AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-MONITORING AND CAREER ORIENTATION: AN ASSESSMENT OF MARK SNYDER'S THEORY OF SELF-MONITORING

BY

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DECLARATION

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

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DEDICATION

To **you**,

Young ones,

My ***Daughter and Son***,

Maureen and William,

In **you** is bestowed there in,

A potential,

To Reach,

Yonder height,

I may not,

Take this Beginning,

Yes,   Go,

FORTH!

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the relationship between self-monitoring and career orientation by comparing Arts- and Science-based students. The study was conducted at Moi University. The sample was drawn from students in the faculties of Health science, Education, and Science. Stratified and random sampling techniques were used.

The 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale developed by Snyder (1986) was used to measure the level of self-monitoring in the participants. Their self-monitoring mean scores were compared using t-test at $\alpha = .05$. The results showed that there was significant difference in self-monitoring between participants interested in art based careers ($M = 8.39$) and those interested in science based careers ($M = 7.29$) in their first year of study. However, no significant differences in self-monitoring were observed between participants enrolled in Arts-based careers ($M = 7.97$) and those trained in Science-based careers ($M = 7.31$) in their fourth year of study. The results also showed no significant difference in self-monitoring between males ($M = 7.99$) and females ($M = 7.52$) participants.

The conclusions made from the findings were that self-monitoring could influence career choice. Moreover, it was concluded that career training experiences have no effect on self-monitoring and that sex is not an important determinant factor in self-monitoring.

The findings of this study enhance our understanding on the development of self-monitoring. It agrees with Snyder's contention that self-monitoring scale can be used in career placement. The study gives insights into education system to tailor make curriculums suitable to different talents and to provide a conducive environment for development of relevant careers equally for both male and female students. The study also casts doubt about Snyder's assertions that self-monitoring is not manifested similarly in both males and females. The genes influencing self-monitoring may be distributed equally in both males and females.

In light of the findings in this study, it is recommended that longitudinal studies be made to establish how academic environment (science and Art) and mentors/role models would influence self-monitoring from entry level to when they complete their studies.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

This chapter examines the background to the problem, a statement of the research problem, the research questions, the rationale, the purpose of the study, assumptions, limitations and conceptual framework for the study. It also presents definition of terms used in this study.

1.1 Background to the Study

Studies in personality and self have shown that peoples' behaviour varies according to the situation we are in but at the same time we regard ourselves as the same person in each situation (Pervin, 1984; Ben and Allen, 1974). Successive studies in this unique characteristic of human beings have faced the dilemma of what should be given priority: Factors inside the person or situational characteristics external to the person? This has been a perennial debate and the pendulum has swung back and forth persistently. Some scholars, though, have opted for a middle way, favouring an interactional perspective that emphasizes an understanding of the interdependence between person and situation and between internal and external determinants of behaviour.

Some personality theorists believe that personality is influenced by genes inherited from parents (Leo, 1987). They have claimed that a major attribute of personality such as mental ability or intelligence is genetically determined. However, the degrees to which genes determine mental ability or intelligence have not been precisely determined. It remains a topic of research and experiment.

Environmentalists on the other hand have emphasized that a person's experiences determine mental functioning and other aspects of personality (Bouchard & McGue, 1981; Plomin, DeFries & McClearn, 1980). They have used evidence from behaviour genetics and medical treatment of psychopaths used to support this stance (Eysenck, 1967). They have also argued that social and cultural factors influence personality development. These factors include the role people play in the society, social

economic level of one's family, one's family size, and religion. Furthermore, Murray, (1938) asserted that demands and interests of other people also influence personality. An individual conforms to the approved patterns of social behaviour to avoid conflicting with the fellow members of the society. That is why parents and other authority figures are the chief agents of the socialization process (McDavid and Harari, 1989).

B.F. Skinner (1974) supported environmental influence of personality development. He advocated that we are what we have been rewarded for being. To him, if our history of reward had been different, our personality could have been different. His argument can be interpreted to mean that personality is learned by the pattern of rewards and not in the genes. The behaviors that are rewarded tend to persist and become consistent in an individual's behaviour. Those that are ignored do not persist. The implication is that one can control personality development by controlling the circumstances under which rewards are dispensed or withheld. Theoretically, it is possible therefore to create any personality by manipulating or controlling rewards. Using Skinner's view of personality development, responsible parents can decide to give direction to their children's emerging personality by reinforcing the positive behaviours displayed by the children, and careless parents can let such agents as television, peers, school, books and baby sitters shape the personality of their children.

Watson (1930) who is credited to have founded the school of behaviorism in psychology also held similar view. He believed that with exception of a few basic emotions that are inherited, behaviour patterns are learned through experience. To him, experience determined the kind of personality. He is known to have stated that:

> Give me one dozen healthy infants well formed and my own specified world, bring them up and I will guarantee to take anyone at random and train him to become any type of specialist I might select; doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant, chief and yes, even beggerman and thief regardless of his tendencies, abilities, vocations and ways of his ancestors (Watson 1930, p.104 In Baron, 1992).

Like Skinner, Watson emphasized environmental experience in shaping personality. To him, even the experiences of an individual in a given career orientation for example would shape his/her personality.

In a different approach to personality, Sigmund Freud (1957) maintained that the ultimate personality of an individual is determined by the unconscious mechanism and that to understand personality; one must get into the unconscious mind of the individual. To him, people have different personalities because the contents of the unconscious minds are different. According to Freud, personality is determined by early childhood experiences. He proposed that repressed thoughts originating from childhood determine personality development. Jung's (1875 − 1961) theory agrees with this view (Lewis, 1990). According to him, experiences are grouped in the personal unconscious into clusters or complexes. A complex to Jung is an organized group of thoughts about a particular concept, which has the ability to draw new ideas into it.

Some personality theorists emphasize cognitive process in an individual. They believe that human behaviour is self-regulated. Such theorists as Bandur (1986) and Mischel (1981) among others underscore the importance of self-reward, which come from goal attainment as the determinant of personality. They emphasize the importance of present experience and future goals in determining behaviour as opposed to past experiences. To them, one might be consistently hard working because he or she likes to achieve certain goals or one might be honest because he or she would want to maintain relationship with other people and also would like to establish new relationships.

All these theories discuss human personality in a rather broad and generalized perspective. In a bid to explain key dimensions of personality, scholars in this field have come up with "trait theories" of personality. These theories limit their focus on the most important ways in which people differ. They are based on the premise that

once we know how people differ, we can measure how much they differ and can then go on to relate such difference to behavior in a wide range of settings (Baron, 1992).

Current research on personality adopts the trait approach. Instead of seeking to propose and test grand theories such as those offered by Freud and Jung, most personality psychologists currently direct their efforts to the task of understanding specific traits that appear to exert important effects on behaviour on key areas of life (Byrne & Schulte, 1990; Kenrick & Funder, 1988). Important insights into human behaviour have indeed been gained in this manner as well as to the obvious shortcomings of grand theories.

Baron (1992), Allport and Allport (1921), Cattel and Dreger (1977), and Snyder (1974) have come to feature prominently in the study of personality traits. The trait approach to personality has generated a great deal of research. One of the most important and certainly controversial of the questions addressed in such research is: to what extent are personality traits inherited? (Baron, 1992). Baron mentions that few people question the fact that many of our physical characteristics from eye colour, and height to voice quality and physical attractiveness are inherited. He notes that many people including psychologists find it much harder to accept the suggestion that certain aspects of personality too appear to be influenced by such genetic factors.

In a bid to clarify this, research studies have been done using twin-study method (Bourchard, Lykken, McGue. Segal, and Tellegen, 1990; Rowe, 1987). This involves comparing the behaviour and characteristics of identical or monozygotic twins raised together and apart. The findings have revealed that genetic factors do indeed seem to play an important role in many forms of human behaviour, including several aspects of personality (Bourchard et al., 1990; Rowe, 1987). In a well-conducted research of this type, Bourchard et al., (1990) located 56 pairs of monozygotic twins raised apart and more than 100 pairs of monozygotic twins raised together. Both groups of twins were used to complete a large number of tests including several measures of personality. The results showed that identical twins raised together were not generally

more similar with respect to various personality traits than the identical twins raised apart. According to Bouchard et al., (1990), this point to the conclusion that genetic factors may account for approximately 50% of individual difference in personality. The claim that self-monitoring has genetic origin therefore needs to be revisited by venturing into further research on the same line.

This research built on these studies and sought to investigate the relationship between self-monitoring and career orientation. The research was based on Snyder's theory which categorise people as either high or low self-monitors. This theory also postulates that self-monitoring can influence career interests such as in acting, teaching, and science. The study provided data about the relationship between self-monitoring and career orientation on self-monitoring and stimulates further research on self-monitoring construct.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Mark Snyder in his study of personality postulated that self-monitoring trait is genetic in origin (Snyder and Gangstad, 1986). Snyder reported that:

> At a phenotypic level, self–monitoring tendencies are distributed continuously. That is, the extent to which people actually exercised self-control over their expressive behaviour exists in all degrees and thus is continuously distributed, as are scores on the self-monitoring scale itself. However, at a genotypic level, there exist one latent causal entity that is discretely distributed into two (high and low self-monitoring) and is thus a class variable (Snyder, 1987, p.159).

Baron, (1992) interpreting the research carried out by Bourchard et al, (1990) points out two facts that needs to be emphasized: First, while personality traits seem to be shaped by genetic factors, environmental conditions also play a crucial role. He maintains that if 50% of individual differences in personality are determined by genetic factors, then the remaining 50% are influenced by environmental factors. These factors he defines as rich, varied experiences we encounter as part of daily life.

Secondly, the fact that a specific form of behaviour is strongly influenced by genetic factors does not in any sense imply that it cannot be changed. People can and often do alter physical characteristics that are determined largely by heredity. The fact that an individual inherited tendencies to be shy, withdrawn, anxious and insensitive does not mean that he or she is locked into such traits. On the contrary, change is certainly possible and the notion that aspects of personality are unalterable is definitely false.

As mentioned earlier, some studies have demonstrated that development of self-monitoring trait is influenced by culture revealed that self-monitoring had a significant relationship with culture (Kodero, 1991; Gudykunst, Yang, & Nishida, 1987). These studies imply that the development of self-monitoring trait cannot be entirely attributed to genetic inheritance. This study sought to investigate the extent to which career interests, career training, sex and self-monitoring personality trait are related.

1.3 Purpose and objectives of the Study

Studies that have been done on self-monitoring have addressed the following questions: How might individual differences in self-control of expressive behaviour arise? and what might be the developmental, historical, and current motivational origins of self-control ability and performance? Most of these research studies have been carried out in the western countries. This study was conducted in Kenya and its general purpose was to investigate whether there is a relationship between self-monitoring and career interest. The specific objectives of the research were:

1. To find out if there is a relationship between the level of self-monitoring and career interest among the university students.
2. To find out whether career training has an influence on the level of self-monitoring.
3. To find out if there is a relationship between self-monitoring and gender.

To achieve the first objective, the researcher compared the levels of self-monitoring in first year students who had joined Art-based courses and first year students admitted in science-based courses. To achieve the second objective, the researcher compared the levels of self-monitoring of first and fourth year Art-based students. He also compared first and fourth year science-based students. To achieve the third objective, the researcher compared the levels of self-monitoring of male and female students.

The researcher hypothesized that if for instance on average it is found that the level of self-monitoring of freshmen student taking Art-based courses was higher than those taking science-based courses, this could have been attributed to genetic influence of self-monitoring trait as Snyder postulated. If the fourth year students were found to have higher level of self-monitoring than their counterparts in first year, this could be attributed to the training they have undergone. This way, the researcher was able to support or disagree with Snyder's assertions on self-monitoring.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

In this study, five research hypotheses were formulated. The hypotheses were based on the research questions. The hypotheses are as follows:

Null Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference in self-monitoring scores between first year Students taking Art based careers and first year students taking science based careers. This hypothesis was to test the assumption that science-based careers are low self-monitoring professions and that the students who opted for Science based careers are low in self-monitoring. This agrees with Snyder's assertion that there is a relationship between career choice and self-monitoring.

Null Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference is self-monitoring scores between fourth year students taking Art-based careers and fourth year students taking science-based careers. This hypothesis was to test the assumption that teaching is a high self-monitoring profession unlike science-based career, which is a low self-monitoring profession. This is also based on Snyder's assertion that teachers are high self-monitors.

Null Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference in self-monitoring scores between fourth year Students taking Art-based careers and first year students taking Art based careers. This hypothesis was to test the assumption that teacher-training would make individuals higher in self-monitoring. Fontana, (1986) argues that successful teachers are more understanding, accommodating, warm, friendly, stimulating, and enthusiastic. These are qualities comparable to high-self-monitoring.

Null Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference in self-monitoring scores between first and fourth year students taking science-based careers. This hypothesis was to test the assumption that science based careers do not affect the level of self-monitoring and thus if science-based career students are low self-monitors, their experience in training would have no effect on their self-monitoring.

Null Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference in self-monitoring scores between Male and female participants in all the faculties. In thus hypothesis, the researcher assumed that the genes that influence self-monitoring are prevalent equally in both males and females.

1.5 Research Questions

The first objective of this study was achieved by answering the following two questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in self-monitoring between first year students taking Art-based courses and first year students taking science-based courses?

2. Is there a significant difference in self-monitoring between fourth year students taking Art-based courses and fourth year students taking science-based courses?

The second objective was achieved by answering the following two questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in self-monitoring between first year and fourth year students taking Art-based courses?

2. Is there a significant difference in self-monitoring between first year and fourth year students taking science-based courses?

The third objective was achieved by answering this one question:

1. Is there a significant difference in self-monitoring between male and female students?

1.6 Justification of the Study

The assertions by Snyder that teachers and actors are high self-monitors have not been proved through intensive research. Kodero (1991) reported that there was no relationship between self-monitoring and career interest among Kenyan and Canadian students. Though his study illuminated on the aspect of self-monitoring personality trait and career interest, he did not venture to know if the training given to students in their different career orientations have a bearing on their self-monitoring. This study sought to fill this gap and ventured further to investigate if students' choice of career is determined by self-monitoring. Many studies in Africa on career choice have been based on such topical issues as parental influence, social-economic background, and role models/ mentors in determining career choice. Studies on personality and career-choice have not been given emphasis in Africa yet they can be used in guidance and counselling on career choice or while interviewing candidates for job placement.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Since the postulation of the theory of self-monitoring by Mark Snyder in 1974, many research on how this personality trait relates to specific human behaviours have been carried out especially in the western countries (Snyder and Gangsted, 1986). In testing the assertion of the theory that self-monitoring has a genetic origin, Kodero, (1991) and Gudykunst, Yang, Nishida, (1987) found that culture has a significant relationship with self-monitoring. Thus, this research is significant in the following ways;

1. The findings of this study will add to the small but growing body of literature about the relationship between self-monitoring and human career choice interest.

2. Research has shown that self-monitoring personality trait is dependant on cultural factors (Kodero, 1991 and Gudykunst, Yang & Nishida, 1987). This study has gone further to investigate the relationship between self-monitoring and career orientation. It has filled this gap left out by other studies related to self-monitoring. This has been done by incorporating the element of teacher training and it's bearing to self-monitoring unlike the other studies that have focused on cultural element in self-monitoring.

3. It is a well-known fact in Psychology that behaviour is determined by multiple causes. Behavioral processes are complex and multifactoral causation is the rule. By venturing into the research on the relationship between self-monitoring trait and career orientation, additional knowledge has been stimulated in line with this theory. The study strengthens the scholarly principle of discouraging simplistic, single-cause thinking and thus encourage more thinking that is critical.

4. The study is important in guiding educational institutions on curriculum development that is sensitive to hereditary talents as well as mapping careers based on personality traits.

5. Parents will also find the study useful in upbringing children and in talent identification as well as in guiding them in choice of career

6. The study will also inform career guidance and counseling by relating talents with career choice.

1.8 Theoretical framework of the study

This study is based on Mark Snyder's theory of self-monitoring. Snyder (1974) says that self-monitoring is a personality construct that reflects the individual's tendency to employ the tactics of impression management in his or her relation with others. In other words, it is the degree to which people attend to and control the impression they make on others in social interactions. According to this theory, people differ in the extent to which they rely on either situational characteristics or inner states in regulating their behaviour. Snyder categorized people into two groups: High self-monitors and low self-monitors.

High self-monitors according to Snyder are individuals whose behaviour is guided by situational cues. They are very sensitive to their self-presentation and they seek information about how they are expected to behave in a situation. They shrewdly adjust their behaviour to create the right impression (Snyder, 1979). In expounding on this, Baron (1992) dubs high self-monitors, 'social chameleons' because they can change their behaviour to match the current situation. If they find themselves among

beer-drinking construction workers, they roll up their sleeves and swig some beer. If on another instance they find themselves among wine experts, they roll down their sleeves and sip the best of them. In short, they adjust what they say and what they do to the current situation in order to make a positive impression on others (Snyder and Gangsted, 1986). The correspondence between their behaviour and attitude is thus minimal. It is the characteristic of the situation that would be used to predict and understand their behaviour. Larkin (1991) insinuates that high self-monitor appears to be a very social creature, skilled in interpersonal communication and well versed in managing self-presentation.

On the other hand, low self-monitors are less concerned with the impression they are making. Their behaviour is controlled by internal factors such as beliefs, attitudes and dispositions. They behave more spontaneously and are less skilled at figuring out what others want to see. Since they are less likely to alter their behaviour to satisfy other's expectations, they show greater consistency in behaviour across situations and thus greater congruency between their attitude and behaviour. Confronted by a particular situation, they use stored information to determine the course of their action or behaviour. Larkin (1991) says that low self-monitors come as the internally consistent individual who relates to others in a straight forward way that reflects the inner self. Furthermore, he asserts that the low self-monitors are rigid and obstinate.

The aspect of this theory of self-monitoring that forms the springboard for this study is the origins of self-monitoring. Snyder and Gangstad (1986) asserted that the development of self-monitoring is determined largely by genetic factors, meaning that people are born with a biological-genetic predisposition to be high or low in self-monitoring. This is why Snyder categorised people as either high or low in self-monitoring. Snyder downplayed the influence of environmental factors on the development of self-monitoring. Snyder (1987) reported that there is no reliable evidence from studies that can implicate environmental variables as predictors of self-monitoring. As Kodero (1991) wrote, this assertion contradicts the finding of an earlier study conducted by Zaidman and Snyder in 1983. They reported that most

adults who scored high in self-monitoring grew up in houses with more rooms and fewer people per room. This finding point to the fact that it is possible for social class as an environmental factor to influence the development of self-monitoring. It has also been reported that people with urban orientation score higher than those with rural orientation on self-monitoring (Hormuth & Lalli, 1984). In his research, Kodero (1991) showed that there is a significant relationship between culture and self-monitoring.

There are studies which have alluded to the relationship between self-monitoring and career orientation Snyder, (1987) reported that professional stage actors have substantially higher scores on the self-monitoring scale than comparison samples of University students. However, Snyder did not explain the causes of differences in self-monitoring between the actors and University students. The question that remain unanswered is: are the stage actors high in self-monitoring because their profession demands expressive self-control and through practice they become high self-monitors or are high self-monitoring because they have the potentials for expressive self-control?

Kodero, (1991) reported that acting and teaching are similar in that they both involve mental and emotional interaction between the participants and the listeners. They play the task of drawing and sustaining the attention of the listeners besides preparing their contents in advance and using gestures and intonations, to sustain audience attention. Fontana, (1986) reported that successful teachers are more understanding, accommodating, warm, friendly, stimulating, and enthusiastic than the less successful one's. He maintains that, teaching requires mastery of one's mood. Clearly, his claims suggested that teachers ought to be high self-monitors. Bloom, (1983) described teaching as a multi-skilled profession. He emphasised that teachers must think seriously about their active task entry behaviour of children in their classes, that a teacher should determine what particular active behaviors on his part are likely to obtain the best results. He also needs to know how to control the class, where to take initiative and where to keep quiet. All these qualities point to high self-monitoring as a

sine qua non for a good teacher. Larkin, (1987) reported existence of a relationship between self-monitoring and teaching. She asserted that high self-monitoring teachers rated themselves as significantly more able than low self-monitoring teachers to change their teaching style to fit the needs of the students.

Underlying these studies is the idea of high self-monitoring among teachers. It is logical to assume that teachers are high in self-monitoring or to be more specific, 'good teachers are high self-monitors'. As Kodero, (1991) notes, testing practicing teachers in self-motoring would tell us little about the cause of high self-monitoring in them. It would not tell whether the practice or the potential makes them high in self-monitoring. According to Bloom and Fontana's assertions, high self-monitoring nature of teachers is largely acquired through practice. This conflicts with Snyder's contention that one is either born high or low self-monitor. Snyder's stance rules out the possibility that a low self-monitor can turn into high self-monitor as a result of practice. To him, only those born high in self-monitoring choose to go into acting and teaching professions. On the contrary to Snyder, Bloom and Fontana's argument is that high self-monitoring ability required in teaching can be acquired through practice. A low self-monitor can become a high self-monitor after joining the profession.

It is against this theoretical framework that this study seeks a further clarification about self-monitoring and career orientation. By testing students who have just enrolled in the Faculty of Education to train as teachers, it would be possible to determine their potentiality in self-monitoring. If their self-monitoring was found higher than students in the Faculty of Science, then it might be tentatively concluded that those who go into teaching profession have a higher self-monitoring potential than those who go into science based occupations. By comparing self-monitoring mean scores of fourth and first year students taking Art-based courses, and First and fourth year students taking Science-based courses, it would be possible to deduce the effect of career training on self-monitoring. This will be used to make conclusions regarding the cause of high self-monitoring of teachers, whether ascribed or achieved.

1.9 Operational definition of terms

1. Self-monitoring: - This term will refer to extent to which an individual is judged as able to adjust with situational cues or not from the responses he gives to the questions in the self-monitoring scale.

2. Career: - This term was used to refer to the specific degree course the participants were pursuing. It was considered science based if it involved undertaking science subjects and teaching or Art based if the subjects were undertaking it for the purpose of becoming teachers eventually.

3. Training: - This term was used to mean all formal experiences that students are exposed to as they are being prepared for their respective career choices.

1.10 Assumptions in the study

The following assumptions were made in this study:

(i)   That self-monitoring as a personality variable is expressed in all individuals regardless of their career interest, training and gender.

(ii)   That the participants were sincere and they made accurate response to all the items in research instruments used in this study.

1.11 Limitation of the study

The researcher in this study faced the limitation of literature materials since studies in self-monitoring have not been carried out extensively in Africa and particularly in Kenya. To overcome this limitation, the researcher used every available literature materials from the western countries, accessible information via Internet, and journals. The researcher sought the most recent materials that were available in Kenyan University Libraries.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter contains a review of the theoretical and research literature related to self-monitoring. It includes an examination of the theoretical meaning and origin of self-monitoring encompassing the characteristics of high and low self-monitors. Further, it includes a critical discussion on the origin of self-monitoring after which it discusses the relationship between self-monitoring and other variables. Finally, it examines the relationship between self-monitoring and career orientation that was investigated in this study.

2.1 The Meaning of Self-Monitoring

The classic pragmatic theories of the 'self' have a view that individuals differ in the extent to which they rely on either situational characteristics or inner states in regulating their behavior. This has formed intellectual roots of many personality traits speculated by modern personality theorists.

The extent to which individuals show consistent behaviour across situations and over time has been considered as an aspect of personality. This is what Snyder (1974) came to conceptualize as 'self-monitoring'. He defined it as a unitary construct that reflects the individual's tendency to employ the tactics of impression management in his or her interaction with others. More precisely, self-monitoring refers to the relative tendency of individuals to regulate their behaviour on the basis of internal factors such as their own beliefs, attitudes and values or instead on the basis of external factors such as the reactions of others or the requirements of a given situation (Snyder, 1987).

Snyder categorically put people in two groups based on this personality trait: high and low self-monitors. The high self-monitors are on the 'external factor' side of the description of self-monitoring while the low self-monitors are on the 'internal factor'

side. Low self-monitors tend to show greater consistency across different situations than do high self-monitors. Two major abilities of high self-monitoring individuals have been reported. One is that of monitoring the situation (self-monitoring sensitivity) and the other is of modifying their behaviour (behavioral flexibility).

The high self-monitor's behaviour is guided by situational cues. They are flexible and adaptive individuals who in a given situation identifies a prototype of ideal persons or relevant others and adjusts their behavior to match these 'significant' persons so as to fit accordingly in the group. Their behavior is thus dependent on the situation in question and not on their attitude. The characteristic of the situation can be used to predict their behavior at a given time because they adjust their social behavior to fit situational and interpersonal specifications of appropriateness. Low self-monitors on the other hand consistently display behavior that is controlled by internal factors such as beliefs, attitudes and dispositions. There is a high degree of relationship between their attitudes and behavior, that is, the covariation between their social behaviors and underlying traits, dispositions, attitudes and beliefs is significant. Their underlying traits, dispositions, attitudes and beliefs can be used to predict their behaviour in different situations. They read the characteristics of the situation and use their experience to decide on a course of action or behavior.

According to Ickes and Barnes (1977) high self-monitors initiate and regulate conversations more, initiate more conversational sequences and have a greater need to talk than low self-monitors. In this case, high self-monitors are more outgoing than low self-monitors. This is in agreement with Briggs and Cheek (1988) who described high self-monitor as the quintessential person of social psychology. By this, they meant that the high self-monitor is pragmatic and flexible, thoughtful, carefully attuned to social cues and well rehearsed in appropriate scripts. On the other hand, they described the low self-monitor as the epitome of the person in personality psychology. By this they meant that he is inward looking and self-reflective. Larkin (1991) views high self-monitor as a social creature skilled in interpersonal communication and well versed at managing self-presentation. On the other hand, he

views low self-monitor as an internally consistent individual who relates to others in a straightforward way that reflects the inner self.

Because of their ability to interpret social cues, high self-monitors have been reported to be more accurate in detecting deception. This is in agreement with the summary of Snyder (1979) findings, which indicated that the prospect of social interaction might lead the high self-monitoring individual to engage in perceptual and cognitive processes that direct the search for information about another individual. Thus, the high self-monitor would possess greater amount of information of the counterpart person to have a base for impression management decisions. They have been reported to be better than low self-monitors both at reading other's emotional reactions and at managing their own nonverbal cues. They are therefore successful at making a good first impression. High self-monitors seem to be image conscious and to approach new situations by asking themselves "How can I best please the people I have to deal with?" In contrast, low self-monitors ask themselves, "How can I best be me in this situation?" (Baron, 1998).

Snyder, Simpson, and Gangestad, (1986) reported a difference between high and low self-monitors based on how they form intimate relationships. High self-monitors tend to have a greater number of different romantic partners than low self-monitors. This could be attributed to their adaptability. In addition, high and low self-monitors seem to choose their romantic partners on different grounds. Low self-monitors want dating partners and lovers who share their values and attitudes while high self-monitors express greater concern with choosing partners who will make them look good or who have the right connections. In their study, Snyder, Simpson, and Gangestad observed that a group of college aged men who were not committed to a steady dating partner studied file folders that contained photographs and personality sketches of potential dating partners. High self-monitors devoted proportionately more time than low self-monitoring men to inspecting the photographs of their potential partners, while the low self-monitoring spent more time scrutinizing the personality characteristics of their potential partners. The implication of this study is that high self-monitors initiate

romantic relationship on the basis of exterior appearance while low self-monitors on the basis of interior qualities. According to Snyder's speculations, high self-monitors can form and break relationships very quickly while low self-monitors would take longer time to enter into relationship and would love to stay in them.

Though Snyder (1987) avoided placing any value judgment on either low or high self-monitors, Lennox (1982) reported that prototypical descriptions produced negative ratings on sincerity and honesty for the high self-monitors and on rigidity and obstinacy for low self-monitors. Because of their changing behaviour, high self-monitors may be viewed by others as unreliable inconsistent or even manipulative.

In his self-discrepancy theory, Higgins, 1983 postulates that there exists a gap between one's actual self and ideal self. The high self-monitors can be said to be using the ideal self as a guide to self-presentation.

Findings from organizational literature shows that people who are high in self-monitoring, or the "field dependent" are more susceptible to social influence at work than are low self-monitors or the "field independent (Wess and Nowicki, 1981 in Kodero 1991). Thus we can hypothesise that low self-monitors would therefore be more likely to initiate attempts at personal control. It is conceivable that while low self-monitors would be hesitant about acting proactively, they may also attend less to situational cues that might be helpful in suggesting what form such influences attempts should take (for example rewards, ingratiation, persuasion, and manipulation of information given to other organizational actors). Low self-monitors may therefore make relatively more errors in choosing among influence strategies than would other people (Bell & Staw, 1989 in Kodero 1991).

2.2 The Origin of Self-Monitoring

Snyder and Gangestad (1986) explaining the origin of self-monitoring attributed it to genetic inheritance. Snyder reported that:

> At a phenotypic level, self-monitoring tendencies are distributed continuously. That is, the extent to which people actually exercised self-control over their expressive behavior exists in all degrees and thus is continuously distributed, as are scores on the self-monitoring scale itself. However, at a genotypic level, there exists one latent causal entity that is discretely distributed into two (high and low self-monitoring) and is thus a class variable (Snyder, 1987, p. 159).

It is clear that Snyder postulated that self-monitoring is a discontinuous trait at genotypic level and continuous at phenotypic level. Thus, people appear to be born with a biological-genetic predisposition to be high or low in self-monitoring. In this case, people come either as high or low self-monitors at the underlying level.

Snyder downplayed the influence of environment factor on self-monitoring. He however did not give sufficient evidence to support the claim that self-monitoring is largely genetic in origin. He only quoted two unpublished papers authored by Dworkin (1977) and Gangestad (1986). Dworkin presented a paper on genetic influences on cross-situational consistency at the Second International Congress on Twin studies (Kodero, 1991). He claimed that the within pair variability on the self-monitoring scale for identical twins was less than half the within pair variability for fraternal twins. Gangestad reported in his dissertation that concordance rate of identical twins is .95 and fraternal twins .74 on self-monitoring. However, Kodero (1991) holds reservation to the authenticity of the two sources saying that they have not been published and therefore have not been scrutinized by independent scholars to be approved to support genetic origin of self-monitoring.

Snyder in support for the Biological-genetic origin of self-monitoring further argued that the potentiality to become low or high self-monitors could be recognized in children at an early age. He based this argument on Nelson's (1981)-classification system of children less than one and half years. This system puts children in either of

the two categories: referential or expressive. Referential children acquire language as a system for conveying information about events in the world. Expressive children on the other hand acquire language as a social vehicle for capturing the attention of others. Snyder argued that referential and expressive linguistic styles are early forms of self-monitoring. To him referential children and low self-monitoring adults are insensitive to social contexts while expressive children and high self-monitoring adults are highly attentive to such considerations. This correlation of linguistic styles to self-monitoring by Snyder is purely speculative. There is no longitudinal study that has shown that referential children become low self-monitoring and that expressive children become high self-monitors at adulthood (Kodero, 1991).

Snyder also indirectly suggested that low and high self-monitors differ in a specific body metabolism related to self-presentation and sensitivity to others behaviour. Genes don't have direct effect on behaviour. They affect behavior indirectly in the same way that they affect any phenotype, that is, by controlling the production of enzymes (Plomin, DeFries& McClearn, 1980). If self-monitoring is genetic, there must therefore be a specific metabolism or protein synthesis associated with it such that either high or low self-monitors individuals are deficient in the metabolism. There is no such a metabolism or its deficiency known.

In support of discontinuous nature of self-monitoring, Snyder and Gangestad (1985) reported that the proportion of people belonging to each of the self-monitoring classes is fixed within any sample. They stated that the proportion of people belonging to the high self-monitoring class is 0.41 while it is 0.59 to the low self-monitoring.

By attributing self-monitoring to genetic origin, Snyder implied that there exist 'social genes' that make high self-monitors sensitive to social cues and 'attitudinal genes' that make low self-monitors more dependent on their inner states for behavioral regulation (Kodero, 1991). There is no empirical evidence to support such implications.

2.3 Criticism of the Genetic Origin of Self-Monitoring

Snyder, (1986) claimed that self-monitoring is continuous at phenotypic level while it is discontinuous at genotypic level. This can be interpreted to mean that the extent to which people actually exercise self control over their expressive behaviour exists in all degrees and thus is discontinuously distributed into two (high and low self-monitoring) hence a class variable.

According to Lewin (1935) features describing a behaviour presently, that is, "here and now" are phenotypic. Explanations of "deeper disposition" causations are genotypic. According to geneticists and behaviour geneticists, "Genotypic" refers to the underlying gene structure, which through various biochemical processes and under given intrauterine and other environmental conditions, causes certain traits to develop in the individual. Phenotypes are considered directly measurable because they are observable. Their expression is influenced by both genetic and environmental factors. The phenotypes are used to deduce genotypes that are not always open for overt observations. To behavioral sciences, the genotypic variable is a construct, the existence of which is inferred from the study of the observable phenotypic variable. A good example of such a trait is tongue rolling which is a discontinuous trait at both phenotypic and genotypic levels while intelligence is a continuous trait at both levels. It may have been logical to assume that self-monitoring is either continuous or discontinuous at both levels rather than assume that it is continuous at phenotypic level and discontinuous at genotypic level as Snyder postulated.

Snyder (1987) acknowledged that it was unlikely that a single gene was involved in the development of self-monitoring and at the same time maintained that self-monitoring was discontinuous at genotypic level. This is self-contradictory. Snyder (1987) underrated the effect of environmental factors on self-monitoring although he appeared conscious of the possible influence of the cultural factors on the development of self-monitoring. While referring to Benedicts (1967) characterization of Japanese life as full of rules Snyder noted that such a society with such a high value in rule following may have a correspondingly large proportion of high self-monitors in

it (Snyder, 1987). He noted further that in such a society, people develop high adherence of the social world and thus display a high amount of self-monitoring. His implication in this case was that Japan would have a large portion of its population being high self-monitors. Gudykunst, Yang, and Nishida, (1987) compared Americans, Japanese and Koreans in self-monitoring. They reported that the self-monitoring scores of the Americans were higher than those of Japanese and Koreans. Kodero (1991) reported that there was a significant difference in self-monitoring between Canadians and Kenyan students. The mean scores of Canadians in self-monitoring were significantly higher than those of the Kenyans. Frazier and Fatis (1980) and Sullivan and Harnish (1990) have reported that the effects of cultural or environmental factors on the development of self-monitoring are significant and should not be underrated whatsoever as Snyder did.

Earley (1984) showed that the rate of social interaction between supervisors and the employers in tyre manufacturing factories was highest for the Ghanaians, followed by the Americans and the English. This shows that social world awareness and rate of social interaction is an indicator of the level of self-monitoring. As was alluded by Snyder, it would be logical to conclude that there would be a larger proportion of high self-monitors in Ghana than America or Britain.

Snyder claimed he used the taxometric methods developed by Meehl and Golden in 1982 to justify his classification of self-monitoring as a discontinuous variable. Justifying this method, Snyder reported that "taxometric methods can be applied when researchers believe that a discontinuous class variable exists and they can supply a set of indicators thought to discriminate between the two classes" (Snyder, 1987, p. 160). Earlier, Snyder and Gangestad, (1985) had proposed a typological model in treating self-monitoring as a discontinuous trait, that is, individuals are either low or high self-monitors. They stated that it does not matter what a person's scores on the trait measure is, all that matters is that the correct classification into the proper type (low or high) has been made. It disregarded how high or low one is on the self-monitoring scale. This way of classifying people into two categories qualifies it as typology.

Allport, (1961) described a topologists as imposing his own interests on human nature and that in his eye, mankind seems to be divisible according to his scheme. Typological way of categorizing people is based on reason and not on empirical tests. It is needed for its convenience in explaining phenomena.

Typologists however run into the difficulty of 'discrete' implementation, that is, discontinuity where one group fit in a given type while the others fit outright in the other. They ignore a possibility for existence of a "mixed types" where one cannot demarcate between one type and the other. Probably Snyder ignored this difficulty because he developed an empirical method (scale) for measuring the level of self-monitoring (Kodero, 1991). Alternatively, the term 'type' would have been used without claiming that it involves concrete personalities distinguishable by two extremes of high and low.

For behavioral characters, continuous variation is the rule rather than the assumption (Plomin, 1980). This implies that most personality traits are continuous including self-monitoring which Snyder claimed was discontinuous. Because of environmental effect, we tend to assign individuals to genetic categories while in reality most phenotypic variations in species from microorganisms to men is continuous (Earley, Eysenck & Martin, 1989).

In the absence of evidence supporting full genetic influence, the search for the factors that contribute to the development of self-monitoring trait should begin the exploration of the environmental factors. Most behavioral variability among individuals is environmental in origin (Plomin & Daniels, 1987). They observed that research done have come into a remarkable conclusion that environmental influences on personality, psychopathology and cognition make two children in the same family as different from one another as are pairs of children selected at random from the population. It has been established by behavioral genetic research that evidence that more than half of the variance for complex behavioral trait due to genetic difference seldom exists among individuals. Snyder and Gangestad's claims are not in agreement with these findings.

Snyder did not approve of psychological genetic studies. He is quoted to have said that psychological genetic studies "end where they begin" (Snyder, personal communication, May 15, 1991, in Kodero, 1991). Snyder and Gangestad (1985) in an article entitled "To carve the nature at its joints" argued that psychologists have spent most of their time developing sophisticated methods for measuring the cognitive abilities which were assumed to be quantitative and ignored the development of methods for measuring class variable. This attitude, they argued, may be responsible for the creation of unfavorable environment for class models of personality. Though this argument is reasonable, it is not sufficient to convince scholars that self-monitoring are discontinuous at genotypic level and continuous at phenotypic level. To prove that self-monitoring is discontinuous at genotypic level might require the isolation of the gene responsible for its development (Kodero, 1991).

It is clear from this discussion that the origin of self-monitoring is not fully understood. There is no sufficient data to support its genetic origin as Snyder claimed. From the various studies undertaken, culture cannot be ruled out as a factor that influences self-monitoring. There is a need to investigate whether self-monitoring influences career choice or it is the career that one undertakes that influences his/her level of self-monitoring. Basically, this study sought to investigate the relationship between environment and self-monitoring personality trait.

2.4 Self-Monitoring and other Personality Variables

Research studies have attempted to show the relationship between self-monitoring and other personality variables already known. The findings of such investigations indicate that the development of self-monitoring may not be determined entirely by genetic factors.

Using the original self-monitoring scale, Younger and Pliner (1976) conducted a study and reported that obese persons have higher self-monitoring scores than normal

individuals. This may be interpreted as an attempt by the obese individuals to monitor and control their behavior more carefully so as to achieve social acceptance.

A significantly large discrepancy exists between high self-monitoring rating and the ratings made by those acquainted to them (Tunnel, 1980). This finding was in agreement with Miller and Hogan (1978) who reported that tent making is a form of self-presentation, and that high self-monitors concerned as they are with their self-presentation may be high in evaluation apprehension and try "to look good" in the eyes of the teacher. It appeared that the attention of the high self-monitors was on the immediate demand of the research situations and not on their relevant past behaviors unlike low self-monitors who gave self-ratings that were more consistent with past behavior as assessed by their acquaintances.

High self-monitors are sensitive and they like to please and to be pleased by others. It appears that they make up their minds but never permanently because every situations they confront presents to them different demands requiring different modes of behaviour. The variation of their behaviour with situations explains why there is a greater discrepancy between their self-ratings and ratings of them made by others. The low self-monitors appear to be more concerned with realities and long-lasting attributes. Their behaviour is consistent in most if not all situations and their self-ratings are similar to ratings of them made by others.

After conducting a study with 92 college students with the original self-monitoring scale and adjective check list (developed by Gough and Heilbrum, 1980), Cadwell and O'Reilly (1985) reported that there was a positive correlation between the Acting and Extraversion subscales of the self-monitoring scale and competitive ambition and affiliation subscales computed from the adjective check list. They also found a high correlation between the Succorance, Abasement and other Directedness subscales. They concluded that those individuals who have an active approach towards social situations are higher scorers on the acting and Extraversion subscales of self-

monitoring and that those who are high on need for Succorance and Abasement tend to score high on the other Directedness scale.

It could be expected that subjects high on self-monitoring scale be influenced by others to engage in such behavior as drug use as they adjust to fit in their social groups. A study conducted by Wolfe, Lennox and Hudiburg (1983) using the revised 13-item scale showed contrary findings. The high self-monitors described their own drug use as self-initiated. However, the subjects in the study were freshmen recruited during the summer orientation sessions at State University of New York. Wolf and Lennox explained this unexpected result that at the time of the freshmen took the tests, they were strangers to each other and were therefore likely to describe their drug use as self-initiated rather than due to the influence of others.

Lennox and Wolf (1984) had proposed that an inverse relationship exists between the construct of machiavellianism, which means being cunning and deceitful in gaining what one wants, and self-monitoring. Further, they suggested that the low Machiavellian and high self-monitor characteristically interact socially in many of the same way. Similarly, high Machiavellians and low self-monitors, they said, would also interact in much the same manner in interpersonal situations. The high Mach and low self-monitors thus would have a tendency to ignore social cues present in interpersonal situations and correspondingly, not respond to the social cues present. A study by Madonna, Wesley and Anderson (1987) showed that although self-monitoring was a significant discriminator of high and low Machiavellians, the direction of the relationship was opposite to that predicted.

Snyder(1974, 1987) theorized that high and low self-monitor differ in the extent to which they attempt to manage their public presentations. High self-monitors assume social situations and adjust their presentations of self to fit their perceptions of the demand of that situation. Low self-monitors are less concerned with the actions of others and are more resistant to changing their public displays of self. However, Snyder did not make any specific predictions regarding self-monitoring and honesty.

On a superficial level, we could predict that high self-monitors because they "cheat" in self-presentation, would be more likely to cheat on an experimental task. But cheating carries with it negative social connotations, particularly for one's image, thus whether high or low self-monitors cheat would depend on additional situational variables for example surveillance (risk of detection). Because high self-monitors are more concerned with how others perceive them than are low self-monitors, they would be less likely to cheat because dishonestly implies the risk of detection and of negative evaluation of their character. However, because cheating implies the possibility of loss or gain, incentives for cheating may further moderate the relationship between self-monitoring and dishonesty. It would be expected that a sufficiently large incentive (e.g. superior grade in a course) would overpower any internal or external prohibitions against cheating.

Covey, Saladin and Killen, (1988) in Kodero 1991 investigated the role of self-monitoring, incentive and surveillance on cheating behaviour. They reported that observation reduced cheating. Whereas offering on incentive to high self-monitors had no impact on their dishonesty performance, incentives significantly increased dishonesty for low self-monitors. Further, they observed that high self-monitors were significantly more likely to cheat when no incentives were offered but less likely than low self-monitors to cheat when incentives were given.

In short, the relationship between self-monitoring and other personality variables point to the fact that self-monitoring cannot be purely attributed to genes as Snyder claimed. Environmental factors and other personality traits seem to have interplay in determining the characteristic behaviour of high and low self monitors.

2.5 Relationship between Self-Monitoring and Careers

According to Snyder, expressive self-control is a meal ticket to the professional actors. He reported that professional stage actors have substantially higher scores on the self-monitoring scale than comparison samples of university students (Snyder, 1987). However, he did not explain the causes of difference in self-monitoring between the

actors and the University students. Kodero (1991) questions whether stage actors are high in self-monitoring because their profession demands expressive self-control and therefore through practice they become high self-monitors or are high in self-monitoring because they have the potential for expressive self-control. If practice makes them high self-monitors, then the role of environment in influencing self-monitoring needs to be given consideration. If they have the potential for expressive self-control, then this could be explained by Snyder's postulation that self-monitoring has a genetic origin.

Teaching can be compared to acting because they both involve interacting with audience in such a way that the teacher and the actor draws and sustains the attention of the listeners. They both prepare their contents in advance and use gestures and intonation to sustain the attention of the listeners. One quality of a good teacher or actor is being sensitive to the emotional expression of the audience and be able to judge when they are attentive or bored. Thus, expressive self-control is equally a meal ticket to teacher as it is to the actor.

Successful teachers are more understanding, accommodating, warm, friendly, stimulating and enthusiastic than the less successful ones (Fontana, 1986). He stated further that teaching requires mastery of one's mood so that the teacher might not inflict on the class a rather angry mood induced in him/her by the earlier behaviour of another class.

Bloom (1983) sees teaching as a multi-skilled profession and argues that teachers must think seriously about their active task entry behaviour and the entry behaviors of the children in their classes. To have the best results, the teacher needs to manage his expressive behaviour. At times, he needs to be decisive and authoritative while at other times he needs to be democratic, and give students a free atmosphere. He ought also to tailor his/her way of teaching so that at times he/she gives the answers to questions while at other times he/she prompts the students to give the answers themselves. He/she also needs to provide for individual differences among students.

With some students, he needs to be challenging while with others, he needs to be supportive and encouraging (Kodero, 1991). He ought to know which students to trust and which students to be a little more careful with. He should be considerate on the most appropriate atmosphere to make a joke or to which students in particular he should share the joke with.

Burns (1982) argues that it is the child's interpretation of the teacher's behaviour to which the child responds. He further argues that pupils' behaviour is a major outcome of teacher behaviour since the teacher is a necessary though not sufficient condition for purposeful pupil's performance, and pupil behaviour is a response to the way the teacher provides situations for learning in which the pupil are 'initiates'.

Combs (1965) was able to conclude that good teachers can be clearly distinguished from poor one's with respect to several perceptions about people. First, he says that the good teacher is more likely to have an internal rather than external frame of reference. That is, he seeks to understand how things seem to others and then uses this as a guide for his own behaviour. Second, he says that the good teacher is more concerned with people and their reactions than with things and events. Third, he argues that the good teacher is concerned with the subjective and perceptual experience of people than with objective events, that is, he is again more concerned with how things seem to people than just the so-called 'facts'. Fourth, Comb says that the good teacher seeks to understand the causes of people's behaviour in terms of their current thinking, feeling and understanding rather than in terms of forces exerted on them now or in the past. All these characteristics befit a high self-monitoring personality trait. Logically, we would expect good teachers to be high in self-monitoring.

High self-monitoring teachers have been reported to rate themselves as significantly more able than low self-monitoring teachers in changing their teaching style to fit the needs of the students (Larkin, 1987). This points to the idea that good teachers ought

to be high in self-monitoring to be able to understand their students and adjust their style of teaching to meet their needs effectively.

Bloom believes that the ability of the teachers to change their behaviour to conform to demands of the situation is a professional skill, which can be acquired through practice. Fontana has a similar view. He maintains that the ability of teachers to master their moods comes only with long practice. If practice makes teachers high self-monitors, then Snyder's theory of genetic origin of self-monitoring is questionable. It would instead be that those born high in self-monitoring choose to go into acting and teaching professions. To bloom, and Fontana, it would be possible to turn a low self-monitor into a high self-monitor.

Educators have considered teaching practice as the most important training experience for student teachers. Every component in the curriculum is geared towards making a student teacher into a teacher and it is during teaching practice that this teacher education is used in real teaching situations. A student teacher engages in role behaviour that will, later, distinguish him as a full-fledged, legitimate teacher.

Besides learning teaching contents, student teachers are exposed to methodology of teaching which entails understanding and demonstrating the ability to deliver the contents in a class in a manner that the pupils will understand. This training internalizes in them the tactics of impression management rpobably making them high self-monitors.   They acquire a mastery of subject matter, and the personality characteristic that enables them to become what Bloom (1983) describes as 'good teachers'.

More studies points to the idea that teachers are high self-monitors. Burns (1982) p. 253) outlines the characteristics of what he calls "effective teachers' as follows:
   1. They have a willingness to be more flexible.
   2. They have an emphatic ability, sensitive to the needs of pupils.
   3. They have an ability to personalize their teaching.

4. They have an appreciative reinforcing attitude.

5. They demonstrate an easy, informal, warm, conversational teaching manner.

6. They have ability for emotional adjustment, self-confidence and cheerfulness.

This 'effectiveness' described by the above qualities are compatible with the characteristics of high self-monitors implying that, effective teachers are high self-monitors.

The views of Combs (1965) on the qualities of a good teacher points to high self-monitoring as a sine qua non for effective teachers. He asserts that a good teacher is more likely to have an internal rather than an external frame of reference, that is, he seeks to understand how things seems to others then uses this as a guide for his own behaviour. This is quite in agreement with high self-monitors who use situational cues to adjust their behavior according to the situation. He is more concerned with people and their reactions than with things and events.

Combs add that a good teacher is more concerned with the subjective and perceptual experience of people than with objective events. He is more concerned with how things seem to people than the 'facts'. Likewise, a high self-monitor looks at what interests the people and adjusts accordingly so as to fit amongst them. He seeks to understand the causes of people's behaviour in terms of their current thinking, feeling, and understanding rather than in terms of forces exerted on them now or in the past.

Pertaining to subject matter, a teacher cannot furnish adequate feedback to students or clarify ambiguities and misconceptions unless he has a meaningful and adequately organized grasp of the subject he teaches. Ausubel and Robinson (1969) argue that this mastery has the dimensions of: comprehensiveness, cogency, stability, lucidity and precision of concepts, integration of relationships between the component aspect of the field, awareness of significant theoretical issues, underlying philosophical assumptions, and the appreciation of methodological and epistemological problems.

Such factor, they say, affects the students' general level of interest and intellectual excitement about a given discipline. They add that it is possible that academic preparation, like intelligence may influence teaching effectiveness. Burns (1982) says that teachers who feel personally or professionally inadequate may allow these feeling to colour the classroom dialogue. They may be "overtly controlling, authoritarian, and defensively hostile towards their pupils or they may be excessively and inappropriately non-directive, easily diverted from teaching tasks and indifferent to pupil performance and products" (p. 254).

Ryans (1961) contends that the ability to generate intellectual excitement and intrinsic motivation for learning have significant implications for the instructional effectiveness of teachers.

Morrison and McIntyre (1969) researched into the personality characteristics of teachers. They stated that teachers are fairly well adjusted, and tend towards conformity. They conform to situational cues same way high self-monitors do. Ryans (1961) in a study on the characteristics of teachers reported that teachers with warmth personality tend to be rated more favorably by principals, supervisors, pupils, and other observers. The 'warm' teacher described in this study is one who provides emotional support for pupils sympathetically disposed toward them and accepts them as persons. He characteristically distributes much praise and encouragement and tends to interpret student behaviour in a positive way. He is sensitive to students' feelings and affective responses.

Hanson and Herrington,(1976), study on students' experiences in teaching practice is pertinent to explaining how this personality trait of 'good' teacher is formed. They categorically states that teaching experience of students is the most valuable part of their training. The following quotation from a student narrating her experience in teaching practice is worth citing in this discussion:

> "One of the most important things I learned on teaching practice was to love the good things which pupils do and dislike the bad or naughty things

they are capable of doing. I found that every day was spent in my learning how to look and sound sincerely distressed when a pupil did something naughty. I began to realize that the pupils had to be guided towards discipline similar to that they are likely to meet in later life. It was not until the last week that I began to be more naturally stern with the pupils. As I became more natural as a disciplinarian, the children responded much quicker to my voice or stern glances." (Hanson & Herrington, 1976 P. 22).

The student's narration indicates that the experience in teaching practice made her adjust depending on the situation created by the pupils she was teaching. She had to develop a sense of control in class and as she says, this became natural in her with time. In other words, she developed skills of impression management in handling the pupils. This situational adjustment enables the students on practice to take on the characteristics required by the situation in which they participate. It is like the situations 'coerce' the individuals into behaving in certain ways. If this new behaviour is rewarded, in this case by pupils' positive response, it may be consolidated and continued. This is in accordance with B.F. Skinner's operant who asserts that if an action is reinforced it is consistently repeated-becomes a behaviour (Weiten 1992).

Oja (1989) in his study on teacher professional development gives an example of an individual by the name 'Anne' whose teaching experience had developed in her what would be described as "character of a well adjusted and effective teacher". In his own description, Oja says, "She titled the period she just left 'learning and Adjusting' and her present period 'A stable life - A Good Teacher'.......major issues in her career were to 'bring all my materials and know-how up to date and together….improve my technique and become a better teacher'…" (pp. 136-137). Anne is a typical teacher whose 'effective teacher' character is due to the experiences in the field of teaching. She is reported have had the feeling of incompetence at first, thought that her experiences were very limited and that that she didn't know how to do one thing or another. Later, it is reported that she gained self-confidence in her abilities. The kind of change that Anne experienced increased her effectiveness as a teacher.

Woods (1979) developed a list of strategies that teachers employ in the classroom as a basis for presenting the diverse plans of actions which points to higher self-monitoring. Negotiation is one such strategy, which rests on the exchange of valued things, privileges, opportunities, and relationships. The teacher may use group pressure, comparison with other classes or social emotional tactics of various kinds to negotiate with pupils to for improved orderliness or academic performance. Flattery is also used sometimes. Woods says that bribery and relaxation of classroom rules may become part of the negotiation. He concludes that teachers soon learn that some pupils are 'non-negotiable' while others are only 'intermittently negotiable' (p. 248)

Fraternizing is another strategy. Woods says that teachers control the pupils through this strategy by sharing their interests, their styles of speech or even their fashions in clothing. He adds that humour may have fraternization as its aim. The underlying idea is to identify with the students so that the teacher can eventually make them conform just like high self-monitors do to benefit from a situation. He may be abit permissive to reduce anxiety in the students so as to probably discover their hidden characters they may not want to otherwise expose.

The teacher may physically or psychologically 'remove' himself or herself from the classroom. This strategy in most cases to avoid problems in the classroom. The teacher may ignore a misbehaving pupil in class or may occasionally sit at his or her desk calmly marking papers seemingly oblivious of the pupils. Woods mentions daydreaming, falling asleep, leaving the room, ostentation, and wasting time as additional expressions of this strategy.

The teacher may use classroom routines as a means of control. He or she can give structured exercises, group activities, audio-visual techniques, programmed learning or work cards. The student attention is captivated and taken along through the lesson with scant opportunity for side involvement. This strategy may be likened to what Woods calls 'occupational therapy' which he says involves telling the pupils to draw

maps, pictures, patterns or do individual experiments in science or even carry out projects in industrial arts.

Another strategy that teachers employ is controlling talk through questioning, lecturing, limiting spontaneous pupil commentary and using related techniques. This way, the teachers are able to train the student's intellectually and maintain order in the class. A teacher may refuse restrain a pupil from participating in class discussion to avoid possible problems. They foster the sorts of verbal interchanges they want with their pupils.

Whether teaching practice makes the students high self-monitors is a subject of research. The researcher seeks to compare the levels of self-monitoring between newly enrolled education students and those who have undergone the teaching practice. The influence of self-monitoring in career choice will be established by comparing the level of self-monitoring of students who choose science versus those who choose teaching career having seen that teaching and acting are comparable.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed description of the research methodology used in this study. It comprises the following sub-topics: Geographical location of the study population and sample, sampling procedure, research design and instruments, data collection procedures, administration of instruments and data analysis.

3.1 Geographical Location of the Study

The study was conducted at Moi University, Eldoret. Moi University is located in Rift Valley Province in the western part of Kenya. It has three campuses: Main campus, Town campus, and Chepkoilel campus. Faculty of Health Science is based in Town campus, Faculty of Education in Main campus while the Faculties of Science (general) is based at Chepkoilel campus. Education science Department in the Faculty of Education is located at Chepkoilel campus.

Moi University was chosen for this study because the researcher was an undergraduate and postgraduate student there. The researcher was therefore conversant with the environment and familiar with many members of staff at this institution. The researcher was thus able to conduct the research without the services of research assistants, which would have constituted an extra financial burden.

The University was started following a recommendation by Mackay Report (1981) on establishment of a Second University in Kenya. It was meant to provide technical education to meet the then increasing demand of industrial personnel. It grew and incorporated other courses with an objective of alleviating the acute need of University education by the Kenyan population (Lidundu, 1996). Sponsoring students abroad for university education had become expensive to the government. It was thus deemed fit to have Moi University change this trend. Education of the population was

seen as a positive move towards creating a conducive environment for a take off in economic development (Mackay Report, 1981).

3.2 Study Population

The study population comprised Moi University Students in the Faculties of: Health Sciences, Education, and Science. These Faculties were chosen to enable the researcher investigate whether or not there was any significant differences in self-monitoring between science and Education students and whether training given to Education students influence their self-monitoring. The population sample is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Research Population by Faculties and Year

Year	Foeda	Foesc	Foscg	Fohsc	Total	%
First year	291	79	166	48	584	50.04
Fourth year	346	45	130	62	583	49.96
Total	637	124	296	110	1167	100.0
Percent	54.58	10.63	25.36	9.42	100.0	

Source: Moi University department of statistics

Fohsc – Faculty of Health Science.   Foeda - Faculty of Education Arts.   Foesc – Faculty of Education Science.   Foscg – Faculty of Science General.

3.3 Sampling design

The samples were selected using stratified and simple-random sampling methods. Kothari (1985) asserts that stratified sampling has an advantage in that it improves representatives and it enables the researcher to study the differences that might exist between various sub-groups of a population. The data obtained samples from the different faculties and departments were used in making comparison of their self-monitoring mean scores data.

The first step was to identify the specific Faculties from which the samples were drawn. Then, the researcher identified groups of students taking common courses or lessons that included students from various departments for example "Psychology Lectures" and then requested the lecturers concerned to offer him about 20 minutes to administer the instrument when they had a class.

During the actual administration, the researcher randomly selected males and females in the groups to respond to the instruments. The researcher managed to sample out 291(24.9%) respondents who satisfactory filled the instrument of measurement as shown in table 2.

Table 2

Sampled Participants by Year, Sex and Faculty

Faculty	First Year		Fourth Year		Total	Percent
	Male	Female	Male	Female		
Fohsc	31	15	27	9	82	28.18
Foeda	29	14	26	29	98	33.68
Foesc	23	15	14	17	69	23.71
Foscg	19	23	-	-	42	14.44
Total	102	67	67	55	291	100.0
Percent	35.05	23.02	23.02	18.9		

Fohsc – Faculty of Health Science.   Foeda - Faculty of Education Arts.   Foesc – Faculty of Education Science.   Foscg – Faculty of Science General.

3.4 Research Design

This study was an ex-post-facto research, which sought to investigate the relationship between self-monitoring and other variables without any manipulation. Koul (1984) defines this research as:

> A research type whereby the researcher in concerned with the conditions or relationships that exist, practices that prevail, beliefs, points of view or attitudes that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are being felt, or trends that are developing and may select the problem accordingly from the area or field in which he is interested (p. 436).

The researcher adopted this design because it involves description, analysis and interpretation of circumstances that prevail at the time of study.   Responses were limited to the specific groups involved only, that is, the Faculties of Health Sciences, Faculty of Education and Faculty of Science which were collapsed into Arts-based and Science-based careers. In this study, the independent variables were: career choice, training, and gender, while the dependent variable was the level of self-monitoring.

3.5 Research Instruments

The researcher used the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale developed by Snyder (1986). The instrument consists of 18-items keyed in the direction of high self-monitoring, initially the instrument had 25 items but later, it was shortened to 18-items by the author to enhance its reliability. The researcher also formulated a 10-item biographical form to gather personal data about the participants. The 18-item self-monitoring scale is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 :The 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale.

Item no.	Stem
1.	I find it hard to imitate the behaviors of other people (T, F) _____
2.	At parties and social gathering, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like (T, F) _____
3.	I can only argue for ideas which I already believe (T, F) _____
4.	I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information (T, F) _____
5.	I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others (T, F) _____
6.	I would probably make a good actor (T, F) _____
7.	In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention (T, F) _____
8.	In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons (T, F) _____
9.	I am not particularly good at making other people like me (T, F) _____
10.	I am not always the person I appear to be (T, F) _____
11.	I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor (T, F) _____
12.	I have considered being an entertainer (T, F) _____
13.	I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting (T, F) _____
14.	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people an different situations (T, F) _____
15.	At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going (T, F) _____
16.	I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should (T, F) _____
17.	I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end) (T, F) _____
18.	I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them (T, F)_.

N/B: Items are keyed in the direction of high self-monitoring (T = true; F = False).

3.6 Reliability and Validity of the Research Instrument

Mark Snyder (1974) developed the original Self-Monitoring Scale. He sought to assess five hypothetical components of the construct, that is, concern for appropriateness of social behaviour, attention to social comparison information, ability to control or modify self-presentation, use of these abilities in particular situation, and, cross-situational variability of social behaviour. The original Self-Monitoring scale consisted of 25 items. Each item elicited either 'true or false' response. Snyder and Gangestad, (1985) reported that the Scale has a KR-20 reliability of 0.66 and a one-month interval, test-retest reliability of 0.83.

Many investigators who have used it have criticized this Scale. Briggs, Cheek and Buss (1980) factor analytic study found that the Scale did not measure the five hypothetical components as proposed by Snyder. To them, the Scale measures three factors: Acting ability, Extraversion, and Other-directness. By inter-correlating these variables, they found: Extraversion with Other Directedness $r = ^-0.11$, with Acting ability $r = 0.13$. These figures indicated that the factors measured were uncorrelated. Other studies have revealed that the Self-Monitoring Scale is not one-dimensional but that it measured at least three factors.

Because of this inadequacy of Snyder's original 25-item scale, Lennoz and Wolfe (1984) developed a 13-item revised Self-Monitoring Likert Scale. This scale was purported to measure only sensitivity to the expressive behaviour of others and the ability to modify self-presentation; thus it had an 'Ability Scale' and 'Sensitivity Scale".

Administration of the 13-item revised Self-Monitoring Scale by Wolfe, Lennox and Cutler, (1986) found significant positive correlations with measures of inter-personal Competency, Active Acting Style and Social Self-efficacy and significant negative correlations with measures of Positive Acting Style and Avoidance of Social Acting situations. Interpretation of these findings indicates that people who score high on Self-Monitoring Scale describe themselves as having better developed social skills and are more likely to adopt an active directive role in some inter-personal situations than

those who score low. However, Snyder (1987) criticized 13-item scale for its narrowness. They asserted that many of the items in the scale are restatements. Restatements increase reliability due to correlated error components rather than due to increments in validity.

Snyder and Gangestad (1986) reviewed the original 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale and came up with the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale. They omitted the 7-items from the original Scale mainly related to the Other-Directness factor. Analysis of this new Scale showed there was an internal consistency of .70. The correlation between the new measure and the original Self-Monitoring Scale was .93. They concluded that high scores on the new Scale refer to the probability of belonging to the high Self-Monitoring class rather than greater "amounts of self-monitoring" (Kodero, 1991). Comparison of the original 25-item Self-Monitoring Scale and the 18-item Scale by Miller and Thayer (1989) evaluated the abbreviated 18-item scale and found that it was more internally consistent than the original 25-item Scale.

In summary, the original 25-item scale is multidimensional, measuring at least three factors. The revised 13-item Scale was Likert in format but was found to be unreliable because it contained restatements. From the literature reviewed, the abbreviated 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale was reliable and was used in this study. The researcher adopted the tool as it is based on the validity established by other scholars so as not deviate from the context of the study.

3.7 Administration of research instruments

The researcher sought formal permission to conduct this study at Moi University from the Office of the President in Nairobi, Kenya. This permit authorised the researcher to administer research instruments to students at Moi University. With this permit, the researcher informed the Deans of various Faculties involved in the research about his intent to collect data. Furthermore, all participants were informed about the objectives of this study and their will to participate in the study was sought by the introductory letter(see Appendix 1). He notified in writing his intent to do the research in Moi

University to the Chief Administrative Officer and the Chief Academic Officer through a formal letter. Copies of the same letters were sent to the deans of various faculties involved in the research. The 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale and the Biographical Form were administered to the participants by the researcher. He liaised with lecturers who had classes with the selected groups and arranged to administer these instruments to the participants while they were gathered to attend lectures. This arrangement ensured 100% return of the administered research instruments.

3.8 Data analysis techniques

The data collected in this study were analysed using the SPSS program. The responses of the participants to the items on the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale and their responses on the Biographical Form were coded and entered in a computer data file. No data were missing because the instruments used in this study were administered personally to the participants by the researcher. The .05 level of significance was used for statistical tests.

In comparing self-monitoring mean scores, both faculty of Education Arts and faculty of Education Science were collapsed and treated as Art based careers while Faculties of Science and health sciences were collapsed and treated as science based careers. In this study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in data analysis. The main inferential statistics used was a t-test for independent samples. A t-test was chosen because the questions posed in this study could be answered by comparing pairs of means in self-monitoring of the different samples (or groups) involved in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter reports the analyses of data pertaining to the levels of self-monitoring among Moi University students taking arts and science based careers. It also presents the test results of the five hypotheses stated in Chapter One. The reporting of the results follows a consistent format: A restatement of the hypothesis in null form after which the pertinent descriptive and inferential statistics are presented and appropriate conclusions are made.

4.1 Biographical Description of the Respondents

As shown in Table 1 in chapter three, the researcher administered the research instruments to a total of 291 students drawn from three faculties. Some of the completed instruments were excluded from the analysis because they were either improperly filled or the respondents had a western cultural orientation, that is, they were either non-Kenyans or had stayed out of Kenya for the last two years. This information was gathered by question one and two in the career form. Incidentally only six such cases were encountered and were not included in the analysis since the researcher wanted to control cultural variable on self-monitoring. The researcher assumed that the university setting is culturally neutral and all students being Kenyans would not have significant difference in their cultural orientations that would influence their level of self-monitoring.

Question three in the career form sought to classify participants according to their faculties. From the sampled data shown in Table 2, the largest sample was drawn from the Department of Education Arts that has the largest number of students. This group constituted 33.68% of the sampled population. This was followed by the Department of Education Science with 23.71%. It follows that, more students are admitted in the University to take teaching career than are admitted for the science –based careers.

This is also reflected in Table 1 where the Faculty of Education Arts and Education Sciences sample population was 761 (65.21%) while Health Sciences and Science General constituted 406 (34.79%).

Question Four sought about the year of study of the participants. The researcher used first year and fourth year students in the said faculties. The first year participants in all the Faculties were 169 (58.08%) while the fourth years were 122 (41.92%) as shown in Table 4.

Table 4:

Participants by Faculty and Year

Faculty	First year	Fourth year	Percent	Total
Fohsc	46	36	27.6	82
Foeda	43	55	33.0	98
Foesc	38	31	23.7	69
Foscg	42	*	14.1	42
Total	169	122	100.0	291
Percent	58.08	41.92		

* The students in this group were excluded because at the time of the research they were not in campus.

Question Five sought the age of the participants. As reflected in Table 5, the majority of participants 185 (63.57%) were between 21-25 years of age followed by 15-20 who were 96 (33.0 %%) years. The other age groups constituted less than 1% of the participants. The data shows that majority of the students are admitted into the University while between 15-20 years of age and finish when they are between 21-25 year. This is especially so because Faculty of Health Science students take six years to complete their program while students in all the other Faculties considered for the research takes a minimum of four years to complete their programs.

Table 5 :

Participants by Faculty, Year and Age

| | First Year | | | | Second Year | | | | |
| | Age | | Groups | | Age | | Groups | | |
Faculty	15-20	21-25	26-35	36>	15-20	21-25	26-35	36>	Total
Fohsc	27	15	3	1	-	36	-	-	82
Foeda	16	27	-	-	-	53	2	-	98
Foesc	22	15	-	1	2	26	3	-	69
Foscg	29	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	42
Total	94	70	3	2	2	115	5	-	291
Percent	32.30	24.05	<1	<1	<1	39.52	<1	<1	100

Question six sought the sex of the participants. Among all the respondents, 169 (58.1%) were males while 122 (41.9%) were females. It seems that more male students are admitted into the University than female students in the faculties considered. This is clearly shown in Tables 6 and 7.

Table 6:

Participants by faculty, year and sex

| | First year | | | | Fourth year | | | | | |
| | Gender | | | | Gender | | | | | |
Faculty	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	total	%
Fohsc	31	30.39	15	22.39	27	40.3	9	16.36	82	28.18
Foeda	29	28.43	14	20.9	26	38.8	29	52.73	98	33.68
Foesc	23	22.55	15	22.39	14	20.9	17	30.91	69	23.71
Foscg	19	18.62	23	34.33	-	-	-	-	42	14.43
Total	102	100	67	100	67	100	55	100	291	100

Faculty of education Art had the highest percentage (33.8%) followed by faculty of health science (28.18%) and education science (23.71%) respectfully.

Table 7:

Participants by Sex, Faculty and Year.

	Fohsc		Foeda		Foesc		Foscg			
	Gender		Gender		Gender		Gender			
Year	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	Total	%
1st year	31	15	29	14	23	15	19	23	169	58.08
4th year	27	9	26	29	14	17	-	-	122	41.92
Total	58	24	55	43	37	32	19	23	291	100.0

There was a fair representation of both first and fourth year students except for the fourth year faculty of science general who were not in the campus at the time of the study.

4.2 Career Choice Influence among the Subjects

Question 7 in the career form asked the participant to indicate who influenced their career choice. They were given four options (parents and/or relatives, JAB, your own choice, and your friend) to circle one of them. The results of their responses are reported in Table 8

Table 8:

Career Choice Influence among the Subjects

Career choice influence	Frequency	Percent
Parents / Relatives	41	14.1
University Joint Admission Board	106	36.4
Own choice	138	47.4
Friend	6	2.1
Total	291	100.0

4.3 Desire to change career

In question 8, the participants were asked to state whether or not they feel they made the right career choice. Majority of the students expressed satisfaction with the careers they were undertaking (80.41%). The results of their response are reported in Table 9.

Table 9:

 Desire to change career.

Change option	Frequency	Percent
No	234	80.41
Yes	57	19.59
Total	291	100.0

For those who had stated that they would want to change their career given a chance, the researcher used Questions nine and ten to know if they would want to change from

teaching to science courses or vice versa. Their response is shown in Table 10. Seven participants (21.21%) stated that they would change their career from Science-based to take teaching which the researcher considered an Art-based career while 26 expressed a desire to change from teaching to Science-based careers, that is, either Science General or Health Science. Out of the 57 who had expressed dissatisfaction with their careers, 24 maintained they would not want to change their career. May be they had come to like their careers or considered it not good to change their career even though they felt dissatisfied.

Table 10:

Participants desiring to change their careers to the mentioned

Change to	Frequency	Percent
Art-based career	7	21.21
Science-based career	26	78.79
Total	33	100.0

4.4 Comparing Self-Monitoring Mean Scores

The researcher computed the mean scores of self-monitoring and to made comparisons based on the research hypothesis. The faculties were collapsed into two broad categories, i.e, Art and Science based careers for each of the years. Self-monitoring mean scores were then generated for each of the group. Table 11 gives the self-monitoring mean scores by career and year.

Table 11

Mean Scores in self-monitoring by Career-base and Year of Study.

	Year of Study					
	First Year			Fourth Year		
Career	N	M	Std.D	N	M	Std.D
Arts	80	8.39	3.38	86	7.97	3.41
Sciences	89	7.29	2.58	36	7.31	3.50
Total	169			122		

First year Education Arts students had the highest self monitoring mean score ($M =$ 8.9) followed by their counterpart in fourth year ($M = 7.79$). Science students had a lower self-monitoring mean score in both first year ($M = 7.29$) and fourth year ($M =$ 7.31)

T-test was used to find whether there was any significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between the selected groups based on the five hypotheses stated above. These hypotheses were restated in null form for the purpose of testing.

Self monitoring between science and arts students at entry level

The first null hypotheses tested in this study stated that there was no statistically significant difference in Self-Monitoring between First year Students taking Art based careers and first year students taking science based careers.

To test this hypothesis, the mean scores in self-monitoring of the two groups of participants were compared using a t-test. The result of the analysis is reported in Table 12.

Table 12

T-test results for First year Arts students and First Year Science Students

Career	M (scores)	M (difference)	t-value	df	Significant level
1st year Arts students	8.39	1.10	2.382	167	.018
1st year Science students	7.29	-	-	-	-

First year Education Arts students have a higher mean score ($\underline{M}$ = 8.39) than First year Science students ($\underline{M}$ = 7.29). The t-test indicated that there was a significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between the two groups, that is, at α = .05. The null hypothesis was thus rejected and a conclusion made that the first year Arts students achieved higher self-monitoring scores than first year science students.

Self monitoring between art and science students at their fourth year

The second null hypothesis tested in this study stated that there was no statistically significant difference in Self-Monitoring between Fourth year students taking Art based careers and fourth year students taking science based careers.

To test this hypothesis, the mean scores in self-monitoring of the two groups of participants were compared using a t-test. The result of the analysis is reported in Table 13.

Table 13

T-test results for fourth year Arts students and fourth year Science students.

Faculty	$\underline{M}$ (scores)	$\underline{M}$ (difference)	t-value	df	Significant level
4th year Arts students	7.97	.66	.967	120	.335
4th year science students	7.31	-	-	-	-

Fourth year Education Arts students have a slightly higher mean score ($\underline{M} = 7.97$) than Fourth year science students ($\underline{M} = 7.31$). However, the t-test indicated that there was no significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between the two groups, that is, at $\alpha = .05$. The null hypothesis was thus accepted and a conclusion made that fourth year Arts students did not achieve higher self-monitoring mean scores than fourth year science students.

Self-Monitoring between first and fourth year arts students

The third null hypothesis tested in this study stated that there was no statistically significant difference in Self-Monitoring between First and Fourth year Students taking Art based careers.

To test this hypothesis, the mean scores in self-monitoring of the two groups of participants were compared using a t-test. The result of the analysis is shown in Table 14.

Table 14

T-test results for First and Fourth year Arts Students.

Faculty	$\underline{M}$ (scores)	$\underline{M}$ (difference)	t-value	df	Significant level
1st year Arts students	8.39	.42	.801	164	.424
4th year Arts students	7.97	-	-	-	-

First year Arts students have a slightly higher mean score ($\underline{M} = 8.39$) than Fourth year Arts students ($\underline{M} = 7.87$). However, the test indicated that the difference was not significance at $\alpha = .05$ and thus the null hypothesis was accepted and a conclusion made that fourth year Arts students did not achieve higher self-monitoring scores than first year Arts students.

Self-monitoring between first and fourth year science students

The fourth null hypothesis tested in this study stated that there was no statistically significant difference in Self-Monitoring between First and fourth year students taking science based careers.

To test this hypothesis, the mean scores in self-monitoring of the two groups were compared using a t-test. The result of the analysis is shown in table 15.

Table 15: T-test results for Fourth year and First Year Science Students

Career	M (scores)	M (difference)	t-value	df	Significant level
4th year Science students	7.31	0.02	2.639	123	.981
1st year science *students*	7.29	-	-	-	-

Fourth year Science students had only a slightly higher mean score ($\underline{M}$ = 7.31) than First year science students ($\underline{M}$ = 7.29). The analysis revealed that the two groups were not significantly different at α = .05 and therefore the null hypothesis was accepted and a conclusion made that the two groups were not different in self-monitoring. The self-monitoring scale could not differentiate the two groups.

Self-Monitoring between males and females

The fifth null hypothesis tested in this study stated that there was no statistically significant difference in Self-Monitoring between Male and female participants.

To test the hypothesis, the mean scores in self-monitoring of the two groups were compared using a t-test. The result of the analysis is shown in table 16.

Table 16

T-test results for Male and Female Students.

Gender	$\underline{M}$ (scores)	$\underline{M}$ (difference)	t-value	df	Significant level
Males	7.99	.47	1.208	289	.223
Females	7.52	-	-	-	-

The difference between Males self-monitoring mean score ($\underline{M}$=7.99) and Females self-monitoring mean score ($\underline{M}$=7.52) was not significant, that is, at α .05. The null hypothesis was accepted and therefore a conclusion made that males and females were not different in self-monitoring.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter gives a summary of the findings in relation to the research objectives and subsequently to the research questions. A discussion on the implications of the findings to self-monitoring on career interests, career training and on sex follow. Next to this is concluding remarks concerning the overall study of self-monitoring and finally recommendations for further research are made.

5.1 A summary of the findings

This research sought to investigate the relationship between career interest, career training, gender and self-monitoring. From the analysis of data, the following observations were made:

(i). There was a significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between first year students interested in Arts and those interested in science based careers.

(ii). There was no significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between fourth year students taking Art based careers and fourth year students taking science based careers.

(iii). There was no significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between first year and fourth year students taking Art based careers.

(iv). There was no significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between first year and fourth year students taking science based careers.

(v). There was no significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between male and female students across all the faculties and years.

From these observations, it plausible to conclude the following from the three objectives of this study:

(i). There was a relationship between self-monitoring and career interest among the university students.

(ii). There was no relationship between self-monitoring and career training.

(iii). There was no relationship between self-monitoring and gender.

5.2 Implications of self-monitoring and career interests

This research showed a significant difference in self-monitoring between students who chose science and those who chose teaching careers. The implication is that choice of career may be influenced by self-monitoring as Snyder postulated. This is an important insight into personality and career choice.

Scholars in the west are coming to a consensus that there is a relationship between personality and careers. Schools have been established that offer variety of careers based on people's different personality types. There are websites designed to help people know their personality types hence choose careers accordingly. At http://www.personality page .com/careers, there are materials that provide informational guide on personality and career choice. They encourage personality self-knowledge in career choice. Edward, Paul and Sarah, (1996) provides guidelines in choosing 'a perfect career' that suits one's personality type.

Besides self-monitoring that Snyder (1974) associated with choice of careers, other personality traits have been linked deemed suitable for specific careers through research (Martin, 1995). They include Extraverts or Introverts who may have other characterictics like; Intuitive, Sensing, Feeling, Thinking and Perceiving. Different combinations of these characteristics give numerous types of personalities that would suit different careers. For example, Extravert, Intuitive feeling and judging (ENFJs) actively care about people in an intense manner and they have a strong desire to bring harmony into their relationships. They are empathetic, intuitive, warm, enthusiastic, compassionate, responsible, and idealistic. They have a clear sense of right and wrong

and they share this openly with others. They draw conclusions about people they interact with quickly and with certainty and it is difficult for them to change these perceptions, good or bad, once the conclusion has been drawn. They would be best in, and need, a career in which they will work with people and be able to make decisions based on their personal values. A career that makes good use of their organizational skills, breadth of interests, their grasp of possibilities, and their warmth and sympathy, would be an interesting and satisfying choice for ENFJs (Martin, 1997).

These and other studies show that the relationship between personality and career has been a subject of significance of importance to psychologists and curriculum planners. The finding by this study that there was a relationship between self-monitoring and career choice among Moi University students provides more insight into this discipline.

However, the finding that that there is a relationship between self-monitoring and career choice disagrees with the findings of Kodero (1991) who reported that there was no significant difference in self-monitoring mean scores between Canadian and Kenyan students interested in teaching and those interested in science careers. This shows that the choice of career in life may not necessarily be attributed to a single factor.

Other researchers have had their own argument too on the subject of career choice. Rhodes, (1983) and Shertzer, (1985) asserts that many young adults are not satisfied with their initial choice of career. Turner and Helms, (1987) suggests that choosing a career path involves seven identifiable stages. The first is the Exploration stage. They say that at this stage, the individual has a general concern that something needs to be done, that is, a choice needs to be made. However, at this stage alternatives are poorly defined and plans for making a choice are not yet developed. The individual is formulating a dream at this stage of what he or she wants to do in life.

The second is the Crystallization stage. At this stage, some actual alternatives are being weighed. The individual considers the 'costs' of each alternative possibility and although some are eliminated, a choice is not made.

The third is the Choice stage. They assert that for better or worse, a choice is made at this stage. There is a sense of relief that at least one knows what one wants and an optimistic feeling that everything will work out well.

The fourth is Career clarification stage. At this stage, the individual's self-image and career choice are meshed together. Adjustments and accommodations are made and details worked out. A fine-tuning of the initial career choice is made. For instance, if one chose to be a teacher, he or she may have such reflections as, " I know I want to be a teacher; now what do I want to teach and to whom?"

The fifth is the Induction stage. The career decision is implemented at this point. This presents a series of scary challenges to one's own values and goals.

The sixth stage is Reformation. Here, one finds that changes needs to be made if one is to fit in with fellow workers and to do the job one is expected to do. Probably this is when the individual's personality is molded to suit the career through exposure to the training and/or field experience.

The seventh and the last stage is Integration. At this stage, the job and one's work become part of one's self and one gives up part of self to the job. This is said to a period of considerable satisfaction.

Turner and Helm contends that occasionally, one may make the wrong decision or a poor choice. This, they say, is likely to happen in the third stage of choosing a career path but may not be recognized until the fourth or fifth stage.

The most influential theory of career development is that outlined by Super, (1985). He breaks the vocational lifecycle into five major stages and a variety of substages. This is shown in Table 17.

Table 17:

Stages of vocational development

Stage	Key events and Transitions
Growth stage	A period of general physical and mental growth - No interest in or concern with vacations. - Fantasy is basic for vocational thinking. - Vocational thought is based on individual's likes and dislikes. - Finally, ability becomes the basis for vocational thought.
Exploration stage	A period of general exploration of work. - Needs, interests, capacities, values and opportunities become basis for tentative occupational decisions. - Reality increasingly becomes a basis for vocational though and action. - Finally, first trial job is entered after an initial vocational commitment.
Establishment stage	A period when the individual seeks to enter a permanent occupation. - Some occupational change due to unsatisfactory choices. - Stable work in a given occupational field.
Maintenance stage	A period of continuation in one's chosen occupation.
Decline stage	A period of adaptation to leaving work. - Declining vocational activity. - A cessation of vocational activity.

Adapted from Zaccaria, 1970

The exploration stage is said to last into mid 20's when most young adults attempt to achieve full entry into the world of work. They want to finish schooling and secure the first crucial job. Weiten, (1992) argues that many people in this face are still tentatively committed to their chosen occupational area. During the exploration, the individuals may shift to other areas to continue the process of exploration if they find their present area unsatisfying. If on the other hand their initial experiences are gratifying, people may commit to an occupational area and move on to the establishment stage. This is the period in which Weiten further asserts that with few exceptions, future job moves will take place within this occupational area. He says that at this stage, they develop increased self-confidence and greater understanding of the working of their organization. Around their mid 40's many people cross into the maintenance stage. Here they worry more about retaining their achieved status than improving it. With decreased emphasis on career advancement, many people shift energy and attention away from work concerns in favour of family concerns or leisure activities. In the decline stage, people have to prepare to leave the work place as retirement nears. Finally, Weiten argues that individuals approach retirement with apprehension, unsure about how they will occupy themselves and worried about their financial survival.

A fundamental issue that underlies this discussion on career development is that the environment is a crucial factor in the pursuit of career. Career choice may be influenced more by the individual's interaction with the environment.

5.3 Implications of self-monitoring to career training

This research showed that there was no relationship between self-monitoring and career training. The analysis of data indicated that fourth year students taking Art based careers did not achieve higher self-monitoring mean scores than their first year counterparts taking Art based careers. The fourth year students taking science based careers did not achieve significantly higher self-monitoring mean scores than their counterparts in first year taking science based careers. Surprisingly, the fourth year students taking Art based careers did not achieve significantly higher self-monitoring

mean scores than the fourth   year students taking science based careers. The implication for these comparisons is that self-monitoring is not influenced by career training since the fourth year groups in each category were not different from their counterparts in first year in self-monitoring. Similarity in self-monitoring between Arts and science students in fourth year could mean that there may be a tendency for people to be similar in self-monitoring characteristic as they continue staying and interacting in the same environment. It seems that the social environment provides a 'neutral culture' that harmonizes their level of self-monitoring by reinforcing certain behaviours.

Other studies have shown that culture has a significant bearing on self-monitoring (Kodero, 1991, Gudykunst, Yang, & Nishida 1987). Even Snyder consented that the way individuals are socialized would determine their level of self-monitoring. While referring to Benedicts (1967) characterization of Japanese life as full of rules, Snyder noted that such a society with such a high value in rule following may have a correspondingly large proportion of high self-monitors in it (Snyder, 1987). He noted further that in such a society, people develop high adherence of the social world and thus display a high amount of self-monitoring. His implication in this case was that Japan would have a large portion of its population being high self-monitors. Similarly, a University would be taken as a social environment where students interact and establishes a 'culture' that may be adopted by freshmen as they continue being socialized into the new environment.

A research to compare students between different Universities would be important to establish if students in different Universities would achieve different self-monitoring mean scores.

Gudykunst, Yang and Nishida, (1987) compared Americans, Japanese and Koreans in self-monitoring. They reported that the self-monitoring scores of the Americans were significantly different from the mean scores of Japanese and Koreans. Kodero (1991) reported that there was a significant difference in self-monitoring between Canadians

and Kenyan students. Frazier and Fat's (1980) and Sullivan and Harnish (1990) have reported that the effects of cultural or environmental factors on the development of self-monitoring are significant and should not be underrated whatsoever as Snyder did.

5.4 Implication of self-monitoring to sex

The analysis of data in this study showed that males ($\underline{M}$ = 7.99) and Females ($\underline{M}$ =7.52) did not achieve significantly different scores in self-monitoring at α =. 05. This finding agrees with Gudykunst et al.'s finding that there were no significant sex differences in self-monitoring in the Japanese and in the Koreans. It however contradicts Kodero, (1991) who reported that males in both the Canadian and the Kenyan cultures were higher in self-monitoring than the females. Frazier and Fatis, (1990) and Sullivan and Harnish (1990) reported a significant sex effect, males scoring higher than females in self-monitoring in the American culture.

Snyder (1987) and Gangestad (1986) contended that self-monitoring is largely genetic in origin. Gangestad speculated that the specific genetic factor underlying individual differences in self-monitoring operate through biochemical pathways. He speculated further that sex steroid hormones –testesterone, estradiol and androgens in the prenatal period are the biochemicals through which specific genes mediate the development of self-monitoring. To justify his speculation, Gangestad quoted a number of studies, which have attempted to link the level of steroids to aggression, to sex, to left-right cerebral hemisphere structural and functional dichotomy and to self-monitoring. He quoted Resnick (1982) who reported a relationship between the level of steroid and aggressivity—the higher the level of steroid, the greater the degree of aggression in the individual. He also quoted Hyde (1984) who attributed the relation between aggressivity and sex to prenatal levels of steroids and concluded that the two sexes differ substantially in prenatal blood levels of sex steroids. Gangestad also quoted Geschwind (1983) who speculated that there is a relationship between the level of steroid and the development of the cortex. Geschwind reported that higher levels of testosterone were associated with relatively greater right-brain development, and low

levels with relatively greater left brain development. Gangestad also quoted Rim (1982) who tested male subjects only and reported that low self-motors outperformed high self-monitors on tests of verbal ability whereas high self-monitors scored higher on tests requiring spatial ability. Gangestad linked Rim's finding that, the low self-monitors were higher in verbal ability and high self-monitors higher in spatial ability to the difference in lateralisation of the brain. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reported that, verbal ability, is a cognitive function lateralised toward the left hemisphere and one on which girls and women out perform boys and men, and spatial ability, is a cognitive function lateralised toward the right hemisphere and one on which boys and men outperform girls and women.

The finding of this research and that of Gudykunst et al.'s (1987) casts doubts on these contentions that males and females differ in self-monitoring. There is need for further research to establish if male and female hormones influence self-monitoring the same way they influence other personality traits. The genes that determine self-monitoring may be distributed equally in both males and females.

5.5 Importance of the findings in career placement

Outstanding finding of this research is the relationship between self-monitoring and career choice among University students. It is has not been obvious especially in developing countries to associate career and certain personality traits as the study revealed. The experience of the researcher in the teaching profession can be used to explain this issue.

Mostly, parents or teachers emphasise that students work hard so as to get certain 'important' grades that would guarantee them a good career in future. As it were, students are endowed with different talents and capabilities and don't perform equally well in certain subjects. Many get frustrated if they don't perform well as per

the demands of their teachers or parents. This could cause them stress which is released in uncalled for vices such as drug and vandalism.

It is a string feeling of the research that there is a need to address this problem before it goes out of hand or before it is too late to mould students for future careers. Parents and teachers should encourage students to perform well not necessarily to take certain specific careers but bring out and actualize their talents. Not performing well in science subjects for example should not be seen as weakness or that one would fail in life.

As a matter of fact, the notion that if a student gets good grades in school is a guarantee of a good career is changing in the western countries. One parent who discovered about this and sought to enlighten other people is Michael in a book 'Rich dad poor dad' by Kiyosaki, R. (1998). Her child had a problem with her insistence that he had to work hard to get good grades and finally secure a good career. An excerpt from the text reveals an amazing episode in life which many have not come to realize. The boy was telling his mother:

> Mom, Get with the times! Look around; the richest people didn't get rich because of their educations. Look at Michael Jordan and Madonna. Even Bill Gate, who dropped out of Harvard, founded Microsoft; he is now the richest man in America, he's still in his 30s. There is a baseball pitcher who makes more than $4 million a year though he has been labeled 'mentally challenged' … (Kiyosaki, 1998, P. 2-3)

The boy had noticed that time had come when people excelled not because they got good grades but because they endeavored to do that which they felt they were able! Such is the attitude that the society should adopt and specifically parents and teachers. Students should not in any way be made to feel they are incapable of excelling in life if they don't do well in certain subjects.

There is a need for curriculum planners to be putting into consideration such aspects of personality so that special instruments can be devised to determine and place

students in the careers they can pursue without difficulty. Students should be given a chance to make their own choice of careers based on such informed advise that they need not excel in all or some specific subjects. Schools should have professional counselors to talk to students regarding academic performance and career choice.

5.6 Conclusions

The findings of this study enhanced our understanding on the development of self-monitoring. It agreed with Snyder's claim that self-monitoring can be used in career placement so that those who choose Art based careers are higher self-monitors than those who choose science based careers. However, it also challenges the idea that self-monitoring is largely genetic in origin since the social environment was shown to have a significant bearing on self-monitoring. Further, the biochemical explanation proposed by Snyder and Gangestad in justifying the notion that males are higher self-monitors than females has been shown to be adequate evidence. Culture and social environment are significant factors in self-monitoring that cannot be overlooked. In general, it can be stated that there are still more questions regarding the development of self-monitoring.

5.7 Recommendations for further research

My study showed that career choice may be a function of self-monitoring. Though my study showed that there was no relationship between career training and self-monitoring, it was to investigate whether this finding holds with practicing teachers and scientist since it could be that since the students share a common culture at the University, they thus tend to be similar in self-monitoring. The question of what happens as persons grow older needs to be addressed. A longitudinal study would be ideal to establish the changing trends in self-monitoring.

The findings showed that males and females did not differ significantly in their level of self-monitoring. There is also a need for research to investigate further the relationship between self-monitoring and other traits associated with sex hormones.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: INTRODUCTORY LETTER

DANIEL M .MWAURA,

DPT OF EDUCATION PSY,

MOI UNIVERSITY,

P.O BOX 3900,

ELDORET.

mwaurad@yahoo.com

Dear Participant,

RE: INTRODUCTORY LETTER

I am kindly requesting you to participate in my study .The purpose of this study is to find out the relationship between career orientation and how people respond to social clues as they interact with one another.

You are asked to complete an instrument consisting of 18 items and a career details form consisting of 10 items. In the 18-items, you are asked to indicate whether the statement is true or false as applied to you. It will take you about 20 minutes to respond to all items in the instrument. Please do not write your name on any of the papers provided during data collection. Anonymity of your participation in the study and confidentiality of your responses is guaranteed by the researcher. The study requires your sincere and accurate response to all the items. You may contact the researcher for more information about the study or/and you may request him to communicate to you the findings of the study.

Thank you for your voluntary consent to participate in the study.

Yours sincerely,

Mwaura M Daniel

(Researcher).

APPENDIX 2: CAREER DETAILS FORM

Read each question or statement carefully. Respond by circling letter A, B, C or D that correspond to your most appropriate choice.

1. Are you a Kenyan?

 A. Yes

 B. No

2. Have stayed out of Kenya for the last 2 years?

 A. Yes

 B. No

3. In which faculty are you?

 A. Faculty of health science

 B. Faculty of education arts

 C. Faculty of education science

 D. Faculty of science general

4. What is your year of study?

 A. First year

 B. Fourth year

5. Your age in years falls between?

 A. 15 -20.

 B. 21 –25.

 C. 26 – 35

 D. 36 and above.

6. What is your sex?

 A. Male.

 B. Female.

7. Who influenced your choice of career?

 A. Parents and/or relatives.

 B. University joint admission board.

 C. Your own choice.

 D. Your friend.

8. Do you feel that you made the right choice of career?

    A. Yes

    B. No

9. If you answer to question 8 is **No**, would you consider changing your career given a chance?

    A. Yes.

    B. No.

10. If your answer to question 9 is **Yes**, which of these faculties would you feel suited to join?

    A. Faculty of Health (Science).

    B. Faculty of Education (Arts).

    C. Faculty Education (Science).

    D. Faculty of science (General)