relation to the parent/student(s) and of the tertiary effects of social origin in relation to themselves and their colleagues (Subsection 2.2.4).

**Sustained improvement**

Ongoing support, monitoring and development are needed for sustained improvement and will be presented as recommendations for local and public policy in Subsection 7.2.2. This includes the provision of collaborative continuing professional development (CPD) (Kennedy, 2011) for career teachers/leaders to strengthen the work with parent(s) and their child, to build ownership, to strengthen career teacher leadership and to arrange professional learning communities (PLCs) between schools. Tutors and career teachers should be prepared to have a needs-based parent-student-teacher meeting starting from the child’s career perspective, for which a strategy with ILPs and concurrent student-led parent-student-tutor conferences may be a way to progress.

Communication with parents after the career intervention tends to lapse. ICT can provide a convenient and powerful means for parents to access up-to-date information on educational opportunities in (and outside) school, the CEG offered and contact with the tutor or career teacher.
7.2.2 Reflections for policy

In education ‘What works?’ is rarely the right question, because everything works somewhere, and nothing works everywhere, which is why in education, the right question is, 'Under what conditions does this work?' (Williams, 2016)

In Subsection 6.5, I argued that parental involvement in CEG is viewed by schools as an additional option and not as something that is strictly necessary. When it is executed as the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’, it is in tension with the ‘normal’ school system and so can be perceived as a radical change. In order to address this, there is a need for policy interventions which shape and shift the school system. First, I will discuss the policy at the school level, before focusing on policy at the national level.

School-level policy

The question can be asked: How could ‘Parents Turn’ as an innovative educational innovation have benefitted from other activities/strategies to address the challenges presented to school systems and to ensure the sustainability of the parent-involved career intervention?

Collaborative CPD between the career teachers of the six schools was chosen as the option for this educational innovation. The involvement of the career teachers in the design of the career intervention aimed at achieving their ‘ownership’ for changes in their own praxis and for the design and development of change processes in their school (Bergen and Van Veen, 2004). The latter was ‘secured’ by written agreement with school management for this R&D project; school management were only met during the introductory session for the R&D project.

There are many ways to develop the craft of teachers, including career teachers. Less preferred and unsuccessful (Fullan, 2000; Hargreaves and Goodson, 2006) are those large-scale educational interventions or reforms which are characterised by a Research, Development and Diffusion (RDD) approach, in which educational reform is conceived as a planned, systematic and purposeful process with strategic considerations aimed at improving the quality of education.

Nowadays, tailored interventions in policy and professional development are preferred. This approach combines a top-down approach with a bottom-up approach
in which local and school-based initiatives are encouraged. Educational innovation is no longer viewed as a rational process but rather as a process in which the subjective experiences and personal beliefs of the educational staff influence the innovation. Facilitators of the educational innovation will bring these beliefs and experiences ‘to the surface’ and elaborate them among staff in the direction which is desired, supported and feasible.

Individual and organisational learning of ‘new behaviour’ (cf. Argyris and Schön, 1974; Senge, 2006) is targeted through CPD in differing forms (e.g. conferences, workshops, seminars, training sessions, networks, observation, study trips), so as to meet the various individual learning preferences of trainees, supported by guided reflection on their experiences. Part of this CPD could be to strengthen the role of teachers in parental involvement working towards: (i) a positive, unbiased attitude towards all parents; (ii) open and transparent communication on mutual expectations; (iii) providing concrete, practical advice and a clear dedicated call to support their child; and (iv) frequent contact with parents on their child’s progress, supported by ICT (Bakker et al., 2013).

The development of a professional learning community (PLC) in education is the consequence of the finding that organisational improvement is closely linked to the ties within and across systems (McGrath and Krackhardt, 2003; Tenkasi and Chesmore, 2003). PLCs aim to build school and teacher capacity, and to increase communication, collaboration and collective learning among teachers within and across grade levels (Stoll and Seashore Louis, 2007) and even across a group of schools. The capacity building in PLCs at personal, interpersonal and organisational level – social capital – is considered an important pre-requisite for a school’s ability to change and sustain improvement. De Jong (2010) found that from a social capital perspective not ‘bonding’ (e.g. same department) or ‘bridging’ (e.g. different teams) (cf. Putnam, 1995, 2015) but ‘linking connections’ (i.e. bringing together people with dissimilar backgrounds, with interesting and valuable knowledge from outside) are key to achieving improvements, innovation, products, services or work processes.

‘Parents Turn’ as an educational intervention could have benefitted from more emphasis on organisational learning. Observing the challenges of the career intervention at school systems level, and a more intensive involvement of school
management, either collaborative or on site, aimed at improving leadership capacity, are recommended. Leadership by the career teacher proved not to be enough in ‘Parents Turn’: leadership by school management as agents of change is also important (Andrews and Hooley, 2017).

Fullan (quoted in Malone, 2012) suggests that the main driver for school leaders as critical agents of change is helping teachers’ learning – understood by me as developing their craft – by participating themselves as learners, i.e. in participatory leadership. This is reinforced by human resources policies that push in the same direction: building social capital with teachers (Daly et al., 2010) focused on learning, monitoring, feedback, and corrective action. As a next step to accelerating the rate of change, additional (facilitated) site meetings with school staff involved in the career intervention are recommended to grow support and ‘ownership’ of the career intervention at site level.

Essential for ambidextrous organisations, which strive to combine innovation and efficiency, is that as a measure “– let us say – about 80% of the employees quite regularly participate in the conversation of the what, the how and especially the why of the organisation” (Leenheer, 2017, p.14). A temporary, separate structure in such organisation is usually considered a means to develop and resource an initiative, with the goal to link and reintegrate with the mainstream as soon as possible (Birkinshaw and Gibson, 2004).

I take the position that school staff should lead a parent-involved school-based career intervention, as parental involvement organised by the schools themselves is more effective than programmes imposed from outside the school (Pomerantz, Moorman and Litwack, 2007). External career professionals can play a supplementary role in designing and executing the career intervention. This supplementary role may vary from a plenary presentation on specific know-how, such as how students make career decisions or financial consequences, to enabling and supporting organisational learning in the school(s).

One step public policy could take is to have this improved educational innovation ‘Parents Turn’ ‘repeated’ on a much larger scale in PLCs, alongside a research agenda. A second step is a whole-system reform, which will be discussed in the next Subsection.
Public policy
Parental involvement in CEG is important and it is possible to develop a strong case for supporting it (Subsection 7.1.1). Policy-makers should be aware that the cooperation of parents and school in students’ career development is not automatic and should be encouraged more actively.

The Dutch Inspectorate of Education (Inspectie van het Onderwijs, 2016a, 2017), Statistics Netherlands (CBS, 2016b) and research by De Beer and Van Pinxteren (2016) show that Dutch society is not a meritocracy: an individual’s place in society is still determined heavily by ancestry rather than on merit. Higher-educated parents have more capacity to support their children; their children appear to be more successful in secondary education and have a better chance to enter a profession with a high status. Not all parents can provide the supposedly necessary parental support in the parent-child relationship as showing in adolescent’s perceived interest in and stimulation to do well at school, their family/parents’ encouragement, emotional and autonomy support influencing their maturity and career development (Carter, 2002; Whiston and Keller, 2004), which further supports their development of self-directed exploration (Bryant, Zvonkovic and Reynolds, 2006). Understood as the competence for ‘good parenting’, this is often not attainable for unprivileged parents (Lareau, 2011). Parents may not be able to support their child due to structural factors such as unemployment or migrant status (SER, 2015). Thus, parental support of the child has become a further source for the reproduction of social difference and social injustice (Golombok, 2008).

The secondary school, in providing parental involvement in CEG, can play an important and distinctive role in compensating “for the lack of relevant tacit knowledge and cultural capital within the home” (Sweet and Watts, 2006, p.25) of ‘first-generation’ HE students and their parents. There is a case for public policy to take parental involvement in CEG more seriously as one means of combatting social injustice with a whole-system reform.

In striving for a whole-system reform in parental involvement, some international lessons can be drawn upon. In such a reform, policy and strategy levers are the chosen drivers to achieve the desired results. However, as Fullan (2016) argues,
some drivers are inadequate in accomplishing reform, as they discourage intrinsic motivation and do not enhance capability across the whole system.

Table 29: Pairs of drivers in whole-system reforms (adapted from Fullan, 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy and strategy levers in whole-system reforms</th>
<th>Wrong driver</th>
<th>Good driver</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>Using (external) test results, and teacher appraisal, to reward or punish teachers and schools</td>
<td>Capacity building: professional learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership quality</td>
<td>Promoting individual solutions</td>
<td>Promoting group solutions: changing social capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Investing in and assuming that the digital world will carry the day</td>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td>Fragmented</td>
<td>Integrated or systemic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These ‘wrong drivers’ of whole-system reform can be matched to more effective (for whom and what, cf. Biesta, 2015a in Subsection 3.2.4) ‘good driver’ alternatives, which meet those criteria and are outlined in Table 29.

In the previous Subsection, I described how the capacity building, professional learning and the promotion of group solutions could be reached, and in Subsection 6.2 I outlined the importance of pedagogy.

‘Wrong’ drivers do have a place in a reform, but it is a mistake to make these drivers lead the educational innovation in the whole system. From this perspective, the Dutch government is recommended to consider:

- regulating parental involvement in mandatory CEG (adapting WVO, Clause 86 (1.e) on CEG, adding: “for students and their parents”);
- making parental involvement (beyond informing) in CEG, both in policy and practice, an issue in the inspection framework of the Dutch Inspectorate of Education for (primary), secondary education (and MBO) published in August 2017, to assess secondary schools against;
- engaging the sector organisation, VO-raad, in making parental involvement (beyond informing) in CEG part of the public reporting of any secondary school on the website www.venstersvo.nl, and involving parental involvement in CEG in its questionnaires for both students and parents; and
- rethinking the implicit supposed co-operation of teachers and parents in most recent CEG plans (OCW, 2016b) and its fragmented strategy of involving parents
in CEG in education – in one-third of Dutch HAVO and VWO schools, nothing at all is provided for parents that is directly CEG-related (Warps, 2013).

However, as Fullan (2016) argues, the emphasis should be on policy drivers of capacity building of leadership in (career) teachers and school managers: group (social capital) building among those ‘peers’ involved within and across schools and outside the schools, into initial teacher training, into career teacher associations and into school leaders’ training and associations. ICT can be used to accelerate the processes in all schools that are engaged in improving practices in parental involvement in CEG.

The Dutch policy recommendation to increase the role of parents in CEG is as yet a fragmented strategy: an unfocused effort without any obligation, any link to CEG policies or any follow-up. This study provides some insights to rethink both the importance and the focus of this policy. It makes a difference if the policy aims to counteract the primary or the secondary effects of social origin, as the nature of these processes in parenting differ. Awareness and knowledge of cultural differences in parenting are crucial for policy-makers. What is expected of non-native parents/families? The policies created to involve them and/or eliminate social injustice may not fit well with their parenting style and cultural norms, which are likely to differ from the dominant native model.

‘Parents Turn’ impacted upon the parental self-efficacy of higher-educated parents in supporting their child’s career development. I have suggested that two mechanisms in secondary SES effects – risk aversion and time-discount preferences – may explain why this did not happen to the same extent for parents where one or neither had attained HE qualifications. Acknowledging both the importance of improving parental self-efficacy, and combating secondary effects of social origin, provides a valuable and unique perspective to underpin parental involvement in CEG in (secondary) education. The importance and urgency of rethinking the role of schools is there, at least in the Netherlands, because of changes in the political context, acknowledging educational inequalities. Such a focus has the consequence of promoting a broader, short- and long-term-oriented content in career interventions, both with students and parents, apart and together, and especially with those who –
in the eyes of school staff – have trouble in making ‘realistic’ assessments for educational choices, i.e. ‘first-generation’ HE, non-native students and their parents.

Current Dutch policy in parental involvement in general focuses on teachers (personal communication, E. Denessen, 8 December 2016), on their attitudes and skills to be open to parents’ views and ideas on education and parenting. Practitioners who work with non-native young people need to be sensitive to cultural differences in parents’ behaviours and expectations. However, this also means that understanding and combating the tertiary effects of social origin via teachers, such as stereotyping, still does not get the public policy attention that is needed.

7.3 Implications for future research
If the careers work community really wants to nail down the impact of involving parents in CEG, then a number of steps need to be taken. These include investigating the features of schools that are good at involving parents in CEG through family-learning, as well as what kind of policy (incentive, regulation) might be able to change schools’ behaviour, to provide through parent-involved career intervention life/career opportunities for (disadvantaged) students with a life course-perspective.

It is important not only to implement the parent-involved intervention, but also – wherever possible – to research it. Below are some challenges relating to trustworthiness in the findings of the research that has been reported here.

Design, scale, drop-out and quality
The research could have been run more systemically. Gorard (2014; Gorard and See, 2013) proposes that a larger sample of parent(s)-child pairs is needed, where care needs to be taken to ensure that the characteristics of experimental and control schools are similar, and that the latter group is ‘blinded’ as far as possible. Ideally, the concern of researcher(s) should not simply be whether the intervention works or not, but finding out whether, how and why it works or not.

These requirements can be met, although I doubt the feasibility of the suggested sample size of around 1,000 parent-child pairs or more. I also argue that the design and delivery of parent-involved interventions need inclusion criteria for the schools, school management and career teachers involved, including their willingness to
participate. The design of the intervention should be based on the actual needs found among parents. Moreover, the career teacher(s) and school management should be involved in the design of the intervention they deliver at site-level, to achieve ownership of the career intervention. A clear intervention can be designed with variation in delivery to take account of the variety in facilitators across the schools.

I also recommend researching the students involved from the beginning, including parent-child pairs that are not involved in the intervention at all and/or drop out. Unfortunately, this was not the case in my inquiry.

In future research, I recommend looking at drop-out rates and at the reasons for these drop-outs in parent-involved career interventions for comparison purposes.

My recommendation is to use the construct of ‘parental capacity in the career development of their child’ and the sub-constructs as presented in Subsection 6.1. I have generated some items and have validated them (see Appendix 13). These items could be useful for future research, particularly in the Dutch context. It also might provide a useful basis for researchers who are looking at these issues in other contexts. However, they will obviously need to be revalidated, because there are several culturally specific factors in operation here.

Data quality
Another criterion suggested by Gorard (2014) relating to trustworthiness in the findings of a research is data quality. He recommends the use of “an outcome measure, such as a test of student learning, that is standardised, independent of the innovators of the intervention, and has real-world meaning” (Gorard and See, 2013, p.8).

Overall, it is questionable whether the construct of ‘parental capacity in the career development of their child’ could be developed into an outcome standard/standardised test, assuming the items carry the same meaning across cultural contexts. One of my findings is that opinions and ideas about the parental role in their child’s career development are textured with (local) collective differences within the same national cultural values. I have suggested that further research may benefit by including a community characteristic in terms of closure. I have
recommended the use of the Jonckheere-Terpstra test dealing with revealing trends in cultural differences.

In my case, I differentiated between parents who had or had not attained HE qualifications, which I would recommend as a criterion to be used in further research related to educational inequalities. In such inquiries, I would emphasise strongly the importance of researching the persistent need for information, guidance and support, suggesting the uncertainty of parent(s) where one or none are HE-qualified themselves. I assume this can be related to risk aversion and time-discounting preferences, which can explain secondary effects of social origin on attainment and educational goals. Such evidence would be a major step forward to strengthen the position of career guidance/CEG in policy and practice contributing to combatting social injustice.

Gorard (2014) shares with Bakker and Denessen (2007) doubts on data quality collected with questionnaires related to trustworthiness in the findings of a research project, as reported in Subsection 1.4.1. I followed up on the suggestion by Bakker and Denessen (2007) to use more qualitative methods, such as for instance in-depth interviews, for measuring parent involvement and accounts of their behaviour.

The qualitative data in my research provided insights in the differing needs of parents with and without attainment of HE qualifications. It also provided a base to understand how the pattern of unsureness, found in the quantitative research, impacted upon their learning experiences.

However, for the element of ‘parental knowledge’ in my quantitative research, by comparing the experimental and control groups, my findings suggested that parents do not know what they do not know and so still can be satisfied to the same extent with what the school offers them. Parents in the fifth-year control group hardly raised their information level, but still were satisfied with what the school had offered, at a level comparable to the level of satisfaction in the experimental schools. The element of ‘parental self-efficacy’ in my research enabled me to show that the career intervention impacted upon parents’ self-efficacy, although this was very high from the beginning.
I advocate continued quantitative research in this area, while being aware of its shortcomings, together with qualitative research to enrich the understanding of the findings. So, if it fits the research questions, my recommendation is to mix methods in research on parental involvement in CEG.

**Fidelity of intervention**

The trustworthiness requirement of the intervention to be simple and not mix its research with other elements of change (Gorard and See, 2013) is a real challenge. Parental involvement in education reflects the complexity of families themselves: multifaceted, multidimensional, and constantly changing (Patrikakou, 2008). Added to this, parental involvement in CEG is a relatively new area with only a handful of reported and researched experiences internationally. In addition, account needs to be taken of my finding that addressing this area can disrupt the present school system. Being part of an ongoing, larger research cycle in a whole-school approach to parental involvement, working towards an evaluation, might be a way forward.

Finally, a focus on the micro- and meso-level of parental involvement, such as for instance behavioural aspects of parents as indicators, and the teacher-level orientation of much Dutch research, hinders perception at the macro-level both of barriers for parental involvement in CEG, and of the demonstrable impacts of parental involvement in CEG, at systems level. I have elaborated on this in Subsection 7.2.

**My journey**

Over the course of doing this PhD, I have felt enriched by insights into the mechanisms of international and Dutch education. I was surprised by the fragmentation of the knowledge on parents’ role and involvement in their child’s educational and career decision-making. I also wondered why so little research on parental involvement took parents’ perspectives and experiences into account. Doing the PhD has enabled me to think through my experiences in working life. The project has trained my critical and analytical thinking in general, identifying various perspectives on the issues in my research and enlarging my own personal cultural awareness. In particular, the puzzle of probing explanations for the patterns of unsureness found with lesser-educated parents intrigued me. Doing my PhD has made me read the research literature and evaluate research findings more critically.
It has exercised my line of reasoning through to its logical conclusion, checking for bias or unfounded assumptions. The project has also made me much more appreciative of an MMR approach: each is unique and complementary for understanding complex phenomena.

**Last thoughts**

In my thesis I have come some way in proving some new things to be true. It is important that future practice and research in the careers community includes a focus on the role of parents and continues to engage with ways of improving their abilities to support their child in career development while also granting their child autonomy, and empowering schools in engaging their students’ parents in the CEG they offer.

**Word-count: 95,282**
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Needs analysis for ‘Parents Turn’ (learning requirement i.)

To get an understanding of the needs of parents, a needs analysis was carried out in the experimental schools. The needs analysis consisted of two parts: a baseline or 0-measurement among the potential participants in the career intervention (second and fourth year HAVO in 2011-2012); and a First Review among the parents of the past year that had gone through the decision-making procedures without the intervention (third and fifth year HAVO in 2011-2012).

The results of the needs analysis were indicative and constructive for the development of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’. The First Review could reveal strengths and weaknesses in the current careers provision of the school; it enabled the comparison of parents without and with the intervention one year later.

Results for the 0-measurement: closed-ended questions

The parents in this baseline measurement (n=145 for E3, i.e. the experimental group of the third year; n=115 for E5, i.e. the experimental group of the fifth year) indicated that their current career information level is insufficient and that they needed further information on the following: the different clusters, consisting of a common core of subjects plus some optional subjects; the (vocational) possibilities; financial implications; and employment prospects of the clusters/HE courses between which their child is going to make a choice. Almost all (95.9%, n=139) of the E3 parents felt they had a high need for information on HE possibilities. The E3 parents were divided on the question as to whether or not they could find more information about clusters, while E5 parents indicated that they felt sufficiently aware where to find more information on HE courses. Of the E3 parents 77.2% (n=12) and of the E5 60.9% (n=70) felt they had a moderate to high need for information on personal support in the career of their child.

Three-quarters (75.2%) of the E3 parents indicated a moderate to strong need for guidance and support ‘to be able to talk with the career teacher or tutor’, while close to three-quarters (72.4%) said that they needed guidance and support ‘to be able to encourage the child to explore actively’ and 72.4% ‘to be able to stimulate the development of CMS’. 
Just over two-thirds of the E5 parents indicated a moderate to strong need for guidance and support ‘to be able to talk with the career teacher or tutor’ (67.8%), and ‘to be able to encourage the child to explore actively’ (66.9%) while 59.2% said that they needed guidance and support ‘to be able to stimulate the development of CMS’.

To a lesser extent (64.1%) E3 parents indicated that they needed guidance and support ‘to be able to talk about the child's strengths and weaknesses’. The same trend was noticed with E5 parents: only 48.7% indicated they needed guidance and support ‘to be able to talk about the child's strengths and weaknesses’.

Just over half (53.1% for E3 and 53.9% for E5) of the parents felt they had no or little need for support to enter into conversations with their child at home about the choice of course in HE, occupations and career.

**Results for the 0-measurement: open-ended questions**

In response to the open-ended question on their needs, parents requested the following:

- More or specific information (seven respondents in E3, eight in E5).
- “Insights into the CEG programme” (three respondents from both E3 and E5).
- “Independent information resources such as those by careers service” (three respondents in E3, two in E5).
- “A personal conversation for the parent and child with the tutor/career teacher” (two respondents in E3, four in E5).
- “Tools and hints in personal support of child” (three respondents from both E3 and E5).
- Observing “decision-making difficulties with child” (two responding parents from both E3 and E5 (1.7%).

**Summary**

In the baseline measurement, the information needs of potential parents for the career intervention were high in the traditional, short-term awareness areas. These parents also had expectations beyond, with expressed needs that were longer-term and broader in scope than are usually addressed within a plenary one-off information session in the third or fifth year, but which these parents had not experienced yet. To a lesser extent there was an expressed need for and expectations regarding tools...
and hints to support and stimulate their child in various areas. Communication with school staff was felt to need improvement.

Results of the First Review: closed-ended questions
The parents in the First Review were parents, who had gone through the career decision process without the career intervention in the previous year (n_{E3firstreview}=111 for the third year; and n_{E5firstreview}=80 for the fifth year). Their satisfaction with the career provision at their child’s school was assessed on a 5-point Likert scale. They were asked what issues needed more attention, and what advice they had for the school in preparing parents and their child for the choice to be made.

In general, these parents were satisfied with the career provision at their child’s school for ‘being made aware of the consequences of choices’, ‘the communication on the choice selection’, ‘encouragement of their child to orient actively’, ‘reflection on awareness activities’ and ‘the degree of responsibilities’ given to their child by the school in his/her choice: median (Mdn) = 4.00, interquartile range (IQR) = 3.00 - 4.00. (Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree, 5 = strongly disagree.) The rank-ordered data set was divided in four equal parts: quartiles. The statistical dispersion is indicated by the IQR, being the middle of the upper (4.00) and the lower (3.00) quartile. The Mdn indicates the central tendency, calculated by subtracting the lower from the upper quartile. A Mdn of 4.00 means that most parents agreed with the statement, such as for instance, ‘I am aware of the consequences of the choice made by my child’.

More First Review parents in the third year HAVO were satisfied with the information provided by the school to make a considered choice with their child (Mdn = 4.00, IQR = 3.00 - 4.00); fewer First Review parents in the fifth year were satisfied (Mdn = 3.00, IQR = 2.00 - 4.00). Parents of both years indicated that they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the encouragement by the school of them as parents to enter into conversations with their child (Mdn = 3.00, IQR = 2.00 - 4.00).

On a ten-level Likert scale, similar to the Dutch marking system in schools, the First Review parents at the experimental schools rated the careers provision as satisfactory (Mdn = 7.00, IQR = 6.00 – 7.00). However, in general the ratings by the parents of the fifth year were lower, showing in the IQR (Mdn = 7.00, IQR = 5.00 – 7.00), meaning that they were less satisfied.
Results of the First Review: open-ended questions

Two issues were apparent in the parents’ advice to the school and on what needs more attention.

1. Communication with parents in general.

Despite the apparent satisfaction reported above about ‘the way information was communicated on the choice selection by the school’, 25 (22.5%) third year respondents in the First Review identified procedures that they were unhappy with:

“The one-sided organisational decisions by the school on which clusters and optional subjects are being offered.”

“Lacking transparency of the selection advice procedures by the school.”

“Carefulness in how the school decisions are being communicated with the parents”.

Thirty-two (28.8%) respondents of the third year and 17 (21.3%) respondents of the fifth year in the First Review emphasised the need to have “a personal conversation with the tutor, parents and child on the cluster selection or HE course selection.” As part of such a conversation, six (5.4%) respondents of the third year and 18 (22.5%) of the fifth year explicitly advised the need for “personal advice from the school.”

Various parents expressed their feeling of being sidelined and hardly being involved in CEG by the school. The following examples serve as evidence:

“As a parent one is involved very little.”

“It’s hard for children to make up a picture of the future. Parents can be of value with that. Parents aren’t very involved in the selection process. Children do that in school and at the end of the ride there is rolling out of a cluster choice.”

“The school puts down the choice with the student and the students are supposed to inform their parent(s).”

“If the child shows or tells little, the parent does not know about it nor about the way in which the (cluster and additional subjects) choice came about.”

Four (3.6%) respondents of the third year recommended more communication directly with parents through mail, telephone and other media. Eight (10.0%)
respondents of the fifth year recommended the school “to stimulate not only students but also parents, for instance in accompanying their child in visiting HE.”

2. *Parents expected the career exploration for their child and themselves to have a broader scope.*

Not only short-term issues (clusters, subjects for the third year, and for the fifth year “financial issues”, “application procedures” and “entrance tests”) but also longer-term issues should be offered, as expressed by 30 First Review respondents in the third year: “further and higher education”, “…also abroad”, “occupations”, “labour market”, “society”, “present demands in society: technology and innovation.”

To “compensate for the inexperience of children at this age”, various parents suggested actively exploring work and occupations. Eleven respondents of the fifth year recommended for instance: “information by older/former students”, “visits to, guest lessons by and internships in enterprises” and “take your child to work.”

Exploiting the parental knowledge of the child and of society was recommended by 11 third-year respondents and 17 fifth-year respondents. Several First Review parents of the third and fifth years observed difficulties in making career decisions with their child and/or asked for tools and hints for themselves to support their child. Some parents observed that the child tried to find out information and make a career decision without involving parents (see Subsection 3.2.5).

*In summary*

In the First Review, the parents of the third years and to a lesser extend the parents of the fifth year of the experimental schools were satisfied with the careers provision, as it has been executed before the career intervention took place. However, from the open questions could be understood that the experimental schools were not doing enough in involving and communicating with parents about the school decisions and procedures in cluster selection. Also, parents pointed to the need of a broader scope in career exploration than presented in the careers provisions.
Appendix 2 Questionnaire First Review

Cover letter First Review

Date:

Feature:

Topic:

Dear parent/guardian,

To be successful in society and further/higher education, it is important that you and your child get enough tools to make the right choices. One of the tools is the career education and guidance (LOB) [CEG]) at school.

The school where your child is in, wants to improve the CEG provision. Because you as a parent was involved in the choice of cluster/study in HE, we would like to ask you a few questions. This review serves as an input to improve the current CEG provision at your child's school. In this questionnaire, we are curious about your opinion on various aspects of the CEG provision at your child's school We also want to identify what went fine, where improvements are necessary and which questions you still may have.

The results will be handled confidentially and anonymously. There are no "wrong" answers, so fill out the questionnaire as you think about it. When in doubt, go for your first answer. You can find the questionnaire from June 8 through https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Behoeften-meting_LOB

Completing the questionnaire will take about 12 to 15 minutes. You have that opportunity until Thursday 28st June.

Thanks in advance for your co-operation!

APS
**Questionnaire First Review**

**General questions**

First, we want to ask you some general questions about your child in the HAVO-department of the school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answer format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Number in questionnaire | 1. In which school is your child? | Open |
| 1. City name | Open |
| 2. Are you the father or mother? | F/M |
| 3. Do you attend HAVO department parents’ evenings regularly? | Y, regularly/Y, now and then/N |
| 4. Did you complete HE (University of Applied Sciences or Research University)? | Y/N |
| 5. Were you born in the Netherlands? | Y/N |
| 6. What is your year of birth? (E.g. 1950) | Open |
| 7. Do you have a partner (who is the parent/guardian of the child about whom you are filling in the questionnaire)? | Y/N (N: go to question 11) |
| 8. Did your partner complete HE (University of Applied Sciences or Research University)? | Y/N |
| 9. Was your partner (who is the parent/guardian of the child about whom you are filling in the questionnaire) born in the Netherlands? | Y/N |
| 10. What is the year of birth of your partner? (E.g. 1950) | Open |
| 11. In which grade in the academic year 2011-2012 was the child about whom you are filling out the questionnaire? (If you have several children in these grades, the career) | Grade 3/Grade 5 |
teacher/tutor will indicate for which child you should fill out the questionnaire.)

12. **12**  How many sessions (information and discussion evenings) in the context of the cluster choice/HE study choice of your child, have you attended the past academic year? (Number of sessions)  **Open**

13. **13.** Have you had contact with the tutor/career teacher about the choice?  **Y/N**

14. **14.** Are you or were you a member of the parent council?  **Y/N**

**Review**

The following questions and statements relate to the past academic year. Central to them is your satisfaction with the information and guidance that the school has given you about your child. We also want to know what information and/or guidance you have missed and what you think the school can do better for you as a parent/guardian.

Please tell how each statement suits you agree- or disagreement. For each statement, please say to what extent you agree or disagree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number in questionnaire</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>I have received sufficient information from the school to make a considered choice of cluster/course in HE with my child.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>I am aware of the consequences of the cluster selection/choice of HE course made by my child.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>I am satisfied with the way the information about the cluster selection/HE courses is communicated by the school.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neural/agree/strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>I have had sufficiently guidance from the school to make a considered cluster/HE course choice together with my child.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neural/agree/strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>I am sufficiently encouraged by the school to talk with my child about his/her cluster, future profession and education.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neural/agree/strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>The school has encouraged my child sufficiently to actively orient himself/herself towards a cluster/HE course choice.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neural/agree/strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>I am satisfied with the way my child has to reflect on awareness activities.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neural/agree/strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>I am satisfied with the degree of responsibility that the school gives my child in the choice of clusters/choice of higher education course.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neural/agree/strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>Already, I see uncertainty in my child about the cluster choice/HE course choice made.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neural/agree/strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Top 3 questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answer format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number in questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Response Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Can you name your top 3 activities – inside school – you have had the most of to prepare for the choice of cluster of your child?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Can you name your top 3 activities – inside school – you have had the least of to prepare for the choice of cluster of your child?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Can you name your top 3 activities – inside and outside school – you have had the most of to prepare for the choice of study course of your child?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Can you name your top 3 activities – inside and outside school – you have had the least of to prepare for the choice of study course of your child?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We have presented a number of issues in this questionnaire that may be of importance to the choice of cluster/HE course made by your child. But perhaps you yourself can think of other issues.

18. Can you briefly indicate what/which subject(s) you do think deserve more attention in the choice of cluster/HE course by your child?

**Assessment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the <em>overall information</em> provided by the school <em>for the choice to be made by your child</em>. (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
<td>10-Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the <em>exploration</em> provided by the school <em>for the choice to be made by your child</em>. (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
<td>10-Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the <em>guidance</em> provided by the school <em>with the choice to be made by your child</em>. (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
<td>10-Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the <em>overall information in the final year</em> provided by the school about the course choice in HE for your child? (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
<td>10-Likert</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
20 Please give your assessment of the exploration in the final year provided by the school about the course choice in HE for your child? (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)

21 Please give your assessment of the guidance in the final year provided by the school about choosing a course in HE for your child? (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)

22 Finally, we would like to know what your advice is to the school about how you think parents as a valuable partner can be involved best in the career exploration and guidance (choice of cluster/course in HE) of their child?
My advice to the school is...

23. Finally, a control question in the interests of the representativeness of the study. Would you below fill out the first 3 capitals of your last name and year of birth (for example, "jan1950")?

Thank you!
Thank you for your participation in this survey! Your completed answers will be processed anonymously.

APS
Appendix 3 Questionnaire 0-, 1- and 2-measurement

Cover letter 0-measurement
Date:

Feature:

Topic:

Dear parent/guardian,

To be successful in society and further/higher education, it is important that you and your child get enough tools to make the right choices. One of the tools is the career education and guidance (LOB) [CEG] at school.

The school where your child is in, wants to improve the CEG provision. It wants to do this, by involving you more, as a major player, in the guidance and exploration of your child at key stages in education. Thus, the choice of cluster/ study in higher education is an important step in the further schooling of your child.

To identify where improvements are possible for the CEG provision at the school of your child, we have prepared a questionnaire. In this questionnaire, we are curious about your opinion on various aspects of the CEG provision at your child's school. We also want to identify your wishes and needs in this area.

The results will be handled confidentially and anonymously. There are no "wrong" answers, so fill out the questionnaire as you think about it. When in doubt, go for your first answer. You can find the questionnaire from June 8 through https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Nul-meting_LOB

Completing the questionnaire will take about 15 minutes. You have that opportunity until Thursday 28th June.

Thanks in advance for your co-operation!

APS
**Questionnaire 0-, 1- and 2-measurement**

**General questions**
First, we want to ask you some general questions about your child in the HAVO-department of the school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answer format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number in questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>In which school is your child?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>City name</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Are you the father or mother?</td>
<td>F/M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>What place in the family has the child for which you are filling out the questionnaire? (We mean here: is it your 1st, 2nd, et cetera. born child in the family.)</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Do you attend HAVO department parents' evenings regularly?</td>
<td>Y, regularly/Y, now and then/ N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Are you intending to go to the higher education open days that are of interest to your child?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Did you complete HE (University of Applied Sciences or Research University)?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Were you born in the Netherlands?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>What is your year of birth? (E.g. 1950)</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Do you have a partner (who is the parent/guardian of the child about whom you are filling in the questionnaire)?</td>
<td>Y/N (N: go to question 11 (Grade 3); question 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Information Provision
Below are some statements that relate to the information you have about your child’s option choice possibilities. For each statement, please say to what extent you agree or disagree.

Statements about current level of information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number in questionnaire</td>
<td>0-1-2-3-5</td>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the different cluster choices from which my child is</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/disagree/neutral/agree/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Below there are some more statements about the career, labour market and exploration of your child. For each statement, please say to what extent you agree or disagree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the (vocational) possibilities of the different cluster choices /HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the financial implications of the different clusters /HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the employment prospects of the different clusters /HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware where I can find (more) information about the different clusters/HE courses which my child can choose from.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number in questionnaire
| 13.1 | 14.1 | Currently, I understand my child’s perspective on the labour market sufficiently. |
| 13.2 | 14.2 | The school has sufficiently informed me about the future career possibilities of my child. |
| 13.3 | 14.3 | I am well aware of what the school does in careers education and guidance. |
| 13.4 | 14.4 | I experience the Dutch educational system as a confusing jungle (of information). |
| 13.5 | 14.5 | As a parent, I know what developments in the labour market are important for the future of my child. |
Topics about information needs (gaps)
Below are some topics that have to do with the (school) career of your child. Could you please indicate for each topic whether you need more or less information?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0-1-2-3-5</td>
<td>Number in questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>14.1 15.1</td>
<td>Currently, I need information on the financial implications of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td>No need/ low need/ neutral/ reasonable need/ great need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>14.2 15.2</td>
<td>Currently, I need information on the labour market perspectives of the chosen cluster/HE course of my child.</td>
<td>No need/ low need/ neutral/ reasonable need/ great need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>14.3 15.3</td>
<td>Currently, I need information on the courses possible in higher education for my child.</td>
<td>No need/ low need/ neutral/ reasonable need/ great need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>14.4 15.4</td>
<td>Currently, I need information on the vocational possibilities for my child.</td>
<td>No need/ low need/ neutral/ reasonable need/ great need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x x x x</td>
<td>14.5 15.5</td>
<td>Currently, I need information on personal support in the career</td>
<td>No need/ low need/ neutral/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Expectations in regard to information in the coming this school year

The activities in CEG aim to increase your knowledge, understanding and skills in relation to the career orientation and guidance of your child. Could you please indicate how you expect to think about the following issues in Spring 2013?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>x</td>
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<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0-</th>
<th>1-</th>
<th>2-</th>
<th>2/3</th>
<th>4/5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number in questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15.1</th>
<th>16.1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to work with my child on a considered cluster/HE course choice.

Does not match expectation/ is consistent with little expectation/ neutral/ matches expectation/ is in complete agreement with expectation.

In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to estimate the current labour market perspectives of my child.

Does not match expectation/ is consistent with little expectation/ neutral/ matches expectation/ is in complete agreement with expectation.

In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to oversee the financial consequences of the chosen cluster/HE course by my child.

Does not match expectation/ is consistent with little expectation/ neutral/ matches expectation/ is in complete agreement with expectation.
In the spring, I expect to be a fully-fledged discussion partner in the career orientation of my child. Does not match expectation/ is consistent with little expectation/ neutral/ matches expectation/ is in complete agreement with expectation

**Guidance**

The following statements relate to the guidance of your child at school and at home related to study, work and careers. For each statement, please indicate whether you agree or disagree.

**A. Statements about current orientation and guidance level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x 15.4 16.4 In school my child is encouraged to think about themselves in relation to their cluster, future profession and education.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x 16.2 17.2 The school offers my child in-depth guidance to make considered career choices.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x 16.3 17.3 I would steer my child to other thoughts if I dislike a cluster, study or profession.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/ disagree/ neutral/ agree/ strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x 16.4 17.4 I wonder sometimes if my child</td>
<td>Strongly disagree/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
has enough general knowledge and experience to make an appropriate cluster selection/choice of course in HE.  

| x | x | x | 16.5 | 17.5 | When I have questions about the cluster/HE course choice of my child I can contact the tutor, teacher or career teacher beforehand. | Strongly disagree/disagree/neutral/agree/strongly agree |
| x | x | x | 16.6 | 17.6 | I expect the school to co-operate with parents in the choice of cluster/HE course of my child. | Strongly disagree/disagree/neutral/agree/strongly agree |
| x | x | x | 16.7 | 17.7 | I am sufficiently able to support my child in his or her cluster/HE course choice. | Strongly disagree/disagree/neutral/agree/strongly agree |

B. Topic needs in exploration and guidance (gaps)

To determine where your needs are in the career education and guidance (CEG) of your child, could you please indicate to what extent you have a need for support in relation to the topics below?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0- 1- 2- 3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Currently, I need support for career discussions about my child with the tutor/career teacher.</td>
<td>No need/low need/neutral/reasonable need/great need</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number in questionnaire
Currently, I need support to enter into conversations with my child at home about the choice of course in higher education, occupations and career.

Currently, I need support to encourage my child to actively orient him/herself towards a cluster choice/choice of course in higher education.

Currently, I need support to stimulate my child to think about educational, vocational and career choices.

Currently, I need support to be a conversation partner with my child on his/her strengths and weaknesses.

Currently, I need support to stimulate my child to develop career competencies.

C. Expectations on the level of guidance and support in the coming/this school year

We also want to know what your expectations are on the career education and guidance (CEG) that you receive from school. Below are some statements about how you expect to think about certain topics in spring 2013.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Expectations</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0-1-2-</td>
<td>3 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number in questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
weaknesses.

| x | x | x | 18.6 | 19.6 | In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to stimulate my child to develop career competencies. | Does not match expectation/ is consistent with little expectation/ neutral/ matches expectation/ is in complete agreement with expectation |

### 3 Role of parent / guardian

We also want to know how you as a parent / guardian see your own role in the career exploration and guidance of your child. Can you indicate whether the following statements fit the way you see yourself?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Scaling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number in questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We have now presented a number of topics that are of interest to the educational, vocational choice and career of your child. Please let us know in the box below if there is anything else you would like to ask about your role.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>What I want to know even more about my role as a parent/guardian in the choice my child makes is...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, as a control question in the interest of the representativeness of the study, would you please fill out the first 3 capitals of your last name and year of birth below (For example, "jan1950")?

**Thank you!**
Thank you for your participation in this survey! Your completed answers will be processed anonymously.

APS
## Appendix 4 Questionnaire Second Review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answer format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ![x]  | Below you find the sessions you have attended (eventually) in the context of the choice of cluster/study course in HE of your child. Can you indicate your satisfaction with each session? (If you did not attend a session please fill out ‘not attended’.  
Session 1 (short description by career teacher, date).  
Session 2 (short description by career teacher, date).  
Session 3 (short description by career teacher, date).  
Session 4 (short description by career teacher, date). | Very bad/ bad/ neutral/ good/ very good/ not attended |
| ![x]  | Do you have the intention to accompany your child to the open days of their possible study course in the future?                                                                                                  | Y/N           |
| ![x]  | Did you accompany your child to the open days of their possible study course?  
How many open days did you visit with your child?                                                                                                 | Y/N Open      |
| ![x]  | How many sessions (information and parent teacher meeting) in the context of the cluster choice/HE study choice of your child, have you attended the past academic year?  
(Number of sessions)                                                                                                                                 | Open          |
<p>| ![x]  | Have you had contact with the tutor/career teacher about the choice?                                                                                                                                       | Y/N           |
| ![x]  | Can you name your top 3 activities – inside school – you have had the most of to prepare for the choice of cluster of your child?                                                                               | Open          |
| ![x]  | Can you name your top 3 activities – inside school – you have had the least of to prepare for the choice of cluster of your child?                                                                               | Open          |
| ![x]  | Can you name your top 3 activities – inside and outside school – you have had the most of to prepare for the choice of study course of your child?                                                              | Open          |
| ![x]  | Can you name your top 3 activities – inside and outside                                                                                                                                                     | Open          |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>school – you have had the least of to prepare for the choice of study course of your child?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the overall information provided by the school for the choice to be made by your child. (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the exploration provided by the school for the choice to be made by your child. (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the guidance provided by the school with the choice to be made by your child. (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the overall information in the final year provided by the school about the course choice in HE for your child? (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the exploration in the final year provided by the school about the course choice in HE for your child? (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Please give your assessment of the guidance in the final year provided by the school about choosing a course in HE for your child? (You can give a score, with 1 being ‘very poor’ to 10 ‘very good’.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Finally, we would like to know what your advice is to the school about how you think parents as a valuable partner can be involved best in the career exploration and guidance (choice of cluster/course in HE) of their child?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My advice to the school is...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10-Likert

10-Likert

10-Likert

10-Likert

10-Likert

10-Likert

Open
Appendix 5 Questionnaire 3-measurement

Cover letter parents

Date:

Feature:

Topic:

Dear parent/guardian,

Last year, you (possibly) participated in to the research on the parent's involvement in the career education and guidance (LOB) [CEG] in the third/fifth grade in (name school) in 2012-2013. In the conversations we had afterwards, parents and students did some unsolicited predictions. We want to test whether these predictions came true. Hence, for the last time, the friendly request to fill out a short questionnaire. Just as when you participated previously in the research your answers matter!

Please fill out the online questionnaire before February 7, 2014 on http://survey.sgbo.nl/s/aps-int-od/

Your daughter/son has also received a request. Would you please ask him/her to fill out the online questionnaire before February 7, 2014 with the following link? http://survey.sgbo.nl/s/aps-int-ll/

The questionnaire allows you to express your opinion. If the questions become too complex a question mark or a (similar) symbol also will be fine, and you can complete the rest of the questionnaire.

Additionally, we want to conduct an individual interview of half an hour at school or by telephone with three parents and three students. If you want to participate on 10, 11 or 14 February, I would appreciate hearing that from you as soon as possible. Please indicate your preferences of the date and the time as well as the preferred telephone number in case of a telephone interview.

Also on behalf of APS,

(Name career teacher, school, telephone number and e-mail address).
### Questionnaire for parent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Grade</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answer format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Are you the father or mother?</td>
<td>F/M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What place in the family have has the child for which you are filling out the questionnaire? (We mean here: is it your 1st, 2nd, et cetera. child in the family.)</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Did you complete HE (University of Applied Sciences or Research University)?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Were you born in the Netherlands?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is your age?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do you have a partner (who is the parent/guardian of the child about whom you are filling in the questionnaire)?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Did your partner complete HE (University of Applied Sciences or Research University)?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Was your partner (who is the parent/guardian of the child about whom you are filling in the questionnaire) born in the Netherlands?</td>
<td>Y/N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is the age of your partner?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Were you involved in previous measurements (0-, 1-, and/or 2-measurement)?</td>
<td>Y/N/?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Did you receive the results of the previous measurements (0-, 1-, and/or 2-measurement) via the school of your child?</td>
<td>Y/N/?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In which grade in the academic year 2012-2013 was the child about whom you are filling out the questionnaire? (If you have several children in these grades, the career teacher/tutor will indicate for which child you should fill out the questionnaire.)</td>
<td>Grade 3/Grade 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>In which school is/was your child?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>Indicate what is applicable to your child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>At the end of last school year (school year 2012-2013) my child:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>In case of ‘Switched to another type of education’: to what type of education did he/she switch?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>In case of ‘Passed to HAVO 4’: did you child change cluster or optional subjects in the current school year?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>If yes, what has been changed (e.g. from cluster A to cluster B or subject A for subject B)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>Indicate what is applicable to your child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>In case of ‘Failed’ or ‘Switched to another type of education’: in what type of education is your child now in?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>In case of ‘Graduated and started at a course of HE’: what course did he/she start?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In case of ‘Graduated and started at a course of HE’: did your child change the course or HE institution in the current school year?

No/ Yes, course/ Yes, HE institution

Below you’ll find the career sessions of last year.

Session 1 (short description by career teacher, date).
Session 2 (short description by career teacher, date).
Session 3 (short description by career teacher, date).
Session 4 (short description by career teacher, date).

We would like to know to what extent the sessions have supported you as a parent for each of the following topics. Please indicate for every topic how you experienced that a year ago (January 2013) and how you experience that at the moment (January 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>January 2013</th>
<th>January 2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Being currently informed about various subject clusters, HE (Higher Education), financial issues, labour market and information resources.</td>
<td>Not at all/ not/ reasonable support/ full support/ do not know</td>
<td>5-Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Being currently informed about my child’s possibilities regarding subject clusters, optional subjects, courses in HE.</td>
<td>Not at all/ not/ reasonable support/ full support/ do not know</td>
<td>5-Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Making considered career decisions together with my child.</td>
<td>Not at all/ not/ reasonable support/ full support/ do not know</td>
<td>5-Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Making considered career decisions for my child’s future, together with the school.</td>
<td>Not at all/ not/ reasonable support/ full support/ do not know</td>
<td>5-Likert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Being a full conversation partner in my child’s career exploration.</td>
<td>Not at all/ not/ reasonable support/ full support/ do not know</td>
<td>5-Likert</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, we would like to know what for you Main impacts (e.g.
as a parent have been the main impacts of the sessions.

In addition, we would like to know what was important for you then (immediately after the meetings) and what is still important now (the long(er) term)? Can you provide one or more examples of this?

| Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes) | Then: (open) | Now: (open) |
| Example(s) (how I applied that in practice) | Then: (open) | Now: (open) |

And what are the most important impacts you observed with your child, then and now, and could you provide one or more examples of this?

| Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes) | Then: (open) | Now: (open) |
| Example(s) (how my child applied that in practice) | Then: (open) | Now: (open) |

Finally, which important impacts you observed with the school, then and now, and could you provide one or more examples of this?

| Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes) | Then: (open) | Now: (open) |
| Example(s) | Then: (open) | Now: (open) |

Do you have any questions, remarks as a result of these questions?

| Open |

Finally, a control question in the interests of the

| Open |
representativeness of the study. Would you below fill out the first 3 capitals of your last name and year of birth (For example, "jan1950")?
### Questionnaire for career teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At which school are you the career teacher?</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| We would like to know which impact you as a career teacher have noticed with the students, parents, your school and yourself as career teacher, due to the career intervention. We would like your impression of then, a year ago, directly after the career intervention and how it is now (the (long)er term). | Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes).  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open)  
Example(s) (how did they apply this in practice?)  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open) |
| Firstly, the most important impacts for the students. Please describe (shortly) the most important impact you observed. And next, can you please provide one or more examples of this? | Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes).  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open)  
Example(s) (how did they apply this in practice?)  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open) |
| And which were the most important impacts for the parents?  
Please describe (briefly) the most important impact you observed. And next, can you please provide one or more examples of this? | Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes).  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open)  
Example(s) (how did they apply this in practice?)  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open) |
| And which were the most important impacts for the school?  
Please describe (briefly) the most important impact you observed. And next, can you please provide one or more examples of this? | Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes).  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open)  
Example(s) (how did they apply this in practice?)  
Then: (open)  
Now: (open) |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>And which were the most important impacts for yourself as a career teacher? Please describe (briefly) the most important impact. And next, can you please provide one or more examples of this?</th>
<th>Main impacts (e.g. knowledge, insights, skills, attitudes). Example(s) (how I applied that in practice).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anchoring the impact of the career sessions HAVO 3/5. In my school, the career intervention sessions as has been designed and executed in school year 2012-2013:</td>
<td>Are being executed integrally this school year/ are being executed in an adapted version, namely: (open)/ are being executed integrally or adapted and have been extended to other departments, namely: (open)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have any questions, remarks as a result of these questions?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 6 Interview schedules

*Interview schedule with parents at the time of the 2-measurement*

1. Do you as a parent feel/experience that there is co-operation with the school during the career selection and advising process of your child?

2. What does the co-operation with the school actually involve?

3. How did you as parents experienced being actively involved with your child for a cluster/HE study selection at the school-site?

4. Does the school, according to you as parents, do everything to make the career decision process properly for you as a parent and for your child?

*Interview schedule with parents at the time of the 3-measurement*

1a. Who initiated your attendance at the career intervention sessions?

1b. What were the motives to be involved?

1c. How did your child react (to your initiative to attend the career intervention sessions)?

1d. How many sessions did you attend?

1e. With whom did the child attend the sessions?

2a. What are the most important things you have understood from the sessions?

2b. And your child?

3. Do you do things differently towards your child since the career intervention sessions?

4a. Did you as a parent feel/experience that there is co-operation with the school during the career selection and advising process of your child?

4b. Yes, because …/No, because …

5a. Did your child have that same feeling? Yes/No …

5b. And how do you know?

6. Grade 3: Does your child’s current profile and curriculum fit properly? Is he/she on schedule?
6. Grade 5: The current training fits properly? Is she/he on schedule?
6b. How do you know?

7. Is or will there be a next step in your child’s career?

8a. What should be done in the near future?
8b. What should be decided about in the near future?
8c. Do you know this (8a and 8b) from the career intervention sessions at that time?
   Yes/No, because …

9a. How is the division of roles in the acting and decisions for the next step in your child’s career:
   9a.1. parent?
   9a.2. child?
9b. Are the roles divisions different from a year ago? No/Yes … What is different?
9c. Did the career intervention sessions at that time play a role in that? Yes/No, because...

10. Did you miss out on anything at the career intervention sessions?

11. What do you expect now from the school?

12. What would you finally like to comment on in response to these questions?
Appendix 7 Demographic information for the sample of parents involved in the qualitative research

Group 2b: 2-measurement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (identification character)</th>
<th>Gender participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender child</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>HE level parents</th>
<th>Place child in family</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Groups E3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>4th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Groups E5</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>J</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Group 2c: 3-measurement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (identification character)</th>
<th>Gender participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender child</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>HE level parents</th>
<th>Place child in family</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Groups E3</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>V</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AA</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BB</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Groups E5</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DD</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EE</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Group 3b: 2-measurement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (identification character)</th>
<th>Gender participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender child</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>HE level parents</th>
<th>Place child In family</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Groups C3</td>
<td>G father</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H mother</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Groups C5</td>
<td>N mother</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>O mother</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>3th</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Group 3c: 3-measurement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (identification character)</th>
<th>Gender participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender child</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>HE level parents</th>
<th>Place child In family</th>
<th>Single parent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Groups C3</td>
<td>G father</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H mother</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CC mother</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>4th</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Groups C5</td>
<td>N mother</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 8 Reliability analysis for indexes used

### Current information level index 5 items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>0-measurement E3 + C3 N=215</th>
<th>α = .729</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current information level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the (vocational) possibilities of the different cluster choices /HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the financial implications of the different clusters /HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the employment prospects of the different clusters /HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware where I can find (more) information about the different clusters/HE courses which my child can choose from.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I understand my child’s perspective on the labour market sufficiently.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Current information needs index 5 items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>0-measurement E3 + C3 N=215</th>
<th>α = .798</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current information needs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the financial implications of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the labour market perspectives of the chosen cluster/HE course of my child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the courses possible in higher education for my child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the vocational possibilities for my child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on personal support in the career orientation of my child.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>0-measurement E5 + C5 N=168</th>
<th>α = .773</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current information needs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Current information expectations index 4 items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current information expectations</th>
<th>0-measurement E3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to work with my child on a considered cluster/HE course choice.</td>
<td>+ C3 N=215 α = .919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to estimate the current labour market perspectives of my child.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to oversee the financial consequences of the chosen cluster/HE course by my child.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I expect to be a fully-fledged discussion partner in the career orientation of my child.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Current guidance and support level of the school index 5 items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current guidance and support level of the school</th>
<th>0-measurement E3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am well aware of what the school does in careers education and guidance.</td>
<td>+ C3 N=215 α = .736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In school my child is encouraged to think about themselves in relation to their cluster, future profession and education.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school offers my child in-depth guidance to make considered career choices.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I have questions about the cluster/HE course choice of my child I can contact the tutor, teacher or career teacher beforehand.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school has sufficiently informed me about the future career possibilities of my child.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Current guidance and support needs index 6 items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current guidance and support needs</th>
<th>0-measurement E3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need support for career discussions about my child with the tutor/career teacher.</td>
<td>+ C3 N=215 α = .848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need support to enter into conversations with</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
my child at home about the choice of course in higher education, occupations and career.

Currently, I need support to encourage my child to actively orient him/herself towards a cluster choice/choice of course in higher education.

Currently, I need support to stimulate my child to think about educational, vocational and career choices.

Currently, I need support to be a conversation partner with my child on his/her strengths and weaknesses.

Currently, I need support to stimulate my child to develop career competencies.

**Current guidance and support expectations index** 6 items  
Reliability Statistics Cronbach’s Alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current guidance and support expectations</th>
<th>0-measurement E5 + C5 N=168</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to participate in career interviews with the tutor/career teacher and my child.</td>
<td>α = .871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to perform career interviews with my child.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to encourage my child to actively orient him/herself towards a cluster/HE course choice.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to stimulate my child to think about, education, vocational choices and career.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to be a conversation partner with my child on his/her strengths and weaknesses.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to stimulate my child to develop career competencies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Parental role definition index** 5 items  
Reliability Statistics Cronbach’s Alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental role definition</th>
<th>0-measurement E3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0-measurement E3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ C3 N=215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α = .957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0-measurement E5 + C5 N=168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α = .928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I stimulate my child to think about his/her own future.</td>
<td>+ C3 N=215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I talk regularly with my child about their educational and vocational choices.</td>
<td>α = .724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a parent/guardian I am an important conversation partner for the career choices of my child.</td>
<td>0-measurement E5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it's important to be aware of the school performance of my child.</td>
<td>+ C3 N=168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a parent, I am well informed about what is happening in the personal contacts between the school and my child.</td>
<td>α = .703</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 9 Copy of request for ethical approval, submitted 10 November 2014

### Request for ethical approval for research undertaken by staff, post-graduate research and post-graduate professional students

Please submit your completed form to the chair of your subject research ethics committee (SREC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your Name</th>
<th>Anna Oomen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School / Faculty</td>
<td>School of Education and Social Science / Faculty of Education Health and Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Research Ethics Committee</td>
<td>Social Studies and Postgraduate Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff / Student ID</td>
<td>100338992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unimail address</td>
<td><a href="mailto:A.Oomen@derby.ac.uk">A.Oomen@derby.ac.uk</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programme name / code</td>
<td>PhD research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of supervisor(s)</td>
<td>Dr. T. Hooley, Dr. N. Radford</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Title of proposed research study**

Parental involvement in career education and guidance in senior general secondary schools in the Netherlands

**Background information**

Has this research been funded by an external organisation (e.g. a research council or public sector body) or internally (such as the RLTF fund)? If yes, please provide details.

I ask permission for phase 3: the secondary use of data which have been gathered in two previous phases.

The data in phase 1 have been gathered for a R&D project commissioned by OCW (the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science). The researcher was at that time an employee of APS (National Centre for School Improvement). What was left of the R&D funding in phase 1, has been spent, with written consent of OCW, in 2013 on the research in phase 2, which further has been resourced by me, the researcher.

Have you submitted previous requests for ethical approval to the Committee that relate to this research project? If yes please provide details.

No.

Are other research partners involved in the proposed research? If yes please provide details.

No.

**Signatures**

The information supplied is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, accurate. I clearly understand my obligations and the rights of the participants. I agree to act at all times in accordance with University of Derby Policy and Code of Practice on Research Ethics:

http://www.derby.ac.uk/research/uod/ethics/
1. What is the aim of your study? What are the objectives for your study?

The aim of the proposed study:

- To understand why, when and how to involve parents in CEG (career education and guidance) in senior general secondary education (HAVO [Hoger Algemeen Vormend Onderwijs]) and particularly to evaluate the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’.

The objectives of the proposed study:

- To understand why and when to involve parents in CEG in HAVO.
- To assess the design of a career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ focusing on parents (and their child/student).
- To assess the impact of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ on both parents and their child/student.
- To assess the difference in confidence of parents between the treatment and control group.
- To understand if parents who have not attended higher education (HE) themselves require more or different support.

2. Explain the rationale for this study (refer to relevant research literature in your response).

Hill and Tyson (2009) argue that the strongest positive association with school achievement is parental involvement that reflects ‘academic socialization’, which may entail communicating parental expectations for education and its value (...), fostering educational and occupational aspirations (...), and making preparations and plans for the future (p.742). All these aspects are related to career guidance, defined by the OECD, European Commission and the World Bank, as referring to: "services and activities intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers" (OECD, 2004, p. 10).

Young et al. (2001, p. 191) quote the substantial research literature that highlights the relationship that exists between a number of family variables and career guidance outcomes. These include parental attachment (e.g., Ketterson and Blustein, 1997; Ryan, Solberg and Brown, 1996), parental support (e.g., Wall, Covell and Maclntyre, 1999), and other family dynamics (e.g., Penick and Jepsen, 1992) and such dependent variables as vocational aspiration and achievement (Rainey and Borders, 1997), career decisiveness (Lopez and Andrews, 1987), career exploration (Felsman and Blustein, 1999; Kracke, 1997), career commitment (Blustein, Walbridge, Friedlander and Palladino, 1991), and career self-efficacy (O’Brien, 1996). Practice and research on parental involvement in CEG in secondary education is rare globally. This is regrettable as parents are often found to be the top-influencer on young people’s careers (Mortimer et al., 2002) and major collocutor (Fend, 1991; Otto, 2000; Schut, Kuijpers and Lamé, 2013) in their career development.

The proposed PhD project addresses a problem that has hardly been researched: how a senior
general secondary school with a career intervention can meet the needs and expectations of various parents in supporting their child in career development. It can therefore provide a significant contribution to knowledge. Knowledge to the academic field may consist of elaboration of parental involvement models to the field of career development; insight in the various needs of parents with different educational backgrounds or their gender and the consequences for the design of a career intervention which involves parents at secondary schools.

References:


3. Provide an outline of study design and methods.

The proposed PhD project for which I am asking ethical approval, phase 3, will consist of secondary data analysis on all existing data gathered in phase 1 and 2.

Some background information about phase 1 and 2.

The study was developed as an R&D type project following two tracks. The Development track consisted of a design and professionalisation process under the supervision of the researcher. In co-operation with the career teachers of six schools a career intervention ‘Parents Turn’, has been developed and executed with the aim to get parents more involved in the career orientation and guidance of their child. The career intervention, consisting of four successive sessions, was based on the needs and expectations expressed by the parents of each of the six experimental schools in a needs analysis, before the development of the career intervention took place. However: the aim, objectives, nature, and size of the intervention were predetermined by the researcher and the funder of phase 1, OCW.

For the Research track a quasi-experimental design was used. This involved a pre-intervention (0-measurement) and a post-intervention (1-measurement), where in between the two measurements the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’ took place. The responding parents were asked a set of questions before and after the career intervention to make observations possible of differences that could be attributed to the career intervention. And the research involved a 2-measurement six months after the 1-measurement, with the similar set of questions and possibility to compare with the previous measurement data. Finally qualitative, evaluation interviews (3-measurement) were undertaken 12 months after the

46
The nature of the research in the 0-, 1- and 2-measurements was impact–assessment. The nature of the research in the 3-measurement, twelve months after the career intervention was evaluative in nature.

The research was divided into three parts, a needs analysis, the impact assessment and evaluative assessment. The sequence of the successive measurements was as indicated in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 1</th>
<th>June 2012</th>
<th>Needs analysis</th>
<th>Before the career intervention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>June 2012</td>
<td>0-measurement</td>
<td>Before the career intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>December 2012</td>
<td>1-measurement</td>
<td>At the end of the career intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 2</td>
<td>June 2013</td>
<td>2-measurement</td>
<td>Six months after the career intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>January 2014</td>
<td>3-measurement</td>
<td>Twelve months after the career intervention</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research questions in phase 1 and 2 grounded the decision for a mixed methods research in which qualitative and quantitative data were collected. In the decision on the data collection instruments and procedures has been taken into account that the researcher is also the supervisor of the development track of the career intervention. It was considered an advantage to use a quantitative instrument and collect quantitative data to minimize any bias due to her stake in the whole R&D project.

All questions in the quantitative and qualitative research refer to the career intervention. For parents and students the questions referred to the following five major areas:

i. being currently informed on various subject clusters, HE, financial issues, labour market and information resources;

ii. being able to apply the information under i. for their own situation;

iii. child and parent being able to make considered career decisions together;

iv. as iii. in co-operation with school;

v. having self-confidence in their role in the career process.

For career teachers the questions referred to their professional development, the school, the students and parents involved.

The quantitative and qualitative data were collected and processed in different ways. The instrument for the quantitative data collection was an online questionnaire. The data of the online 0-, 1-, 2- and 3-measurements were collected using Survey Monkey. All items in the questionnaires have been coded. All quantitative data have been entered in SPSS for statistical data analysis.

The instruments for the qualitative data collection were written reports, oral reports and in-depth interviews.

- Written reports by each career teacher after each career intervention session of ‘Parents Turn’ at school level.

- Oral report, self-evaluation, by each career teacher took place during three monthly feedback sessions. These feedback sessions have been recorded in a written report and been verified by each career teacher.

- In-depth interview: this instrument followed an interview guide and was semi-structured. The researcher in her role as interviewer has been trained and experienced in interviews as part of her training as careers adviser and her work as (senior) trainer/consultant. In the role of interviewer she was aware to make the interviewee comfortable, feel safe and showed interest in what the interviewee was saying. In the case of a face-to-face contact the researcher was aware of the appropriate body language. The researcher avoided closed and leading, suggestive questions and personal opinions. The in-depth interview as instrument has been used at several measurements and with different groups. The in-depth interviews have been entered in Excel for analysing.
To date, the data gathered have only been reported in a pragmatic way, without in-depth analyses. The first two phases of the project have therefore resulted in a substantial pool of data which could be analysed to enhance the understanding of parental involvement in CEG. The proposed PhD project, phase 3, for which ethical approval is sought, will consist of secondary data analysis on all existing data gathered in phase 1 and 2. See table 2. No additional data collection is foreseen in phase 3.

Table 2. Overview of data gathered in successive measurements: nature, target group, numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Nature of data</th>
<th>Target group, both experimental (Exp.) and control (Con.)</th>
<th>N =</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 2012</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>quantitative</td>
<td>parents before intervention</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>career teachers during intervention</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec. 2012</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>quantitative</td>
<td>parents after intervention</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>career teachers after intervention</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 2013</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>quantitative</td>
<td>parents involved in intervention after six months</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>qualitative</td>
<td>parents not involved in intervention after six months</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>parents and students involved in intervention after six months</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 2014</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>quantitative</td>
<td>parents involved in intervention after 12 months</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>quantitative</td>
<td>students involved in intervention after 12 months</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>parents and students involved in intervention after 12 months</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>quantitative</td>
<td>career teachers 12 months after intervention</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The literature review I undertake during phase 3, will look at a wide range of literature and examine three main areas: the key features of the Dutch education system and the position of CEG in it; evidence-based features of well-organized CEG and in Dutch secondary schools; parental involvement in education in a broader sense and specifically in CEG. The findings of the literature review will be used to further refine my research questions and clarify the theoretical framework, which provides the base to interrogate the data in a different way: what and how.

My proposed PhD project, phase 3, will consist of secondary data analysis on all existing quantitative and qualitative data gathered in phase 1 and 2. I will describe the data gathered, the approach to the data analysis so far, with details on particular decisions.

Key components of the analysis that is to be undertaken will be to look at the data in relation to the following themes and variables:
- the design of the career intervention ‘Parents Turn’;
- needs and expectations of parents of ‘first-generation’ HE students; needs and expectations of mothers compared to fathers in the career intervention.
- Kirkpatrick’s four levels of evaluation model (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2009) will be used to provide a measurement of impact. The four levels of Kirkpatrick’s evaluation model essentially measure:
  - The response to the intervention - what participants thought and felt about the intervention;
  - Learning - the resulting increase in knowledge or skill, can that be quantified;
  - Behaviour - the degree of behavioral chance, skill improvement and their implementation/application;
  - Results - the impact on the wider environment (individuals, systems, organizations) as a result of the intervention.
4. If appropriate, please provide a detailed description of the study sample, covering selection, sample profile, recruitment and inclusion and exclusion criteria.

The study sample accessed during Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study is summarised in Table 2 (Section 3). No further sampling in planned within Phase 3 of the study, which will analyse secondary data collected previously.

5. Are payments or rewards/incentives going to be made to the participants? Yes □ No x
If so, please give details.

No payments, rewards or incentives are going to be made in phase 3.

6. Please indicate how you intend to address each of the following ethical considerations in your study. If you consider that they do not relate to your study please say so.

Guidance to completing this section of the form is provided at the end of the document.

   a. Consent

   The career teachers and school management of the control schools were informed by telephone and email, whereas the career teachers and their school managers of the experimental schools were fully informed verbally (28 March 2013 10:00 – 12:00 hours) and made aware of the nature and the purpose of the research and the potential re-use of data collected for phase 3: the PhD project.

   This action to acquire informed consent has been repeated verbally after the 3-measurement, on 22 May 2014 13:30-16:00 hours, where the career teachers and their school management were made aware again of the nature and the purpose of the research and the re-use of data collected in phase 1 and 2 for phase 3: the PhD project. Also again: The career teachers and school management of the control schools were informed by telephone and email at that date.

   In phase 3 – June 2014- the parents and students in all measurements were fully informed through the career teacher about the PhD project and the nature and the purpose of the research to be undertaken, with the possibility to withdraw their response from the PhD project (annex 1). The career teachers of the experimental schools notified the parents and students with the text being part of the digital info graphic of the 3-measurement (annex 2), whereas the career teachers of the control schools informed and notified all parents and students by email with the same text.

   b. Deception

   There was/is no deception involved in this study.

   c. Debriefing

   Background information on debriefing in phase 1 and 2:
   Mid-way reports were drafted for the data received in phase 1 and 2, either based on the quantitative or qualitative data or both, after each measurement. These mid-way reports have been shared with OCW and the experimental and control schools through the career teacher.

   The involved parents and students were informed through the career teacher with a digital info graphic, (see example annex 2) summarising the main findings at each measurement in the project in phase 1 and 2.

   In phase 3 the involved parents and students will be informed through the career teacher and their
school management about the outcomes of this research with a digital info graphic.

b. Withdrawal from the investigation

In phase 3 the interviewed parents and students in all measurements were fully informed through the career teacher about the PhD project and the nature and the purpose of the research to be undertaken, with the possibility to withdraw their response from the PhD project (annex 1). The career teachers of the experimental schools notified the parents and students as part of the digital info graphic, whereas the career teachers of the control schools informed and notified all parents and students by email.

c. Confidentiality

In the thesis and eventual publications in phase 3 pseudonyms will be used for the names of parents, students, career teachers and schools involved. All possible identifying information will be removed to maintain confidentiality.

d. Protection of participants

In the thesis and eventual publications in phase 3 pseudonyms will be used for the names of parents, students, career teachers and schools involved. All possible identifying information will be removed to maintain confidentiality.

e. Observation research

There was/is no observation research undertaken in this study.

f. Giving advice

Giving advice is not applicable in phase 3, as no further direct contact with participants is involved.

g. Research undertaken in public places

There was/is no research undertaken in public places in this study.

h. Data protection

The collection, storage, disclosure and use of research data does comply with the Data Protection Act 1998.

All data are stored in two copies on a password encrypted part of an external hard drive, which is only accessible for me, in two different buildings (my home in 's-Hertogenbosch and the home of my partner in Beets) for six years.

Only the information needed for the research in phase 1 and 2 from parents, students, career teachers and schools has been gathered by the researcher. These data have only been shared with one other researcher who provided technical support for programming the on-line questionnaires and entering the data in SPSS.

i. Animal Rights

There were/are no animals involved in this study.

j. Environmental protection

The study did/does not imply research on the natural environment. On-line/digital questionnaires and reports have been preferred over paper versions.

Are there other ethical implications that are additional to this list? Yes x No □
The intellectual property right is with the researcher. OCW nor APS do have further rights to the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. Have / do you intend to request ethical approval from any other body/organisation?</td>
<td>Yes ☐ No x</td>
<td>If 'Yes' – please give details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Do you intend to publish your research?</td>
<td>Yes x No ☐</td>
<td>If 'Yes', what are your publication plans?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Besides the thesis I plan to present a workshop on the literature review at an international conference of the IAEVG in 2015 or 2016. Additionally I will submit an article for an international journal e.g. International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance; Journal of Vocational Behavior; Career Development Quarterly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Have you secured access and appropriate approval for any resources that you may require? (e.g. psychometric scales, equipment, software, laboratory space).</td>
<td>Yes x No ☐</td>
<td>If Yes, please provide details.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>All data are owned by me. Since phase 2, OCW (6 February 2013 10:00 – 11:00 h.; 16 October 2013, 10:00 -12:00 h) and APS are verbally informed about and aware of the intention to use the collected data for other reasons than for which it was collected initially. OCW and APS will be acknowledged in the thesis. A computer and Office licenced software is owned by me. A SSPS software license has come through the University. Additional software licenses will be acquired through the University or privately. For any required schedule, table, figure in the future thesis the researcher plans to acquire approval.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Have the activities associated with this research project been risk-assessed?</td>
<td>Yes x No ☐</td>
<td>The risk-assessment concerned ‘gaining access to primary data; loss of primary data, withdrawal of consent and missing elements during data analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following have you appended to this application?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Focus group questions</td>
<td>☐ Psychometric scales/response format</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Self-completion questionnaire/ questions</td>
<td>☐ Interview questions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>☐ Other debriefing material</td>
<td>☐ Covering letter for participants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Information sheet about your research study</td>
<td>☐ Informed consent forms for participants</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>☐ Location consent form</td>
<td>☐ Other (please describe): Text for parents and students on info graphic of measurement 3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annex 1: Text for parents and students on info graphic of measurement 3.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>June 2014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De gegevens die u als ouders en leerling heeft verstrekt in de vragenlijsten en interviews in de verschillende metingen wil Annemarie Oomen gebruiken om te promoveren op het onderwerp 'Ouderbetrokkenheid in LOB in HAVO'. Indien u uw bijdragen in verband met dit ander gebruik wil terugtrekken, kunt u dat bekend maken aan de onderzoeker: <a href="mailto:a.oomen@outlook.com">a.oomen@outlook.com</a>. Geef daarbij door voor de on-line vragenlijsten de eerste drie letters van uw achternaam en de vier nummers van uw geboortejaar; voor de interviews: uw volledige achternaam.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

[The information you provided in the questionnaires and interviews in the different measurements as parents and students, will Annemarie Oomen use for her PhD study being on the topic “Parental involvement in CEG in HAVO”. If you wish to withdraw your contributions in connection with this other use you can let this known to the researcher: a.oomen@outlook.com. Give the following]
information for the on-line questionnaires, the first three letters of your last name and four numbers of your year of birth; for the interviews: your full name.]

Annex 2: Digital info graphic 3-measurement (pdf format)
Impact Ouders aan Zet

Deelnemers eindmeting ouders (N=167)

Moeder Vader
Plaats kind in gezin:

Hoog opgevoeld (HBO-WO)

58% 1e kind
28% 2e kind
14% Bov

50% 44%

6% 1e kind
24% 2e kind
13% Bov

50% 45%

Reactie op Ouders aan Zet

Wat denken en voelen de deelnemers na het opkomen van een jaar geleden?

Ouders en leerlingen:

- Moeder
- Vader

Leren in Ouders aan Zet

Is er toenemen in kennis, vaardigheden, attitudes volgens de deelnemers?

Ouders en leerlingen:

De betekenis van de kinderopvang, de rol van de opleider, de invloed van de kinderopvang en de houding van de kinderopvangsteacher worden besproken.

Gedrag na Ouders aan Zet

Verstoringen in de relatie tussen ouders en kinderen?

Ouders en leerlingen:

- Bijna alle ouders hebben iets anders gedaan. Dit betekent dat er meer positieve uitkomsten zijn.
- Mogelijkheid voor het kind om contact te maken met andere kinderen.
Appendix 10 Confirmation of ethical approval

Date: 15th January 2015

Name: Annemarie Oomen

Dear Annemarie,

Re: Request for ethical approval for study entitled ‘Parental involvement in career education and guidance in senior general secondary schools in the Netherlands’

Thank you for submitting your application for the above study which was considered by 3 reviewers on behalf of the College of Education Research Ethics Committee (CEREC) by Chair’s Action on 15th January 2015.

The reviewers commented that the application was very well written and is conceptually well positioned and part of a sustained ethical and valid approach. I pleased to inform you that your study has been approved with recommendations; please see below. No additional submission will be required for this project, unless you change the methods detailed in this submission significantly. Additional phases of your research will require further ethical applications.

Recommendation:
- Recommended that you review how informed parental consent for the re-analysis of the data was gained and consider whether any further informed consent can or should be obtained in relation to re-examination of the data.

I wish you every success with your study.

Yours Sincerely,

Michelle Appleby
Vice-Chair of the College of Education Research Ethics Committee
## Appendix 11 Codebook thematic analyses interviews with parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme Parental capacity for INVOLVEMENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Motive: parental knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Why take part in PT? Parents’ judgement of their capability to effectively locate and process current information about options in the education system (what, where and how).</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motive: parental self-efficacy</td>
<td>Why take part in PT? Parents’ judgement of their own capability to make use of information and to guide and support their child’s career development.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 now and then</td>
<td>‘In my time’.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 unsure, assurance, handy</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Person at home initiating to take part in PT.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 mother</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 father</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 both parents</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 together</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Persons participating in PT.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 mother and child</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 father and child</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 both parents and child</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Child’s mediation</td>
<td>Child’s reaction to the school-parent-student initiative.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 positive or high</td>
<td>Willing; immediately agreement.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 neutral or moderate</td>
<td>Obedient, no discussion,</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13 **negative or low**

Unwilling, after long discussion, resistance.

5  6

14 **Drop-out**

Reasons for not attending all sessions.

1  3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme PT as PARENT CHILD SCHOOL INTERFACE</th>
<th>35</th>
<th>148</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Co-operation</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parents' experience of PT involvement as co-operation or collaboration parent-child-school.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15 <strong>collaboration between all</strong></th>
<th>18</th>
<th>21</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>16 <strong>collaboration up to a point</strong></th>
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<tr>
<th>17 <strong>responds to parental needs</strong></th>
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<tr>
<th>18 <strong>being informed</strong></th>
<th>8</th>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>19 <strong>Emotion, appreciation</strong></th>
<th>21</th>
<th>39</th>
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<tr>
<td>Parents' feelings with approach PT pedagogy.</td>
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<tr>
<th>20 <strong>Approach to PT pedagogy</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ experience PT of the approach as a learning-activity according to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick; Kirkpatrick Partners.</td>
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<tr>
<th>20 <strong>group process</strong></th>
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<th>21 <strong>group size</strong></th>
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<th>22 <strong>PT programme response to parent's feedback</strong></th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>23 <strong>negative e.g. forced</strong></th>
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<th>24 <strong>Approach to PT family learning</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ experience PT involvement impacting upon the family in terms of the way in which learning continued within the family. (Doing things together,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>IMPACT on PARENTS</td>
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<td><strong>Impact on parental knowledge and skills</strong></td>
<td>Effects parents report on their capability for effectively locating and processing current information about options in the education system.</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td><strong>Approach to PT community interaction</strong></td>
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<td>26</td>
<td><strong>Content PT</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Clusters; New subjects &amp; pedagogy; course options in HE; issues on studying in HE (finances, housing); LMI (professions; job options, salaries)</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>broader awareness of connection clusters training and LMI</strong></td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Impact on parental self-efficacy</strong></td>
<td>Effects parents report of their judgement of their capability to make use of information and to guide and support their child's</td>
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<td><strong>Impact on parental knowledge and skills</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
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<td><strong>Content PT</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Impact on parental self-efficacy</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>self-confident</td>
<td>career development. (Assurance; self-confident)</td>
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<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>parents reassured about their child's choice making</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>Impact on parental role definition</td>
<td>Effects parent report of their beliefs what they are supposed to do in relation to their child’s career development and their behaviour following those beliefs. (Attitude; Reflections on their own parental role)</td>
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<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>puberty</td>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>parents report to act differently due to PT</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>parents report role changes due to PT</td>
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<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Lasting behaviour</td>
<td>Effects parent report on their competence to act and decide with new career decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>more aspects and/or urgent</td>
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<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>one aspect and/or not urgent</td>
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<td>Theme IMPACT on STUDENTS</td>
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<td>37</td>
<td>Impact on student's knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Effects parents report on their child’s capability for effectively locating and processing current information about options in the education system.</td>
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<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>information</td>
<td>Clusters; New subjects &amp;</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>broader awareness of connection clusters, training, LMI</td>
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<td>approach to career decision-making</td>
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<td>rethinking initial choice</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Impact on student’s sense of urgency and importance</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Effects parents report on their child’s attitude to their current career decision-making one year after the career intervention.</td>
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<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>insecurity or panic</td>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>growing confidence in future and sense of urgency</td>
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<td>43</td>
<td>denial or procrastinate</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>slow realisation or awareness of next steps</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>PT causes student's sense of importance of topic</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Impact on takes control</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effects parents report on observed autonomous actions by their child in career decision-making.</td>
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<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>on track</td>
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<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>student takes control</td>
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and parents less in the lead

**Theme IMPACT AT HOME on career conversations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page 1</th>
<th>Page 2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Parent-child interaction quality</td>
<td>Results parents report on the nature of the communication with their child at home after the sessions finished.</td>
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<td>discussion CEG</td>
<td>iland wider</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>relationship, bond</td>
<td>between parents and student</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Encouragement</td>
<td>Effects that parents report of their own active involvement in the career development of their child at home. (Stimulation; joint activities; sending hints, webpages.)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
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**Theme School as active and reactive AGENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Category</th>
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<td>33</td>
<td>Initiate contact and communication</td>
<td>Parent's perception of the school's attitude towards meeting parents questions and needs in general.</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>51</td>
<td>open to questions and needs of individual parents</td>
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<td>52</td>
<td>other parents’ reactions towards school initiatives</td>
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<td>experience distance home-school</td>
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<td>school takes the lead</td>
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<td>PT initiative triggers</td>
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<td>56</td>
<td>CEG</td>
<td>Parents’ impressions, expectations and experiences of the provision at school to guide and support all students in career decision-making. (Awareness of CEG; Missing issues; assistance related to level of uncertainty student)</td>
<td>19</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CEG communication</td>
<td>Parents’ impressions, expectations and experiences with initiating contact, communication on CEG, before and after PT.</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>57</td>
<td>procedures, school decisions</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>child expected to communicate with parents on (individual) guidance and support in CEG</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>59</td>
<td>after PT critics</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>60</td>
<td><strong>Memorable quotes</strong></td>
<td>Quotes for reporting.</td>
<td>18</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 12 Codebook thematic analyses record of the monthly ‘critical incident analysis’ sessions with the career teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme Efforts to keep PARTICIPANTS on board</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 parents</td>
<td>Incidents with parents on their continued participation.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 students</td>
<td>Incidents with students on their continued participation.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme Efforts to establish support, commitment, ownership with SCHOOL STAFF</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Colleague career teaches</td>
<td>Informing or involving colleagues from other departments within the school.</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Tutors</td>
<td>Informing and involving tutors from the academic year concerned.</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Subject teachers</td>
<td>Informing and involving subject teachers.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 School management</td>
<td>Informing or involving school management.</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme Challenges in the career intervention</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Logistical</td>
<td>Incidents in the local conditions.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Approach</td>
<td>Incidents with parents.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Reactions of parents</td>
<td>Explicit appreciation of the approach by parents.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Worries</td>
<td>Worries on parents not present.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 13 Items for measuring parental capacity in their child’s career development

Items for measuring parental knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental knowledge and skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the (vocational) possibilities of the different cluster choices/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the financial implications of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware of the employment prospects of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I am sufficiently aware where I can find (more) information about the different clusters/HE course which my child can choose from.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I understand my child’s perspective on the labour market sufficiently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the financial implications of the different clusters/HE courses from which my child is going to make a choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the labour market perspectives of the chosen cluster/HE course of my child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the courses possible in higher education for my child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on the vocational possibilities for my child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently, I need information on personal support in the career orientation of my child.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Participants were asked how far they agreed with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Items for measuring parental self-efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental self-efficacy</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to work with my child on a considered cluster/HE course choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to estimate the current labour market perspectives of my child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to oversee the financial consequences of the chosen cluster/HE course by my child.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the spring, I expect to be a fully-fledged discussion partner in the career orientation of my child.

In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to participate in career interviews with the tutor/career teacher and my child.

In the spring, I will be sufficiently able to perform career interviews with my child.

In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to encourage my child to actively orient him/herself towards a cluster/HE course choice.

In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to stimulate my child to think about, education, vocational choices and career.

In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to be a conversation partner with my child on his/her strengths and weaknesses.

In the spring of next school year, I will be sufficiently able to stimulate my child to develop career competencies.

Participants were asked how far they agreed with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

These items were submitted to the respondents at pre-intervention and at intervention, while at post-intervention, after the choice was made, the formulation was retrospective, e.g. ‘In the spring, I was sufficiently able to work with my child on a considered cluster/HE course choice’ and ‘In the spring, I was a fully-fledged discussion partner in the career orientation of my child’.

Items for measuring parental role definition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental role definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I stimulate my child to think about his/her own future</td>
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<tr>
<td>I talk regularly with my child about their educational and vocational choices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a parent/guardian, I am an important conversation partner for the career choices of my child.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I think it's important to be aware of the school performance of my child</td>
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<tr>
<td>As a parent, I am well informed about what is happening in the personal contacts between the school and my child.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants were asked how far they agreed with the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (does not fit with my self-image) to 5 (does fit my self-image fully).