U.S. YOUNG ADULTS’ FUTURE PERCEPTIONS:
INFLUENCE OF FAMILY INVOLVEMENT AND GENDER

A DISSERTATION
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY
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“You may go; as you have believed, let it be done for you. (Matthew 8:13)” Love and thanks to God for being with me throughout my journey.

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ABSTRACT

DISSERTATION: U.S. Young Adults’ Future Perceptions: Influence of Family Involvement and Gender

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Future perceptions include an individual’s ambitions, beliefs, and views about future events in different life domains, reflecting the person’s future goals, important future life roles, and societal institutions. Due to the importance of understanding such future perceptions for career education and counseling, the present study examined U.S. young adults’ perceptions of future life roles and time horizon. Fifty-six U.S. male and female college students completed an online survey including demographic items and semi-structured questions regarding future perceptions. Results of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) revealed eleven major themes: (a) Work, (b) Partnership, (c) Parenthood, (d) Location, (e) Values, (f) Economic standard of living, (g) Education, (h) Family of origin, (i) Non-romantic companionship, (j) Future perception of others, and (k) Emotions. Results suggested that participants’ gender and their family’s involvement in their career decision-making influenced how they envisioned their future life roles in relation to several life domains. Furthermore, results indicated the majority of the students envisioned themselves between five to ten years into the future (69.6%). A 2 x 3 between-subjects ANOVA, however, revealed no significant differences in time horizon among U.S. young adults based on their family’s involvement in their career decision-making and gender. In addition, the findings
revealed no significant impact involving the interaction between these two variables on perceptions of U.S. young adults’ future life roles and time horizon. However, several of the major themes (Education; Partnership; Parenthood; Location) discovered varied in the frequency with which they were mentioned as a function of students’ gender and how involved their family was in their career decision-making (extremely involved, somewhat involved, and not at all involved). Limitations of the current study and implications for theory, research, and practice are discussed.

Keywords: future perceptions, time horizon, family involvement in career decision-making, gender, U.S. young men and women
U.S. Young Adults’ Future Perceptions: Influence of Family Involvement and Gender

Future perceptions refer to an individual’s ambition, belief, and view about future events in different life domains (e.g., work, family) (Seginer, 1988). Since one’s future perceptions reflect the person’s future goals, important future life roles, and societal institutions (e.g., education, religion) (Kim et al., Under review), identifying future perceptions provide significant information for career guidance and counseling.

Numerous researchers have examined variables related to people’s view about their future, including future orientation (i.e., one’s tendency to think about the future) and time orientation (i.e., a preference toward past, present, or future thinking) (e.g., Ashkanasy, Gupta, Mayfield & Trevor-Roberts, 2004; Malgorzata, 2009; Michael et al., In press; Nurmi, Poole, & Seginer, 1995; Seginer, 2000; Shirai, Nakamura, & Katsuma, 2012). For example, previous research found that a person’s future time perspective, which refers to an individual’s conceptualization of the future and connection to that future, was positively related to academic achievement and studying (Shell & Husman, 2001). Additionally, it was discovered that how adolescents’ imagined their futures influenced their strategic learning to help them to improve their academic performance (Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004). Despite its importance, however, little research had been conducted on a person’s future perceptions (i.e., the actual content of one’s thoughts when thinking about future).

Furthermore, even when future perceptions have been discussed in the literature, the focus was mainly on adolescents (e.g., Malmberg, Ehrman, & Lithe´n, 2005; Poole & Cooney, 1987). Nurmi et al. (1995), for example, investigated future orientation and related content among adolescents in Australia, Finland, and Israel. They found differences in the content of
future orientation among the three countries (e.g., military service was only relevant for Israeli due to the compulsory military service of several years for Israeli youths).

Traditionally, many college students are 18-24 years old. This age range is considered as part of the emerging period of young adulthood (Arnett, 2000). Since this period is distinguished from adolescence by relative independence and from adulthood by normative expectations of the enduring responsibilities, early young adults often explore various possible life directions in career, identity, and relationships (Arnett, 2000). Also, young adulthood is a primary period for exploring and establishing occupational choices while navigating and making other choices in different life domains such as the family and community (Super, 1983). When providing career guidance and counseling to college students, understanding their future perceptions is essential to enable career counselors to help these young adults structure their career plans to achieve their ideal goals in the future and decrease any barriers to reach such future goals (Kim et al., Under review). Thus, more research on young college students' future perceptions seems warranted to enhance the services provided by career counselors; an objective of the current study.

Along with future perceptions, time horizon is another important concept that needs to be considered when providing career counseling to college students. Time horizon represents the length of time into the future people can envision their lives (Ashkanasy et al., 2004). As time horizon reflects the types of goals an individual establishes (e.g., longer vs. shorter goals), one’s time horizon can affect a person’s future perceptions (e.g., general picture vs. specific details). As such, in addition to exploring the content of future perceptions, learning about an individual’s time horizon also may be beneficial to career counselors when formulating a client’s career development plan; another objective of the current study.
The purpose of the present study, therefore, was to investigate U.S. young adults’ future perceptions and the association between such perceptions and their family’s involvement in their career decision-making and their gender. Since there is very little research to guide specific hypotheses for this study, the following six research questions were explored instead: 1) How does family involvement in career decision-making influence college students’ perceptions of their future life roles? 2) How does family involvement in career decision-making influence college students’ perceptions of their time horizon? 3) Do male and female college students’ perceptions about their future life roles differ? 4) Do male and female college students differ in their perceptions of their time horizon? 5) Do students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their perceptions of their future? and 6) Do students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their time horizon?

**Future Perceptions and Social Cognitive Career Theory**

Along with stressing the importance of studying the future perceptions of young adults, researchers have claimed that it is critical to consider variations in young adults’ future perceptions based on cultural and contextual variables (Côté & Levine, 1987; Schwartz, Kurtines, & Montgomery, 2005). According to Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2000), career self-efficacy (i.e., individuals’ beliefs regarding their ability to perform career decision-making tasks) and outcome expectations about future career decisions (i.e., individuals’ anticipation of gains in social status or physical expectations) affect people’s career interests, goals, and choices. This theory proposes that, outcome expectations, which are influenced by self-efficacy, include one’s evaluation (e.g., positive, neutral, or negative) about their future. It is assumed that based on outcome expectations, individuals will
vary in how they describe the content of specific future tasks (e.g., graduating from college; applying for graduate school) and goals (e.g., having a specific job). In this sense, researchers have argued that outcome expectations will shape individuals’ future perceptions (Michael et al., In press).

SCCT also emphasizes the importance of cultural and contextual variables (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity) because such variables influence individuals’ career interests, goals, and choices by facilitating or restricting access to career-related opportunities and preparation (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Given that future perceptions reflect individuals’ career interests, goals, and choices, taking into account perceived supports and barriers based on different contextual variables is necessary when investigating future perceptions. For instance, Michael et al. (In press) examined U.S. and Israeli female college students’ future perceptions within the context of nationality. The themes generated based on participants’ responses about their future (e.g., Work, Family and relationships, Education, Property, Residence) were quite similar for both countries, but the description of each theme included different beliefs that were specific to each nation. In another study, Kim et al. (Under review) investigated Hong Kong women’s future perceptions and found that the themes generated (e.g., Work, Family, Roles and responsibilities, Romantic relationships, Values, Living situation) were quite similar to the Michael et al. (In Press) study. For both studies, however, only females participated and the researchers did not investigate the association between future perceptions and other variables except for nationality. Therefore, the current study examined the future perceptions of both males and females, and additionally, how such perceptions may be influenced by another contextual variable, college students’ family involvement in career decision-making.

**Future Perceptions and Gender**
Investigating the future perceptions of both males and females is important, as researchers have discovered gender differences in such perceptions for adolescents. For instance, it was found that adolescent males’ future perceptions were more focused on career than those of adolescent females (Seginer, 2009; Way & Robinson, 2003), whereas adolescent females’ future perceptions were more focused on the family (Cinamon & Rich, 2002). Researchers also have discovered that women tend to often expect greater work-family conflict than men (Cinamon, 2006) and traditional gender roles have been found to influence career aspirations of men and women (Kerr & Sodano, 2003). Since most prior studies involved adolescents, further research is still needed to investigate how male and female young adults’ future perceptions might differ.

Future Perceptions and Family Involvement

Additionally, in the past few decades, many studies have examined family involvement as an important contextual variable to consider when performing career counseling. For the most part, these studies investigated the relationship between family involvement and academic achievement in children (e.g., Galindo & Sheldon, 2012; Yoder & Lopez, 2013) and adolescents (e.g., Deslandes & Cloutier, 2002; Wong, 2008). The results of these studies suggested that family involvement benefits individuals’ learning and academic success (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Epstein, 1989). Additionally, as Moreno (2011) claimed, families are also involved in the career decisions of young adults. Since many young adults are likely to seek assistance with their career decisions from family members, it is significant that career counselors understand how families can impact and facilitate the career development of young adults (Whiston & Keller, 2004).

Although there have been a few studies on the relationship between family involvement and the career development of young adults, these studies have focused on specific populations such as people with learning disabilities or Asian Americans (e.g., Lindstrom et al., 2007; Tang,
Fouad, & Smith, 1999) and/or a different career-related construct such as college major choice or career choices (e.g., Ma, 2009; Tang et al., 1999), but not future perceptions which was one focus of the current study. For instance, Tang et al. (1999) investigated the association between levels of family involvement and occupational choices. The results showed that family involvement was moderately correlated only with career choice and not with self-efficacy. Specifically, the influence of family involvement on occupational selections was higher for those who chose certain occupations (e.g., physicians, physical therapist), while its impact was lower for those who selected others (e.g., psychologists, lawyers). Tang et al. (1999) claimed that their overall results supported the SCCT theoretical framework (Lent et al., 1994, 2000) when explaining career choices. They also suggested that incorporating family involvement in SCCT could improve the heuristic value of the framework. However, since Tang et al. (1999) only included Asian American college students, it was unknown if their results were applicable to U.S. college students. Also, Tang et al. (1999) examined career choices and not future perceptions. Therefore, further research is needed to examine the impact of family involvement in career decision-making on future perceptions of U.S. young adults.

**Gender and Family Involvement**

As mentioned above, although gender and family involvement have been examined by scholars in relation to academic and career development, there is little research analyzing the impact of the potential interaction between gender and family involvement. However, since gender and family involvement are contextual variables, it is important to understand how the combination of these variables may affect an individual. The interaction of these contextual variables may have a differential influence on individuals’ future perceptions (e.g., focusing more on location). In fact, researchers have found that an individual’s family of origin may have
differential effects on gender role socialization, and subsequently, effects on gender differences in the choice of college majors. In particular, the socio-economic status of a person’s family of origin appears to have a larger effect than gender on the choice of college major (Ma, 2009). Thus, it seems important to investigate whether future perceptions of U.S. young adults are influenced by a potential interaction between gender and their family’s involvement in their career decision-making.

The current study addressed this gap by investigating: 1) if male and female college students’ perceptions of their future differs, 2) if students’ family involvement in their career decision-making differentially affects their perceptions of their future, and 3) if students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their perceptions of their future.

**Time Horizon**

As mentioned earlier, time horizon is an important concept when providing career counseling to young adults. By being aware of a client’s time horizon, career-related professionals can understand what types of goals this person has for him/herself (e.g., longer vs. shorter goals). Knowing these goals can help career counselors to assist their clients when formulating and implementing a career development plan. Previous studies on time horizon have focused on the association between time horizon and nationality or culture. For instance, a study involving differences in time horizon in 42 cultures revealed that Anglo cultures tended to report shorter horizons than Confucian cultures (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). In contrast, another study found that there were no major differences in the time horizon of young college females in the U.S. and Israel (Michael et al., In press). In this study, however, there was a difference in the range of the time horizon within the two groups (e.g., one to 20 years for the
U.S., while four months to 30 years for Israel) although in both samples, five years was the most frequent time horizon reported by the participants. Recently, Kim et al. (Under review) found the same range of time horizon (i.e., one to 20 years) for Hong Kong female respondents as did Michael et al. (In Press) for U.S. participants and also the same most frequently reported length of time horizon (i.e., one to five years) discovered by Michael et al. for U.S. and Israeli females. The two studies just highlighted suggest that time horizon may vary not only between nations, but also even within a specific nation or cultural group.

Given the possible variability of time horizon within a nation or cultural group, it would seem beneficial to consider other cultural variables, such as gender and family involvement, in relation to time horizon. To date, there has been no research on this relationship. Thus, some additional goals of this study were to investigate: 1) if male and female college students’ time horizon differs, 2) if students’ family involvement in their career decision-making differentially affects their time horizon, and 3) if students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their time horizon.

Method

Participants

Participants were 56 undergraduate students enrolled at a Midwestern university in the U.S. For the purposes of this study, all of these participants were selected from a larger data set (Males = 96, Females = 441) that was gathered in a previous study (Michael et al., In press). A stratified randomization procedure was employed to select male and female participants for this study, and to select students that reported different levels of their family’s involvement in their career decision-making. Based on this procedure, twenty-six male students 18 to 24 years old (M = 20.5, SD = 1.6) and thirty female students 18 to 23 years old (M = 19.9, SD = 1.2) were
selected. Additionally, seventeen male and female students indicated their family was “extremely involved” in their career decision-making, twenty male and female students reported their family was “somewhat involved” in their career decision-making, and nineteen male and female students claimed their family was “not at all involved” in this type of decision-making.

All the male and female participants were born in the U.S. except one male participant who was born in South Korea. None of the participants identified as immigrants. Most of the students were Caucasian/European-American/White (Males = 84.6%, Females = 90.0%), single (Males = 92.3%, Females = 93.3%), and had no children (Males = 100.0%, Females = 100.0%). Over one-half of male students were unemployed (57.7%), while more than one-half of the female students were employed (part-time = 63.3%, full time = 3.3%). A large proportion of students lived with their roommates (Males = 65.4%, Females = 76.7%). However, 23.1% of the male students lived by themselves. In addition, 34.6% of the male participants and 33.3% of the female participants reported they were Protestant Christians, with 36.7% of the female participants reporting other religious affiliations. Further, participants were scattered across a number of majors although about 15.3% of male students and 13.3% of the female students were majoring in psychology.

Procedure

After securing IRB approval, all participants were recruited from a Midwestern university through announcements made in classes and online appeals (e.g., an email from the Communication Center) to the wider campus student population. The participants were sent an email inviting them to complete a brief survey about their perceptions of the future, informed them about the participation incentive, and provided a link to an online survey. During October 2013, all participants completed the online study including a demographic survey (see Appendix
A) and a semi-structured questionnaire regarding their time horizon and future perception (see Appendix B). These measures were developed by Michael et al. (In press). Participation in this study was completely voluntary. As compensation, participants were given either a research participation credit to satisfy a course requirement or a chance to participate in a drawing for one of five $10 and one of two $25 gift cards for Amazon.com.

**Measures**

Participants completed a demographic survey that included questions about their gender, age, country of birth, religion, race/ethnicity, religion, year in school, college major, employment status, marital status, having or not having children, and current residence (see Appendix A). One other question on this survey asked participants to rate on a Likert scale (1 = extremely involved; 5 = not at all involved) how much their family had been involved in their career decision-making. Responses to this question were used as one of the independent variables in this study. To establish unambiguous levels of family involvement, only students who indicated that their family was “extremely involved,” “somewhat involved,” or “not at all involved” in their career decision-making were included through the stratified randomization procedure used in this study. Other participants who reported that their family was “fairly involved” or “slightly involved” were excluded from this study.

Participants also completed a semi-structured questionnaire developed by Michael et al. (In press) (see Appendix B) that consisted of two open-ended questions that served as the dependent variables in this study: 1) "When you think about your future, how far into the future can you picture yourself (e.g., 5, 7, 10 years, etc.)?" and 2) "Think about the time in the future you just mentioned and describe your life at that time. Try to mention several of your life roles (e.g., work, family, etc.) in your answer." Specifically, in this study, responses to the first
question above assessed participants’ time horizon, while responses to the second question assessed students’ future perceptions.

**Research Design**

The current study employed a 2 x 3 between-subjects design. In specific, there were two independent variables: 1) students’ gender (male and female) and 2) students’ family involvement in their career decision-making (extremely involved, somewhat involved, and not at all involved). In addition, there were two dependent variables: 1) students’ future perceptions (responses they provided when asked about their thoughts and beliefs about their life roles in the future) and 2) students’ time horizon (responses they provided when asked how long into the future they could envision their lives). Based on the two independent variables just mentioned, participants were selected using a stratified randomization procedure from the larger dataset (Michael et al, In Press) to represent six different groups (see Table 1).

As shown in Table 1, there were ten participants per cell in the design except for the male, extremely involved group that consisted of only seven individuals, and the male, not at all involved group that contained only nine individuals. There were less than 10 participants in each of these two cells because, when the participants were randomly selected from the larger data set, these were the only male students between the ages of 18 to 24 that reported that their family was extremely involved or not at all involved in their career decision-making.

**Data Analyses**

To analyze participants’ responses about perceptions of their future life roles in order to obtain data to answer Research Questions 1 3, and 5, similar to Michael et al. (In press), a qualitative analytic method called thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was conducted (See Appendix A for an explanation for why this approach was used). This analyses involved two
phases. In Phase 1, three graduate students (i.e., one female doctoral level student in counseling psychology and two male Masters-level students in counseling) that were trained in thematic analysis independently reviewed all responses and generated the primary codes reflected in the responses according to the thematic analysis guidelines. In Phase 2, four different doctoral level counseling psychology students (two females and two males) that were trained in thematic analysis reviewed the three sets of codes that were created in Phase 1. Each of these students independently organized the codes into broader themes and identified additional themes as needed. These four students then met and reviewed the preliminary themes each of them had generated. Next, they collaboratively identified the themes, defined each theme, and determined whether subthemes were needed for each theme. They discussed these tasks until they reached agreement. Lastly, they categorized all participants’ coded responses into the finalized themes together. After completing Phase 1 and Phase 2, the researcher and her faculty advisor examined the themes and identified similarities and differences between the themes in terms of how family involvement in career decision-making influenced college students’ perceptions of their future life roles and how being male or female influenced these perceptions.

Finally, to investigate Research Questions 2, 4, and 6 related to potential differences in participants’ time horizon, a 2 (gender: male or female) x 3 (family involvement; extremely involved, somewhat involved, or not at all involved) between-subjects ANOVA using the SPSS program was performed.

Results

Future Perceptions

In regard to perceptions of future life roles of participants, Research Questions 1, 3, and 5 were investigated as follows: 1) How does family involvement in career decision-making
influence college students’ perceptions of their future life roles?, 3) Do male and female college students’ perceptions about their future life roles differ?, and 5) Do students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their perceptions of their future? After the thematic analysis was conducted, eleven major themes were found based on both the male and female’s responses: (a) Work (refers to job or career), (b) Partnership (refers to having an intimate partner or not), (c) Parenthood (refers to having children or not), (d) Location (refers to indicating locations where to live or work), (e) Values (refers to personal principles or judgments of what is important in one’s life), (f) Economic standard of living (refers to financial and material resources), (g) Education (refers to educational status), (h) Family of origin (refers to relationships with family or origin), (i) Non-romantic companionship (refers to having non-romantic companionship with friends or pets), (j) Future perception of others (refers to perceptions about one’s partner or friend’s future job or career status), and (k) Emotions (refers to emotional state). Some example responses for each theme are displayed in Table 2. An in-depth discussion of each theme just mentioned is presented later in this section.

The extent of participant responses about their future perceptions varied from a couple of words to several sentences with specific details. When generating the frequency of themes, each mention of a theme by a participant was counted one time regardless of the length or details of the response. For example, a participant briefly mentioned he wants to buy a house in the future (e.g., “buy a house”), while another participant described details about what kind of house he wants to buy in the future (e.g., “have a beautiful home with a garden, patio, and 2 car garage”). In this case, both participants were considered to provide one response related to an “Economic standard of living” theme, despite the difference in the level of detail offered. An example of
how four different themes were generated from one participant’s response can be found in Table 3.

The frequency of themes was generated based on how many times each theme was mentioned in the entire sample, the male sample, and the female sample (see Table 4). On average, 4.4 themes were extracted per participant, with a range of one to eight different themes in the samples. The number of themes generated for the males (4.5) and females (4.4) were similar. The most frequent three themes revealed for males and females included: “Work” (Males = 88.5% of the sample, Females = 96.7% of the sample), “Partnership” (Males = 76.9%, Females = 76.7%), and “Parenthood” (Males = 61.5%, Females = 70.0%). However, for males, “Education” was the fourth frequent theme, while it was the seventh for females (Males = 50.0%, Females = 26.7%). In addition, for females, “Location” was the fourth frequent theme, whereas it was the seventh for males (Males = 26.9%, Females = 53.3%). There was no theme that was unique to either the male or female participants.

As seen in Table 5, the frequency of each theme also was examined based on how many times each theme was identified according to participants’ family involvement in their career decision-making (Extremely involved; Somewhat involved; and Not at all involved). Considering the average number of themes across all the participants was found to be 4.4, an average of only 4.1 themes were generated for the participants whose families were extremely involved (High Involvement; HI) in their career decision-making compared to 4.6 themes for the somewhat involved (Moderate Involvement; MI) families and 4.6 themes for the families who were not at all involved (No Involvement; NI) in the participants’ career decision-making. Three themes appeared to be the most frequent for the three types of families investigated: “Work” (HI = 94.1% of the sample, MI = 95.0% of the sample, NI = 89.5% of the sample), “Partnership” (HI
= 82.4%, MI = 85.0%, NI = 63.2%), and “Parenthood” (HI = 70.6%, MI = 70.0%, NI = 57.9%). Several themes, however, seemed less frequent for the HI group than the other two groups (e.g., Education, Family of origin, Non-romantic companionship, and Future perception of others). Further, for the NI group, there were several different themes less (e.g., Partnership and Parenthood) and more (e.g., Location) frequently extracted compared to the other groups. Moreover, for the MI group, there were certain themes that were generated less (e.g., Economic standard of living) and more (e.g., Future perception of others and Emotions) frequently than the other groups. Finally, the “Future perception of others” theme was extracted for the MI and NI groups, but not the HI group.

An in-depth discussion of each theme including examples of participants’ responses, some unique characteristics, and a comparison of the frequency of themes for male and females and by family involvement in career decision-making follows.

**Work.** As presented in Table 4 and 5, almost all of the participants (92.9%) mentioned some aspects of a job or career. For participants that mentioned a job or career, the majority of responses specifically described future work and a particular occupation (e.g., “a pharmacist”), position at work (e.g., “working as a junior executive for a company”), company or organization (e.g., “working for 92.3 WTTS and Live Nation”), and future work task (e.g., “I will be making videos, recording, editing, adding effects”). Some participants provided more general information about being employed (e.g., “landed a job,” “full-time worker,” “working part-time”). It also was discovered that participants’ responses that were categorized as part of the “Work” theme often reported other responses that were classified as part of the “Economic standard of living” (e.g., “have a high paying job”), “Values” (e.g., “have a job that I enjoy”), or “Location” (e.g., “job working with children in a large city”) themes. In terms of gender and
family involvement in career decision-making, there were some meaningful differences in the “Work” theme. Female participants’ responses (96.7%) were linked more frequently with the “Work” theme than male participants (88.5%) and the NI group (89.5%) had a lower incidence of “Work” theme responses than the HI (94.1%) and MI (95.0%) groups.

**Partnership.** The “Partnership” theme was the second most frequently extracted theme. A number of participants (76.8%) mentioned having or not having an intimate partner in the future, stating that they would have a married partner (e.g., “have a husband”), an unmarried partner (e.g., “will have a steady girlfriend, but will not be married”), or no partner (e.g., “not in a serious relationship”). Responses to the “Partnership” theme were often associated with the “Values” theme as well with participants describing what kind of partner they wanted to become (e.g., “being a loving husband”) or what kind of partner they wanted to have (e.g., “having fun, loving, working husband”). The frequency with which the “Partnership” theme was identified for males (76.9%) and females (76.7%) was basically the same. The NI group (63.2%) had a lower incidence of “Partnership” theme responses than the HI (82.4%) and MI (85.0%) groups.

**Parenthood.** More than one-half of all the participants (66.1%) mentioned about having their own children or not in the future. The “Parenthood” theme included general responses about having children (e.g., “have kids”), specific details about children (e.g., “I want two kids. A boy and a girl two years apart”), and decisions about not having children (e.g., “will not have kids or any family of my own”). Further, some responses linked with this theme were also tied to the “Values” theme as they described one’s role as a parent (e.g., “being a great father”) and non-traditional ways to be a parent (e.g., “starting a family and looking into alternatives to the traditional conception process,” “not sure if I want kids of my own yet, but I know that I want to be fostering kids”). One participant provided a response categorized as part of this theme that
had to do with the “Non-romantic companionship” (e.g., “We will have a puppy because we don't want the commitment of a baby.”) theme. The frequency with which the “Parenthood” theme was identified for males (61.5%) was lower than for females (70.0%). Moreover, in terms of family involvement in career decision-making, the NI group (57.9%) had a lower incidence of “Parenthood” theme responses than the HI (70.6%) and MI (70.0%) groups.

**Location.** The “Location” theme emerged as frequently as the “Values” theme (41.1%). Participants described where they would live or work in the future reporting responses related to a specific residential place (e.g., “live in Harding Street Lofts, located downtown Indianapolis”), a specific area (e.g., “living in home town”), or non-specific area (e.g., “plan on being abroad”). It was found that responses linked to this theme were sometimes also connected with other themes such as the “Work” (e.g., “A fashion designer living and working in Italy”) and “Economic standard of living” (e.g., “small apartment on the outskirts of a larger city”) themes. More than half of the female participants (53.3%) had responses associated with this theme, while much fewer male responses (26.9%) were tied to this theme. Additionally, a greater percentage of participants in the NI group (57.9%) had responses linked with this theme than the HI (29.4%) and MI (35.0%) groups.

**Values.** Many participants (41.1%) shared responses about personal principles or judgments of what is important in one’s life. Responses included as part of this theme were quite diverse involving religion (e.g., “get back to church”), developmental milestones (e.g., “making way into adulthood”), pro-social behaviors (e.g., “be involved in non-profit organizations”), priorities (e.g., “focus on my studies”), quality of roles (e.g., “hard worker”), and fulfillment (e.g., “live a very fulfilling life,” “want the American Dream”). Moreover, “Values” theme responses were often tied to other themes, such as the “Work” (e.g., “have a job that I enjoy”),
“Partnership” (e.g., “married to a woman of my dreams”), and “Parenthood” (e.g., “taking years off of work to raise children”) themes. The “Values” theme was identified more frequently for male (46.2%) than female (36.7%) participants. In terms of family involvement in career decision-making, the NI group (47.4%) had a higher incidence of “Values” theme responses compared to the MI (35.0%) and HI (41.2%) groups.

**Economic standard of living.** The “Economic standard of living” theme was linked with almost forty percent of the participants (39.3%). Responses tied to this theme focused on financial and material resources in the future, including financial status (e.g., “make a dent in my student loans”), residence (e.g., “have a beautiful home with a garden, patio, and 2 car garage”), and possessions (e.g., “owning a nice car”). Compared to other themes, the responses associated with this theme were much more detailed (e.g., “I have determined that I need to make a minimum net of $38,000/year in order to maintain the lifestyle for myself and my spouse, including food, car, maintenance, savings, and saving for retirement”). These responses also were often linked with other themes, such as the “Work” (e.g., “have a high paying job and 6 figure salary”) and the “Location” (e.g., “living in Chicago in a sizable apartment”) themes. The frequency with which the “Economic standard of living” theme was identified for males (46.2%) was higher than for females (33.3%). Additionally, a lower percentage of participants in the MI group (30.0%) had responses linked with this theme than the HI (41.2%) and NI (47.4%) groups.

**Education.** More than a third of all participants (37.5%) referred to their future status of education. This “Education” theme included responses about continuing or completing education for a current degree (e.g., “obtaining a degree in Chemistry”), pursuing or earning education for an advanced degree (e.g., “attempting my Ph.D.”), and non-specific educational plans (e.g., “part-time college”). Some participants’ responses were also related to work (e.g., “have my
masters in counseling and be working as a counselor with either kids or in a prison setting potentially”), while other responses were not (“I see myself with a degree in Telecommunications, but I have no idea where that degree will take me”). Several responses connected to this theme also were tied to the “Values” theme (e.g., “I picture myself study at a good school trying to obtain a Ph.D. This has been one of my life ambitions and the only thing I have wanted to see at the time.”). One-half of the male participants (50.0%) had responses linked with the “Education” theme, while approximately a quarter of the female participants (26.7%) did. Additionally, a lower percentage of participants in the HI group (29.4%) had responses linked with this theme than the MI (40.0%) and NI (42.1%) groups.

**Family of origin.** Some participants (16.1%) mentioned their relationships with their family of origin in the future. Participants’ responses included both having close relationships with their family of origin (e.g., “be very close to my brother and my mother”) and not having close relationships (e.g., “limited family interactions”). A few participants’ responses tied to this theme also were linked with the “Location” and “Non-romantic companionship” themes (e.g., “move back to my hometown because my family and friends are there”) and “Parenthood” (e.g., “I don't want to have a child yet, but to be very close with my niece”) theme. The frequency with which this theme was identified for males (19.2%) was higher than for females (13.3%). Interestingly, the frequency of this theme was less for the HI group (5.9%) than the MI (20.0%) and NI (21.1%) groups.

**Non-romantic companionship.** Some participants (12.5%) expressed their thoughts about having non-romantic companionship with their friends (e.g., “still be in contact with my friends but probably won't be as close because our job opportunities will probably part us.”) or pets (e.g., “have a dog”). A few responses tied to this theme also were associated with the
“Location” and “Family of origin” (see the example mentioned with the “Family of origin” theme) and “Parenthood” (see the example mentioned with the “Parenthood” theme) themes. The “Non-romantic companionship” theme was identified less often for males (11.5 %) than females (13.3%) and also less frequently for the HI group (5.9%) compared to the MI (15.0%) and NI (15.8%) groups.

**Future perception of others.** The “Future perception of others” theme was associated with ten percent of the participants (10.7%). This theme included responses about one’s partner or friend’s future job or career status (e.g., “My husband will be a golf pro”). Some responses linked with this theme were also tied to the “Work” (e.g., “My friend will be making music and we will work together and make something of ourselves”) and “Partnership” (e.g., “want my husband to be the sole provider for the family”) themes. The frequency with which this theme was identified for males (11.5 %) was slightly higher than for females (10.0%). The HI group had no responses (0.0%) linked with this theme, while the MI (20.0%) and NI (10.5%) groups did have responses.

**Emotions.** Finally, a few participants (8.9%) expressed anticipating their emotional state in the future. Interestingly, all of the responses related to this “Emotions” theme described positive and not negative emotions in the future such as happiness, excitement, and a sense of pride (e.g., “enjoy rest of my life with the full of happiness”). One response associated with this theme was also tied to the “Partnership” theme (e.g., “Being married is something I'm really excited about”). The frequency of the “Emotions” theme was lower for males (7.7 %) as compared to females (10.0%). Further, the frequency of the “Emotions” theme was higher for the MI group (15.0%) than the HI (5.9%) and NI (5.3%) groups.

**Time Horizon**
Research Questions 2, 4, and 6 were examined in relation to participants’ time horizon, including 2) How does family involvement in career decision-making influence college students’ perceptions of their time horizon? 4) Do male and female college students differ in their perceptions of their time horizon? and 6) Do students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their time horizon? When responding to how far into the future they could picture themselves, the participants provided a wide range of responses from six months to 67 years ($M = 9.3$, $SD = 11.2$). The majority of participants indicated a specific time horizon (e.g., “7 years”) although three participants provided a range of years (i.e., “between 5-10 years”) for their time horizon. The data for these three participants was recoded as an average (i.e., 7.5 years) before it was included in the analysis for time horizon. The most frequent answer (37.5% for the entire sample) participants reported for their time horizon was five years and the second most frequent answer (19.6%) was ten years. Overall, approximately seventy percent of the participants (69.6%) reported their time horizon between five to ten years, while some participants (16.1%) indicated less than five years and others (14.3%) reported more than ten years.

To further investigate Research Questions 2, 4, and 6, a between-subjects $2 \times 3$ ANOVA was conducted. Prior to performing this analysis, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was conducted. This test produced a non-significant finding, $F (5, 50) = 2.13, p > .05$, suggesting that the variances were homogeneous across the cells in the design. The ANOVA was then performed and the results revealed no significant main effect for gender, $F (1, 50) = .009, p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .00$ (Males: $M = 9.6$, $SD = 10.8$; Females: $M = 9.1$, $SD = 11.7$), or for participants’ family involvement in their career decision-making, $F (2, 50) = .340, p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$ (HI: $M = 7.6$, $SD = 4.3$; MI: $M = 10.7$, $SD = 14.6$; NI: $M = 9.5$, $SD = 11.8$). Additionally, there was no
significant interaction between gender and students’ family involvement in their career decision-making, \( F(2, 50) = .464, p > .05, \eta^2 = .02 \). Table 6 displays the means and standard deviations relevant to this interaction.

**Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to investigate both future perceptions of young adults in the U.S. and the link between such perceptions and participants’ gender and their family’s involvement in their career decision-making. To examine this phenomenon, an online survey including demographic items and semi-structured questions regarding perceptions of future life roles and time horizon was administered to U.S. male and female college students. Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was conducted to analyze participants’ responses concerning perceptions of their future life roles. Furthermore, a 2 x 3 between-subjects ANOVA using SPSS version 23.0 was performed to analyze potential differences in participants’ time horizon. This discussion section presents a summary and an interpretation of the findings. In addition, limitations of the current research and implications for theory, research, and practice are presented.

**Future Perceptions**

Research Questions 1, 3, and 5 explored participants’ perceptions of their future life roles, including (1) how does family involvement in career decision-making influence college students’ perceptions of their future life roles; (3) do male and female college students’ perceptions about their future life roles differ; and (5) do students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their perceptions of their future? Based on the responses obtained, eleven major themes were generated: (a) Work, (b) Partnership, (c)
Parenthood, (d) Location, (e) Values, (f) Economic standard of living, (g) Education, (h) Family of origin, (i) Non-romantic companionship, (j) Future perception of others, and (k) Emotions.

Overall, these themes seemed to be similar to the themes identified in previous studies on young adults’ future perceptions in the U.S., Israel, and Hong Kong (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). However, some notable findings emerged from this study. First, a theme called “Future perception of others” emerged in this study but not previous studies. Although a relatively small percentage of current participants described a partner or friend’s future job or career status when they envisioned their future life, these responses were frequent enough to identify a major theme. This finding may initially seem similar to a previous study wherein Hong Kong young women tended to report the quality of life for other family members and their career in the future (Kim et al., Under review). However, a closer look at responses related to the “Future perception of others” theme in the current study revealed that U.S. young adults focused on future perceptions of their partner and friends, whereas the Hong Kong students focused on the future perceptions of their family of origin. In this sense, the current finding appears to support the results of prior studies wherein U.S. young adults often focus on their own family, including their partners (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). Furthermore, the current participants often described the future perceptions of others in close relation to their own future work and partnership (e.g., “My friend will be making music and we will work together and make something of ourselves”; “want my husband to be the sole provider for the family”). This seems different from the Hong Kong students’ expressions of future perceptions of others because the Hong Kong students tended to provide their perceptions about their family of origin in the family members’ context (e.g., “all family members are employed”; “enjoy their retired life”; “Sisters may get married and start their families”). Such
responses from the Hong Kong students may reflect the influence of a collectivistic culture (Kim et al., Under review). Compared to the future perceptions of others among the Hong Kong students, the current participants seem to have a more self-oriented perspective about their future perceptions of others. Given this self-oriented perspective, the “Future perception of others” theme may reflect individuals’ active and explicit pursuit of future life goals within a culture of individualism in the U.S. (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.; Triandis, 1994). In other words, U.S. college students may pursue their own independent personhood by controlling their external environment and by achieving goals influenced by an individualistic culture. Moreover, they may think about the future of others in their immediate circle such as a partner and friends as a part of their external environment. Overall, U.S. young adults’ future perceptions seem to reflect their outcome expectations about future tasks and goals within their cultural context. In this sense, the current findings appear to support SCCT (Lent et al., 1994, 2000) that claims contextual variables affect individuals’ career interests, goals, and choices, thus shaping their future perceptions.

Another notable finding of this study was that a “Leisure” theme was not identified as the current participants did not provide responses tied to leisure. This finding is incongruent with prior studies that found such a theme when analyzing perceptions of future life roles among young adults from the U.S. and Israel (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). An explanation for such intra-group differences in U.S. young adults emerges from the impact of contextual variables such as a students’ college major. While previous studies on future perceptions of U.S. young adults (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press) included samples from specific majors, the current study included various college majors. Thus, differences in college major may have had some role in the lack of a Leisure theme being
identified for the U.S. students in the current study. Future researchers should look into the potential relationship between U.S. young adults’ future perceptions of leisure and their college major.

The current finding also differ from another previous study that discovered a “Personal interests and hobbies” theme in Hong Kong young women’s future perceptions (Kim et al., Under review). However, it should be noted that, even in these previous studies, the “Leisure” theme was less prevalent for U.S. young adults compared to other persons from Israel and Hong Kong. Consequently, U.S. young adults may have fewer expectations about their future engagement in leisure activities. Michael et al. (In press) argued that this observation might be related to the impact of living in the U.S., with a culture characterized by the constant need to achieve (Storti, 2004). However, despite this achievement-oriented culture, a number of researchers have emphasized the importance of leisure for reducing stress, predicting positive health outcomes, and improving individuals’ perceived well-being and quality of life (Caldwell, 2005; Cassidy, 1996; Iwasaki, 2006; Trenberth, Dewe, & Walkey, 1996). Furthermore, not having future perceptions about leisure should not be interpreted as U.S. young adults prioritizing work over leisure compared to other culture groups. In fact, one study examining U.S. individuals’ attitudes toward work and leisure found a divergence when using explicit and implicit measures (Chan, Barnes-Holmes, Barnes-Holmes, & Stewart, 2009). The authors argue that this divergence might be because the explicit test results reflected the U.S. culture’s emphasis on work and achievement, whereas the implicit test results revealed a level of dissatisfaction with work and an underlining desire for leisure. Therefore, career educators and counselors should be aware of the lack of future perceptions about leisure among U.S. young adults, encouraging their clients and students to incorporate leisure into their future plans while
providing psychoeducation about the benefits of finding and maintaining a balance between work and leisure.

Moreover, additional themes identified in the current study represented more explicit and detailed perceptions of future life roles in relation to family and relationships compared to the themes in previous studies (Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). Specifically, a wide range of responses, including those related to family of origin, romantic partners, children, friends, and even pets, were all placed under one sole overarching theme (Family and relationships) in Bellare et al. (2016) and Michael et al. (In press). Although Kim et al. (Under review) generated several more specific themes such as a “Romantic relationships” theme and a “Friendship” theme, they also provided general themes (Family; Roles and responsibilities) that covered various content tied to both participants’ family of origin and own family. These overarching themes seem, however, too broad and general to help career educators and counselors clearly understand the future perceptions of young adults. Rather, specifying overarching themes in the current study would be more useful because an individual with future perceptions about having a close relationship with his or her family of origin may not have the same values of another person who has future perceptions about having his or her own children. Thus, the present study divided this overarching theme into four specific themes (Partnership; Parenthood; Family of origin; Non-romantic companionship). These specific themes enable a clear picture of participants’ perceptions about various life roles such as partner, parent, son/daughter, friend, and pet owner. The emergence of various life roles appears to support Super’s (1990) life span-life space theory that argues individuals take on various roles during different periods in life. Also, the current results are consistent with the developmental theory that claims people usually become more involved in various life roles in young adulthood.
than adolescence (Arnett, 2004). Since these specific themes seemed to provide a clearer picture of U.S. young adults’ future perceptions compared to the overarching themes found in prior studies, professionals working with such persons should utilize this information to develop and implement more effective career interventions and programs.

In regards to Research Question 1 (How does family involvement in career decision-making influence college students’ perceptions of their future life roles?), the most frequent three themes (Work; Partnership; Parenthood) seemed similar across the three types of family involvement groups, including the High Involvement (HI), Moderate Involvement (MI), and No Involvement (NI) groups. However, several major themes appeared with different frequencies for one group in comparison to the other two. First, the HI group provided a fewer number of themes than the other two groups, specifically “Education,” “Family of origin,” and “Non-romantic companionship,” and no instances of the “Future perception of others” theme. In particular, these young adults tended to think less about their future status in education compared to the other two groups. These students may have felt less motivated or may not have been thinking about their future educational status since their families, who are actively engaged in their career plans, may have been more likely to advise them on their education plans. In addition, some relationship-related themes (Family of origin; Non-romantic companionship; Future perception of others) were identified less frequently or did not emerge in the HI group. This finding seems interesting because the HI group’s current relationships with their family may be closer compared to the other groups, at least in terms of their family’s involvement in career decision-making. A possible explanation for this finding is that the young adults in the HI group may have developed limited views about their future given their family’s strong influence.
Another possible explanation is that these students wanted to be independent given their family’s influence.

Next, the NI group reported two themes (Partnership; Parenthood) less frequently and one theme (Location) more frequently than the other two groups. The NI group members may have envisioned their future as independent individuals rather than in the context of their future family (including partner and children). A possible explanation for such differences is that their current relationships with their family may be less close compared to the other groups, at least in terms of family involvement in career decision-making. As for the “Location” theme, the NI group showed differences not only in frequency, but also in the content of their responses from the other two groups. Specifically, the NI group did not mention living in their hometown or being close to home at all, while the other groups did. Also, interestingly, all participants who mentioned living abroad belonged to only the NI group. In this sense, this higher frequency of the “Location” theme for the NI group may reflect the NI group members as being less geographically bound by where their family or others lives.

Lastly, compared to the other two groups, the MI group exhibited the “Economic standard of living” theme less frequently and two other themes more frequently (Future perception of others; Emotions). The MI group seemed to focus less on finances and material goods and more on their thoughts about others and their own feelings, possibly reflecting a moderate level of family involvement contributing to future perceptions emphasizing emotions or thoughts. Some differences in future perceptions that varied by the levels of family involvement in career decision-making were found to be related to several of the major themes. Since family involvement in career decision-making is a contextual variable, these differences
seem to support SCCT (Lent et al., 1994, 2000) that proposes that contextual variables influence future perceptions through an impact on outcome expectations.

In relation to Research Question 3 (Do male and female college students’ perceptions about their future life roles differ?), U.S. males and females in the current study overall were similar in terms of their average number of themes identified as well as the three most frequent themes (Work, Partnership, and Parenthood) identified. This result is generally consistent with the findings of previous studies on future perceptions of U.S. males and females (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). However, only indirect comparisons were possible with previous studies because each of these studies included either males or females only. Furthermore, unlike these prior studies, the present study found some gender differences in several of themes, specifically, that the fourth-most frequent theme was “Education” for males, whereas it was “Location” for females. Additionally, “Education” was the seventh-most frequent theme for females, while “Location” was seventh for males. The gender differences that emerged as a function of the “Location” and “Education” themes seem to be consistent with the SCCT framework (Lent et al., 1994, 2000) which emphasizes the impact of contextual variables such as gender on a person’s career expectations, interests, and choices, thus shaping future perceptions.

A possible explanation for why females mentioned education for their future less frequently may be due to educational disadvantages of females in U.S. culture (Marshall, Delamont, & Bank, 2007). Despite the overall emphasis on individual achievement via education in U.S. culture, researchers have found that female students often have disadvantages in academic fields with fewer resources and occupational opportunities than male students, particularly in predominantly male fields such as science and engineering (Marshall et al., 2007). Consequently, compared to male young adults, female young adults may be less encouraged to pursue further education in
certain graduate or professional schools. Meanwhile, female participants in the current study provided responses related to the “Location” theme, not only with more frequency, but also with more details than their male counterparts, revealing a much more explicit desire to live in a large city. This finding may be related to the significant impact of location of residence on social attitudes (Carter, Carter, & Corra, 2016; Hurlbert, 1989; Powers et al., 2003). Researchers have found that urban locations in the U.S. are generally associated with more progressive ideals than non-urban locations, including attitudes toward gender roles (Carter & Borch 2005; Carter et al., 2016; Hurlbert 1989; Powers et al., 2003; Twenge, 1997). Hence, if females live in a rural area where many residents hold more traditional attitudes toward gender roles, they would be more likely to struggle to deal with career-related biases and barriers. Therefore, females may think about their future locations more frequently to decrease the gender barriers by pursuing a large city setting.

As for Research Question 5 (Do students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their perceptions of their future?), the differences in the perceptions about future life roles based on the interaction between family involvement in career decision-making and gender were not significant overall across six sub-groups, including the Male and Extremely involved (M-HI), the Female and Extremely involved (F-HI), the Male and Moderately involved (M-MI), the Female and Moderately involved (F-MI), the Male and Not at all involved (M-NI), and the Female and Not at all involved (F-NI) groups. However, a couple of patterns related to a sub-group and a major theme were found. First, one sub-group (M-NI) seemed to show a unique pattern whereby participants mentioned the “Education” theme most often and the “Partnership” and the “Parenthood” themes least often. In particular, the M-NI group’s responses for the “Partnership” theme included fewer content related to having a married
partner and more content related to not having a partner. In addition, their responses for the “Parenthood” theme included fewer content related to having children and more content related to not having children. Such findings regarding the M-NI group reflect the impact of both gender and family involvement in career decision-making since males provided the “Education” theme more frequently and the NI group provided the “Partnership” and “Parenthood” themes less frequently. A possible explanation for this finding is that the NI group’s characteristic of future perceptions (envisioning their future as independent individuals rather than in the context of their future family due to the influence of a relatively loose relationship with their current family) may match males’ characteristic of future perceptions (seeking education with less gender-based educational disadvantages in the achievement-oriented culture in the U.S.) (Marshall et al., 2007).

Another pattern related to the interaction between family involvement in career decision-making and gender was found in this study was related to the “Location” theme. Here, the gender difference seemed to have more influence on future perceptions of U.S. young adults compared to the differences based on the levels of family involvement in career decision-making. In particular, as discussed above, the “Location” theme was more salient for females and for the NI group respectively. When gender and levels of family involvement in career decision-making were both considered, the frequency of responses related to the “Location” theme revealed the following order: the F-NI (the most frequent), the F-MI, the F-HI/the M-NI, the M-MI, and the M-HI (the least frequent) groups. Although the NI group mentioned location more than the MI group and the MI group did so more than the HI group for both genders, even the M-NI group (the highest frequency among males) provided the same number of responses related to the “Location” theme as the F-HI group (the lowest frequency among females). Thus, the impact of
the levels of family involvement in career decision-making seemed less strong compared to the impact of gender. However, due to a lack of research, determining if this difference is meaningful and how this difference can be explained at this point is difficult. Thus, future researchers should more closely examine this potential difference between the impact of family involvement in career decision-making and the impact of gender related to the “Location” theme. This result is important because, while a pattern (the impact of levels of family involvement in career decision-making seemed less strong compared to the impact of gender) was found, it is still unknown whether this potential difference is meaningful or not.

Below is further discussion of the results for several major themes not discussed above.

**Work.** Almost all the participants of the present study mentioned the “Work” theme most frequently, and this finding was similar to previous studies (Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). However, some differences emerged about how much the “Work” theme was emphasized compared to the second-most mentioned theme in the present research and previous studies. Specifically, prior studies on young men and women from the U.S. and Israel identified both the “Work” and the “Family/relationships” themes as the most frequent (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). Meanwhile, other research on Hong Kong young women indicated that the “Work” theme was mentioned nearly twice as frequently as the “Family” theme, which was the second-most frequent theme (Kim et al., Under review). The results of the current study reflect such findings from both prior studies as it showed that the “Work” theme was much more common than the second-place theme (Partnership), but the gap of frequency between these two themes was less than twice. The second-most frequent themes found by Bellare et al. (2016) and Michael et al. (In press) included a wide variety of responses related to family and relationships, more so than the counterparts in Kim et al. (Under review)
and the current study; consequently, it is hard to conclude how much work is more frequently perceived than the second-most frequent theme by comparing the results from the present study and prior studies at this point due to different specificity among themes from each study.

As for gender differences, female participants’ responses within the present study were linked more frequently with the “Work” theme than male participants. This finding is also consistent with findings from previous studies on U.S. young adults’ future perceptions (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). However, this finding may conflict with perceived traditional gender roles wherein men are traditionally expected to work as breadwinners in the U.S. (Daly & Palkovitz, 2004; Ranson, 2012). However, in recent years, the number of female breadwinners have greatly increased, as indicated by a Pew Research Center’s analysis of data from the U.S. Census Bureau showing a record 40% of all households with children under the age of 18 include mothers who are either the sole or primary source of income for the family in 2013 (Wang, Parker & Taylor, 2013). Thus, the gender differences found in the present study related to the “Work” theme may reflect a change in social gender role expectations.

Furthermore, since females often expect more barriers to their career advancement than males (McWhirter, 1997; Watts, Frame, Moffett, Van Hein, & Hein, 2015), young women may be required to think about their future in relation to work more actively and specifically. In addition, the NI group had a slightly lower incidence of the “Work” theme responses than the HI and MI groups. Relatively limited guidance from their family about their career decision-making may have offered less opportunities for individuals in the NI group to think about their future work compared to the other two groups.

**Partnership, Parenthood, Family of origin, & Non-romantic companionship.** As discussed above, the four themes in this subsection were grouped under more general themes
than in previous studies (Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). In the present study, the frequency of how often these relationship themes were identified varied. Specifically, the “Partnership” and the “Parenthood” themes were the second- and the third-most frequent themes identified respectively, while the “Family of origin” and the “Non-romantic relationship” themes were identified less frequent. This may reflect U.S. young adults’ tendency to focus more on their own family (i.e., whether they marry or not, whether they have a child or not) than other relationships, which is consistent with findings from prior studies (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). Thus, career educators and counselors may need to be aware, if they are not already, of this pattern that U.S. young adults often perceive their future roles in the context of relationships with their own partner and children rather than in the context of relationship with their family of origin and others. In addition, as for the “Parenthood” theme, some participants described their hopes to find alternatives to the traditional child conception process, such as adoption. Such descriptions about non-traditional ways to be a parent were not reported in the previous studies (Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). This may reflect changes in society about how to raise a family with consideration of diverse relationships, including same-sex relationships. Ball (2002) pointed out that, while the concept of the traditional family still exists in the U.S., it is a social construct which changes over time, reflected in the growing number of individuals currently living in alternative, non-traditional families such as a step family and a same-sex family (Gerson 2006; Stephens, 2013). Therefore, professionals in the field of career counseling and education need to be aware of the contemporary change in the concept of family in the U.S.

No gender differences were found in terms of the frequency with which the “Partnership” theme was identified. Meanwhile, females had a relatively higher incidence of the “Parenthood”
and the “Non-romantic companionship” themes than males. This finding seemed to be similar to the findings of previous studies (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press), wherein U.S. women provided more responses tied to the “Family/relationships” theme than U.S. men. As mentioned above, however, these previous studies only examined one gender (i.e., either men or women), and these studies also subsumed the “Partnership” theme with other relationships under one overarching theme. Thus, it is difficult to directly compare such results with the current results. Despite these limitations, the difference between the findings in the current study and previous studies may be explained by gender differences in relative importance of work and family roles. As noted above, numerous researchers have found that women in general are expected to care for their children and other relationships more often than men (Askari, Liss, Erchull, Staebell, & Axelson, 2010; Cinamon & Rich, 2002, 2014; Kaufman, 2005; Orrange, 2002; Seginer, 2009). However, this explanation does not seem to support the finding that females had relatively lower incidence of the “Family of origin” theme than males in the current study. Such relative lower incidence of the “Family of origin” theme may be because of the overall influence of U.S. culture emphasizing one’s own family over family of origin.

In terms of the differences regarding family involvement in career decision-making, the NI group was lower than the other two groups for the “Partnership” and the “Parenthood” themes, whereas the HI group was lower than the other groups for the “Family of origin” and the “Non-romantic relationship” themes. Since these findings were already discussed earlier, further explanation is not presented here.

**Location & Education.** The “Location” and the “Education” themes were the fourth- and seventh-most frequently extracted themes respectively among U.S. young adults. These findings seem to be consistent with results presented by Michael et al. (In press) of U.S. young
women. However, these findings were not consistent with results presented by Bellare et al. (2016) whereby U.S. young men showed similar frequency between the “Residence/Location” and the “Education” themes. As discussed above, both the “Location” and the “Education” themes revealed gender differences as well as differences based on the levels of family involvement in career decision-making.

**Values & Emotions.** The “Values” theme was the fourth-most frequent theme, mentioned as often as the “Location” theme, whereas the “Emotions” theme was mentioned by much fewer participants. The “Values” theme included diverse responses related to six sub-themes such as religion, developmental milestones, pro-social behaviors, priorities, quality of roles, and fulfillment. These responses seemed to be similar to the responses tied to various themes in previous studies, including the “Quality of life/General quality of life,” the “Values,” the “Pro-social activities,” and the “Religion” themes (Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). The “Emotions” theme was not indicated as a major theme in the just mentioned prior studies, but the “Quality of life/General quality of life” theme in these studies included responses concerning future emotional state. However, in the current study, the “Values” theme included pro-social activities, religion, and quality of life, except the emotional state. These sub-themes are all related to personal principles or judgments of what is important in one’s life. Also, responses related to each sub-theme were not frequent enough to identify them as major themes. Meanwhile, the “Emotions” theme was presented as an independent major theme in the current study because the content of the “Emotions” theme was meaningful enough to be separated from the “Values” theme, which focused on cognition rather than emotions. An interesting finding regarding the “Values” theme was that responses related to fulfillment (e.g., “job that I enjoy”; “want the American Dream”) was most frequent among six sub-themes under
the “Value” theme. A possible explanation for this finding may be due to the influence of the achievement-oriented culture in the U.S. (Storti, 2004). Additionally, for the “Emotions” theme, all the responses about emotions in the current study described only positive emotions (e.g., happiness, excitement, a sense of pride) for the future. This seemed to be similar to the findings in previous studies that U.S. young adults usually expected positive emotions in the future although some of them also reported negative emotions (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). Such skewed expectations regarding a positive emotional state may be explained by the career exploration stage of these young adults (Super, 1990). According to Super (1990), adolescents and early young adults begin to develop realistic ideas about professional training/work and themselves. Consequently, participants in the current study may have begun to develop, albeit not yet fully, their future perception from realistic and balanced perspectives, which would be more likely to include both positive and negative emotions. Taken as a whole, U.S. young adults may often pursue fulfilling their dreams and aspirations while holding skewed expectations about a positive emotional state in the future. However, these young adults seemed to focus more on their values than on their emotions. As discussed above, this finding may be influenced by the emphasis of achievement in U.S. culture (Chan et al., 2009; Storti, 2004). Therefore, career educators and counselors should encourage U.S. college students and clients to develop more balanced future perceptions between values and emotions as well as between positive and negative emotions. For example, in career counseling sessions, these professionals may pose exploratory questions to the students/clients not only about their values, but also about their emotions (positive and negative) related to their future.

In terms of gender differences, the frequency of the “Values” theme was higher for males, whereas the frequency of the “Emotions” theme was higher for females. This may reflect
that males tend to pursue their values and beliefs with fewer perceived social and gender barriers. Moreover, females may tend to be more emotionally expressive than men due to cultural learning, which tends to reinforce emotional expression in females more than in males (Fiorentini, 2013).

Furthermore, the NI group had more responses linked with the “Values” theme. This seemed to be congruent with the tendency of the NI group, which is pursuing independence and achievement, as discussed above. Additionally, the MI group had more responses identified with the “Emotions” theme, a potential explanation discussed in the above section.

**Economic standard of living.** The “Economic standard of living” theme was the sixth-most mentioned theme in the present study. As part of this theme, many participants mentioned financial status (e.g., paying debts; saving money), while others also expressed their desire related to residence (e.g., owning a house, describing their future apartment) and owning non-residential possessions (e.g., a car). The frequency and the content of this theme appeared consistent with findings from previous studies that reported that U.S. males and females often envisioned different types of financial stability, including debt reduction and owning various types of property in addition to a house (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). The varying content of this theme is a distinguishing characteristic of future perceptions for U.S. young adults as their counterparts from Israel and Hong Kong mainly focused on house ownership (Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). In regard to this characteristic, prior studies provided possible explanations based on U.S. cultural and social factors, including an unstable housing market following the start of the recession and higher rates of unemployment (Belsky, 2013). This explanation appeared to be applicable to the present study as well.
Within the “Economic standard of living” theme, males provided more responses than females, in contrast with previous studies that found that responses related to a desire for material and monetary possessions in the future were more frequent for females than males in the U.S. (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). Yet, again, only indirect comparisons between the current study and such previous studies are possible at this point. Thus, future research should investigate this potential gender difference in the “Economic standard of living” theme more closely. In addition, the frequency of this theme was less for the MI group than for the HI and the NI group. This finding was discussed earlier.

**Future perception of others.** About ten percent of participants identified with the “Future perception of others” theme, a unique theme in this study. Further discussion of this theme was presented in the above section. The frequency with which this theme was identified for males was slightly higher than for females, but the gap was less than two percent, making it difficult to determine if this difference is significant or not at this point. Further research will be helpful to elucidate potential gender differences within this theme. As for the differences among the levels of family involvement in career decision-making, the HI group had no responses. A possible explanation for this was provided above.

**Time Horizon**

In terms of time horizon, Research Questions 2, 4, and 6 were investigated, including (2) how does family involvement in career decision-making influence college students’ perceptions of their time horizon; (4) do male and female college students differ in their perceptions of their time horizon; and (6) do students’ family involvement in their career decision-making and their gender interact to affect their time horizon? The results revealed that the most frequent time horizon for students was five years, which was congruent with the results of prior studies that
examined U.S. young men and women (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). Yet, the average time horizon found in the present study was 9.3 years, as the majority of participants reported a time horizon between five to ten years. This seemed somewhat longer than previous studies that found the majority of participants reported a time horizon of one to five years. Furthermore, this average time horizon of the current participants is also longer compared to Boniecki’s (1980) claim that the average time horizon for most people is three to five years. In addition, the range of U.S. young adults’ time horizon was between six months and 67 years in the present study. This range seemed wider than the findings for U.S. young adults in previous studies: between one and 20 years (Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press). Meanwhile, according to the ANOVA results, no significant findings emerged for the effects of gender, students’ family involvement in their career decision-making, or the interaction between these variables on time horizon.

Taken together, the findings of the current study may indicate that U.S. young adults most commonly envision their lives about five years into the future and make decisions accordingly, but the average time horizon and the range of time horizon may vary between people in the U.S. An explanation for such intra-group differences may be possible based on the impact of contextual variables. For example, unlike the current study, prior studies did not examine the levels of family involvement in career decision-making. Thus, these previous studies may include skewed samples with a certain level of family involvement in career decision-making, affecting such differences in time horizon. However, due to a lack of research, it seems difficult to conclude how much these differences in the average length and the range of time horizon among U.S. young adults were influenced by family involvement in career decision-making. In fact, other contextual variables may contribute to such intra-group
differences in time horizon. For instance, a students’ college major can be a contextual variable that may influence future perceptions of young adults. However, previous studies on future perceptions of young adults (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press) included rather narrow samples from specific majors, while the current study included various college majors. Consequently, future researchers should look into potential relationships between various contextual variables and time horizon of U.S. young adults.

**Limitations**

Although the current study contributed several new findings to the understanding of U.S. young adults’ future perceptions, there are several limitations. First, since all of participants in this study were college students, the results might reflect peculiar characteristics of college students. Yet, according to the recent statistics, more than 50% of U.S. young adults aged 18 to 24 years old are not attending postsecondary institutions (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], n.d.). Therefore, the findings of the current study may have limited generalizability to other young adult populations in the U.S. who are not enrolled in college. Future studies should assess the future perceptions of other young adult populations, such as working young adults.

Second, the present study included an unequal numbers of participants grouped by their family’s involvement in their career decision-making. Specifically, since this study employed a 2 x 3 between-subjects design, it would have been ideal to include the same number of participants in each family involvement in career decision-making sub-group (M-HI, the F-HI, the M-MI, the F-MI, the M-NI, and the F-NI groups) as previously mentioned. However, when the participants were randomly selected from the larger data set, there were a very limited number of male students between the ages of 18 to 24 who reported that their family was extremely involved or
not at all involved in their career decision-making. Consequently, the current study included ten participants per sub-group except for the M-HI and the M-NI groups, which had seven and nine participants respectively. The different participant numbers per sub-group might have affected the outcome of this study and raises the question of whether there was a Type II Error. To arrive at a more complete understanding of the contribution of family involvement in career decision-making in U.S. young adults’ future perceptions, future researchers are encouraged to recruit and include an equal and much larger number of participants in their studies representing various levels of their family’s involvement in career decision-making.

Third, the issue of external validity is also concern with respect to the current results. All of the participants were recruited from a Midwestern university in the U.S. They all were enrolled at the same school and lived near the school. In addition, most of the participants were Caucasian/European-American/White. Furthermore, all participants were born in the U.S. except one male participant who was born in South Korea. Such narrow demographics might not properly represent college students at other schools, those living in other geographical areas, or those who are non-Caucasian and born in different countries. Thus, to fully comprehend U.S. young adults’ future perceptions, future researchers are encouraged to include participants from greater diverse backgrounds including a wide range of universities, regions, ethnicities, and countries of origin.

Fourth, it is possible that the participants might have understood the meaning of family involvement in career decision-making differently given the complex nature of the concept of family involvement. For instance, when they were asked how much their family had been involved in their career decision-making, some students indicated “extremely involved” because their family provided direct guidance and explicit advice when they made an important career
decision at one point in their lives, while others might have responded “extremely involved” because their family continuously encouraged them to think about their career and discuss career decision-making on an ongoing basis. However, a detailed definition of family involvement in career decision-making was not provided when the current participants responded to the survey. Since a Likert scale was utilized, it was difficult to determine if participants interpreted the meaning of family involvement in career decision-making similarly and consistently. Therefore, further research on the impact of family involvement in career decision-making on U.S. young adults’ future perceptions would be needed while clarifying the meaning of family involvement in career decision-making by providing definitions or examining participants’ understanding about the concept with follow-up questions.

Finally, the data collection method of this study might affect how students describe their lives in the future. Specifically, participants completed a semi-structured questionnaire online and were prompted with examples of their life roles such as work and family. Although these examples were given to prevent possible confusion and misunderstanding about the meaning of life roles, it is possible that these examples might have contributed to the results whereby most participants’ future perceptions were related to the “Work,” the “Partnership,” and the “Parenthood” themes. Similarly, participants were prompted with examples of their time horizon (e.g., “5, 7, 10 years”). Such examples might have primed participants to select a specific number of years. However, this may not have been a major problem in this study because participants shared a wide range of responses (from six months to 67 years) beyond the range mentioned in the question’s example, and furthermore, the mean time horizon obtained was higher than the number of years given in the example. Regardless, future researchers are encouraged to develop and implement a better method to decrease the possibility that
participants’ responses are potentially biased by the way the question is asked. For example, researchers might consider conducting in-depth interviews with participants without providing any examples from the beginning while utilizing some follow-up questions to prompt the participants as needed.

**Implications**

The findings of the current study may have broad implications for theory, research, and practice as they offer valuable insights into the future perceptions of U.S. young adults. First, there are some implications for theory. Overall, since the current finding showed that future perceptions of U.S. young adults reflect their career-related outcome expectations about future tasks and goals within their cultural context, the finding is consistent with the SCCT framework (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). The findings also revealed that, despite some common themes identified for both genders, U.S. males and females exhibited some differences in terms of specific content and relative saliency in perceptions of future life roles. Such gender differences emerged particularly in several themes such as “Location” and “Education.” This supports the claims of SCCT (Lent et al., 1994, 2000) in that contextual variables such as gender affect individuals' career interests, goals, and choices, shaping their future perceptions. However, the SCCT framework did not explicitly include family involvement in career decision-making as a contextual variable despite its potential impact on future perceptions. In fact, the current findings showed some differences in future perceptions depending on the levels of family involvement in career decision-making. Thus, the results suggest that SCCT may have more explanatory power in relation to future perceptions by including various contextual variables such as family involvement in career decision-making and by investigating not only the impact of a single contextual variable, but also the impact of the interactions among contextual variables.
Moreover, the results of this study showed participants’ perceptions about various life roles such as a worker, partner, parent, son/daughter, resident, student, and friend were consistent with Super’s (1990) life span-life space theory that claimed that individuals have various anticipated roles during young adulthood. The current results also support the developmental theory of young adults in that young adulthood is the primary period wherein a person becomes more involved in various life roles (Arnett, 2004).

Second, the results of the present study have several implications for research. This study attempted to overcome some limitations of prior studies on future perceptions of young adults (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press) by including both males and females that reported various college majors, by focusing on early young adults aged from 18 to 24, as well as by exploring an under-examined contextual variable (family involvement in career decision-making). Thus, the results provided useful information for further studies about future perceptions. Although the current study has limitations, awareness of such limitations may enable future researchers to pursue projects to further understand future perceptions among various populations, including working young adults, young adults with different levels of family involvement in their career decision-making, and young adults from diverse backgrounds. In addition, awareness of these limitations may assist future researchers to implement more rigorous research methods so that they can clarify the meaning of a family’s involvement in a student’s career decision-making and increase the possibility of collecting richer responses. In doing so, future studies would provide clearer answers about how future perceptions of young adults in the U.S. are related to their family’s involvement in career decision-making and their gender. Furthermore, although the current findings revealed no considerable impact involving the interaction between students’ gender and family involvement
in their career decision-making on future perceptions of U.S. young adults, several major themes (Education; Partnership; Parenthood; Location) varied in the frequency with which they were identified as a function of these two contextual variables. In addition, other contextual variables may help to reveal perceptions of future life roles and time horizon among young adults within U.S. culture. Therefore, future studies are suggested to explore how other contextual variables and the intersectionality of such contextual variables may affect young adults’ future perceptions in the U.S. For example, while previous studies on future perceptions of young adults (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press) included rather narrow samples from specific majors, college major can be a contextual variable that may influence young adults’ future perceptions. In addition, college major may also interact with other contextual variables. According to Tang et al. (1999), the impact of family involvement may differ based on college major or desired future job. Thus, it might be valuable to investigate the impact of family involvement of students majoring in different subjects in future studies.

Lastly, the results of the present study have a number of practical implications for career counseling and education of young adults in the U.S. First of all, the current findings involve a contextual variable studied by many researchers (gender) as well as another contextual variable that was understudied (family involvement in career decision-making) that might influence U.S. young adults’ future perceptions. This information may be useful for professionals in the field of career counseling and education as they may be able to design and implement career interventions and programs for their clients and students and provide career support accordingly. For instance, these professionals may develop a career workshop including specific content to help the F-NI group explore career options and family plans in terms of location, given the importance of location for this group. Furthermore, the current findings indicated that U.S.
young adults include many different life roles in their future perceptions. This information can help career counselors and educators to focus not only on the work domain, but also on the multiple life roles and related issues of U.S. young adults. Given the multiple tasks of young adults in their developmental stages (Arnett, 2004; Super, 1990), balancing multiple roles can be critical issues for young adults. In particular, compared to other young adults, young adults in the HI group seemed to focus on relatively few future life roles (e.g., worker, partner, parent) while thinking less about other roles (e.g., student, son/daughter, friend). Thus, career counselors may provide opportunities to the HI group to think about other future life roles and help them to build career plans accordingly. Moreover, the current results demonstrated that U.S. young adults tend to focus more on their own family than other relationships when they envision themselves in the future. Thus, career counselors and educators can aid in identifying a broader spectrum of life roles beyond roles in students’ or clients’ own families such as a leisure seeker, community member, and citizen when developing their future plans in a more balanced way. Finally, given that most U.S. young adults in the current study pictured themselves between five to ten years into the future, it may be valuable for career-related professionals to be aware of this tendency and to understand any potential difficulty. Professionals may also facilitate their clients’ or students’ development of short-term goals instead of encouraging them to examine much farther into the future. Additionally, it is common for career counselors to use a career timeline or lifeline (Goldman, 1992) to enable the patterns and themes of a client’s career/life plan to become more visible. This timeline can be adjusted to incorporate the client’s perceived future time horizon.

Conclusion
The findings of the current research revealed some unique characteristics of future perceptions among young adults in the U.S., including a focus on their own family and a lack of future perception about leisure, while often envisioning themselves in a relatively near future. The findings revealed differences in perceptions of U.S. young adults’ future life roles as a function of their family’s involvement in career decision-making and gender. Consequently, consideration of the impact of contextual variables such as family involvement in career decision-making and gender within the SCCT framework was found to be useful for understanding perceptions of future life roles. However, differences in time horizon among U.S. young adults based on these two variables were not found in this study. In addition, the current findings revealed no considerable impact involving the interaction between these two variables on perceptions of U.S. young adults’ future life roles and time horizon. However, several major themes (Education; Partnership; Parenthood; Location) were identified as a function of students’ gender and how involved their family was in their career decision-making (extremely involved, somewhat involved, and not at all involved).

The present study has contributed to the field of career development and counseling as one of the first studies of future perceptions of U.S. young adults that investigated the link between such perceptions and this population’s family involvement in career decision-making and gender. The present researcher hopes that future researchers will be inspired by this study to pursue projects to further understand perceptions of future life roles and time horizon among diverse young adult populations. Furthermore, the researcher also hopes that career counselors and educators will utilize the findings from this study to provide more effective and culturally responsive career interventions and programs to their clients and students.
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doi:10.1177/0743558403018004001


doi:10.1177/0011000004265660


Table 1

*Participants as a Function of Gender and Family Involvement in Career Decision-Making*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family involvement in career decision-making</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely involved</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat involved</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all involved</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2

*Examples of Responses for Each Theme Found for the U.S. Young Adults*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Examples of Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>A pharmacist; working as a junior executive for a company; working for 92.3 WTTS and Live Nation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>Have a husband; will have a steady girlfriend, but will not be married; not in a serious relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parenthood</td>
<td>Have kids; I want two kids. A boy and a girl two years apart; will not have kids or any family of my own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Live in Harding Street Lofts, located downtown Indianapolis; living in home town; plan on being abroad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Get back to church; making way into adulthood; be involved in non-profit organizations; want the American Dream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic standard of living</td>
<td>Make a dent in my student loans; have a beautiful home with a garden, patio, and 2 car garage; owning a nice car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Obtaining a degree in Chemistry; attempting my Ph.D.; part-time college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family of origin</td>
<td>Be very close to my brother and my mother; limited family interactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-romantic companionship</td>
<td>Still be in contact with my friends but probably won't be as close; have a dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future perception of others</td>
<td>My friend will be making music and we will work together; want my husband to be the sole provider for the family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>Enjoy rest of my life with the full of happiness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 3

*An Example of the Codes and Themes for One Participant’s Response*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant’s Response</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am married and have at least two children. I am working at a hospital helping babies learn how to eat/swallow or at a school helping children with speech impediments. I am an active member of my church.</td>
<td>1. Married</td>
<td>Partnership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Two children</td>
<td>Parenthood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Working at the hospital or at a school</td>
<td>Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Active member of church</td>
<td>Values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4

*Frequency of Themes Found for U.S. Young Adults’ Responses by Gender*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Total (n = 56)</th>
<th>Males (n = 26)</th>
<th>Females (n = 30)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>76.8</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parenthood</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic standard of living</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family of origin</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-romantic companionship</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future perception of others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5

Frequency of Themes Found for U.S. Young Adults’ Responses by Family Involvement in Their Career Decision-Making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Total (n = 56)</th>
<th>Family extremely involved (n = 17)</th>
<th>Family somewhat involved (n = 20)</th>
<th>Family not at all involved (n = 19)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
<td>Frequency %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>52 92.9</td>
<td>16 94.1</td>
<td>19 95.0</td>
<td>17 89.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>43 76.8</td>
<td>14 82.4</td>
<td>17 85.0</td>
<td>12 63.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parenthood</td>
<td>37 66.1</td>
<td>12 70.6</td>
<td>14 70.0</td>
<td>11 57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>23 41.1</td>
<td>5 29.4</td>
<td>7 35.0</td>
<td>11 57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>23 41.1</td>
<td>7 41.2</td>
<td>7 35.0</td>
<td>9 47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic standard of living</td>
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<td>7 41.2</td>
<td>6 30.0</td>
<td>9 47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<td>5 29.4</td>
<td>8 40.0</td>
<td>8 42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family of origin</td>
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<td>1 5.9</td>
<td>4 20.0</td>
<td>4 21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-romantic companionship</td>
<td>7 12.5</td>
<td>1 5.9</td>
<td>3 15.0</td>
<td>3 15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future perception of others</td>
<td>6 10.7</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
<td>4 20.0</td>
<td>2 10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>5 8.9</td>
<td>1 5.9</td>
<td>3 15.0</td>
<td>1 5.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6

*Means and Standard Deviations for Time Horizon for U.S. Young Adults by Gender and Family Involvement in Career Decision-Making*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family involvement in career decision-making</th>
<th>Gender</th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely involved</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat involved</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all involved</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix A – Extended Literature Review and References

This review discusses literature related to the research questions posed for the current study. Specifically, the review focuses on studies linked with the two dependent (i.e., future perceptions, time horizon) and two independent (i.e., gender, family involvement in career decision-making) variables investigated in the current research. Additionally, this review discusses the advantages and limitations as well as the process of performing thematic analysis, as this procedure was employed in the current study to analyze participants’ responses.

Research on Future Perceptions

In vocational and career counseling psychology, researchers have investigated diverse variables relevant to individuals’ academic and career development. Some researchers have studied future orientation, which is an individual’s ability to think about the future and be motivated to work toward goals and goal-related tasks to reach an ideal future (Nurmi, Poole, & Seginer, 1995). Such researchers claim that understanding individuals’ images about the future and what conditions facilitate or hinder their investment in their future orientation is critical. For example, Seginer (1988) examined the effect of ethnicity on Israeli and Arab adolescents’ future orientation, finding that future orientation seemed more salient and detailed for Arab adolescents than for Israeli adolescents although the two samples shared similar future orientation domains (e.g., military service, work and career, higher education). Accordingly, the author argued that ethnicity may be one variable that affects future orientation.

Other scholars have focused on time orientation, which is the predominant direction of one’s behavior and thoughts toward goals and events in the past, the present, or the future (Nuttin & Lens, 1985). A study conducted by Malgorzata (2009) investigated the links between three forms of present time orientation, fatalism, hedonism, and active concentration on the present
and life satisfaction among adults. The findings indicated that active concentration on the present contributed to greater life satisfaction and to more effective goal achievement than the other forms of present time orientation. Another study (Shirai, Nakamura, & Katsuma, 2012) examined the link between time orientation and identity formation among Japanese adults. The authors found that a balanced time orientation, which refers to a person’s mental ability to flexibly adapt his/her time perspectives based on tasks, situations, and resources, was positively associated with identity development.

Additionally, Shell and Husman (2001) examined how college students’ academic achievement and studying were correlated with their future time perspective: an individual’s conceptualization of the future and connection to that future. Based on the results, the authors argued that future time perspective has motivational consequences in academic achievement and studying. Further, another study investigated how low-income adolescents’ expectations about their future affected their academic outcomes (Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004). The results showed that persons having an achievement-related focus in future self-concept facilitated their strategic learning so that they could improve their academic performance.

In comparison with the aforementioned constructs, fewer studies have been conducted on future perceptions, or the content of a person’s ambition, beliefs, and view when thinking about the future (Seginer, 1988). Moreover, the majority of these studies have focused on adolescents, but not young adults. For example, one study examined adolescents’ and parents’ future beliefs, focusing on their future goals and future probability estimations, which refer to the personal expectancy of outcomes regarding future career, social, and family life (Malmberg, Ehrman, & Lithén, 2005). The findings of the study revealed that adolescents’ and parents’ future goals were commonly related to certain areas such as career, social, or family, but there was no correlation
between adolescents’ and parents’ future goals. In addition, the findings indicated that adolescents’ and parents’ probability estimations were different, as they perceived timing and the order of goal completion differently. Yet, the findings also showed that adolescents’ and parents’ probability estimations were positively interrelated, as both tended to similarly think they were able to succeed or not. Based on the results, the authors claimed that adolescents may have some relative autonomy to develop their goals within the family context, but the goals may be culturally transmitted, and the perceptions of available opportunities and constraints to achieve such goals may be different for adolescents and parents. In another study, Nurmi et al. (1995) examined future orientation and its related content among adolescents in Australia, Finland, and Israel. The results of this study indicated that adolescents across the three countries shared the most frequently mentioned content about future orientation, including education, career, and family. In addition, the researchers noted differences in the content of future orientation depending on participants’ societal and cultural contexts. For example, military service was only relevant for Israelis due to the compulsory military service of several years for Israeli youths. Based on the results, the authors also argued that age-related developmental tasks, role transitions, and institutional tracks influence the development of future orientation, identity exploration, and commitments. Although Malmberg et al. (2005) and Nurmi et al. (1995) explored future perceptions among adolescents and their results may assist career counselors working with adolescents, it is still questionable whether we can apply their findings to the young adult population. Specifically, young adulthood is distinguished from adolescence in terms of developmental tasks, identity development, and social expectations (Arnett, 2000; Super, 1983). Therefore, more research on future perceptions of young adults seems to be needed to enhance career counseling and education for young adults.
To address the needs just mentioned, in recent years, some scholars have conducted studies on the future perceptions of young adults. Michael et al. (In press), for instance, investigated future perceptions of U.S. and Israeli female college students. The authors found similarities among the future perceptions of participants, specifically related to several main themes (Work; Family and relationships; Property; Residence; Education; General quality of life; Leisure; Pro-social activities; Multiple role management). However, each group provided their unique beliefs in their description of each theme even if described in common themes. For example, when they described their future in relation to the “Family and significant relationships” theme, several U.S. women mentioned that they would not have a child yet, but no Israeli women responded that way. Kim et al. (Under review) extended Michael and colleagues’ (In press) research by examining future perceptions of Hong Kong women. The authors found that participants provided various future perceptions related to several themes (Work; Family; Roles and responsibilities; Romantic relationships; Values; Living situation; Quality of life; Status of education; Personal interests and hobbies; Finance; Friendship). Their findings also revealed that Hong Kong young women often focused on their roles and responsibilities in their family, the quality of their relationships, and the well-being of their family members. Since the future perceptions of Hong Kong young women were different from their U.S. and Israeli students in the study by Michael et al. (In press), Kim et al. (Under review) argued the future perceptions of Hong Kong young women may be reflective of their cultural and socio-historical background in Hong Kong.

Although the two studies just mentioned explored future perceptions among young women from different countries, young men’s future perceptions have remained understudied. As such, another recent study investigated the future perceptions of young adult males from the
U.S. and Israel (Bellare et al., 2016). This study found several common themes (Work, Family and relationships, Education, Material and monetary assets, Location, Leisure, and General quality of life) across the two samples. However, the findings also revealed some differences between U.S. and Israeli young men in their responses related to family plans, aspirations to move abroad, and ownership of property. For example, Israeli young men’s responses tied to the “Material and monetary assets” theme focused only on house ownership, whereas U.S. young men mentioned financial stability and owning a variety of types of property including a house. The authors argued that such differences could be explained by both cultural and social factors in the U.S. and Israel. Accordingly, the authors claimed that culture plays a significant role in the future perceptions of young adult males.

All three studies just reviewed above have provided useful information about the future perceptions of young adults, especially indicating some similarities and differences among young adults from different cultures. However, each of these studies included either women or men as part of the sample. Thus, in order to fully comprehend the association between gender and the future perceptions of young adults, a single study should compare the future perceptions of males and females. Further, the studies reported above focused on nationality, but did not investigate other contextual variables in relation to future perceptions. To extend our understanding about the future perceptions of young adults, therefore, it would be beneficial to conduct further research to discover how other contextual variables (e.g., gender, family involvement in career decision-making) may be associated with future perceptions.

Furthermore, all the above studies of young adults’ future perceptions were guided by a common framework, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2000). There seems to be two main reasons why these studies were conceptualized within SCCT.
One reason might be that this theory emphasizes outcome expectations as a social cognitive variable in academic and career development, and researchers who have studied future perceptions have paid attention to the conceptual relationship between future perceptions and outcome expectations. According to SCCT, outcome expectations, or an individual’s evaluation (e.g., positive, neutral, or negative) of future career decisions, influence his/her career interests, goals, and choices (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Researchers studying future perceptions have claimed that different types of outcome expectations affect the content of a person’s description about future tasks, goals, and interests (Kim et al., Under review). For instance, if some young adults have positive outcome expectations about a certain future task or event (e.g., expecting that applying to a medical school will increase social status and access to resources), they may develop future perceptions of their life roles related to such a task or event in multiple domains including education (e.g., attending medical school), work (e.g., working at a hospital), and/or other areas (e.g., earning sufficient salary). On the other hand, if young adults hold negative outcome expectations about the same task or event (e.g., applying to a medical school will increase academic stress and decrease the amount of quality time with family and friends), they may develop different future perceptions of their life roles that are not related to such a task or event (e.g., “attending medical school” will be not included in their future perceptions).

Another reason why future perception studies have been conceptualized using SCCT is due to the theory’s emphasis on the impact of contextual variables on a person’s career goals, interests, and choices (Lent et al., 1994). Within the SCCT framework, contextual variables are influenced by person factors (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, disability/health conditions) and include a person’s perceived resources related to accessing vocational preparation and opportunities. Researchers found, for instance, that perceived support may serve as a precursor
for outcome expectations for engineering undergraduates (Navarro, Flores, Lee, & Gonzalez, 2014). These researchers highlighted the importance of how students’ socialization processes affected their thoughts about tasks and goals. Since outcome expectations shape future perceptions, contextual factors within the SCCT framework may also influence future perceptions through its impact on outcome expectations. In this sense, prior studies of future perceptions (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press) when investigating contextual variables such as gender and nationality relied on SCCT. Accordingly, SCCT seems to provide a consistent framework for studying future perceptions, which can enable researchers to compare and expand upon the results of previous studies.

**Research on Time Horizon**

Time horizon refers to the length of time that individuals can envision into their future (Boniecki, 1980). Since time horizon is linked to the types of goals individuals establish, time horizon may affect future perceptions (Kim et al., Under review). Specifically, someone with a shorter time horizon may set more short-term goals and develop future perceptions with specific details, whereas a person with a longer time horizon may establish more long-term goals and develop future perceptions with fewer details. Further, a person with specific future perceptions also might have outcome expectations about their life events, and these expectations can reinforce motivation to engage in goal-oriented behaviors and to achieve career goals (Lent et al., 2000). Consequently, identifying a person’s time horizon would be valuable for career educators and counselors in order to facilitate individuals’ career plan development.

A number of studies have focused on differences in time horizon as a function of nationality and culture. Some researchers argued that time horizon is different across cultures as it reflects the cultural values transmitted to people as they develop future orientation. For
example, Sundberg, Poole, and Tyler (1983) investigated the differences in expectations of future events among adolescents from Australia, the U.S., and India. They found that Indian male adolescents reported the longest time horizon compared to adolescents from the other two countries, while U.S. adolescents indicated the shortest time horizon among all participants. Additionally, Poole and Cooney (1987) examined the future orientations of adolescents in Australia and Singapore and showed that Australian adolescents had a shorter time horizon than Singapore adolescents. This research also noted that adolescents from both countries tended to have a shorter time horizon for personal future events, which were considered more pleasant, and longer time horizon for societal future events, which were seen as more unpleasant.

In contrast, other researchers have claimed that there were relatively few differences in time horizon among most people. For example, Boniecki (1980) argued that most people, on average, envision themselves into their future from three to five years across cultures. This finding is consistent with Khoury and Thurmond (1978) who compared time horizons of two cultural groups and found no differences between the time horizon of Mexican-Americans and the time horizon of Anglo-Americans. Two more recent future perception studies of young adults (Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press) also reported similar time horizons for young adult females in Israel, the U.S., and Hong Kong. In these studies, participants reported one to five years as the most frequent time horizon. However, these results were not congruent with the results of more recent research on young men’s future perceptions in the U.S. and Israel (Bellare et al., 2016), which indicated that Israeli men had a longer time horizon than U.S. men. Given the inconsistent findings on time horizon as well as the importance of understanding this concept for career education and counseling, further examination of time horizon and its related variables is needed.
Research on Gender in Career Development

Since career interests and choices can structure a significant part of an individual’s everyday reality and shape personal identity and satisfaction with life, it is fundamental to examine variables that may influence career interests and choices. According to SCCT, contextual variables, which are influenced by person factors such as gender, race/ethnicity, age, and nationality, can influence career expectations, goals, and choices (Lent et al., 1994). Among these variables, a substantial body of research has illustrated the importance of gender in shaping career development.

First, some researchers have focused on gender differences in various career-related constructs, such as perceived barriers, learning experiences, and career aspirations. For instance, McWhirter (1997) investigated gender differences in male and female adolescents’ perceived educational and career barriers and found that female adolescents anticipated more barriers than male participants. Another study (Watts, Frame, Moffett, Van Hein, & Hein, 2015) also showed gender differences in perceived career barriers, such that young women reported expecting more barriers to their career advancement than young men. In addition, Williams and Subich (2006) examined differences in career-related learning experiences for young men and women. The results of this research revealed that young women reported fewer learning experiences related to the Realistic and Investigative domains of Holland’s vocational typology, which are traditionally considered to be masculine domains, while men reported fewer learning experiences related to the Social domain, a traditionally feminine domain. Further, Kerr and Sodano (2003) pointed out that traditional gender roles influence female students to curb their career aspirations. Taken together within the SCCT framework, gender differences in various career-related constructs appear to influence career self-efficacy, and outcome expectations and interests for males and
females. Given the impact of career self-efficacy and outcome expectations on future perceptions, future research needs to investigate how men and women’s future perceptions might be different to understand their future perceptions better and provide career counseling and education accordingly.

Moreover, some scholars have indicated gender-related differences in assigning a level of importance to a particular life role (e.g., work, family). Specifically, although most male and female adolescents seemed to expect that they would work and have a family in their future (Seginer & Vermulst, 2002), numerous studies have revealed gender differences in the relative level of importance of work and family roles. For example, Cinamon and Rich (2002) found that more women than men focused on their family roles, while more men focused on their work roles. This finding also was consistent with the results of Seginer (2009), who found that hopes about family seemed to be more pronounced for adolescent girls than for adolescent boys, while hopes about career were more salient for adolescent boys than girls. Similarly, another recent study also found that female at-risk adolescents attributed higher importance to their future family roles than work (Cinamon & Rich, 2014). Additionally, Orrange (2002) indicated that female professional school students in law and business expected to do significantly more housework than their future partners. Other studies also revealed that young women anticipated doing more housework and childcare activities in the future than young men (Askari, Liss, Erchull, Staebell, & Axelson, 2010; Kaufman, 2005). In this sense, it can be assumed that men and women will provide different content concerning their future perceptions even if they include the same life domains. For example, females may more often describe how they will manage childcare in their future than males.
In addition, some researchers have focused on the role of gender in anticipated work-family conflict. Cinamon (2006) discovered, for instance, that female college students often anticipated higher levels of conflict between work and family roles than male college students. This finding was supported by other studies (Stone & McKee, 2000; Zhou, 2006), which found that young women expected that they would need to interrupt their careers to care for their children, whereas young men anticipated to work full-time throughout their entire careers. According to the SCCT framework, gender differences related to work-family conflict can influence the career self-efficacy and outcome expectations of young men and women, which can then shape their future perceptions about their lives.

Overall, existing research has demonstrated the impact of gender on a person’s career interests, goals, and choices. According to the Social Cognitive Theory of Gender, gender role conceptions are impacted by broad sociocultural systems and environments, which affect a variety of aspects of an individual’s life (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Accordingly, it seems that males and females may develop career expectations and goals differently, which impacts their future perceptions.

There is a lack of research, however, on differences in the content of future perceptions between males and females. In addition, prior studies have mainly focused on adolescents (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, 2014; McWhirter, 1997; Seginer, 2009) and older adults (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Williams & Subich, 2006) rather than on young adults, which includes most traditional college-aged young adults. Yet, young adults are different from adolescents because they usually have more independence (Arnett, 2000). Young adults are also different from older adults because they often have more choices and fewer commitments (Arnett, 2000). Therefore, more research on gender differences in future perceptions of young adults is needed to inform
how career interventions are conceptualized and delivered to young adults. Although recent studies of future perceptions (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press) have focused on young adults, they only indirectly compared males and females’ responses. Thus, further research is still needed to investigate differences in future perceptions of young men and women in the same study. The results could offer some additional insight into the relationship between gender and future perceptions of young adults.

**Research on Family Involvement in Career Development**

According to SCCT, contextual variables can play a critical role in career and academic development by influencing support and barriers people experience within their environment (Lent & Brown, 2006). Although numerous studies have been conducted on various contextual variables such as gender (e.g., Cinamon, 2006; Seginer, 2009; Watts et al., 2015), nationality (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Michael et al., In press; Nurmi et al., 1995), and race/ethnicity (e.g., Khoury & Thurmond, 1978; Seginer, 1988), some other contextual variables remain relatively understudied. One such variable is a family’s involvement in a child’s career development.

Family involvement, also referred to as Parent/Parental involvement, has been defined by a number of scholars in different ways. Some scholars defined family involvement as a connection that a family has with the educational environment (e.g., attendance in school activities, direct communication with teachers and administrators), while others described it as a concept related to a family’s facilitation of academic success in the home (e.g., supervision and monitoring, daily conversations about school, taking active roles in homework or other community-based learning opportunities) (Walker, Shenker, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2010; Yoder & Lopez, 2013). Further, other researchers defined family involvement as a combination of communication between home and school, helping children learn at home, attending school
activities, and participating in decision-making within the administrative structure (Fantuzzo, McWayne, Perry, & Childs, 2004). In addition, Jeynes’s (2003) meta-analysis found that parental expectations, parental interest in the educational process, parental supervision of homework, and attendance at school functions should be considered when defining the concept of family involvement.

Since such definitions mainly identified an educational context, the vast majority of scholars have investigated the role of family involvement in relation to education and academic achievement. For example, Galindo and Sheldon (2012) examined how family involvement was associated with children’s achievement gains. They found that family involvement at school predicted higher levels of reading and math achievement among children in kindergarten. Wong (2008) investigated how perceived parental involvement affected academic performance among adolescents. The results of this study revealed that a higher level of perceived parental involvement predicted better academic outcomes. Overall, various studies have illustrated a consensus that family involvement has a positive influence on learning and academic success (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Epstein, 1989).

However, one observation that should be noted about previous studies on family involvement is the relative lack of research on career-related variables. In other words, compared to the role of family involvement in education, scholars have paid less attention to the association between family involvement and career development. Yet, given the significant impact of family involvement on education, such an impact may have far-reaching consequences on children’s career interests, goals, and choices by allowing or limiting their access to career opportunities. Therefore, examining the impact of family involvement on children’s career development could benefit how career educators and counselors perform their work.
Another notable observation is that most of the studies were focused on children (e.g., Galindo & Sheldon, 2012) and adolescents (e.g., Wong, 2008), but not young adults. Although it is generally agreed that families often influence children’s and adolescents’ lives, families are also involved in young adults’ career decision-making process (Moreno, 2011). Indeed, a comprehensive review of the research related to the influences of family of origin on career development showed that a number of young adults often sought assistance from family members when they made career decisions (Whiston & Keller, 2004). Whiston and Keller (2004) suggested that career educators and counselors should consider the impact of family involvement on young adults’ career development and career decision-making. Consequently, further research on the relationship between family involvement and career-related constructs among young adults seems warranted.

To date, a few studies have focused on this relationship. For instance, one study (Tang, Fouad, & Smith, 1999) focused on how family involvement was related to occupational choices among Asian American college students. The results of this research revealed a moderate correlation between family involvement and occupational selections. Specifically, the findings indicated that family involvement had more of an impact on career choices for Asian American young adults who selected certain occupations such as physician or physical therapist. The findings also showed that family involvement had less of an impact on career choices for those who chose other occupations such as psychologist or lawyer. The authors argued that their overall results supported the use of the SCCT framework for explaining career choices. Further, they suggested that considering family involvement as an additional variable could enable the SCCT framework to provide a better explanation for career choices among Asian American college students. In another study, researchers examined the role of family in career development
and post-school employment outcomes for young adults with learning disabilities (Lindstrom, Doren, Metheny, Johnson, & Zane, 2007). The findings of this study showed that a lower level of family involvement in school and other activities negatively impacted planning for future employment and career options for young adults with disabilities. Furthermore, Ma (2009) examined the influence of family involvement on selecting a college major. The author found that parents’ involvement in students’ specific domain areas (e.g., arts, mathematics) significantly influenced the students’ choice of a college major. Specifically, according to this study, it seemed that if parents sent their children to a computer class after school and visited science museums with their children, their children were more likely to choose technical fields over social science/education. Additionally, another study investigated family influence on college major choices and career-related decisions of gifted female students (Grant, Battle, & Heggoy, 2000). This study found that a student’s engagement in extracurricular activities from pre-college years had a strong influence on career-related decisions. The authors reported that this influence was especially significant for students whose career aspirations remained stable over time. The authors also reported that such experiences to some extent still benefited persons who changed their majors. Consequently, the authors claimed that family involvement continued to be a strong influence not only during adolescence, but also throughout young adulthood.

Although the studies above have demonstrated the importance of family involvement in career development among young adults, many of them have only included certain populations with specific characteristics in terms of race/ethnicity (e.g., Tang et al., 1999), intellectual ability (e.g., Grant et al., 2000), or disability (e.g., Lindstrom et al., 2007). Thus, it is difficult to generalize the results of these students to college students in the U.S. Further, many prior studies have focused on different career-related constructs such as career choices (e.g., Tang et al., 1999)
or college major choice (e.g., Ma, 2009) and not future perceptions. However, future perceptions reflect a person’s career interests, goals, and choices, which may be influenced by family involvement. Accordingly, it seems necessary to consider family involvement as an important contextual variable when examining the future perceptions of young adults. In addition, as reviewed earlier, since family involvement is a broad concept, it may be useful to focus on one aspect of family involvement in one study in order to provide more specific information about its impact on future perceptions of young adults. Family involvement in career decision-making can be a valuable construct to examine because one of the significant tasks of young adults’ career development is career decision-making. Therefore, further investigations about the link between family involvement in career decision-making and future perceptions of young adults could enhance the effectiveness of career education and counseling for college students.

**Research on Thematic Analysis**

Previous studies (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press) have used a qualitative method called thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to analyze the perceptions young adults have about their future life roles. Although qualitative analytic methods are greatly diverse and complex (Holloway & Todres, 2003), thematic analysis is considered a fundamental approach because it has been widely utilized by researchers to analyze qualitative data within and beyond psychology (Roulston, 2001). Thematic analysis is defined as a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Scholars have argued that there are some advantages of thematic analysis in comparison to other methods. For example, Boyatzis (1998) claimed that thematic analysis can allow researchers not only to organize and describe the data set in detail, but also to interpret diverse aspects of the research topic. In addition, Braun and Clarke (2006) pointed out
several advantages of thematic analysis in comparison with other qualitative analytic methods. These advantages included having flexibility as it is not used within an existing theoretical framework, being a relatively easy and quick method to learn and implement, providing detailed description of the data set, highlighting similarities and differences across the data set, discovering unanticipated insights, and allowing social and psychological interpretations of data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Due to such advantages, thematic analysis has been often utilized in recent studies on future perceptions of young adults (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press). However, similar to many other qualitative research approaches, the quality of thematic analysis may be heavily dependent on the skills of the researcher and it can be easily influenced by personal idiosyncrasies and biases of the researcher (Braun & Clarke, 2006). To minimize such challenges, it seems important for researchers to follow guidelines to conduct thematic analysis in a more explicit and rigorous way. Accordingly, Braun and Clarke (2006) provided guidelines about conducting thematic analyses on participants’ responses to unstructured or semi-structured questions. These guidelines included six phases of the thematic analysis process, such as (a) familiarizing yourself with your data, (b) generating initial codes, (c) searching for themes, (d) reviewing themes, (e) defining and naming themes, and (f) producing the report.

The abovementioned studies (e.g., Bellare et al., 2016; Kim et al., Under review; Michael et al., In press) on future perceptions of young adults followed these guidelines when using thematic analysis to analyze the data obtained. At a glance, the process of thematic analysis employed in these studies may look different from the original guidelines because these studies involved two main phases, while the guidelines involved six phases. However, the fundamental
nature of the thematic analysis conducted in these studies was the same as the original six phases outlined in the guidelines though these six-phases were integrated into two main phases. To be specific, Phase 1 in these studies included the original Phases 1 and 2 in the guidelines, while Phase 2 included the original Phases 3, 4, and 5 in the guidelines. Also, the original Phase 6 from the guidelines was conducted in these studies after completing Phase 1 and Phase 2. Consequently, it would be beneficial to consistently utilize the thematic analysis guidelines when conducting further future perception studies.

**Conclusion**

As reviewed and discussed above, prior literature has suggested that further research is needed to investigate variables relevant to individuals’ academic and career development. Compared to other career-related constructs, less research has been conducted on future perceptions, which refer to the content of people’s ambitions, beliefs, and views related to their future (Seginer, 1988). This is especially the case for young adults. However, within the SCCT framework (Lent et al., 1994, 2000), future perceptions reflect individuals’ outcome expectations, which influence their career interests, goals, and choices. Thus, future perceptions appear to be a meaningful construct to investigate in the field of career counseling and vocational psychology. In addition, previous studies explored future perceptions among adolescents and older adults rather than young adults. However, young adulthood is different from adolescence and older adulthood (Arnett, 2000). Further, young adulthood is also a significant period for exploring career choices while navigating other choices in various life domains including family and community (Super, 1983). Therefore, more research is needed on future perceptions of young adults to potentially provide effective career counseling and guidance.
In addition to the content of future perceptions, a review of previous studies also indicated that time horizon, which refers to the length of time that individuals envision their future (Boniecki, 1980), has not yet been sufficiently examined among young adults. Since time horizon can affect future perceptions by indicating the types of goals (e.g., long- vs. short-term goals) that individuals’ establish (Kim et al., Under review; Lent et al., 2000), it would be beneficial to examine young adults’ time horizon and related variables that may influence this horizon so that career counselors can help young adult clients develop more individualized career plans.

Furthermore, among a number of contextual variables related to future perceptions, gender has been extensively studied (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, 2002, 2014; McWhirter, 1997; Williams & Subich, 2006) and scholars have reached a general consensus regarding the influence of gender in regard to individuals’ career interests, goals, and choices. However, due to the lack of prior studies on future perceptions of young male and female adults, further research is still needed to determine if there are gender differences in the content of their future perceptions.

Family involvement may be another contextual variable influencing future perceptions. Despite prior research that highlighted the importance of family involvement in education, family involvement has been under investigated in relation to future perceptions. In addition, prior studies have focused more on children and adolescents, and less on young adults. Hence, further research on the link between family involvement and future perceptions of young adults is needed. Further, given the varied definition of the concept of family involvement, it would be wise to focus on one aspect of family involvement in one study. Family involvement in career decision-making can be an important dynamic to investigate in relation to future perceptions of young adults since career decision-making is a critical task in young adulthood.
Thematic analysis seems to be useful as an analytic method for further research on future perceptions of young adults. This is because as a qualitative research method, thematic analysis has several advantages including providing clear guidelines for data analysis and allowing the researcher to summarize key features of a large body of data. In addition, thematic analysis provides researchers with the opportunity to compare the future perceptions of diverse groups of young adults in terms of personal characteristics and contextual factors.

In conclusion, this literature review suggests that there is great need for further investigation into young adults’ future perceptions and the relationship between such perceptions and a young adult’s gender and a family’s involvement in career decision-making. The results of such a study may assist counselors in career guidance and counseling with young adults.
References


Appendix B

Demographic survey

Please share some information about yourself.

1. I am:
   a. Male
   b. Female
   c. Transgender

2. I am _______ years old

3. I am the ___ th child in my family

4. I have ______ brother(s)

5. I have ______ sister(s).

6. I was born in _______________ (country of birth)

7. If you are an immigrant, please specify the year of immigration to the U.S.: ____________.

8. My ethnic/racial background is:
   a. African American
   b. Black
   c. Caribbean American
   d. Caribbean
   e. Middle Eastern-American
   f. Middle Eastern
   g. Asian/Pacific Islander American
   h. Asian/Pacific Islander
   i. Caucasian/European-American /White
   j. Hispanic/Latino/a-American
   k. Hispanic/Latino/a
   l. Native American
   m. Biracial
   n. Multiracial
   o. Other_______________________________________________

9. My religious view is:
   a. Atheist
   b. Agnostic
   c. Buddhist
   b. Hindu
   c. Jewish
d. Muslim
e. Protestant Christian
f. Roman Catholic
g. Other ____________________________

10. I am a:
a. Freshman
b. Sophomore
c. Junior
d. Senior
e. Master’s student
f. Doctoral student
g. Other ___________________________________________________________________

11. My college major is:
a. not decided
b. decided
If decided, please indicate the name of your major(s) ___________________________________________________________________

12. My current employment status is (select one; if multiple jobs add up to more than 40 hours/week, select Full-time).
a. not employed
b. Part-time
c. Full-time (35+ hours per week)

13. My marital status is
a. single
b. married
c. divorced
d. other ____________________________

14. I have children.
a. yes
b. no

15. Please provide the highest level of education for your father.
a. Some high school
b. High school diploma/GED
c. Some college
d. 2-year college degree (e.g., Associate’s; Technical degree)
e. 4-year college degree (e.g., Bachelor’s)
f. Some graduate school
g. Master’s degree
h. Doctoral degree (including MD, DDS)
i. Other ______________
16. Please provide the highest level of education for your mother.
   a. Some high school
   b. High school diploma/GED
   c. Some college
   d. 2-year college degree (e.g., Associate’s; Technical degree)
   e. 4-year college degree (e.g., Bachelor’s)
   f. Some graduate school
   g. Master’s degree
   h. Doctoral degree (including MD, DDS)
   i. Other ______________________________

17. I currently live
   a. with my parents
   b. live with roommates
   c. live with my spouse
   d. live by myself
   e. other________________________________

18. Please write the occupation of each person that raised you:
   a. Mother:______________________________
   b. Father: ______________________________
   c. Grandfather:__________________________
   d. Grandmother:_________________________
   e. Other relative(s):_____________________
   f. Other:________________________________

19. Please indicate the category that best describes the social income status of your family while growing up:
   a. upper class
   b. upper middle class
   c. middle class
   d. lower middle class
   d. lower class

20. Please indicate how much your family has been involved in your career decision-making:
   a. extremely involved
   b. fairly involved
   c. somewhat involved
   d. slightly involved
   e. not at all involved

21. Please indicate your dream job and why you want this job.
   ___________________________________________________________________________

22. Please indicate any barriers that you may feel exist in obtaining your dream job.
   ___________________________________________________________________________
23. Have you given up anything in the process of making your career decision?
   a. Yes
      If so, what? ______________________________________________________________
   b. No

24. If you have decided on a career for yourself, what influenced you in your decision-making?
______________________________________________________________________________

What was the biggest influence on your decision?
______________________________________________________________________________

25. How did you decide your current major? (select all that apply)
   a. My parents influenced me.
   b. My teachers influenced me.
   c. I was influenced by watching TV.
   d. I was influenced by the internet.
   e. I was influenced by reading a book.
   f. I was influenced by meeting a person in a particular profession.
   g. I decided based upon my GPA in high school and my score on the SAT.
   h. Luck
   I. Other ______________________________________________________________________
Appendix C

Semi-structured questionnaire assessing time horizon and future perceptions

Please answer the questions below.

1. When you think about your future, how far into the future can you picture yourself (e.g., 5, 7, 10 years, etc.)?

2. Think about the time in the future you just mentioned and describe your life at that time. Try to mention several of your life roles (e.g. work, family, etc.) in your answer.
Appendix D

IRB Exempt Letter

Institutional Review Board

DATE: June 1, 2016

TO: Yuri Choi, M.A.

FROM: Ball State University IRB

RE: IRB protocol # 908465-1

TITLE: U.S. Young Adults’ Future Perceptions: Influence of Family Involvement and Gender

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: APPROVED

DECISION DATE: June 1, 2016

REVIEW TYPE: EXEMPT

The Institutional Review Board reviewed your protocol on June 1, 2016 and has determined the procedures you have proposed are appropriate for exemption under the federal regulations. As such, there will be no further review of your protocol, and you are cleared to proceed with the procedures outlined in your protocol. As an exempt study, there is no requirement for continuing review. Your protocol will remain on file with the IRB as a matter of record.

Editorial Notes:

1. N/A

While your project does not require continuing review, it is the responsibility of the P.I. (and, if applicable, faculty supervisor) to inform the IRB if the procedures presented in this protocol are to be modified or if problems related to human research participants arise in connection with this
project. **Any procedural modifications must be evaluated by the IRB before being implemented, as some modifications may change the review status of this project.** Please contact (ORI Staff) if you are unsure whether your proposed modification requires review or have any questions. Proposed modifications should be addressed in writing and submitted electronically to the IRB (http://www.bsu.edu/irb) for review. Please reference the above IRB protocol number in any communication to the IRB regarding this project.

**Reminder:** Even though your study is exempt from the relevant federal regulations of the Common Rule (45 CFR 46, subpart A), you and your research team are not exempt from ethical research practices and should therefore employ all protections for your participants and their data which are appropriate to your project.