The School-to-Work Transition: Immigrant Students in Aotearoa New Zealand

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education at the University of Canterbury

Maryam Sharifkhani
University of Canterbury
Aotearoa New Zealand

2023

Abstract

Globally, immigrant young people face challenges associated with their school-to-work transition including overcoming language and cultural barriers, social exclusion, disengagement from school, discrimination in the local job market, and being separated from their extended family and familiar culture. The role of parents and career advisors in the school-to-work transition has been extensively highlighted in the literature. This study explores the school-to-work transition of immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand through the lens of parents and careers advisors and focuses on three main research questions: 1) What factors inside and outside of school influence parents' ability to support immigrant students in the school-to-work transition?; 2) What factors inside and outside of school influence career advisors ability to support these students in the school-to-work transition?; 3) What supports would assist immigrant youths school-to-work transition?

In this phenomenological study, semi-structured and focus group interviews were used to generate data with a purposive sample of sixteen immigrant parents and six career advisors from schools with high populations of cultural diversity in Aotearoa New Zealand.

The study's findings support previous research which asserts that the best environment for students to explore career options is at home with parents who express an interest in their future career. However, the study found that parents and career advisors have very different understandings of 'parental involvement'; while parents focused on aspects *within the home*, careers advisors expected them to participate in career-related events *at school*.

Work experience plays an important role in the transition from school to work, especially for those who are immigrants. This study found, however, that it is very rare for immigrant students to engage in work experience while studying at secondary school. This is because immigrant parents underestimate the value and importance of work experience and actively discouraging their children from engaging in part-time work/placements/voluntary jobs. In

addition, immigrant students may find it difficult to obtain work experience because of their poor English proficiency and disinterest on the part of employers.

Immigrant families' cultural differences and lack of knowledge about the New Zealand education system often affect their children's school-to-work transition. This study draws attention to the importance of various individuals who can help facilitate this process. Contributors include individuals like school leaders, and community mentors who can guide immigrant students and the parents, and provide cultural support for the career advisors. The study provides comprehensive strategies to address the needs of immigrant students and their families to ensure successful school-to-work transitions.

Women/Life/Freedom

In the course of writing this thesis, many tragic incidents have taken place in my home country, Iran. I want to dedicate this work to souls of innocent lives and those who are fighting in the streets for freedom.

To Mahsa Amini, Nika Shakarami, Sareena Esmail Zade, Hadis Najafi, and my brother Mohammad (Kian) Hosseini.

To all the wounded protestors, arrested activists, injured children, and parents.

To the victims of Flight PS752 and their families.

To my mother and my father, Zahra and Hussain.

To my children, Sadra and Taha.

To my husband Esmail.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank all of the individuals (the parents and the careers advisors) who participated in this study for their dedication. I apologise that I cannot mention you by name as per the ethical terms and conditions of this study.

I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to my supervisors, Associate Professor Annelies Kamp and Dr. Kerry Vincent. Thank you for your continual support, guidance, invaluable time, patience, and constructive feedback. Annelies, thank you for believing in me and accepting me as your student. You have taught me many things. You are my role model and I will always treasure your wisdom and care. Kerry, I owe this learning journey to you and your intelligent and caring decisions. Thanks for your valuable comments that helped me in reaching this level of thesis completion.

This work would not have been possible without the doctoral scholarship provided by the University of Canterbury. In addition, I am especially appreciative of all the staff members at this university who have provided me with multiple opportunities to grow professionally. My special thanks to Dr. Mahdis Azarmandi and Dr. Bahare Shahri for their insightful comments and suggestions, and their encouraging words. I would also like to mention Dr. David Small, Dr. Cheryl Brown, Dr. Valeri Sotardi, Dr. Myron Friesen , Dr. Anne Horton, Dr. Tessa Grigg, Dr. Hilary Dutton, and Dr. Angus MacFarlane .

I would like to acknowledge my proofreader Dr. Rebecca Kambuta for spending so many hours helping to proofread this thesis and for her encouraging words. Thank you also to Amanda Smith for her valuable and insightful comments. Thanks also to Dr. Fateme Aghaei for being beside me in the hard times. Thank you for all the counselling and preaching.
To all my Christchurch Resettlement Services colleagues. To my manager, Shirley Wright, and my supervisor, Gail Moore, thank you for your unconditional and generous support.

I would like to acknowledge all of my friends for their emotional support. I am indebted to you all for your prayers and encouragement during this journey: Xin Ren, Shahab Abdul Wahab, Said Zohairy, Angela Bland, Patrick, Wenxin Quan, Teariki, Lily, Adee, Carole, Sandra, Lorna and Osmith. My special thanks go to Maryam Shojaee. I must also thank my greatly missed friends, Mimisha and Elizabeth. To my Iranian friends – thank you for your care and support: Maryam Nejat, Mandana Naji, Atefe Vahedi, Mahdie Moghise, Fateme Nazari, Farahnaz Khosravai, Mahnaz Shahverdi, Behzad Dowran, Majid Safa, and Ali Athari. I also would like to thank my dearest friends, who despite the distance, have been there for me all these years; those in Iran and elsewhere around the world.

To my beloved family - thank you for encouraging me to follow my dreams and go further in my studies. I would like to acknowledge my mother, Zahra Pishgahi Fard, and my father, Gholamhosein Sharifkhani. I have greatly appreciated your prayers, inspiration, persistence, and support. To my siblings, Ali, Leila, and Mohammad, and my niece Mina thank you for your unconditional love.

My final words of thanks must be dedicated to my husband, Esmail, and my children Sadra and Taha: I am forever in your debt. Thank you for being patient with me while I completed my PhD. Without your love, support, encouragement, and sacrifices, I would never have made it to the end.

Contents

Chapter One: Introduction 11
Introduction 11
Background of the Research 12
Rationale for the Study 13
Personal Motivation 16
Process of Inquiry 18
Organisation of the Chapters 19
Chapter Two: Youth Transition in the Context 21
Introduction 21
Globalisation and the Globalised Labour Market 21
Economic Recession and Youth (Un)Employment 35
School-to-Work Transition for Immigrant Youth 39
Chapter Summary 41
Chapter Three: A Review of Related Literature 43
Introduction 43
Parents 43
Peers 49
Career Education 51
Careers Advisors 55
School Leaders and Subject Teachers 62
Employers' Engagement with Careers Education 64
Career Theories 70
Chapter Summary 74
Chapter Four: Methodology 76
Introduction 76
Study Design 76
Recruitment of Participants 79
Data Generation 85
Making Sense of the Data 98
My Multiple Roles 102
Trustworthiness 104
Ethical Considerations 106
Chapter Summary 110
Chapter Five: Parents 112

Introduction 112
Institutional Structures 112
Social Influence 120
Cultural Influences 132
Personal Insight 139
Summary of Findings 141
Chapter Six: Career Advisors 144
Introduction 144
Getting to Know the Career Advisors 144
Multiple Roles 146
Supporting Careers Advisors 151
Factors that Influence the School-to-Work Transition 156
Personal Insight 161
Summary of Findings 163
Chapter Seven: Discussion 166
Introduction 166
Cross-Cultural Expectations 166
Interpersonal Influence 171
Communication and Involvement 176
Community of Support: Supporting Students, Parents, and Careers Advisors 181
Work Experience 183
Chapter Summary 187
Chapter Eight: Conclusion 190
Introduction 190
Key Conclusions 190
Turning on the Light: Implications and Recommendations for Future Practice 193
Limitations of the Research and Suggestions for Further Research 203
Final Thoughts: My Personal School-to-Work Transition 207
References 210
Appendices 261
Appendix A: Composition of the New Zealand Precariate by Age 261
Appendix B: Record Rise in OECD Unemployment Rate in April 2020 262
Appendix C: Analytical Memo: A Careers Adviser Interview 265
Appendix D: Analytical Memo of an Immigrant Parent Interview 272
Appendix E: Careers Advisors Interview Schedule 275
Appendix F: Parents Individual and Focus Group Interview Schedule 276

Appendix G: Interviewers 280
Appendix H: Careers Advisors Information Sheet and Consent Form 283
Appendix I: School Principal Information Sheet and Consent Form 287
Appendix J: Parents Information Sheet and Consent Form 291
Appendix K: Parents' Information Sheet 293
Appendix L: Recruitment Flyer 295
Appendix M: Ethical Approval 296

List of Figures

Figure 3.1. Study Design…………………………………………………………………………69

Figure 3.2. Parents' Concept Map…………………………………………………………………..91

Figure 3.3. Careers Advisors' Concept Map………………………………………………………..91

Chapter One: Introduction

Introduction

When someone asks me “What do you do for a job?” my reply usually confuses people. That is because over the years I have held a number of positions and have acquired various qualifications. I have an electrical engineering degree, a Master's degree in Physics and Commerce, and am now completing research in education. I have experience in a wide range of fields: I have worked as a telecommunication and automation engineer, a biomedical engineer researcher, a sales engineer, a teacher, an interpreter, a social worker, a tutor, and a mentor. I have also spent time as a stay-at-home mum. Like many people, my transition from education to employment was not straightforward, nor was it linear. I have worked in many different fields, sometimes because my parents encouraged me to do so, other times to make money. On occasion, I have accepted a job because I love working in that field. At times, the job I worked at was due to various factors in my life: my immigration status or simply as the result of meeting different people who introduced me to a particular job. The transition from school to work is a fascinating one and is affected by many different things. This doctoral study investigates the role of specific individuals (career advisors and parents) in a young immigrant’s transition from secondary school to work.

Prior literature on immigrant populations reveals that among all of the various factors, career advisors (Akosah-Twumasi et. al, 2018; Aspden et al., 2015; Byrne et. al, 2012; Garrison et al., 2017; Xiao et. al, 2018) and parents (Akosah-Twumasi et. al, 2018; Aliya & Gulnur, 2022; Chavira et. al, 2016; Mishra & Müller, 2022; Taylor & Krahn, 2013; Xiao et. al, 2018) have the greatest impact upon the school-to-work transition. However, most of this research has explored the transition from the students’, teachers,’ and school principals’ perspectives. The perspectives of parents and career advisors have received less attention.

This study explores immigrant youths' school-to-work transition in Aotearoa New Zealand[1] from the perspective of parents and school career advisors. It sheds light on the lived experience of 16 immigrant parents and six career advisors and how they see their role in this process. It identifies, from their perspectives, what support is available to immigrant youth and highlights some of the challenges they face in the school-to-work transition.

Background of the Research

The flow of immigrants around the world has increased over recent decades, especially in developed countries (United Nations [UN], 2015). Despite COVID-19 having a significant impact on the mobilisation of immigrants around the world, in 2020 – the time at which this research was undertaken – people continued to move from one country to another. Countries like the US, Germany, the UK, Australia, Ireland, and Aotearoa New Zealand have the highest net immigration rates in the world (World Population Review, 2022). Over a quarter of New Zealand's five-million citizens were born overseas. As of the 31 May 2021, there were a total of 275,800 recent immigrants living in New Zealand; approximately half of these 'recent' immigrants were working-aged individuals (aged over 15) (The Ministry for Ethnic Communities [MEC], 2021).

There are multiple push-pull factors associated with immigration. Most people who leave their country of birth do so in search of a better life, to take up work or education opportunities, either for themselves or for their children (Castelli, 2018; Chiswick, 2011). However, individuals sometimes leave their home countries to escape conflicts like war and persecution. As Castelli (2018) stated:

> Migration is always the result of a complex combination of macro-, meso- and micro-factors, the former acting at the society level and the latter acting

[1] The phrase "Aotearoa New Zealand" is used intentionally to acknowledge the dual heritage and cultural significance of the country. "Aotearoa" is the Māori name for New Zealand and holds deep cultural and historical meaning for the Māori people, who are the tangata whenua (people of the land) of the country.

> at the family or even individual level. The prevalence of a factor over the other factor is unpredictable. (p. 6).

Regardless of what motivates migration, immigrant populations who move to a new country, especially young people, may face challenges associated with the resettlement process, including overcoming language and cultural barriers, social exclusion, disengagement from school, discrimination in the local job market, and being separated from their extended family and familiar culture (Faulstich, 2015; Sampson, 2016; Suárez-Orozco, 2018).

In addition to the usual stresses associated with social and emotional development, adolescent immigrants may experience additional stress as a result of the process of migration. Being able to develop a sense of self can be challenging due to the pressure of engaging in behaviours and values that differ from their own cultural background but which are common in the host country. Young immigrants must often adhere to traditional values and beliefs at home and yet are expected to fit in with their peers or locals who act according to the dominant culture of the host country (Jacolyn, 2021; Nolan, 2010).

Rationale for the Study

The challenges that immigrant youth face can influence different aspects of their lives, including education and employment outcomes. According to the OECD/EU (2018), in OECD countries, 24 percent of young people aged between 15-34 who migrated after the age of 15 have low-level or basic academic skills in literacy and numeracy. In host countries, unemployment rates are higher among immigrant youths when compared to those of New Zealand-born youth (OECD & Union, 2015). In Aotearoa New Zealand, foreign-born youth are less likely to be employed than New Zealand-born youth (OECD/EU, 2018). This is especially true in the case of 'recent' immigrants; those who have lived in the host country for five years or less. For these youths, the employment rate is 10 percent lower than their New Zealand-born counterparts (OECD/EU, 2018).

Around the world, many individuals lost their jobs due to the effects of the COVID-19 crisis. In Aotearoa New Zealand, 11,000 employees become jobless in 2020. The unemployment rate rose from 4 percent in January 2020 to 5.3 in September 2020 (CareersNZ, 2020). Due to a variety of factors, like low levels of language proficiency and their lack of understanding about the culture and/or job market of the country they are living in, young immigrants are even more vulnerable to the effects of economic recessions (Ministry of Business [MoB], 2017). Hence, it is crucial to know how to prepare immigrant youth for the New Zealand labour market (Ministry of Education [MoE], 2009).

In terms of the school-to-work transition, the term 'at risk' has become widely used in both the academic literature, and policy guidelines. New Zealand Career Education and Guidance (MoE, 2009) defines 'at-risk' students as those who are not prepared for the school-to-work transition and/or those who do not have proper career competence and plans (MoE, 2009). However, research has argued that there is a mismatch between the interests of 'at-risk' young people and schools' strategies to adequately support them in a meaningful school-to work transition (Rimmer, 2012). This study explores this mismatch, focusing on immigrant student populations, from their parents' point of view.

The role of career advisors in the school-to-work transition has been extensively explored in the literature (Akosah-Twumasi et. al, 2018; Aspden et al., 2015; Smidth, 2019). According to CareersNZ[2] (2018), career advisors facilitate students' transitions to work by providing information about different opportunities in the market, various careers, supporting students to prepare CVs, and demonstrating how to search for a relevant job or internship. They also track students' progress and encourage young people to develop their career interests (Yates & Bruce, 2017; Xiao et. al, 2018). However, their role is not only limited to

[2] A key mission of careers.govt.nz is to equip New Zealanders with the skills, knowledge and opportunities for lifelong success. It is owned and maintained by the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC).

advising youth: they also “give them the opportunity to develop and hone their capabilities for their transition from school to their adult life” (Yates & Bruce, 2017, p. 64).

The role played by career advisors is critical in identifying students who are categorised as ‘at-risk’. As the National Administration Guidelines (NAGs) note, their aim is to Assist students in year 7 and above in obtaining appropriate career education and guidance. In particular, provide specific career guidance to students identified as being at-risk of leaving school unprepared for transitioning to the workplace or pursuing further education/training by the school. According to Dalziel (2010), it is now well-established that a career advisor’s main responsibility is to focus on ‘at-risk’ students. However, most of the current ‘at-risk’ research in Aotearoa New Zealand focuses on Māori and Pacific populations. Very little attention has been paid to the influence of career advisors on recent immigrant youth and their school-to-work transitions.

Parents, family, and whānau all play a significant role in this transition (CareersNZ, 2018; Education Review Office [ERO], 2015, 2016). As Careers Education Guidelines explain: “good relationships with parents/whanau and the community are linked to high-quality careers education programs and successful schools in implementing career education in-depth discussions with parents” (ERO, 2015, p. 25). However, only a few studies have attempted to investigate the immigrant population and the role of immigrant parents on their children’s career pathways. Accordingly, this study aims to unravel the influence of parents on young peoples’ career decision-making. Understanding how parents can influence the school-to-work transition would enable schools and policymakers to help immigrant families facilitate this transition (Furbish & Reid, 2013; Xiao et. Al, 2018).

Existing research on immigrant students’ school-to-work experiences focuses on the cultural and socioeconomic background of these students, language barriers, settlement and engagement challenges, and school support. This study’s findings will contribute to a more

thorough understanding of the school-to-work transition for immigrant youth from the perspectives of both immigrant parents and career advisors. This may also help policymakers and school communities to develop actions to (re)connect immigrant communities and schools to support and enhance effective school-to-work transitions. While the current study focuses on Aotearoa New Zealand, its significance extends beyond the country's borders; as one of many 'host' countries, it is likely that the findings will be relevant to other countries like the US, the UK and Australia.

This study explores the perceptions and experiences of immigrant parents and career advisors in supporting immigrant students in their school-to-work transition. This qualitative study is guided by three main research questions:

1) What factors inside and outside of school influence parents' ability to support immigrant students in the school-to-work transition?

2) What factors inside and outside of school influence career advisors' ability to support these students in the school-to-work transition?

3) What support would assist immigrant youths school-to-work transition?

The first and second questions explore the factors that may facilitate or hinder parents' and careers advisors' support. As indicated, these two groups are the main contributors in the school-to-work transition. The third question examines how parents and careers advisors perceive the school-to-work transition and identifies the kind of support that is needed to facilitate this journey for immigrant students. These questions respond to the existing lack of literature on immigrant students' school-to-work transition.

Personal Motivation

My desire to conduct this study arose from my background as an immigrant and parent who has immigrated to two different countries; Singapore and Aotearoa New Zealand. The challenges immigrant parents face in setting and integrating into a new country inspired

me to conduct this doctoral research. I am originally from Iran, a country located in the Middle East. I have tertiary degrees in engineering and science and have worked as an electrical engineer for six years in my home country. Prior to leaving Iran, I worked, for two years, as an education coordinator in a non-governmental organisation (NGO) where I was in charge of enrolling Afghani immigrant and refugee students in schools. I also coordinated tutoring to support students at a primary level in different subjects such as maths, literacy, and science. Working with an at-risk population (immigrants and refugees) gave me the opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding of how parents and their children struggle to settle into a new country and a new education system. I realised that this group faces a range of difficulties, such as discrimination, social exclusion, and unemployment. This experience awoke concerns about immigration and piqued my interest in how a host country could support immigrants, youth in particular. As a result of these experiences, I had a strong desire to draw my country policymakers' attention to the struggles immigrants face.

My husband and I left Iran in 2010 and worked as researchers at a university in Singapore, with a view to completing doctoral research. However, once in Singapore I continued working as an engineer. During my time as an immigrant, I faced multiple challenges associated with adjusting to a new country and culture, including learning a new language, dealing with a different professional environment, and interacting with diverse cultures. Although I had a fair level of English, in a multilingual country such as Singapore, employers prefer to hire people who speak Mandarin. As a result of language difficulties and problems adjusting, I lost many job opportunities. Communicating with my manager, colleagues, and contractors in English was another challenge; it took me a long time to become familiar with professional expressions, local jargon, and the new accent.

Moving to New Zealand in 2016, I experienced a different type of multicultural environment. As an immigrant mother of a five-year-old child about to start school, I found

many differences between our culture and the dominant western culture prevalent in New Zealand. Different cultural values, particularly those associated with raising children, prompted concerns about my son's future career. For example, in Iranian culture parents encourage their children into higher education and high-status jobs. In contrast, in New Zealand, based on my perception of educational documents, educators encourage students to pursue their passions and to choose a career based on their capabilities and interests (ERO, 2015). As a member of the Iranian community and a Farsi language teacher in contact with many migrant families, I recognised the same concerns among parents of immigrant youth. This concern provided me with the motivation to complete doctoral research on immigrant students' career prospects in New Zealand.

Process of Inquiry

This study used a qualitative approach (Crotty, 1998) to develop a rich understanding of parents' and career advisors' perspectives of immigrant youths' school-to-work transitions. The study used semi-structured one-on-one interviews and a focus group to collect data with a purposive sample of 16 parents. All had secondary school students completing levels two or three in the New Zealand National Certificates of Educational Achievement (NCEA) programme. These parents and students have been in New Zealand for five years or less and are categorised by the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment (MBIE, 2022) as 'recent' immigrants (Ministry of Ethnic Community, 2021). Additionally, the study included six career advisors selected from schools with high cultural diversity, both in the student and teacher populations. The schools were located in south island, New Zealand. Participants were interviewed once or twice. Each interview lasted no more than an hour. Interviews with parents were mainly conducted in English, but upon parents' request, a few of the interviews were conducted in Farsi. Moreover, to explore how meanings and knowledge are constructed among immigrant parents, and to "facilitate the expression of ideas and experiences that

might be left underdeveloped in an interview with a single participant" (Ravitch & Carl, 2015, p. 168), the author also conducted one focus group with some of the parents.

Organisation of the Chapters

This thesis is divided into eight chapters. This chapter has provided an overview of the research study and an introduction to this thesis. It has described the background, purpose, and study's rationale. It has identified a gap in the pre-existing literature regarding the school-to-work transitions of immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand. Furthermore, this chapter has explained my personal motivation for conducting this study; it was born out of my experiences as an immigrant parent. It has also provided a brief overview of the study's methodological approach and research design. In addition, the first chapter has outlined the study's aims and research questions.

The second chapter introduces the global and national context in which this research was conducted and explains how the school-to-work phenomenon has been conceptualised within this setting. The chapter also reports on the emergence of the "at-risk youth" discourse, and explains why understanding this concept can help us better understand the needs of youth in our globalised world. The chapter also discusses the effects of global economic recessions on the labour market and the school-to-work transition.

The third chapter presents a review of the relevant literature. It reviews the policies and research literature on careers advice – by professionals and others - both internationally and in Aotearoa New Zealand. The chapter begins by outlining recent studies on various aspects of careers education and what needs to be provided to equip young people to deal with challenges associated with an ever-changing labour market in this globalised world. It investigates how various individuals (career advisors, school leaders, teachers, parents, peers, and employers) influence this transition.

Chapter four describes the study's design and methodological choices. It presents key elements of the research process: it explains the study's theoretical foundations and how the qualitative nature of the inquiry calls for an interpretive approach. In addition, it describes the research site, the participants, and the methods and tools used to generate data. The last sections of the chapter discuss how the data was analysed, the trustworthiness of the study's methods, and ethical considerations.

Chapters five and six present the research data, based on the interviews with parents and careers advisors. As the chapters are organised thematically, they provide a description of the participants' understanding of the research questions. I also include personal reflections on each set of interviews. Each chapter concludes with a summary of the key themes.

Chapter seven provides a discussion of recurring themes. This chapter discuss the key findings which include the importance of parental expectations on the way that parents support their children in choosing a career pathway, the influence of parents and peers on a student's career choice, issues associated with communication and involvement, the need for a community of support, and the importance of work experience for a student's future employability.

Chapter eight addresses the purpose of education and summarises the study's key findings. The chapter identifies the study's contribution to knowledge, discusses the implications of the study's findings, and makes recommendations for further studies. This chapter ends with the personal reflection of lessons I learned and new insights that I gained over the course of this research study.

Chapter Two: Youth Transition in the Context

Introduction

This chapter outlines the local, national and global context in which this research was conducted. The chapter begins by explaining the impact of globalisation on labour markets and youth employment, both globally and in Aotearoa New Zealand. It then investigates the advent of the term "at-risk" in relation to youth: it examines how and why young people are considered to be "at-risk" and asks, what are they at risk of? The chapter also provides a summary of perspectives about school-to-work transitions; in particular, it discusses how scholars define a successful school-to-work transition. This is followed by an examination of the way that economic downturns, such as the Great Recession[3] in 2009 and the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, have a particular impact youth employment patterns. Finally, the chapter focuses in to explore the literature on school-to-work transitions for young people from immigrant backgrounds in relation to this context.

Globalisation and the Globalised Labour Market

According to a definition provided by the International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2008), globalisation:

> is a historical process, the result of human innovation and technological progress. It refers to the increasing integration of economies around the world, particularly through the movement of goods, services, and capital across borders. The term sometimes also refers to the movement of people (labor) and knowledge (technology) across international borders. ("Globalization: A Brief Overview", para. 8)

[3] The term "the Great Recession" refers to the economic downturn (from 2007 to 2009) which was linked to the U.S. housing bubble and resulted in a global financial crisis (GFC).

The advent of Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) have made international transactions quicker and more convenient. Due to this, factories were separated internationally and jobs were increasingly transferred overseas. As such, as a worldwide phenomenon, globalisation impacts individuals, communities, and societies (Giddens, 1999; Lee & Vivarelli, 2006). However, its impact is not uniform. For example, Baldwin (2016) argued that the impact of globalisation on developing countries differs from that experienced by developed nations. It is also dependent on the policies of the country as well as the implications of those policies.

Even though globalisation has become a mainstream topic, there is much debate about its meaning. Authors have approached the phenomenon from a variety of different perspectives. For example, most authors argue that globalisation is more than an economic phenomenon: they contend that it is a multidimensional process that encompasses economic, social, cultural, political, and technological elements (Giddens, 1999; Tomlinson, 2007). Eurocentric globalisation, which is geographically oriented towards the West, dominates the literature on globalisation (Pieterse, 2019). As the thesis considers the school-to-work transition in a Western context, this thesis relies on this literature.

Aotearoa New Zealand's economy has benefited significantly from globalisation. There are over 100 countries with which New Zealand trades, and the country is considered one of the most open economies among OECD countries. However, Kelsey (1999) argued that globalisation negatively impacts people from low socio-economic background in favour of businesses and wealthy individuals. She stated:

> Inequalities continued to grow, and the gap between Māori and non-Māori on key indicators such as health, education and income had widened. For many New Zealanders, short-term pain had become permanent. Core

public services, especially health and education, were severely run down. (p.13)

Studies have shown that the processes associated with globalisation have profoundly affected labour markets and labour mobility in a variety of ways (Fang et al., 2022; Sassen, 2016). For example, one impact of globalisation on the labour market is the outsourcing or relocation of some jobs from local markets to international ones (Sampson, 2013; Standing, 2009). Early proponents claimed that developing countries would benefit from this process, in particular, with higher rates of employment. Likewise, developed countries would gain advantages by transferring their manufacturing sectors to developing countries due to improved productivity and reduced labour costs (Peruffo et al., 2020; Sampson, 2013). For example, international companies like Microsoft and Dell have established offices in India to take advantage of the huge workforce and favourable exchange rates which enable them to pay workers a much lower wage than they would have to pay workers in developed countries (Economics, 2019). Also, in countries such as America, employers need to meet certain safety requirement and pay for healthcare. These employers may choose to take advantage of looser laws in countries like India.

The COVID-19 pandemic has increased the flexibility of the labour market by allowing workers to work from home rather than in offices or factories and/or has given workers greater flexibility in terms of when/what time they complete their work (Donothu & Gustafsson, 2020; Fang et al., 2022). For some, this may have been beneficial, however the pandemic presented significant challenges for other groups of employees, including those in the health care sector. In light of the severity and number of COVID-19 infections, healthcare systems have been under enormous pressure, as high numbers of patients in need of acute treatment and hospitalisation (Gupta et al, 2021). Therefore, healthcare workers were

confronted with a variety of challenges, including increased work hours and decreased vacation time (Poon et al., 2022).

The rapid growth in technology in recent years has resulted in the need for new knowledge and skills, especially in ICT (Sharma et al., 2016). These industries require specialised skills. As such, the job opportunities for skilled and semi-skilled workers have increased. To balance the need for skilled labour, many developed countries accept skilled migrants from different countries (Standing, 2009). For instance, in countries such as Canada, Australia, and Aotearoa New Zealand, governments have introduced points-based strategies to fill skill gaps in constructions, health and social services, primary industries and ICT (INZ, n.d.; OECD, 2019). The technological changes have not only increased the rate of skilled labour migration, but also have contributed to the movement of low-skilled workers (Olteanu & Rădoi, 2010). Chiswick (2011) has argued that increased wages for high-skilled migrants in host countries encourage low-skilled workers to move to new destinations. Low-skilled workers typically migrate to developed countries such as the US or Australia the hopes of securing a better life and the promise of better educational and employment opportunities, either for themselves or their children (Hanson et al., 2017; UN, 2020).

Scholars contend that labour mobility (or the movement of people across national borders) has negative and positive effects on the local labour market due to the associated rise in unemployment rates, especially in developed countries (Fromentin, 2013; Latif, 2015; Ottaviano et al., 2013; Standing, 2009). Abo Elsoud et al. (2020) found that, in Australia, there is a statistically significant negative relationship between unemployment rates and skilled worker mobility. However, some studies have demonstrated that this is not always the case (CrinÒ, 2010; Damette & Fromentin, 2013). For example, CrinÒ (2010) found that, in the US, service outsourcing had a slightly negative impact on employment for workers in low-skilled occupations, but a positive impact on employment for workers in high-skilled

occupations. In investigating the interaction between immigration and the host labour market of 14 OECD countries, Damette and Fromentin (2013) claimed that there is no evidence of the effect of immigration on the host country's unemployment rate in the long run. This finding supports Latif's (2015) study which argued that in immigrant receiving or host countries such as Canada, labour mobility does not have a significant impact on unemployment long-term; in fact, this study found that it can have a positive impact on unemployment long-term.

As a consequence of globalisation, labour mobility leads to more involuntary part-time labour, short-term contracts, zero-hours contracts, and (unpaid) internships. It also contributes to a lack of job security, low incomes, temporary jobs, and unemployment for different group of people (Hu et al., 2020). Standing (2009) concluded that any group of people who experience labour-related insecurity can be identified as a 'precariat'. These individuals face challenges related to skill development and promotion, workplace safety, long non-regulated work hours, and/or 'unsocial hours'. They lack opportunities to develop and reproduce work-related skills, to obtain a stable and adequate income, and to form collective organisations to represent themselves in the labour market (Schierup & Jørgensen, 2017; Standing, 2009). In terms of employment, Standing (2009) concluded that youth, migrants, women, and the elderly are more likely to be in precarious situations. In the New Zealand context, Cochrane et al. (2017) has defined the precariat as a social class whose members have insecure or temporary employment. They are often joblessness and beneficiaries. Members of this group of people typically have fewer civil, cultural, social, economic, and political rights. Cochrane et al. (2017) has argued that members of the precariat are predominantly young people (aged 15-24 years) on low incomes. They typically have no qualifications or very low qualifications (see Appendix A).

The next section examines youth and the term “at-risk”, and how they are related to each other in the context of globalisation.

Youth at-risk

The term “at-risk” is used widely in the field of youth studies. To understand this term, it is necessary to answer the questions: why are young people considered to be “at-risk” and what are they “at risk” of? To answer these questions, we must first identify the different perspectives on the notion of “at-risk”. One body of literature examines the factors that are associated with “at-risk” youth; for example, risky and problematic behaviours such as being subjected to bullying, having a low socio-economic status, parents’ income, and coming from a marginalised community (Horton, 2015; Ranasinghe et al., 2019). In an educational context, these factors include poor literacy/numeracy skills/cognitive ability (Na & Tasir, 2017; MoE, 2009; Moses & Villodas, 2017; Sanders et al, 2018), low levels of engagement with school (McGrath & Van Bergen, 2017; MoE, 2009; Moses & Villodas, 2017; Sanders et al, 2018), leaving school before completing upper secondary education, not having a plan for the future (Hancock & Zubrik, 2015; Horton, 2015), and not participating in formal education, employment, or training (NEET[4]) (MoE, 2009).

Another view deals with the (negative) outcomes associated with being “at-risk.” Some scholars argue that, as a result of globalisation, youth – and certain groups of youth – are considered to be particularly vulnerable to negative outcomes (Kamp, 2005; Kelly, 1999; Standing, 2011). These scholars contend that young people are argued to be at-risk of negative outcomes, including unemployment scarring[5] (DeLuca et al., 2015; Scarpetta et al.,

[4] Some scholars have critiqued the term NEET as it homogenises all the youth captured under this term: it does not consider their individual backgrounds or why they are not in employment, education, or training.

[5] Unemployment scarring refers to a history of unemployment that tends to lead to future unemployment (Arulam, 2001).

2010), insecure housing, physical and mental health problems (Cuervo & Wyn, 2016; Knabe & Rätzel, 2011; Strandh et al., 2014), being involved in criminal activity, being employed in low security or minimum wage jobs, as well as being disconnected from family, community, education, and work (Coles et al., 2010; Furlong, 2014; Walsh & Black, 2014). Others have noted that in some societies, "youth" are perceived as an "at-risk" group of individuals who cause social problems, are problematic (Blackman, 2011), and are considered incomplete, less valuable, or unproductive members of society (Follesø, 2015; Lesko, 2012).

The discourses surrounding "at-risk" youth have been the subject of academic critique (Bottrell, 2008; Kelly, 1999; Lange et al., 2014). Some scholars have suggested that the notion of "at-risk" is misleading (Kelly & Kamp, 2015). They claim that the identified factors do not necessarily mean a young person will experience negative outcomes (Foster & Spencer, 2011; Riele, 2006). However, young people who have all, or some of these factors, are suggested to be more likely to experience negative outcomes like long-term unemployment or social isolation in their adulthood. In their research, conducted with 45 young people in Canada, Foster and Spencer (2011) found that young peoples' perception of being "at-risk" differs from that of institutions and the government. They only consider themselves as "at-risk" when they have no control over their lives and are involved in risky behaviours such as drug consumption or have mental health problems. When the youth in this research discussed the "at-risk" concept, they did not see themselves in that concept. In short, the term is more often used as a descriptor of others' behaviour than a way to describe oneself (Wall & Olofsson, 2008). Follesø (2015) has argued that "at-risk" is a term that has become almost self-evident, based on negotiations, and without youth's involvement:

> When adults come together to form one common and undisputed agreement on the meaning of 'youth at risk', without inviting young people to participate in the discussion, there is the clear danger of missing important

perspectives held by the main characters in the discussion—the youth themselves. (p. 251)

Riele (2006) has argued that the terms "youth at risk" and "students at risk" represent a deficit view, one that focuses on what is wrong with young people, either as individuals or as groups, rather than what is wrong with schools or society. Other scholars such as Bottrell (2008) and Lange et al. (2014) have noted that what constitutes "at-risk" in one cultural context might not be true in another, or that it might represent a protective factor or process, depending on the conditions, cultural values, and norms in use. In Aotearoa New Zealand, the term "at-risk" is typically associated with substantiated cases of child abuse or neglect, alcohol consumption, poverty, and crime (Johnson et al., 2013). In this country, being "at-risk" is characterised by unequal distributions of both risks and resilience processes among youth from different ethnic/cultural groups (Sanders et al., 2017).

The Changing Face of Careers

In contrast to the 20th century, where employment tended to be more stable/secure and provided individuals with a foundation to build a life, the digital revolution of the 21st century has brought about new work arrangements; short-term or casual contracts are replacing permanent positions (Benach et al., 2014; Graham et al., 2017). However, Goodwin and O'Connor (2014) argued that does not mean young people necessary had less complex transition in the past centuries compared to their 21st century counterparts. They stated that dominant youth studies viewed the complexity of the school-to-work transition, into the 'present-centred' criteria while:

> "it is important that we do not treat the 'past' and the 'present' in a dualistic manner but, rather, view the experiences of young people as a process, with an understanding of past experience being central to understanding contemporary experiences of young people." (p.51)

Studies have shown that, in the context of the 21st century, young people are unlikely to remain in a single profession over the course of their working life or even within a single organisation. Instead, people can hold at least ten jobs over the course of their lifetimes (Kalleberg, 2009; Savickas, 2012). In Aotearoa New Zealand more than half of the employed workers considered changing their jobs in 2022 (Shepherd, 2022).

The meaning of “career” has changed in the context of globalisation. This definition should not characterise employment as a lifetime commitment to one employer or profession, but rather, as a process of regularly selling services and skills to several different employers who have a variety of needs. A career can be defined as an individual's extensive and enduring professional vocation, frequently encompassing numerous employments, positions, or capacities within a specific field or industry (Brown & Lent, 2013). It frequently entails a progression of education, skill enhancement, and decision-making concerning employment selections, with the objective of achieving personal and professional expansion, satisfaction, and accomplishment. It may also comprise the pursuit of specific objectives, the accumulation of proficiency, and the establishment of a reputation or specialization in a particular domain. In the 21st century, the term “career” is often associated with status, advancement, and intrinsic satisfaction (Inkson, 2009). In their study, Bakke and Hooley (2022) demonstrated that both career advisors and students understand the term career as a range of life choices, including educational choices, choices related to family, citizenship and self, and choices related to employment.

In Aotearoa New Zealand, career relates to all the experiences a person has over their lifetime, including their family life, friendships, culture, community activities, leisure choices, work, and learning. According to CareersNZ (2013), a career is:

> the sequence and variety of work roles, paid and unpaid, that a person undertakes throughout a lifetime. More broadly ‘career’ embraces life roles

> in the home and the community, leisure activities and learning as well as work. Work, learning and life are intertwined (p. 1).

In order to help young people develop their career goals in the context of globalisation, educators and career advisors must consider the reconstructed meaning of "career" and "career development" (Austin et al., 2020; Savickas et al., 2015). To better help young people, educators and counsellors must "concentrate on identity rather than personality, adaptability rather than maturity, intentionality rather than decidedness, and stories rather than scores" (Savickas, 2012, p. 14). As contributors to the school-to-work transition, parents must also have a clear understanding of the concept "career" in the 21st century. However, due to the changing nature of the job market, many parents believe that it is nearly impossible to provide their children with relevant career advice. In addition, employers (e.g. STEM industry) are seeking (and paying higher salaries for) employees with transferrable enterprise skills such as digital literacy, problem-solving skills, and creativity (Hill, 2022; McGunagle & Zizka, 2020). Thus, today's young people need a variety of skills and knowledge that are different from those required in the past; these will inevitably continue to change over time (Foundation for Young Australians [FYA], 2018).

Youth Transition in 21st Century

The transition from school-to-work refers to the period when young people are moving away from the principal activity of full-time education to the primary activity of work. Broadly speaking, it can be defined as a process through which students establish their capabilities and find a suitable career after they leave school (MoE, 2009; NAG, 2012). Scholars have argued that this process is the most important transition in early adulthood (Austin et al., 2020; France, 2007; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2005).

Historically, this transition was assumed to be a simple and straightforward process. Some scholars such as Goodwin and O'Connor (2005) and Vickerstaff (2007) have argued that the school-to-work transitions have always been non-linear and complex and that, in the past, young people frequently changed jobs and experienced uncertainty about their futures. However, this thesis argues that in the 21st century, the school-to-work transition has become even more nonlinear and complicated for some students, particularly in the context of an increasingly complex labour market (France, 2007; FYA, 2018; O'Connell et al., 2019). Young people's full-time employment is more unstable, with increasing numbers of young people juggling multiple jobs or working casually. According to FYA (2018), full-time employment among young Australians has declined sharply over the past 30 years. According to O'Connell et al. (2019), over half of all young people transfer from part time to full time employment over a five-year period, with many young people working a variety of part-time and casual jobs in between. The need to work multiple jobs to make ends meet can make it harder for young people to lay the foundations for their future careers and it can also delay their development of confidence and optimism. Research has identified five main pathways for young people in Aotearoa New Zealand: higher education followed by work, early full-time work, a combination of higher education and employment, repeated engagement and disengagement from employment, and working part-time (O'Connell et al., 2019; Ranasinghe et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2015).

Traditional indexes represent a successful school-to-work transition among young people as an individual obtaining and maintaining a job. However, it has been argued that being employed is not the only indicator of a successful transition and that there is a need to extend the idea of successful youth transitions beyond the traditional domains of study and work (Nguyen & Liu, 2011). These factors could be employment-related measures such as a short period between school and employment, full-time or part-time employment (Curtis,

2008; Shaienks & Gluszynski, 2009), well paid and secure jobs (Vaughan, 2009), formal and informal job-related training (Curtis, 2008), and opportunities for promotion in the same workplace (Vaughan et al., 2009).

Other research expands the definition of a successful school-to-work transition to include social outcomes including, independent living and satisfaction with one's job and/or life (Wyn, 2009). Scholars have noted that, like employment-related factors, these measures should be combined with other factors. For instance, in their study, Thomson and Hillman (2010) used multidimensional measures of educational achievement, occupational status (whether in employment or education), and job satisfaction as indicators of a successful school-to-work transition.

However, Wyn (2009) has argued that social outcomes like living independently from one's parents may not accurately reflect a successful school-to-work transition. Instead, it may instead stem from family conflicts, or reflect a desire to live with one's partner. Moreover, young people may return to the parental home after living independently for a period of time due to a lack of housing or an inability to buy a house. Regarding long-term job satisfaction, Vaughan (2009) has shown that what students perceive as a "good job" is not only related to their pay packet but also, how much time they have for leisure and/or family and friends. Wyn et al. (2008) have also shown that how satisfied a young person is with their career and life is associated with having enough leisure time.

Determining what constitutes a successful transition requires the use of additional measures including health and wellbeing status. Wyn et al. (2008) have investigated the differential impact of health-related indicators (whether an individual smokes and how much, poor nutrition, and how much an individual exercises) on the transition from compulsory education to work or post-secondary education. In the same vein, Lloyd (2005) has argued that a successful transition not only depends upon the student's mental and physical health,

but also on their sense of wellbeing. He has also argued that external factors like family background, institutional structures, and labour markets have an impact on a young person's school-to-work transition.

In many countries, upper secondary education includes both general and vocational tracks, which prepare students for further education or employment. This process of occupational preparation varies from country to country. According to OECD (2022) upper secondary programs can be divided into three different categories in terms of their completion levels: completing a level without direct access to tertiary education, completing a level without direct access to tertiary education, or completing a level with direct access to tertiary education. There are some countries where students are expected to enter tertiary education directly after graduating from upper secondary school, whereas in others students postpone entry to teritiary education, take a gap year or alternate periods of employment with study. For example, in the United States, over 90% of students enter bachelor's programs immediately after completing their upper secondary education, however, in Israel, the same holds true for only 5% of entrants (OECD, 2022). It is due to the differences in institutional and social factors as well as selective tertiary entrance systems that are particular to each country. In Finland, it is common for students to apply to several tertiary programs before being accepted, which is why in this country, less than 30% of students enter teritiary education directly after completing their secondary school.Most people, including those in Aotearoa New Zealand, do not go straight into work after leaving school; instead, they often obtain a degree as an entry-level qualification (MoE, 2019).

Young adults benefit greatly from participation in tertiary education, as it allows them to develop the skills they need to fully contribute to society. Some countries, particularly those with limited financial resources, have encouraged young people to defer further study in favor of learning on the job as a result of attractive employment opportunities and booming

economies (OECD, 2022). This is consistence with some studies have found that tertiary education is strongly correlated with a greater chance of employment and higher earnings (Dadgar & Trimble, 2015; Ma et. al, 2022). Empirical studies conducted internationally have consistently shown a relationship between post-secondary qualifications and a variety of labour market outcomes, across different kinds of societal contexts (Ford, 2018; Stevens et al., 2019). For example, Dadgar and Trimble (2015) found that in the US earning an associate degree or a long-term certificate, such as a diploma or bachelor's degree, is associated with higher wages and employment. As of 2018, those individuals who had a bachelor's degree and were working full-time earned $24,900 more than high school graduates. In comparison with high school graduates, bachelor's degree recipients paid $7,100 more in taxes and earned $17,800 more after taxes (Ma et al., 2022). In Aotearoa New Zealand there is a relatively high level of employment across all levels of education. It is estimated that 89 percent of adults between 25 and 64 who have obtained tertiary education qualifications are employed, compared to 85 percent on average across OECD nations (OECDb, 2018). This correlation can be explained by the demand for highly qualified employees who acquire transferable skills and knowledge in different industries and businesses (Ali & Jalal, 2018; Benner, 2004; International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2013; Mallick, 2013; OECD, 2012; Standing, 2009; Walsh, 2016). As the 2012 OECD report states:

> The long-term economic advantage to individuals with a tertiary education is about twice as large as the advantage for people with an upper secondary education as their highest educational level, on average across OECD countries (p. 1).

A more recent OECD (2015) report provides evidence that young people are increasingly choosing to obtain a tertiary qualification. In the past decade, the number of young people (25 – 34 years old) with a tertiary qualification in OECD and G20 countries has increased by

almost 45 percent. This figure is expected to rise even further in the next decade. Williams et al. (2021) have argued that recessions, such as that associated with the COVID-19 pandemic, dramatically impact on young people's employment, regardless of whether they have a tertiary qualification or not. They report that youth participation in full-time education is at its highest level (48 percent, up from 43 percent before the pandemic began), while youth employment has dropped to near its lowest level (53 percent versus 55 percent before the crisis began). The next section elaborates on the impact of economic recessions on youth employment.

Economic Recession and Youth (Un)Employment

Economic crises have had a significant impact on labour market dynamics and unemployment rates around the globe. According to World Bank Group (WBG, 2018) the global employment rate dropped from 14 percent in 2002 to 12.3 percent in 2007 due to the Great Recession. In Aotearoa New Zealand, the unemployment rate rose from 3.8 percent in 2007 to 6.8 percent in 2009, the highest rate in over 10 years (Statistics New Zealand [StatsNZ], 2012). Youth are typically more affected by economic downturns than older adults (Choudhry et al., 2012). They are three times more likely to be unemployed than adults (ILO, 2018).

In some countries, companies reduce individuals' work hours or wages to minimise job redundancies. In response to the COVID-19 crisis, many companies in OECD countries used Job Retention (JR) schemes to retain employees and avoid social issues (OECD, 2020). This scheme is designed to preserve jobs in firms experiencing a temporary decrease in business activities by reducing labour costs while supporting the income of those employees whose hours have been reduced.

In terms of employment type, Benner (2004) has argued that companies prefer to have flexible recruits, and offer temporary and part-time contracts; such practices enable

companies to have greater control over employment procedures and to reduce their costs. This part-time employment rate is one consequence of employers seeking flexibility. In European countries like Spain and Greece, the part-time employment rate of youth has increased over the past decade (Statistical Office of the European Communities [Eurostat], 2015). Among the 39,400 youth unemployed in 2021, 13,500 (42.7 percent) were seeking part-time employment only (StatsNZ, 2021). Studies have examined and debated the benefits and drawbacks associated with teenagers working part-time. Several studies, including governmental reports, contend that part-time employment enables a smoother school-to-work transition. In their research, Xiao et al. (2018) examine part-time work in four different countries: China, Japan, South Korea, and the US. They demonstrate the impact of work experience on secondary students' career preparation in China and Japan. They showed that part-time work allows students to explore different aspects of themselves, test new roles, and develop their ability to make decisions. Creed et al. (2007) found that Australian high school students who had work experience during Grades 8–10 were more likely to plan and explore their careers. Wang et al. (2010) contend that young people can enhance their support networks by combining part-time employment with their studies. Career advisors in Aotearoa New Zealand promotes part-time work experience, arguing that it can improve a student's chances of finding permanent employment in the future, enable them to gain a deeper understanding of a particular job or industry, and help them to become aware of other careers in the same industry (ERO, 2015). Moreover, by engaging in part-time work, students can earn credits towards NCEA and tertiary education (CareersNZ, 2021). Although youth may benefit from some positive aspects of part-time work, such as flexible hours and an early source of income (Walsh, 2016; Woodman, 2012), full-time jobs are not guaranteed. Youth are also at a greater risk of unemployment or marginal employment (Chalmers, 2013; Furlong, 2014). Youth may suffer from not having permanent and secure employment in the

form of a low income, deficiencies in terms of social security such as retirement/healthcare plans, and a lack of opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills which, in the long-term, may negatively impact on their career progression (Chalmers, 2013; Walsh & Black, 2014).

The COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in economic crises that have challenged labour markets around the world, Aotearoa New Zealand included. As the crisis first unfolded, the OECD unemployment rate rose three percentage points - to 8.8 by April 2020 - the highest rate seen in 10 years (Appendix B) (OECD, 2021a). Young people in hard-hit sectors like wholesale and retail commerce, hotels, and restaurants, and those in precarious jobs, have lost jobs as a result of the pandemic. Equally, young workers entering the workforce for the first time since completing their education have encountered difficulties finding employment due to a lack of job openings and an intensely competitive environment due to a market flooded with older, more experienced, unemployed workers (OECD, 2021). Although the New Zealand government offered financial aid (Unite Against COVID-19, 2022), certain groups of people (youth included) have been negatively impacted by the pandemic via unemployment and decreased work hours (Fletcher et al., 2022). As a result of COVID-19's initial impact in New Zealand, youth unemployment increased sharply in both the September and December 2020 quarters, reaching 13.2 and 13.8 percent, respectively. Educational and training patterns have also been disrupted by the COVID-19 pandemic (Light, 2020). In the wake of the pandemic, the percentage of young people who are NEET began to decline, reversing the trend from the previous decade. According to MoE (2021), the reason for this slight positive change is related to youth participation in education. In other words, young people who were experiencing unemployment started to take up free education and training courses, supported by New Zealand government.

In migrant receiving countries like Aotearoa New Zealand, unemployment rates are higher among youth with immigrant background compared to native–born youth (OECD, 2015). This is especially true in the case of recent immigrants who have lived in the host country for five years or less, where the employment rate is 10 percent lower than their New Zealand-born counterparts (OECD/EU, 2018). There is a disparity among young people across ethnic and cultural backgrounds (MoB, 2017). For example, following the Covid-19 pandemic, the youth unemployment rates among Asian groups dropped to 9.6 percent, 1.8 percent less than for their European counterparts (StatsNZ, 2021). The next section examines the reasons for this disparity among young people.

Due to the impact of globalisation and economic recessions, career education has become increasing important for social and economic wellbeing. Hansen (2021) argues that one of the reasons why there are millions of COVID-19 pandemic jobless individuals is that the career education system does not adequately prepare students. Approximately one-half of the workforce in OECD countries lacks the problem-solving skills required to function effectively in a technologically advanced environment. Skills needs are ever-changing, raising the possibility of skills mismatch and shortage, both of which have considerable economic costs (OECD, 2018). Hence, education systems need to provide students with higher levels of non-routine cognitive skills, complex problem solving, and creativity. Students also need to develop stronger socioemotional skills:

> Technological change shifts labour demand towards more cognitive skills for which many current workers are not adequately trained, contributing to the polarisation of the labour market and the hollowing out of middle-skill jobs. (OECD, 2018, p. 1)

School-to-Work Transition for Immigrant Youth

Young immigrants are more likely to have complicated school-to-work transitions than their native counterparts. This is related to factors such as a lack of language proficiency, cultural differences, unfamiliarity with the local education system, and discrimination on the part of employers (Beicht & Walden, 2019; OECD, 2015c; Reinke & Goller, 2022).

Language skills are an important component of the school-to-work transition among immigrant young people. A lack of English proficiency may affect a student's school enrolment, academic assessment, performance, career choice, and connection with employers (Koyama, 2013, 2015). Immigrants must also possess a particular level of English proficiency in order to achieve post school qualifications (Beicht & Walden, 2019; Reinke & Goller, 2022). Research indicates that young people need supportive pedagogies for literacy and language development within secondary schools. The evaluation procedures must also be fit for purpose. As Keddie found in interviews with Australian teachers, mandated evaluation and testing procedures are irrelevant for students coming from non-English speaking countries. A lack of language skills may negatively impact a student's ability to integrate into the new environment and develop friendships which, in turn, could lead to mental health issues in the long-term (Bhochhibhoya et al., 2017; Holttum, 2015). Lori (2012) found that poor language skills can result in young people becoming disengaged with school and leaving early. Limited English and literacy skills not only negatively impacts on a student's academic results, but also reduce their chance of interacting with employers and gaining work experience.

In addition to issues associated with language acquisition, there may be other factors that make it difficult for newcomers to settle into the education system, especially at secondary school level. The educational backgrounds of some young immigrants may be

significantly different than those of their local counterparts. Some of these young people may possess qualifications that are not recognised by the host country's education system (Lauter et al., 2012). Having to repeat certain subjects can lead to frustration and additional stress at a time when they are already having to navigate a whole host of challenges associated with arriving in a new country and adapting to a new educational system (Lauter et al., 2012; Lori, 2012).

Young people from immigrant backgrounds sometimes lack their parents' support and careers advice for their career goals. Reasons for this include the parents' lack of communication with the school and/or involvement in school activities, or their unfamiliarity with the local education system and/or labour market (Beicht & Walden, 2019; Cherng & Ho, 2018). For example, Bitew and Ferguson (2010) conducted a study among African immigrants in Australia. They noted that the majority of immigrants from low-income backgrounds did not have much access to formal education and professional employment in their home country. Furthermore, "their opportunity to improve their academic knowledge to the level of helping their children in accordance with the Australian education system was limited" (p. 58). Due to a lack of communication and familiarity with the Australian education system and labour market, parents were not able to provide their children with support related to their career pathways.

Prior studies have highlighted the problems associated with assessing content using tests that have been designed for native speakers in a language that migrants are still learning (Menken & Shohamy, 2015). In recent years, scholars have criticised the use of standardised tests and grades as measures of academic performance, claiming that these methods are insufficient to measure academic competence (Gorter & Cenoz, 2017; Menken, 2010). Rossiter and Rossiter (2009) have argued that schools should provide initial language,

orientation, and cultural support to immigrant and refugee youth, along with early identification of at-risk youth using culturally appropriate diagnostic and assessment tools.

Some research has indicated that discrimination is another barrier to a successful school-to-work transition. These studies have been conducted in different contexts and countries (Vanoverberghe et al., 2008), France (Silberman & Fournier, 2007), Germany (Kogan, 2007), Norway (Brekke, 2007; Liv, 2011; Støren & Wiers-Jenssen, 2011). Naseem (2014) has shown that ethnic minority youth are less likely to obtain employment than those from the ethnic majority, despite both having the same abilities and qualifications. According to the Ministry for Ethnic Communities' report (2021), discrimination is the result of "employers' unconscious bias and fear of the unknown, lack of employers understanding of the benefits of diversity" (p. 39). Berry et al. (2006) found that discrimination had the most detrimental effect on immigrant youths' wellbeing. Likewise, Berry and Hou (2016) found that immigrants' experiences of discrimination negatively affected their life satisfaction and mental health.

Chapter Summary

This chapter began by discussing globalisation, a complex phenomenon which influences many areas of life, including global labour markets. The chapter then examined the discourse of "at-risk youth", focusing on the way in which these terms are connected in the literature and how understanding the term "at-risk" may help us to understand the needs of youth in this globalised world. The third section of the chapter provided definitions of the school-to-work transition and identified features of a successful transition. While most of the studies focus on employment-related factors, relatively little has been written about using young people's mental health and wellbeing at the completion of compulsory education as criteria for success. Furthermore, most of the studies examine students and educators' perceptions of a successful school-to-work transition; very few include parents' voices. The

chapter has also examined the impact of global economic recessions on the labour markets and the employment of young people, and in particular, immigrant students. The following chapter identifies different contributors that play a critical role in young people's school-to-work transition, both for young people in general and for immigrant students in particular.

Chapter Three: A Review of Related Literature

Introduction

This chapter reviews major published literature relevant to immigrant students' school-to-work transition. My understanding of pertinent literature evolved, along with this phenomenological research study. It was my intention to employ a flexible approach to build my knowledge about the school-to-work transition by allowing participants' narratives to interact with my analytical understanding of the reviewed literature. This practice is consistent with Taylors et al.'s (2016) claim that until your research is complete, you cannot know what literature might be relevant to your study. The first part of this chapter focuses on careers education as an important element of education systems in this globalised world (ERO, 2015). The careers education guideline (MoE,2009), recognise that careers education involves a wide range of actors who contribute to students' career development. The chapter examines the influence of these contributors which can be found both within the school, such as careers advisors, teacher, and school leaders as well as outside the school, including parents, peers, and employers, and mentors. The chapter examines the role of employers, both in students' school-to-work transition and their engagement in career education. Lastly, three theories pertaining to careers education will be explained.

Parents

Research and educational policies around the world and in Aotearoa New Zealand indicate that among those who influence students' careers decisions (including friends, teachers, careers advisors, and school staff), parents play a key role (Archer et al.,2014; Bullot, 2017; Hipkins & Vaughan, 2019; Lui & Watson, 2015; O'Connell et al., 2022; Quinter & Edwards, 2011; Rosenblatt; 2015; Wylie & Hodgen, 2011). Parents have an impact on different aspect of young people's school-to-work transition. One aspect relates to parental guidance and advice. Studies have shown that parental guidance helps facilitate a

student's school-to-work transition process (Acquah et al., 2017; Archer et al., 2014; Atherton, 2009; Bullot, 2017). Dietrich and Kracke (2009) have explored different elements of career-specific parental behaviour among German secondary school students. They showed that parental support, including parents' encouragement and advice, parental interference and control, as well as a lack of parental career engagement (parents' inability or reluctance to get involved in their children's career development) all had a significant effect on the student's career adaptability. As such, parental support could also influence the student's individual career development (Guan et al., 2013; Tolentino et al., 2013).

Studies have shown that parents' understanding of what constitutes a 'good' job in terms of social class and income may affect a student's career decision and their choice of pathways (Ferry, 2006; Madjar et al., 2009). Researchers have found that some parents encourage their children to enter professions that are considered 'stable' (Byrne et al., 2012; Liang, 2010; Zhi-jin, 2011). In situations like these, students may choose their parents' favourite careers and pathways (Andre et al., 2017). Furthermore, Ule et al. (2015) found that European parents are generally supportive of their children undertaking tertiary education, as many believe that education provides the tool for ensuring a prosperous future in today's risky and unpredictable world.

Parents' socioeconomic status is an influential component in students' school-to-work transition (Anderson, 2008; Angelique, 2010; Ule et al., 2015). A parent's socioeconomic situation can influence their attitude and the guidance they provide to their children. For instance, Eyre and Hipkins (2019) examined how parents from high socioeconomic backgrounds typically encourage their children to attain high grades and to choose specific subjects and careers. They found that those with higher socioeconomic backgrounds were better able to advise their children. Some studies have shown that parents from low socioeconomic backgrounds are less likely to support their children in school-

related activities, including career education activities, than parents from high socioeconomic backgrounds (Bitew & Ferguson, 2010; Groves, 2021; Mann & Dawkins, 2014). They noted that this can be related to cultural and language differences, a lack of confidence, and communication issues. Middle- and upper—class parents are more likely to have parental resources including financial resources and social networks which will benefit their children in terms of their future careers. Lower-class parents can have fewer resources to provide for their children financially, culturally, and socially. As a result, educational disadvantage (and consequently all other forms of social and economic disadvantage) are reproduced (Brown et al., 2016). Parents and families who are financially secure and have cultural and social resources are more likely to cope with any challenges associated with their child's school-to-work transition. As a result of the increased complexity of parenting, it is often very difficult for families from lower and marginalised social and economic groups to meet these challenges (Fong, 2017). Additionally, young people from economically and socially disadvantaged families may have to overcome additional obstacles as they grow up and learn to cope with the outside world (Ule et al., 2015).

Other studies have produced contrasting findings. No matter a parent's social background or education level, they are continually concerned about their child making the 'right' transition choices (Bermer & Mistry, 2007; Beutel & Anderson, 2008; Yamamoto, 2010). For instance, Madjar et al. (2009) have shown that in low decile[6] schools in Aotearoa New Zealand, where the majority of students come from low socioeconomic backgrounds, immigrant parents tend to have high aspirations for their children and encourage them to finish grade 13. They concluded that this is because these parents often face insecure, casual work, and low-wage jobs that are physically stressful and unrewarding. These parents want to

[6] The decile rating indicates the percentage of students from low socioeconomic communities enrolled in a particular school.

see their children rise out of their current situation, and see education as the only way to achieve this goal.

Young peoples' perceptions of their parents' jobs and employment status may also change their life planning and decision-making (Neblett & Cortina, 2006). Parents may positively influence their children by being role models in terms of the careers goals (Acquah et al., 2017; Dietrich & Salmela-Aro, 2013; Neblett & Cortina, 2006). However, if their parents are unemployed then this may negatively influence the young people's perceptions of the labour market and their career choices compared to those whose parents work (Faria, 2013). Uka (2015) and Khampirat (2020) have also shown that a parent's education level is highly correlated with a student's educational and careers aspirations, and that parental expectations of their children's success are positively correlated with the parents' educational level. Mbagwu and Ajaegbu's (2016) study of 400 Nigerian students found that in comparison to students whose parents have a low educational background, students whose parents have a high educational background do not have much difficulty choosing a career path. While students whose parents had high qualifications were more likely to pursue professional careers[7], students whose parents had low qualifications were more likely to pursue business careers.

It appears that parents' cultural beliefs, values, and expectations can shape a student's careers decision-making (Andre et al., 2017; Park & Kao, 2016; Sarika 2020; Watkins & Noble, 2013). Akosah-Twumasi et al. (2018) have argued that parental expectations differ across cultures. As Sarika (2020) explains: "when children's own thinking and values reflect that of their parents, parents can then be considered as playing an influential role in shaping their children's decision-making process" (p. 81). For instance, Asian parents encourage their

[7] The term professional refers to a career that requires specific level of training and post-secondary education (careers such as doctor, teacher, and lawyer)

children to choose technology, engineering, and mathematic (STEM) related subjects (Afzal Humayon et al., 2018; Razali et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2014; Yuen et al., 2020). They see tertiary education as crucial to a successful career path (Lau et al., 2011; Ule et al., 2015). In Western countries like Australia, the UK and the US which are more individualistic (Singha, 2014), young people are encouraged to select their own careers and to develop competencies in establishing their own career paths. In contrast, in more collectivist societies such as Argentina, Burkina Faso, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Japan, Mexico, Portugal, South Africa, South Korea, Taiwan, and Ukraine young people are often expected to follow a prescribed career path in accordance with parental and societal expectations (Guan et al., 2014; Gunkel et al., 2013; Sawitri, 2015). However, Yamamoto (2008) has argued that this cannot be generalised across all the cultures: in some ethnic groups and cultures there is no significant association between parental expectations and subject choice.

Institutionalisation and familialisation are important social processes that are considered to influence young people's live (Žakel et al, 2013). The term familialisation refers to the family's responsibility and how children are viewed within the family. It is "increasingly located as supervised sons and daughters in the home, and conceptualised in terms of their familial dependency status" (Edwards & Alldred, 2000, p.435). Institutionalisation takes place as a parallel process, where children are separated and protected in separate and protected structures based on their age and are supervised by qualified professionals; where the focus is "on their educational attainment and development" (Edwards & Alldred, 2000, p.436). The literature demonstrates an important relationship between familialisation in the form of parental involvement with institutionalisation in the form of careers education (Blair & Haneda, 2021; Fibbi, 2015; Froiland, 2014; Jeynes, 2012; Schnell, 2015; Ule et al., 2015). In their study of different European countries, Ule et al.

(2015) demonstrated that there is a correlation between institutionalisation and familialisation. Dissatisfaction exists on both sides of the relationship between parents and schools in all of the research countries. This research highlights the tension that exists between familialisation and institutionalisation. Disadvantaged students and families are negatively affected by this tension, as they possess fewer resources, competences, social networks, knowledge, information, and, consequently, have fewer options to reduce the negative effects of such tension on them and their families.

Ishimura (2014) has argued that parental involvement encompasses a wide range of parenting behaviours. These behaviours range from talking to children about homework to attending parent-educator meetings. Researchers have classified parental involvement into different categories: regular communication between parents and educators about their child's progress, parental participation in school activities, supporting students with homework and other school activities, and parental involvement in a student's decision-making (Ishimura ,2014; Parola et al., 2022;). Parent involvement is highlighted as a crucial aspect of careers education in educational documents and guidelines, New Zealand's included (MoE, 2009). Parental involvement can take many forms, including attending careers programmes, meeting career staff and teachers, and supporting schools by acting as mentors or assistants. In their study on school-based career education, Vaughan and Gardiner (2007) showed that parents' attendance at career sessions and evenings, as well as their connection with career advisors, were considered vital in their children's career decision-making. Beck et al., (2006) believe that,

> as family and friends are an important source of information, especially on apprenticeships, it would be useful to involve parents as part of a comprehensive careers information and guidance strategy. (p.285)

Consistent with Beck et al. (2009), the MoE (2009) has suggested that parents who meet with career advisors and teachers, or participate in career expos, are more likely to gain reliable information about subject choices, credit assessment, and the relevance of all of these factors in terms of their child's future career.

A student who has moved to another country with their family and is still determining their career path may encounter difficulties due to the unfamiliar cultural values in general and the school/educational system in particular (Blair, 2015, 2021; Cherng & Ho, 2018; Gilby, 2012; Kao, 2020; Kao & Rutherford, 2007; Reinke & Goller, 2022). Immigrant students may find it difficult to negotiate their career needs within the host country's school system and within their own families (Tao et.al, 2018). In contrast, acculturated youth showed a greater intrinsic motivation in choosing a particular career (Akosah-Twumasi et al., 2018). Parents of students who are recently immigrated may face different challenges such as language and cultural barriers or may rely on inaccurate information from alternative sources such as co-ethnic friends (Lau et al., 2012). In recent years, scholars have identified a variety of distinct barriers to parental involvement, and in particular, in relation to immigrant families. As a result of these barriers, immigrant children often suffer an even greater disadvantage (Geel & Vedder, 2009).

Peers

One of the most frequently cited factors in the literature concerns peers' and extended family members' influence on a student's school-to-work transition (Anders et al., 2018). There is evidence that peer networks can play a role in the development of self-efficacy among young people especially from immigrant background (Patel, et al., 2008). In some research, young people indicated that their friends are their first source of career advice (Beck et al., 2006; Bullot et al., 2017; Madjar et al., 2009). Young people in Australia, for example, identified friends as their primary source of assistance when addressing important issues such

as career decisions (Bullot et al, 2017). A student may enter secondary school with a particular career in mind, but may later change careers due to the extensive career information that they receive from their peers. Also, young people tend to accept their friends' advice and experiences as they are the same age, often have similar experiences, and spend more time together (Arudo, 2008; Wang & Degol, 2013). However, it has been found that students tent to receive career advice from senior students at secondary schools which may have a positive effect on their career decisions (Mtemeri, 2017). For students from minority groups, friends are even more important: students prefer to receive advice from informal channels rather than schools and career advisors (Moote & Archer, 2018; Mtemeri, 2017). However, advice from peers or informal channels does not necessarily lead to positive outcomes. In a study of Asian American students, Poon (2014) showed that peers networks perpetuate the idea that these students are suited to certain majors and not to others. For example, peer networks perpetuated and reinforced the dominant racial script that Asian Americans should pursue STEM fields. Also, Asian American students faced obstacles in pursuing their interests as a result of stereotypes, a lack of role models from their own ethnic group in atypical career paths, and perceived discrimination in the labor market.

Some studies investigated that immigrant students faced difficulties developing friendship networks. This relates to lack of confidence, language and cultural barriers as well as discrimination. Lau et al.'s (2011) study of Canadian youth found that students from immigrant backgrounds often rely on co-ethnic friends to find job market information. One study conducted among international students in the US found that most of an immigrant student's friends are from their home country or culture, with a higher number of co-national friendships than host-national friendships. These students formed co-national connections more easily than relationships with individuals from other countries, both in the classroom and residential settings. Different research supports this finding: immigrant students find it

challenging to make friends with locals or to have satisfying relationships with them (McFaul, 2016; Newsome & Cooper, 2016; Wang et al., 2017). For example, Wang et al. (2017) reported that non-English speakers (mainly from East Asia) expressed concerns about communicating with their American peers due to negative judgment and discrimination. Additionally, non-English speakers may experience social-psychological fear, a fear of making mistakes, and being unfavourably evaluated.

Immigrant students sometimes face discrimination from their peers. Studies in European countries like Norway have found that even when there is no direct discrimination, immigrant youth often feel isolated and invisible due to a lack of knowledge and recognition on the part of their educators and friends (Brenner & Kia-Keating, 2016). It has been argued that being discriminated against and not feeling integrated into the school community often results in young people changing their group of friends or even schools. They may also follow their friends, choosing the same subjects and pathways to avoid being socially excluded. Research has found that experiences of discrimination negatively affect young people's life satisfaction as well as their mental health (Berry et al., 2006; Berry & Hou, 2016). Although discrimination may not directly impact a student's school-to-work transition, the current study's findings indicate that discrimination may have an indirect impact on a student's subject choices and career decisions.

Career Education

Careers education in New Zealand has a history that dates back to the early 20th century (Tearney, 2016). The roots of careers advice and education in Aotearoa New Zealand can be traced to the establishment of the Vocational Branch of the Education Department in 1910. This branch aimed to assist young people in making informed decisions about their career paths by providing guidance and advice. During the middle of the 20th century and in response to the growing concern of youth unemployment in 1928, vocational guidance

services underwent significant expansion in New Zealand. This period witnessed the introduction of careers programs in schools, along with the emergence of various organizations and agencies dedicated to offering career guidance and support. The primary objective was to assist students in exploring diverse occupational options, making informed career decisions, and transitioning smoothly from their educational pursuits to the workforce. This marked the initial involvement of the state in careers educatin in New Zealand, representing a significant milestone (Martin, 1996).

Schools began implementing career programs, while various organizations and agencies emerged to offer guidance and support in career-related matters. The primary focus was to assist students in exploring diverse occupations, making informed career decisions, and facilitating a smooth transition from school-to-work. In 1948, the provision of careers advisors in schools was initiated for institutions with more than 200 students. These advisors were required to undergo a training week facilitated by the Vocational Guidance Services (Martin, 1996; Tearney, 2016).

Following the recession of 1968 and high rate of unemployment, the government took measures to enhance career services. In 1976, they introduced several initiatives, including job self-service, access to careers information, an expanded placement service catering to specific client groups, as well as counseling and specialised employment officers. These efforts aimed to provide comprehensive support and resources to individuals in their career journeys.

In the years 1990 and 1991, significant changes were implemented in the field of vocational guidance, leading to the creation of three new services: Career Education Services, Education and Training Support Agency (specifically for school leavers), and The New Zealand Employment Service (NZES). The NZES established close collaboration with schools, tertiary institutions, and community organizations to ensure comprehensive support

for career development. Another pivotal development in New Zealand's career guidance landscape was the restructuring of the education administration (Reid, 2010). Under the new system, all state schools were to be managed by elected Board of Trustees consisting of secondary school staff and parents. These boards would be responsible for formulating the school's charter encompassing aims and goals. They would have the authority to determine whether the continued funding of training for school careers advisors aligns with the school's needs (Martin, 1996).

In 2012, the merger of the New Zealand Careers Service and the Tertiary Education Commission resulted in the establishment of Careers New Zealand. This consolidation aimed to improve the coordination and alignment of career services across multiple sectors, including education, training, and employment. As a result, Careers New Zealand continued its mission of providing career guidance and information to individuals while also prioritizing workforce development and addressing skill shortages (Tearney, 2016)..

Recent research notes that career education needs to be revised to ensure it prepares young people for adult life in the 21st century and an increasingly complex labour market (Eyre & Hipkins, 2019; Kashefpakdel & Percy, 2017; Parliament of Victoria, 2018; Vaughan, 2011). These studies state that young people need assistance to acquire the skills needed to manage their learning and work in a dynamic environment closely linked to the labour market. Furthermore, students expressed a desire to know more about all of the options that were available to them, stating that their needs were not being met (Skillsroad, 2018).

In Aotearoa New Zealand, career education is an essential component of every school’s curriculum. In 2016, the New Zealand Labour Party announced a $30 million programmes to connect schools with businesses and training providers and integrate career education with learning to support young people with up-to-date and relevant career advice (New Zealand Labour Party, 2016). Dodd et al. (2022) reported that a higher level of

participation in career education is associated with a higher level of career readiness. These programmes are designed to equip students with self-awareness and the ability to identify possibilities and opportunities. They provide information about different careers and courses, and help students to understand the consequence of their choices and decisions. They enable them to plan for their future and to put their plans into practice (ERO, 2016; MoE, 2009). Smidth (2018) noted that schools following the NAGs, NEGS, and New Zealand Curriculum (NZC) vision will assist young people in developing the necessary attributes to become "confident, connected, actively involved, and lifelong learners." (p.4)

Career education includes curriculum-based and pastoral interventions as well as career activities and employment engagement. Hoooley et al. (2015) found that careers education can be delivered in three forms. The first model, called the internal model, delivers career education via the school using career advisors and staff. Canada, Malta, Finland Hong Kong, Ireland, Korea, the US and the Netherlands typically use this model. The external model is one where the school employs an agency to oversee careers education and involves collaboration between schools and employers. The third model is a combination of the first and second models. In the partnership model, the responsibility is divided between the school and the agencies. Some European countries such as Scotland, Switzerland, Northern Ireland, Wales, and Norway favour the third approach. Schools in Aotearoa New Zealand tend to use the first or third approach (Kavale, 2012). An OECD (2004) report indicates that the partnership model is the most successful strategy, since it combines a potential for strong integrated delivery across the school with a strong connection to the labour market.

While schools are responsible for implementing careers education and guidance as an integral part of the curriculum, the school's particular structure (school size, school facilities, leadership team, learning facilities, and the number of staff), affect the careers education that the students receive (Austin et al., 2020; Furbish & Reid, 2013). Research shows that careers

education is provided differently by different schools (Hooley & Dodd, 2015; Moote & Archer, 2018). For example, a study conducted in Australia found that 10 percent of schools spend 45 minutes or less on career education per student each year, while 10 percent spend 12 hours or more on career education (Parliament of Victoria, 2018). Variations in delivery quantity can be attributed to the availability of resources (CICA, 2017). For instance, larger schools can provide more comprehensive careers' education for students. However, this effect can be reversed, as not all pupils may be able to have one-to-one interactions with careers staff due to high numbers of students and limited staff numbers (Furbish & Reid, 2013).

Schools need to evaluate their careers programmes and ensure that all staff members are capable of providing students with sound and helpful careers advice (ERO, 2015; Hutchinson, 2018; Smidth, 2018). In Aotearoa New Zealand, secondary school career development benchmarks are used as self-review tools to assess and improve the quality of career education programmes and services. According to the ERO's "Careers Education and Guidance: Good Practice" (May, 2015) guidebook, schools can use the Career Education Benchmarks to evaluate their current practices and improve their student support services (CareersNZ, 2016). However, Smidth (2018) has argued that the guidelines and benchmarks are more "inspirational" than practical for the user. In short, their implementation depends on the user's interpretation of these guidelines and also the school's available resources.

Careers Advisors

As careers advisors are considered the main contributors to careers education in the school system, it is not surprising that the literature highlights the importance of their role in the school-to-work transition (Groves et al., 2021; Irving, 2010; Smidth, 2019). School career advisers assist young people in developing their interests and skills, as well as providing information about career options and pathways (NSW Government, 2019). According to the

New Zealand curriculum and the MoE (2009), a career education leader or careers advisor is a member of staff selected by the school's leaders to supervise, manage, and implement career education. S/he are responsible for preparing students for the school-to-work transition, supporting them to develop careers plans, facilitating age-appropriate workplace learning, and explaining how they can obtain financial aid for further study. They often maintain networks with businesses, education and training providers. The careers advisor is often in touch with students' parents and encourage them to be involved in the students' career plans. In other countries like the UK,. a career advisor or career leader is a middle leader in a school who is responsible for providing careers advice, is knowledgeable and skilled in the development of a careers programme, is authorised to lead within the school and establish partnerships outside of it (Andrews & Hooley, 2017).

International research highlights the importance of a career advisor's qualifications. For example, Furbish and Reid (2013) have shown that relevant qualifications may boost a career advisors' professional consultation and mentoring knowledge and skills. Although career advisors who do not possess relevant qualifications may still be able to put together a best practice programme, a lack of formal qualifications may limit their ability to refine their practice based on theory and research. Career advisors have stated that they need more specialised training programmes to enhance students' transition to the labour market or tertiary education (Bridgeland & Bruce, 2011). Internationally, career advisors usually have backgrounds and qualifications in teaching, counselling, human resource management, and psychology (Aspden, 2015; European Guidance System, 2021). A study conducted with 27 career advisors in English secondary schools found that career advisors have different backgrounds and expertise. Most developed their expertise through various professional development strategies. In order to provide useful career advice, participants agreed that they must have expertise in both careers education and guidance, as well as leadership and

management (Andrews & Hooley, 2019). Similarly, Percy and Tanner (2021) support the notion that training can enhance a career advisor's knowledge and skills, and that such education may improve career education outcomes. In countries like Bulgaria and the Czech Republic, career advisors are encouraged to acquire a Master's degree in any field related to careers guidance. Some countries, like Finland, Poland, Portugal, Romania, and parts of the UK, require career advisors to have a specialised degree. Consequently, these countries have increased specialised courses and the training programmes for careers guidance staff (European Guidance System, 2021). In Australia, there are differences in career advisors' skills and qualification between states and educational systems. For example, schools in NSW lack a definitive position description for career advisers. Instead, they have an optional framework for performance which is enforced at the discretion of each individual school (Youth Action, 2017).

In Aotearoa New Zealand, while career advisors are encouraged to obtain degrees in the field of careers education, these qualifications are not required and, unlike teachers, career advisors do not need to have formal education or be registered to practice the theories they have learned through education (Furbish & Reid, 2013; Hooley et al., 2015; Morgan et al., 2014). Furbish (2016) has argued that that career advisors should possess appropriate qualifications and that this should be mandated by the government in order to address the lack of career development and effective careers education. Like studies conducted in other countries, New Zealand research has shown that career advisors without career qualifications tend to advise students based on their own life experiences (Vaughan & Spiller, 2012; Yates & Bruce, 2017). Life experiences can have a profound effect on a career advisor's perceptions of school-to-work pathways, as well as on their commitment to progression and understanding of potential challenges (Houghton et al., 2021).

There have been a number of studies which examine career positions in schools. In European countries, like Germany, career advisors are often teachers who offer careers advice (Fuller et al., 2014; Newton, 2017). In the UK, teachers also are assigned to career roles based on convenience rather than skills or qualifications (Andrews & Hooley, 2019; Moote & Archer, 2018). In Aotearoa New Zealand, as in many other countries, only a small minority of the career advisors (18 percent) are employed solely as careers advisor. Most of the career advisors hold at least two positions: as subject teachers, deans, guidance counsellors, assistant/deputy principals, and librarians. These roles are not directly related to the career advisors' scope of work (Vaughan & Gardiner, 2007). In some schools, retired teachers and teachers who are no longer committed to teaching are hired as career advisors (O'Reilly et al., 2020; Vaughan & Spiller, 2012; Yates & Bruce, 2017). Research in Australia suggests that when career advisors are employed in other roles they may find it difficult to provide good careers advice (Schloss, 2011). Furthermore, evidence suggests that they do not have sufficient time to analyse the labour market and educate themselves about recent changes in jobs. As a result, the advice they provide may be uninformed (Acquah et al., 2017; Lohmar & Eckhardt, 2008). Moreover, in another study conducted in Australia, employers believed that career advisors in schools had a limited understanding of the industry they served (Economic Education Jobs and Skills Committee, 2018).

The literature discusses different aspects of the career advisors' role. Some career advisors believe that the most important part of their job is providing students with information on available educational and career pathways (Vaughan & Gardiner, 2007, 2012). Other research argues that students not only need information, but also support to make sense of that information (Boyd et al., 2006; Musset & Mytna Kurekova, 2018). Moreover, the information needs to be up-to-date and relevant to their interests. Smdith (2019) has argued that students need to actively participate in finding and analysing this

information and that careers advisors should act as facilitators rather that information providers. Some studies in the UK have proposed that the career advisors' role should include leadership, coordination, and management. They use the term "careers leaders" to refer to the appointment or identification of a middle leader responsible for careers provision within a school (Andrews & Hooley, 2017). Careers leaders have the ability to lead within the school and create partnerships beyond the school. They possess the necessary knowledge and skills to develop a careers programme: "The careers leader is charged with fusing the contributions from staff within the school and the activities provided by external partners into a coherent career education and guidance programme" (Andrews & Holley, 2017, p. 557). Studies have shown that careers staff monitor and navigate early school leavers to provide appropriate support (Fitzenberger et al., 2020; Furbish & Reid, 2013; Moote & Archer, 2018).

Career advisors are responsible for identifying and assisting students who have been classified as "at-risk". As the NEG states, careers advisors are required to:

> Provide appropriate career education and guidance for all students in years 7 and above, with a particular emphasis on specific career guidance for those students who have been identified by the school as being at risk of leaving school unprepared for the transition to the workplace or further education and training.

According to various New Zealand educational policies and guidelines, minority ethnic students such as Māori, Pasifika, immigrants, and refugee students typically have more complicated and challenging school-to-work transitions and thus are considered to be at-risk (MoE, 2009; Musset & Mytna Kurekova, 2018). Research has explored the experience of the students who are likely to leave school without any plan, and the role of career advisors in supporting these groups of students so that they have a successful school-to-work transition. For example, in the UK, students from African and South Asian backgrounds reported requiring more support as they navigated the careers education system (Moote & Archer,

2017). This can be related to having a lack of access to social networks which might include personal contacts such as family members.

Studies have shown that students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds and minority ethnic students are less likely to use structured career services (e.g., speaking with careers advisors) and are more likely to discuss career choices with family members and friends (Vernon & Drane, 2021). According to Australian survey findings, students were most likely to rely on their social network for career guidance. A majority of the young people who responded to the survey indicated that their parents, siblings, or family members played the greatest role in guiding their career decisions (O'Connell et al., 2022). However, this study, along with other research, has shown that the information they obtained from their network of family and friends may not be accurate or reliable (Archer et al., 2014; Groves et al., 2021; O'Connell et al., 2022; Vernon & Drane, 2021). These students also typically have less access to personal and vocational support outside of school (Yao et al., 2015). These studies contend that career advisors can facilitate the employment process for at-risk students who lack social capital[8] by involving employers and tertiary education providers in school education programmes (O'Connell et al., 2022). Career advisors who support at-risk students must frequently contact and encourage them and their families to communicate with them and other school staff members. Career advisors are able to support them and enable them to see that they too can attend university or a polytechnic (Webber et al., 2018). Students in Webber et al.'s (2018) study highlighted the need for individual meetings with career advisors to enable them to choose the right subjects or start a new pathway.

Other studies have argued that disparities between local students and those from an immigrant or minority background are the result of school career advisors and teachers

[8] According to Putnam (1993), social capital can be described as the moral resources of a community, which can be divided into three categories: trust, social norms; social networks involving citizens' activities, especially voluntary organizations (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016).

stereotyping the latter group of students (Camara 2013; Shizha et al., 2020; Wilson-Forsberg et al., 2020). For example, Wilson-Forsberg et al. (2020) have shown that immigrant African students are often overlooked or their abilities to study certain subjects that lead to university education are underrated by the schools. Immigrant students are widely thought to be unsuitable for university education and, as a result, are encouraged to enrol in colleges or trade schools that provide pathways into low paying jobs. To improve school performance for all students, especially immigrants who are identified as 'at-risk' or underachieving, Shizha et al. (2020) have suggested that school career advisors should be prepared and trained to serve as cultural brokers, social justice leaders, and agents of change within the school system.

In Aotearoa New Zealand, several studies conducted on cultural responsiveness among educators, including those who work as careers advisors (Karaka-Clarke et al., 2021; Smith et al. 2020; Williams et al., 2019) . These studies stressed that educators who are culturally responsive in the educational setting are those who recognise, respect, and integrate the cultural values, beliefs, and practices of their students. These educators also acknowledge the diverse cultural backgrounds of their students and take into account their knowledge, language, and cultural practices throughout the learning process. In addition, they integrate a range of perspectives and experiences into the curriculum, teaching methods, and classroom interactions to establish an environment that is both supportive and inclusive. This approach is particularly relevant in the context of careers education. Reid (2010) argued that if students were to receive careers advice from cultural responsive advisors who share their cultural backgrounds, they would be more likely to receive effective support and experience a successful transition from school-to-work. Cultural responsive careers advisors possess an understanding of individual needs and challenges, enabling them to provide tailored guidance and support based on the cultural context of their students. Furthermore, these advisors

collaborate with families and communities to encourage their involvement in the careers exploration and decision-making processes.

School Leaders and Subject Teachers

According to Trends in Careers Education 2021 (Careers and Enterprise Company, 2021), careers advisers are no longer the only professionals who can help students explore their futures. Students can seek career advice from school staff members, including school leaders and subject teachers. In Aotearoa New Zealand careers education is a part of all classes and does not only depend on a career advisor or a particular department (ERO, 2015).

The MOE's careers guidelines provide advice about careers education: "Principals and senior managers make sure that the school develops and reviews appropriate policies and programmes. This leadership role is a crucial element of effective career education and guidance in schools" (p. 28). According to this document, the leader has a number of responsibilities which include: integrating careers education into strategic planning, supporting the careers education team and leaders, valuing and engaging the entire community in careers education, ensuring that parents are involved in their child's careers education, ensuring that the teachers who provide careers education have the necessary knowledge and skills to guide students, allocating and administering funds in order to meet the student's career education needs, and assessing the effectiveness of the programmes in relation to the MOE's policies such as the National Administration Guidelines (MoE, 2009).

Various studies have highlighted the significant role of school leaders in the school-to-work transition (ERO, 2015; Furbish & Reid, 2013; Schaefer & Rivera, 2014). Studies have shown that students who are enrolled in schools with effective leadership are usually more satisfied with their choices (Hutchinson, 2015, 2018). In study of five private schools in the UK, Hutchinson (2018) examines how school leaders can positively influence careers education, career resources (such as connections to employers and career fairs), parental

involvement with careers education, and students' academic achievement. Houghton's (2020) research also points to the relationship between school leaders and career advisors; it showed that change in the leadership team could negatively influence a career advisor's job. Magee et al. (2022) assert that, in some cases, a lack of leadership can be beneficial; careers staff are free to implement careers education in their own manner. These findings indicate the importance of establishing and embedding careers leadership at a senior level to protect the role from change and conflict (Andrews & Hooley, 2019).

A number of scholars have noted that subject or mainstream teachers are commonly viewed as influential staff in the school-to-work transition (Hooley et al., 2015; Welde et al., 2015). In the U.K for instance, the role of teachers in career conversations is significant. It is common for subject teachers (e.g., math, science, and English) to make links between their subjects and the world of work (Trends in Careers Education, 2021). Subject teachers often build a strong bond of trust with their students, mentor them, plan learning activities based on their interests, and facilitate opportunities to build teamwork and leadership competencies (Hooley et al, 2015; Nugent et al., 2014). Boyd (2006) has argued that these practices enable students to feel connected to school, help them to acquire qualifications, and make plans for their future. Furthermore, the author has suggested that subject teachers can act as "careers and course brokers" and support students in the school-to-work transition by providing information, tailoring the materials to student interests, and integrating them into the curriculum. These teachers provide opportunities through the curriculum for students to develop employability skills; teachers help students establish connections between the subject and career learning in the context of the broader curriculum (Hooley et al., 2015). They can also facilitate opportunities for students to gain "real-life" experience in a variety of careers. Vernon and Drane (2020) contend that teachers should interact more with students and include them in careers education as it can provide the necessary experiences, resources, and

networks to enable low SES students to pursue their educational and career goals. However, teachers do not normally have relevant qualifications and information about how to support students in terms of career guidance (Schloss, 2011). For these reasons, it is recommended that teachers work hand-in-hand with career advisors. In this respect, Furbish and Reid (2013) suggest methods for efficient career guidance: collaboration between the subject teachers and careers advisors, and having advisors provide support by delivering career topics in the classroom.

Career advisors could benefit from collaborative networks and be able to provide more effective guidance to students especially who are at-risk of unsuccessful school-to-work transition. In 2014, New Zealand introduced Communities of Learning | Kāhui Ako (CoLs) as part of the Investing in Educational Success has been started. This initiative aimed to raise educational achievement by improving teaching and learning through collaboration. Kāhui Ako is a network of educational and training providers, which have joined together to support students' educational pathways and help them achieve their full potential (ERO, 2016a; MoE, 2022). According to studies, the model aims to facilitate collaborative inquiry and knowledge sharing among school members in order to facilitate the sharing of challenges and goals, as well as to enhance teaching practice and leadership skills (Dibben & Youngs, 2022).

Employers' Engagement with Careers Education

Getting students involved in workplaces is an important aspect of Aotearoa New Zealand's careers education (MoE, 2009; OECD 2021). Both schools and students have highlighted the importance of employer engagement as a tool which enables students to become familiar with the world of work (Dodd et al., 2022; Waller et al., 2014). As Mann et al. (2018) note:

> Employer engagement in education to enhance young people's understanding of jobs and careers, broadening and raising career aspirations and understanding of personal routes into different occupations (and the

> realism of such career ambitions), enabling young people to better navigate progression through education, informing decision-making on what to study, where to study, and how hard to study – improving understanding of the purposes of education and qualifications (p. 37)

Schools use employer engagement to help young people achieve related goals such as enhancing their knowledge and understanding of particular jobs and careers, expanding their professional networks, equipping them with the necessary skills and knowledge, and preparing them for a successful school-to-work transition (OECD, 2010; Kashefpakdel & Percy, 2017). Through employer engagement programmes, students have an opportunity to understand the relevance of various school subjects to different types of jobs. These experiences may also give them a broader overview of life after school (Mann & Dawkins, 2014; Mann et al., 2018). In short, participating in such experiences enables students to make connections between their academic work and their future careers (Jones et al., 2016). Interactions with employers enable students to develop their careers competence (Kuijpers et al., 2011) and positively develop confidence about their future job (Kashefpakdel & Percy, 2017; Mann & Dawkins, 2014; Mann et al., 2018).

Employer engagement enables schools and students to gain relevant, reliable, and new information. Having access to accurate, updated, reliable, and abundant information can help students to have a better understanding of specific workplaces and industries/careers and consequently, make better, more informed, career decisions (Beck et al., 2006; Mann & Percy, 2014). In Adams' (2008) study, a large percentage of Scottish employers agreed that activities such as job shadowing would provide students with greater insight into careers and actual work environments. Furthermore, this information may help students overcome assumptions or misbeliefs that may be rooted in gender or cultural stereotypes about future employment (Education & Employers, 2020; Irwin, 2020).

Another positive aspect of work experience is that students are able to establish networks with adults outside of their immediate family and group of friends (Irwin, 2020; Mann & Percy, 2014). Mann and Percy (2014) have claimed that for students who are in the process of transiting from school-to-work, social networks provided by a school-employer contact may be more influential than informal channels. According to FYA (2018) and Torri (2018), work experiences can contribute to the development of social networks. Such activities are more beneficial for youth from low socioeconomic backgrounds as they are able to develop enterprise skills and gain experience relevant paid employment. Moreover, students from low socioeconomic areas without enterprise skills or work experience are able to enter the workforce at a similar, or even faster, pace than their counterparts from high socioeconomic backgrounds.

There are different ways in which students can become gain knowledge or experience of working for different employers and businesses. Approaches include participating in career talks[9], attending a careers fair, careers mentoring[10],through a workplace visit, experiencing careers shadowing[11], work placements, internships, and part-time jobs (Hughes et al., 2016; Quinter & Edwards, 2011; Musset & Mytna Kurekova, 2018). Any of these career activities can positively influence a student's future earnings (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2005; Kashefpakdel & Percy, 2017; Kemple & Willner, 2008). For example, it has been found that career talks are cost effective; they have long-lasting positive effects (Kashefpakdel and Percy, 2017; Larson, 2018). In countries such as Norway and the UK, students and teachers find workplace visits and job shadowing valuable experiences.

[9] In career talks, professionals from different business sectors talk to students about their professions.

[10] Mentoring support from people in different professions.

[11] Career observation or job-shadowing helps young people learn more about a particular career. Students usually work for short periods of time – no more than three days – observing the workplace and the tasks performed (Hughes et al., 2016).

As Kashefpakdel and Percy (2017) found, young people who engage with employers, even for a very short period while they are still in school, earn more in the future. Mann and Percy (2014) have shown that students who have work experience or have been in contact with employers or agencies at school have up to 18 percent higher incomes in the future. Students who interact with employers not only typically have better employment outcomes but also, better educational outcomes. They also make better career decisions. Having work experience specifically related to school courses may encourage students to undertake tertiary education instead of working after they graduate from school. Beck et al. (2006) have noted that young people tend to continue in educational pathways rather than working after leaving school because: "for them, the educational route [is] perceived as less risky than work-based alternatives" (p. 287). Work experience while at school may also lead to higher academic attainment (Mann & Dawkins, 2014). In the same vein, Huddleston et al., (2012) found that work experience was an influential and essential part of university admission. However, some have argued that employment engagement may encourage students to pursue other pathways rather than university and higher education. Students who complete a work placement are more likely to do an apprenticeship than finish their schooling (Fitzenberger et al., 2020; Goux et al., 2017).

Research has shown that in some countries (for example, the UK and Aotearoa New Zealand) employer engagement with secondary schools is not always effective. A considerable number of employers reported a range of barriers in supporting career-related activities. The UK Commission for Employment and Skills (2015) examined these barriers from employers, school careers advisors, and the students' perspectives. In various interviews, employers raised concerns about a lack of clarity about the school's needs and available support from the educators. Participants also mentioned the relationship between employers and schools as one of the barriers to establishing an effective employer

engagement programme. Researchers have also shown that students' aspirations, interests, academic plans, and experiences do not always align with the offered job experiences, as there are typically limited jobs available (Waller et al., 2014).

Employers might be more likely to engage in career guidance if they had a better understanding of how they can be useful in a particular local context. Employer unions could be engaged in such tasks (Musset & Mytna Kurekova, 2018). They also need to be informed about the direct benefits associated with engaging in career education. Governments and policymakers could develop a toolkit for employers (e.g., an internship or job shadowing action plan) to help employers understand how best to host students (Larson, 2018). In some countries, like South Korea, Canada, Saudi Arabia and Qatar, governments offer awards for business that provide workplace learning support to school (Solberg & Borbely-Pecze, 2015). In Aotearoa New Zealand, there are two major advocacy organisations that work with businesses and the government to engage employers in career education. However, the majority of employers in this country do not participate in school careers education. Borbely-Pecze and Solberg (2015) have argued that companies in this country have human resource challenges which prevent them from implementing internship programmes.

Although school leaders understand the positive impact of employer partnerships on students' motivation and performance, only a few schools are able to build effective partnerships with employers (Deloitte, 2010). Some participants noted school leaders' reluctance to involve employers. For some school leaders, exam results are more important: "non-examined" areas such as work experience or gaining transferable skills, are not considered priorities. Moreover, school leaders often do not have the capacity to establish relationships with employers (Deloitte, 2010). School leaders and educators have also noted that they are not familiar with the world of employment outside of the school and do not understand "employer's needs, operations, and capabilities" (UK Commission for

Employment and Skills, 2015, p. 21). In addition to struggling to understand the labour market dynamic and career demands, they also do not understand the importance of these opportunities for students and how such these opportunities will help them to develop their skills (Howieson et al., 2012). In the New Zealand context, Hipkins and Vaughan (2019) have noted that school leaders also have to contend with time constraints associated with the school timetable. This finding is echoed in Australian research which found that a lack of time and human resources are the most common reasons for schools not expanding their engagement with employers (Rothman, 2019). In short, it is not always possible to include work experience sessions due to the nature of school timetables. Furthermore, schools must inspect work placement environments to ensure compliance with health and safety regulations; such an activity may not be possible due to time constraints (Musset & Mytna Kurekova, 2018).

While many young people have reported that their parents play a significant role in influencing their career paths, studies have found that their parents are often unable to provide comprehensive advice because they do not understand alternative pathways into careers (O'Connell, 2022; Vernon & Drane, 2020). Parents are not normally adequately informed about all the options available for their children and do not realise the diversity of careers in different sectors. Moreover, they do not understand the relationship between schooling and career development. There are often few opportunities for parents and children to observe and experience various jobs, particularly in fields that are more technical, technological, and scientific. In addition, parents tend to hold academic bias in regard to work experience. Parents are less likely to encourage their students into part-time jobs or vocational career paths. However, employers can enhance the opportunities and mitigate this parental bias by providing different perspectives about the workplace (Musset et al., 2018). In

this way, employers are able to show parents the importance of work experience in order to provide their children with a realistic alternative to their career goals.

Youth Guarantee and Gateway are two New Zealand careers schemes that support students in choosing their career pathways. Youth Guarantee is a programme which provides young people aged between 16 and 19 years of age a chance to develop their skills through vocational pathways, courses, and training sessions provided by industrial and educational sectors (Youth Guarantee, 2020). This programme establishes relationships between employers, educators, and learners. It provides students with opportunities to gain skills and knowledge valuable to employers and tertiary education (MoE, 2018). In particular, Youth Guarantee aims to facilitate a successful transition from school for at-risk students (Irwin, 2020). Gateway is an initiative which focuses more on structured workplace learning as part of a student's senior programme of study. Gateway programmes help students to gain experience in different industries and businesses, as well as achieve NCEA credits.

Career Theories

In this final section, I will explore some career education theories found in the literature. These theories offer valuable insights into the complex dynamics of the school-to-work transition. By examining these theoretical frameworks, an analytical lens is provided through which the experiences of immigrant students can be understood, potential challenges and barriers they encounter can be identified, and strategies to enhance their successful transition-to-work can be uncovered. By delving into the extensive body of research on career education models, a deeper understanding is sought, and practical implications for supporting immigrant students in their pursuit of meaningful and rewarding career pathways are discussed.

Social Constructionism

Social constructionism is a theoretical perspective that places emphasis on the influence of social interaction and language in shaping our understanding of reality (see page 77 chapter four for further details). It suggests that our knowledge, meanings, and concepts are socially constructed through shared interpretations and collective agreements within specific cultural or social contexts, rather than being objective or absolute (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Taylor et al., 2015). According to social constructionism, reality is not fixed or predetermined, but is actively created and maintained through social processes and interactions.

Social constructionism as a theoretical framework has significant implications in the study of careers, particularly in terms of how we perceive and examine 'career'. Adopting a social constructionist perspective emphasises that career is perceived as a socially constructed process that reflects an individual's interactions with others. As such, assumptions about what constitutes career paths and acceptable career behaviour are influenced by these social dynamics. Social constructionism highlights also the contextual nature of careers. It emphasises that career meanings and actions are influenced by social, cultural, and historical contexts (Blustein, 2013; Savickas, 2013). This perspective encourages an understanding of careers as socially situated and shaped by broader social structures and norms. These aspects also prompt research to inquire about power dynamics and ideologies in the interpretation and implementation of careers, such as why certain types of careers are considered legitimate and esteemed, while others are marginalized or disregarded (Savickas, 2013).

A social constructionist perspective offers unique insights into aspects of career that may be overlooked by other career theories. This perspective allows for the exploration of dimensions of career that are often overshadowed by more positivistic approaches, thereby providing a broader and more comprehensive understanding of the subject. Social

constructionists have urged career theorists to focus on the diverse interpretations of actions across cultures and the variations of these meanings within cultures (Cohen et al, 2004). They argue that career theory has been predominantly focused on stability, security, and maintaining a singular notion of reality, thereby neglecting the complexities and fluidity of career experiences.

Social cognitive career theory

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) is another theoretical framework that is influenced by social cognitive theory, cognitive psychology, and career development research. This framework explains how individuals develop their career interests, make career-related decisions, and develop their career skills (Lent et al., 1994). It highlights the role of three key elements: Self efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and personal goals (Lent & Brown, 1996; Lent et al., 1994). Career self-efficacy refers to how confident individuals feel about doing different career-related tasks like finding a job, networking, and interviewing. These beliefs change over time and are influenced by different areas of performance and the environment around them (Betz, 2007; Lent et al., 2017). Career self-efficacy plays a crucial role in driving individuals towards their career goals. As individuals starting their careers often have limited work experience, their self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by other sources such as education, access to information, and learning from others (Brown & Lent, 2013).

Another elements of the SCCT is outcome expectations which refer to an individual's beliefs about the outcomes of performing specific tasks or actions. These beliefs can be related to various aspects, such as financial rewards, social approval from others (approval or recognition from others), or self-evaluative (personal satisfaction or fulfillment) (Lent et al., 1994). Each of these anticipated outcomes can impact an individual's career behaviors. Outcome expectations play a significant role in shaping young people's occupational interests

and career development (Johnson & Mortimer, 2011; Krahn & Galambos, 2014). The anticipated outcomes associated with different career paths or tasks can influence a person's level of interest in pursuing those careers.

Goal formation refers to the process by which students develop and establish specific targets related to their career development. Students' career goals are influenced by their values, interests, and aspirations. In another word personal values play a guiding role in shaping the direction and focus of an individual's career choices and actions (Burga et al, 2020; Walker & Tracey, 2012). SCCT also emphasises that individuals' career choices are influenced by environmental influences, such as social and cultural contexts. As such, the expectations can be changed because values and priorities are constantly changing. (Arnett, 2014 ; Spurk et al., 2019). Also, the support previously provided by theeducation system, family, network of friends etc. diminish over time, requiring individuals to take more responsibility for their career decisions and actions.

Social Capital Theory

Social capital theory is a sociological idea that centres around the significance and advantages individuals or groups gain from their social networks and relationships (Dubos, 2017). When applied to school-to-work transition, social capital theory offers valuable insights into how young people utilise their connections and resources while navigating this transition. Researchers have argued that social capital frameworks demonstrate positive connections between social capital and young people's educational outcomes, such as academic achievements (Varga & Zaff, 2018), as well as their ability to secure their initial employment opportunities (Chang et al., 2010; Scales et al., 2020).

Social capital’s not equally distributed among all individuals. Research indicates that young adults from minority background face challenges in their transition from school-to-work in terms of accessing postsecondary education and employment opportunities due to

factors such as implicit bias, employer discrimination, and limited access to higher education (Hossain & Bloom, 2015; Levy et al., 2016). Schools play a vital role in offering social resources that assist young people in their school-to-work transition. As mentioned earlier, schools can help students discover potential work experiences and establish connections with employers. However, barriers like language and cultural differences can impede the impact of schools on the range of opportunities available to immigrant youth. This challenge also extends to immigrant parents who may lack a strong network of contacts, including knowledge of potential employers, especially upon their arrival. Consequently, these parents may struggle to establish social capital to provide guidance to their children (Müller & Schneider, 2013).

Peers serve as another form of social capital that has been identified in the body of research. Evidence shows that positive peer relationships and strong peer networks are associated with academic achievement (Berthelon et al., 2019) and a successful school-to-work transition (Ruschoff et al., 2018). In their study, Boat et al. (2022) showed that peer social capital may not directly enhance the successful school-to-work transition, but it has an impact on students' self-efficacy and confidence. They also discuss the role of peers as mentors, which can lead to positive social-emotional well-being, favourable career outcomes, and academic achievement.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed the policy and research on careers' advice, provided by professionals and others, both internationally and in Aotearoa New Zealand. The chapter has explained recent studies on components of careers education and what needs to be included to ensure that young people have the necessary skills for their working lives. The literature identifies the role of different contributors in schools, including career advisors, school leaders, and teachers and how each of them can each influence the school-to-work transition.

This chapter has also examined the role of parents, peers, and extended family in supporting and influencing students' career pathways. The chapter has discussed the impact of work experience and employers and their involvement in careers education. This section has also examined the barriers schools face in engaging employers in careers education. Finally, this chapter look at three careers education theories including social constructionism, social cognitive career theory (SCCT), and social capital theory.

Chapter Four: Methodology

Introduction

This chapter outlines the study's methodology and provides a description of the decisions made in order to minimising factors that may compromise research rigour. It offers a detailed discussion of the study's design and explains how the study was conducted. The first part of the chapter presents the methodology, the source of the data, and my approach to the interpretation and analysis of that data. The final section of the chapter presents the steps taken to the study's trustworthiness and the ethical processes and practices used in this work.

Study Design

There are wide range of approaches that researchers can use when conducting a social science inquiry. Crotty (1998) has argued that the choice of approach depends on the researcher's world view. Researchers thus need to have a clear understanding of their philosophical position and how it will guide their study (Taylor et al., 2015). They should identify and explain philosophical assumptions about the nature of the truth and unravel how they understand these in relation to their work (Crotty, 1998). There are three fundamental philosophical building blocks. These dimensions, which are situated at three different levels, are ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Mertens, 1998; Morgan, 1996).

Ontology, the first dimension, refers to the theory of existence (Cohen et al., 2018). It considers the nature of existence and the structure of reality (Crotty, 1998). Among ontological perspectives, 'relativists' hold the view that there is no objective reality and that it is relative to our interpretation, and social constructs. Even though the world clearly exists, I believe that 'the world of meanings' does not exist independently of the human mind. Our view of the world is shaped by people, culture, and our social frame (Crotty, 1998; King & Horrocks, 2010; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Due to the nature of the study, I chose to adopt a

relativist ontological perspective. More specifically, I examine the role different individuals including parents, career advisors, and teachers play in an immigrant's school-to-work transition. Thus, a relativist ontological perspective was well suited to this study.

While ontology seeks to answer the question of what reality is, epistemology focuses on how we come to know what we know (Davidson & Tolich, 2003). Epistemology asks about the nature of the knowledge and the relationship between the inquirer and the object of inquiry (Mertens, 1998). There are different views about the nature of knowledge which are contained under the theory of epistemology. There are different aspects of epistemology such as positivism and constructionism (Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Constructionism assumes that social realities are constructed and that an individual cannot be reduced to variables or measures (Taylor et al., 2015). This study takes a social constructionist approach. I believe that there are no fixed, single, agreed upon, or measurable elements of reality and that truth cannot be discovered; instead, it is constructed through social interactions (Creswell, 2007; Crotty, 1998; Merriam & Grenier, 2019).

Qualitative and quantitative inquiries reflect different research paradigms and a researcher's philosophical position. In a quantitative study, a researcher discovers realities by using data collection tools and analysis methods which stress 'objective' measurements, often involving numbers and percentages (Creswell, 2018; King & Horrocks, 2010). By contrast, the qualitative research method seeks to explore individual experiences and the meanings constructed through social interactions. Taylor et al. (2015) have argued that qualitative studies are interested in individuals' histories and backgrounds and that their approach tends to be more holistic. They argue that people cannot be reduced to variables and statistics and that their perspectives are equally important. A qualitative researcher is concerned with the meanings participants attach to their lives; thus, s/he attempts to understand settings or

phenomena by probing participants' experiences. This study uses qualitative methods to understand the school-to-work transition through parents' and career advisors' eyes.

In order to frame my qualitative study, I borrow elements from interpretivism. Interpretivism, encompassed within constructionism, emphasises understanding the constructed realities through interpretation (Crotty, 1998; Mertens, 1998). In interpretivism, the research cannot be considered independent of the researcher's values (Mertens, 1998). In short, the researcher influences the study's findings: the findings are co-created through the interactions between the researcher and the participants' construction (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Mertens, 1998). This process is an evolving one which can be affected by the environment, history, and culture of the researcher and participants (Crotty, 1998).

Phenomenology is a concept that researchers use to understand an individual's 'lived experience' of a social or a psychological phenomenon. It explores how people experience the world, interpret it, and create meanings based on their experiences (Adams & van Manen, 2008; Crotty, 1998; Merriam & Grenier, 2019). The phenomenological approach focuses on unfolding participants' experiences in the present moment. It is interested in commonalities or common experiences among a group of people (Adams & van Manen, 2008). The two main approaches adopted in phenomenological studies are descriptive phenomenology and the interpretative phenomenological approach (IPA). As its name suggests, descriptive phenomenology describes a phenomenon without interpreting or explaining it (Giorgi, 2009; Giorgi et al., 2017).

Eatough and Smith (2017) have challenged descriptive phenomenology due to the active nature of the research process. They argue that the researcher's role cannot be overlooked in a phenomenological inquiry, since without the researcher interpretation, analysis is impossible. IPA contends that knowledge can only be derived through interpretation, both on the part of the researcher and the participant/s (Smith, 2010). While

descriptive phenomenology describes a phenomenon, IPA interprets it. A third school of thought brings these two approaches together. This study mainly subscribes to IPA, because it enables me to understand the participants' stories and experiences, by moving from presuppositions to interpretations and back. In other words, IPA allows me to use my personal experience of an immigrant parent to interpret and explore.

As the final element of qualitative research design, the research methods explain the means and strategies for data collection. Methods include the sampling and recruitment process, the means of generating the data, and how the data will be analysed (Crotty, 1998). In the following section, I explain the data generation process. I also explain the problems I encountered at each stage of the process and how I resolved these. Figure 3.1 summarises my philosophical approaches and the principal method used in this study.

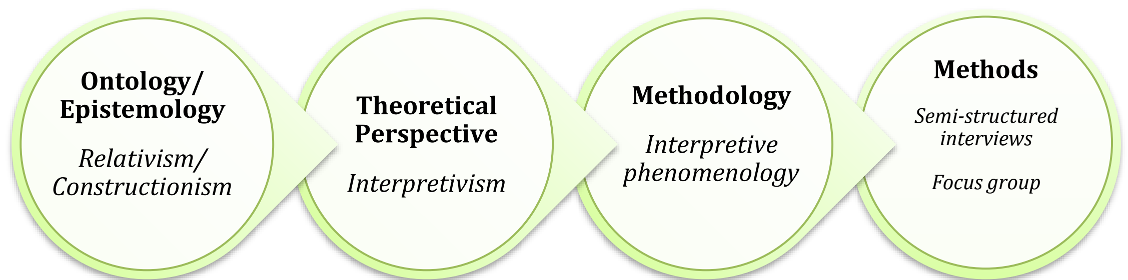


Figure 3.1. Study Design

Recruitment of Participants

The aim of this phenomenological study is to gain a deeper understanding of the selected participants' experiences. In this study, I interviewed two different groups: immigrant parents and career advisors. I used purposive sampling in this study, which means that I relied upon my own judgment when choosing participants for the study (Etikan et al., 2016). I also used

maximum variation sampling (heterogeneity sampling), a technique which involves selecting samples from a small number of cases with wide variety. Using this technique enabled me to generate data from diverse points of view. Patton (2002) has discussed the importance of this strategy arguing that for qualitative studies it provides high-quality, detailed findings, particularly in those studies which include a small number of participants. As recommended, in so far as it was possible, I also took into account different sampling elements, such as the participant's age, gender, and ethnicity.

The first group of participants were immigrant parents. To ensure effective sampling, I first needed to establish the sampling criteria by answering these questions: "Who is a parent?", "Who is an immigrant student?", and "Parents of what age or school-level child?" Moreover, as I was investigating recent immigrants, I needed to choose a maximum length of stay. As per the New Zealand Law Commission (2005), the definition of a parent includes individuals who have a biological or legal affiliation with a child. Acknowledging that parenthood can extend beyond biological connections, in this study I focus on the legal relationship when identifying parents. To ensure participant selection, individuals were asked before the interviews if they have legal responsibility for their children's education and if the school communicates with them in their capacity as parents. It is important to highlight that in all cases, the parents were both legally and biologically connected to their children.

Identifying an 'immigrant' was not straight-forward; different government documents and resources have different definitions of who an immigrant is. For example, according to the MoE, there is no clear definition of an immigrant student; they are categorised as either a domestic student or an international student:

> A student who is not a New Zealand citizen is treated either as a domestic student or an international student depending on the documents they hold giving them the right to reside in New Zealand. Although they may be from

> overseas, they may have the same eligibility as a New Zealand citizen, and they may be classed as a domestic student. (Hampshire, 2017, p. 3)

According to the MoE guidelines, any student who was born in another country (and/or for whom English is not a first language), and is in a minor ethnicity, could still be considered a 'domestic student'. In this case, it becomes impossible to define who an 'immigrant student' is. The StatsNZ (2017) definition is closer to my working definition of an immigrant since it determines an immigrants' status based on their travel sequences over a sixteen-month period. Immigrant status is assigned to travellers who have observed a change in residency status after a sixteen-month travel history has been established.

Another complexity I encountered in defining the term 'immigrant' was various individual's understanding of this term. Refugees, asylum seekers, and work visa holders can all be considered immigrants; they have all migrated from their home country to New Zealand, though for different reasons (Pastoor, 2015). For example, refugees are at risk of harm in their home country and seek protection in any safe country, such as Aotearoa New Zealand. Some of them do not come directly to New Zealand but via a resettlement programme. Asylum seekers come to New Zealand with either a visitor's visa or a work visa and, once they have arrived in the country, lodge a refugee claim. Furthermore, refugees and asylum seekers can sponsor family members to come to New Zealand (MBIE, 2019b). Work visa holders and economic migrants are granted entry to the country as a result of having particular work skills; however, work status can be transferred to immigrant or asylum seeker status based on the applicant's request (MBIE, 2019a).

In this study, I initially limited the choice of participants to immigrants, excluding refugees, asylum seekers, and work visa holders, as I was searching for a specific group of informants who moved to New Zealand under resident visas. I thus conflated immigrant status with having a resident visa. However, during the recruitment and interview processes, I

found that participants, career advisors, and parents alike, had different views about who constituted an ‘immigrant’ or who should be considered an ‘immigrant’. They defined an ‘immigrant’ as any person who had moved to another country, either permanently or with the intention of remaining permanently. Therefore, in this study I included individuals who saw themselves as an immigrant.

Another criteria for selecting my participants related to the student’s level of school enrollment. Any student who has a National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) can be legally employed according to their qualification. NCEA is recognised by employers in New Zealand. Students who are at levels two or three of NCEA have typically interacted with career advisors (MoE, 2009) as they are nearing the age where they will pursue further education or enter the workforce. Thus, I recruited parents who had children studying at NCEA levels two or three.

The last criteria I considered was the parents’ length of stay. As Beicht and Walden (2017) have argued, the less time the immigrants have spent in the country, the higher the risks in terms of employability. Thus, I looked at the group of immigrant parents and students who are most vulnerable to employability and settlement challenges. According to Immigration New Zealand, recent migrants are those who have lived in New Zealand for five years or less (MBIE, 2020). Therefore, I chose participants from parents of secondary school students who had been in New Zealand since 2015; five years prior to 2020 when I started recruiting participants.

In summary, I considered the following criteria when recruiting parents for this study:

1- They perceived themselves as an immigrant because they have an immigrant visa or intended to remain in Aotearoa New Zealand permanently;

2- They had at least one child completing NCEA at either level two or three.

3- They had moved to New Zealand within the chosen time period (and had lived in the country for five years or less).

Using these criteria I recruited 16 number of participants, including 13 women and three men. They were from different nationalities including Iran, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Afghanistan, Kenya, Philippines, Chile, and China. Demographic information for the parents is provided in Appendix G.

The second group of participants I recruited for interviews were secondary school career advisors. When I began working with career advisors in high schools, I realised that in addition career advisors, other staff in the career departments had experience in advising students. Thus, any school staff member who worked in this department was invited to participate. Another aspect that I considered when choosing career advisors to participate was the ethnic and cultural diversity of the schools they worked in. That is because I believed the schools with higher levels of ethical and cultural diversity would also have the highest number of immigrants. In this study, I used ERO reports from high schools to identify those schools in south island with the highest numbers of Asian students and those which had the greatest ethnic and cultural diversity in their student population. Initial attempts were made to recruit participants from these schools.

The number of participants could not be determined at the beginning of the study. According to Patton (2015), in qualitative study, there are no rules regarding appropriate sample size. However, factors such as the study's purpose, the methodology, participant availability, and time constraints may influence a study's sample size. Creswell (2007), Morse (2000), and Smith (2015), indicate that an adequate sample range for a phenomenological study is between six and 20 participants.

Recruitment Process. Recruiting participants was a multi-phase process. Different strategies were used for each group (parents and career advisors). For the purposive sampling

of parents, I used a variety of recruitment methods, including direct contact, snowballing, and advertising the study on specific communities' social media pages (Appendix L). The first group of parents who were recruited were members of my Iranian community. Some of these members were my friends. I contacted them directly. I explained the purpose of the study to the participants face-to-face and provided information about the types of interview questions I would ask. After they had verbally agreed to participate in the study, I emailed an information sheet and consent form to each participant to complete before the interview session. This part of the recruitment process was straightforward. As the participants knew me as a member of their community, building rapport was easy. However, I was aware that it could influence what I could ask and what they might answer.

The second approach I used to recruit parents was a snowballing technique in which research participants are asked to assist researchers in identifying other potential subjects (Taylor et al., 2015). I recruited parents using informal networks; through PhD peers and friends who worked at south island high schools. Finally, to recruit the desired number of parents, I advertised on social media community group pages. I initially advertised in the Iranian and Afghani Society Viber group chat rooms, the preferred platforms for each of these community. To increase the chance of a heterogeneous sample, I also advertised on other community pages in some other cities in north island, including on Chinese and Filipino social media platforms.

I used similar methods to recruit career advisors. My strategies included using "insider assistants," formal channels, and meeting with relevant people at academic conferences. Recruiting career advisors was not as easy as recruiting parents, primarily because I was an outside researcher and not a school staff member or part of the teaching community. For my first interview (the pilot interview), I used an "insider assistant", a term which refers to a person coming from, or working in, the chosen community (King &

Horrocks, 2010, p. 31). The insider assistant was one of my PhD colleagues. She worked in a high school and introduced me and my study to her colleagues in the career department. I then moved to more formal channels: I contacted various school principals via email. I explained my proposed study and asked for consent to recruit career advisors who worked at these schools. I advised those who were interested in participating to contact me via email or phone. Most school administrators and principals did not answer my email or follow-up with me after face-to-face contact. This approach was not effective and among 10 tries I was only able to recruit four participants. Previous studies have shown that recruiting participants in schools can be challenging as the researcher needs to find a relevant and appropriate contact person in the school and establish a relationship with them (Bartlett et al., 2017; Mishna et al., 2012). My third attempt to recruit career advisors was at a conference held in 2019. At this conference, I had the chance to introduce my study and explain the challenges I had experienced in recruiting career advisors. After my presentation, a high school staff member approached me and said she would speak to colleagues at her school. I was able to recruit two participants using this strategy. Appendix D provides more details about the career advisors and the school they come from.

Data Generation

I used a range of data generation techniques, including semi-structured interviews, participant and researcher diaries, a focus group, and informants' demographic information. Semi-structured interviews and focus group were my primary data sources. I integrated this data with my personal research journals.

In-depth, semi-structured interviews. Interviews are one of the most common tools to collect data. In a qualitative study, researchers may interview participants who have experienced the chosen phenomenon (Smith, 2015). Structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews can provide a rich source of data. Interviewing is an active process in

which the researcher collects a detailed description of individuals' experiences and meanings (Fontana & Frey, 2005; Ravitch & Carl, 2015). While in structured interviews the researcher controls the interview process, this type of interview poses limitations. For example, responses may remain ambiguous and some new and peculiar aspect of the interview may remain undiscovered: the participant does not have a chance to elaborate as the researcher has a set of questions they want to ask (Smith, 2015). Unstructured interviews are another tool which can be used to collect data and involve no pre-defined questions. In this case, the interview takes the form of a narrative (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Patton, 2002). The purpose of an unstructured interview is to gain deeper insight into a participant's life without prompting, and to assist the researcher in developing a better understanding of the participant's social reality from his or her perspective. Semi-structured interviews cover many aspects of both unstructured and structured interviews. In a semi-structured interview, the researcher guides, rather than dictates the interview process. They can ask additional questions to explore areas of interest. Compared to structured interviews, semi-structured interviews offer flexibility and allow for the development of rapport (Smith, 2015). A semi-structured interview is a social encounter in which a social construct between the participant and researcher may be made, shaping the information gained from the data collection procedure (Fontana & Frey, 2005; Rapely, 2004). Thus, the degree of structure may affect what data is generated. Considering my study's purpose and need to understand parents and careers advisors' experiences of the school-to-work transition, in-depth, I chose to use semi-structured interviews as they would provide opportunities to explore novel issues that might appear during the interviews. For example, the topic of racism was not included in any of my interview questions; however, some of the participants referred to racism during the interviews and I was thus able to explore how it might relate to the school-to-work transition.

Interview questions should focus the discussion around the research topic and cover any potential themes arising from background studies. To construct the interview questions, I drew upon Smith's (2015) techniques. Initially, I chose a broad range of topics based on findings from other studies. These included, for example, parental involvement with careers education or parent-school communication. I then decided on the sequence of the topics to address relevant areas. Finally, I developed potential sensitive topics to ensure the participants' comfort. Topics such as parental relationships with their children or recent challenges parents face with their children, were included in this section. In the next step, I developed further questions related to each topic and designed prompt questions to enable respondents to elaborate or provide further information. After completing each interview, I revised the interview questions to ensure that the generated data answered the research questions (Kallio et al., 2016). For example, after conducting interviews with parents from my own culture, I realised that they tended not to elaborate on their points about cultural issues as they thought I was aware of the particular issues they were speaking about. In the next round of interviews, I asked the participants to explain these terms and their understanding of the events from their point of view or how they would be interpreted in their culture.

Through the interviews, I wanted to understand parents' and career advisors' perceptions of the school-to-work transition among immigrant youth. For the parents, I used an interview schedule which had three main sections. (Appendix V). To provide an environment where participants felt relaxed enough to share his/her personal experience and views (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Taylor et al., 2015), I began by making general and broad inquiries, which included asking for the parents' sociodemographic information such as age, education, and cultural background as well as their personal/work commitments (Rapely, 2004; Taylor et al., 2015). The second section of the schedule asked about the challenges they

faced as an immigrant in New Zealand. I asked questions about their children and their overall experience of settling into a new country. I also asked the parents how they and their children dealt with the new education system and schools in New Zealand. I used a funneling strategy (Smith, 2015) to gain information from the parents about the school and their perceptions of career education and career advisors in New Zealand. In the last section, I investigated parents' understanding of their own and other actors' roles (such as career advisors) in influencing students' future careers.

Similar to the parent interviews, the career advisors' interviews included three main sections, starting with general questions followed by questions about their job and experience working with different types of students, and in particular, immigrants and their families. The final section of questions asked career advisors to consider their role in the school-to-work transition and what would improve their job or the support they are able to offer.

When collecting such data, as the researcher, I tried to be aware of my own thoughts, of asking non-leading questions, and never expressing my own experience or opinions (Rapely, 2004; Taylor et al., 2015). Rapport is also crucial for the participants to be able to provide a rich and detailed account of their experiences (McGrath et al., 2019). To build rapport and avoid participants feeling that the interview was a one-directional interaction, I started by asking general and innocuous questions such as "how was your day?", took notes, and made gestures to indicate that I understood, such as nodding my head. In some interviews, participants shared contrasting ideas and experiences. In cases such as these, I examined and cross-checked statements by asking questions in different ways and at different times, both directly and indirectly. During the interviews, some participants wandered off-topic and talked about irrelevant issues. To deal with this situation, I did not interrupt them, but instead smoothly drew their attention back to the interview question (McGrath et al., 2019; Taylor et al., 2015).

I conducted the interviews in a comfortable and private setting, away from any observers or listeners (Creswell, 2007). There were several reasons for this, including ethical considerations (e.g. participant's privacy) as well as comforting the participants and building rapport. The time, date, and place where I met with participants was agreed upon between us and the interviews were conducted in English (for the parents and career advisors) or Farsi (upon parents' requests). After receiving their permission, I audio recorded the participants' interviews. This practice enabled me to have more control over the interview and write details related to the participants' nonverbal reactions (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006; Smith, 2015). I used two digital voice recorders, one as the main recorder and another one as a backup. The quality of the recorded voice was checked before each session and after each interview.

Focus group interview. A focus group is a flexible, multipurpose method that can be used when a researcher wants to generate new ideas and understand how participants develop and elaborate their thoughts and experiences in a social framework (Ravitch & Carl, 2015). This method of research is typically used to generate conversations that uncover an individual's opinion regarding a particular issue. It can be used to reveal whether there is agreement among the group on the topic at hand (Cyr, 2015). I decided to conduct focus group interviews to explore some of the common and contrasting ideas from the individual interviews. After explaining the focus group process in the one-to-one interviews, parents were invited to participate in a focus group interview. Upon approval, I sent a focus group information sheet (Appendix J) to the participants, which provided details about the venue, the date, and time of the focus group, and a text reminder the day before the interview. Only three parents agreed to participate in the focus group. The focus group was limited to an hour to avoid participant frustration (Smith, 2015).

Choosing a venue that was convenient for all of the participants was challenging and different parameters were considered. As Wilkinson (2015) recommends, I chose a private and quiet place to ensure effective audio recording, and where there would be no pressure to finish within a particular timeframe. After considering a number of different options I booked a meeting room in a branch of the public libraries. The facility room was large enough to accommodate the group and fit video projectors, chairs, tables, and sofas. Chairs were set up in a semi-circular arrangement to encourage eye contact between the participants and to facilitate easy and effective recording (Wilkinson, 2015). I used a PowerPoint slide to provide information about the interview session and interview questions. I also provided paper and pens for taking notes.

I developed the focus group schedule based on the individual interviews. I began by welcoming the participants and providing a brief explanation of the study as well as the interview plan. The focus group included an 'ice-breaker', an informal question posed to establish rapport between the participants (Ravitch & Carl, 2015). The icebreaker consisted of questions about the participants' names and cultural backgrounds. To facilitate transcription, I used a recording sheet to identify the speakers. I also used verbal prompts, including the participants' names.

Data generation during the Covid-19 pandemic. The Covid-19 pandemic poses challenges for researchers and the data generating process. This study was no an exception and has been complicated by social distancing rules as well as prioritising the participants' and researcher's safety. Such factors made it difficult to collect qualitative data in person and via focus groups. I began the data generation process in October 2019 and conducted four interviews. Before March 2020, I completed four interviews in total; two with career advisors

and two with parents. At this time, Aotearoa New Zealand went into alert level four[12] lockdown. During this alert level, all public buildings, including universities and schools, were closed. People were advised to stay at home with their household members. These limitations delayed the data collection process as I had planned to conduct face-to-face interviews during this time. Upon the country's entry into alert level two in July 2022, I recommenced my interviews with participants. Although I recruited most of the parents before data collection, a few opted out of the interviews due to concerns related to their health and safety.

Studies recommend using online qualitative research tools in the Covid-19 era (Adom et al, 2020; Roberts et al., 2021; Vindrola-Padros et al., 2019). These studies state that there are no differences between the individual and online interviews in terms of rigour and the ethics of the reseach. However, in this study I chose not to use a virtual approach for a couple of reasons. Firstly, to do so would have required ethical approval. I had only received ethical approval to conduct face-to-face interviews, and obtaining another ethics approval would have caused further delays. During this time, due to all of the uncertainty surrounding Covid-19, and the fact that many people were now having to work from home and juggle work with childcare, all official processes were taking longer. A second reason was related to the ability to establish rapport using virtual tools. It has been argued that poor connectivity or dropped calls may negatively affect rapport (Seitz, 2019).

Online methods such as video chat also raise privacy concerns, as a researcher may be violating a participant's personal space, particularly if the participants do not have headphones or do not use a virtual background (Sy et al., 2020). This was very likely at that

[12] Between March 2020 and December 2021, during the early stages of the Covid-19 pandemic, a four-level restriction system was implemented in New Zealand, with levels three and four involving forms of public lockdown. The first level of the plan was devoid of restrictions; the second level contained restrictions on gatherings; the third level permitted only purposeful travel and imposed strict limitations on gatherings; and the fourth level prohibited all gatherings except those essential for life.

time since all members of the family were essentially confined to home, and I was uncertain whether they could manage privacy concerns. For these reasons, I decided to conduct the remainder of my interviews in person.

I conducted the focus group after I had completed the individual interviews. During that time period, there were still some limitations on people gathering together. Moreover, people were also cautious about gathering together because of social distancing rules. As a result, I was only able to recruit three participants for the focus group. I integrated the data collected in the focus group into the general narrative since it was insufficiently rich to be presented as a separate section.

Even after the country moved to alert level two, I was unable to recruit careers advisors immediately. Recruitment and interviewing for the careers advisors began six months after the first lockdown. Schools still had restrictions in place, making it difficult for outsiders to enter the school community. Furthermore, I realised that all school staff, including career advisors, had limited time because they had to deal with school matters once the schools reopened. During the interviews, the career advisor revealed that the students and families needed more time and counselling after the initial lockdown. As such they struggled to make time for the interview. In October 2021 I was finally able to resume career advisor interviews.

Supporting data sources. In addition to individual interviews and the focus group, the researcher's own personal research journal, participants' demographic information (Appendix K), and participants' journal were used as supporting sources of data. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) insist on the necessity of a research journal, as the researcher is close to the source of data and biased thought can affect the study's trustworthiness:

> Because you are so central to the data collection of the data and analysis, and because neither instruments nor machines nor carefully codified

> procedure exist, you must be extremely aware of your own relationship to the setting and of the evolution of the design and analysis. (p.123)

Although a research journal is typically used to promote rigor in a study, it can also be used as complementary source of data (Taylor et al., 2015). For example, informal conversations sometimes occurred before and after the interview that contained important information but which were not recorded; this data was recorded in my research journal during the debriefing. In this study, I used a research journal to record my ideas and reflections. It included notes and observations, as well as my feelings, problems, hunches, and impressions. This tool helped me to document initial interpretations and noticeable themes and enabled me to adopt an open position while balancing my own status as a friend, an immigrant, and a researcher.

The informants' demographic information forms were another complementary tool that helped me to gather data during the interviews. This form included information such as age, gender, ethnicity, employment, length of stay in New Zealand, number of children and qualifications. Although these questions could be asked verbally during the interview, having this information in a written form helped me to save interview time as well as document the data in an organised way. I used this information during the data analysis process: as Taylor et al. (2015) argue, sometimes there is a relationship between themes and demographic factors that may affect an informant's answers. Only the parents were asked to fill out a demographic information form because this information enabled me to get myself familiar with parents (see Appendix J). Careers advisors were not asked for demographic information. Rather, it was information about their professional life that I considered to be more useful for my analysis.

The participants' journals were intended to be a source of data at the beginning of the interviews. In this study, participants were provided with an A5 exercise book, and were asked to record any hunches, thoughts, feedback or questions about the interview and the

study. Although prior research indicates that this strategy can help participants to reflect upon their stories in case they do not completely answer the questions during the interview and need more time to think (Deacon, 2006), in my study none of the participants used this journal.

Transcribing and translating. Transcription is the final step of data generation process and occurs after the data has been collected. An interview script is not raw data, as it is already affected by the researcher's decisions (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). This is a crucial and inevitable part of qualitative research; different key decisions and strategies related to the employment of a transcriber (and their approach to transcription), the system of transcription to be employed, and level of detail should be contemplated (Frey, 2018; King & Horrocks, 2010). These decisions can significantly impact upon a study's reliability and rigour (Ravitch & Carl, 2015). In this study, there were three different aspects to consider in relation to the transcription: transcribing individual interviews (those conducted in English), transcribing material from the focus group, and transcribing and translating the interviews conducted in Farsi. For each of these categories, I used different strategies.

I initially transcribed the individual interviews. This process helped me to become familiar with the data and to reflect on the interviews. It also reminded me of some hunches that I had forgotten to record in my journal, and to identify some potential themes (Kowal & O'Connell, 2014; Langdridge & Hagger-Johnson, 2009). Phenomenological studies that deal with people's experiences and those that want to identify themes and the essence of a phenomenon, require word-by-word transcription. A verbatim transcript, can make the data analysis reliable and trustworthy (King & Horrocks, 2010). In any interview, people wander from the subject; some even forget to answer questions. Also, the grammar of speech is different from the grammar of writing (Stephani, 2013). Moreover, a participant's speech may have patterns that are shaped by long pauses or other occurrences that indicate

something important (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Thus, I initially employed verbatim strategies: assigning notations, pauses, emphasis in intonation, loud sounds, low sounds, and sometimes stresses (Brinkmann, 2014). After each interview I wrote my reflection of the interview in the journal. I notes points such as interviewers' first impression, some of their comments that were not recorded. For example when I finished the interview with one of the careers advisors and stop recording the interview, she suddenly talked about an important and relevant point. In that time I could not resume the recording, so when I get back to my car I wrote down her comments in my research journal. In the next step, transcriptions were completed using notes from the researcher's journal.

After transcribing a few interviews, I learnt that verbatim transcribing is a timely process: each one-hour interview took between six and eight hours to transcribe. This was also a draining physical exercise; it challenged my ability to retain focus and motivation. Due to financial constraints, it was not feasible to employ a professional transcriber. Thus, I relied on a more time and cost-effective strategy: selective transcribing (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006). I selected two interviews and developed initial codes and themes, then for the remainder of the interviews I transcribed only the parts I wanted to assign codes to or the quotes that I wanted to use in my reports. The method appears to be a satisfactory one in terms of saving time and money, but there is a risk associated with it. In this method, some parts of the data may be removed, based on the researcher's interpretation. McMullin (2021) and Packer (2017) have argued the researcher needs to consider particular ethical obligation to ensure that the study provides an accurate depiction of any participants' views. This practice could also negatively impact the study's rigour. In order to mitigate this risk, I listened to the recordings multiple times and I enlisted the assistance of a peer to review the process.

Transcribing a focus group interview into a simple and readable format presented another challenge. Voice recognition, poor recording, participants interrupting and speaking over each influenced the quality of the transcription. However, to avoid losing data and maintain accuracy, I asked peers to check ambiguous parts of the interview (Macnaghten & Myers, 2004). Transcribing the focus group verbatim was not a suitable approach as I could not capture all of the details. Instead, I listened to the conversations and only transcribed the areas of interest (King & Horrocks, 2010). These areas were the potential themes that emerged from the individual interviews.

Another aspect of the transcription phase was transcribing and translating the interviews conducted in Farsi; seven out of sixteen interviewees were Farsi speakers. Like transcription, translation can affect a study's trustworthiness and alter both the data and data analysis procedure (Tilley, 2003). In recent years, the number of cross-cultural qualitative studies has increased as data collection, analysis, and the presentation of findings can happen in different languages (Fersch, 2013; van Nes et al., 2010). Language, a crucial part of any qualitative study, provides a means to understand, transfer, and present peoples' thoughts, experiences, and understanding of an event/s (Hennink, 2008; Temple & Edwards, 2002). As Temple and Edwards (2002) have noted:

> Language is an important part of conceptualisation, incorporating values and beliefs, not just a tool or technical label for conveying concepts. It carries accumulated and particular cultural, social, and political meanings that cannot simply be read off through the process of translation, and organises and prepares the experience of its speakers. (p.3)

Translation is a form of interpretation. Translation adds another layer of interpretation and may involve extra explanation (Choi et al., 2012; Fersch, 2013; van Nes et al., 2010). For example, some expressions and slogans cannot be translated directly from one language to

another; the translator may need to provide more details. Sometimes it is impossible to find a 'conceptual equivalence' that can be understood with regards to the participants' cultural background (Choi et al., 2012; Liamputtong, 2010; Smith et al., 2008). In this study, I considered two aspects of translation: firstly, I am a non-English speaker (Farsi is my first language), but the interviews with school career advisors were to be conducted in English. I collected data and presented the findings in English which means two levels of translation occurred: from English to Farsi and from Farsi to English. Secondly, some of the Iranian and Afghani parents asked to be interviewed in Farsi. Although I had no concerns about translating English to Farsi when conducting the interviews with Farsi speakers, the findings still needed to be translated and presented in English.

Scholars have proposed different approaches for conducting cross-cultural studies. Smith et al. (2008), suggests recruiting an interpreter to simultaneously translate the questions and answers. However, having an interpreter may affect a study's rigour in different ways: For example, translating the interview questions may distract respondents as well as the interviewer and change the flow of the interview. The interpreter may also misunderstand or misinterpret a participant's response/s if s/he is not familiar with particular accents or dialects (Choi et al., 2012). Finally, participants may not feel comfortable sharing their experiences in front of an interpreter (Shklarov, 2007; Smith et al., 2008).

Another approach is to employ a professional translator to translate the transcripts after each interview (Shklarov, 2007). However, this approach also creates issues, as the translator has a significant influence on the interpretation and analysis process; as s/he is not involved in the interview, s/he may misunderstand or misinterpret words if he/she lacks knowledge of the participant's culture (Choi et al., 2012; Shklarov, 2007). The third approach recommends collecting data via a 'bicultural researcher', an individual who not only has knowledge of the participants' language, but also their culture. This approach is considered

more valid and reliable than the previous two (Choi et al., 2012; Liamputtong, 2010). In this study, I adopted the third approach. I consider myself a bicultural Farsi speaking researcher with a fair level of English knowledge. I have been living in New Zealand since 2016 and have lived and worked in other English-speaking language countries, including Singapore. Moreover, while living in English-speaking countries, I have been involved in Farsi language activities. I work as a Farsi interpreter and Farsi teacher in Christchurch and contribute to Iranian and Afghani community events that are in conducted in Farsi. For these reasons, I believe I have maintained connections to my own culture, while becoming familiar with the English language. Therefore, I was able to conduct the interviews with career advisors in English, and interview Farsi-speaking participants in Farsi.

I used Esfehani and Walters' (2018) timing model of translation to present the findings. According to this model, the best time to translate material is when the researcher develops codes and themes into his/her language and transfers them into English. Accordingly, all Farsi interviews were transcribed into Farsi. In the analysis phase, codes and themes were developed in Farsi, then translated and presented in English. As suggested by various scholars (Choi et al., 2012; Redmond, 2003), I asked one of my colleagues from Iran who had been raised in England to help me with the translation process; this colleague read some of the transcripts in Farsi and double-checked that the codes were relevant and meaningful. In the case of quoting participants directly, I only translated sentences or paragraphs that were linked to a code. I translated one or two Farsi transcriptions into English for supervisors and peers to check.

Making Sense of the Data

Data analysis involves deliberate, systematic, and constructed interpretations of data. Researchers interpret the data in light of the study's purpose, while simultaneously striving to reflect participants' experiences (Ravitch & Carl, 2015; Smith & Eatough, 2006). Bogdan

and Biklen (1998) have discussed two different approaches to analysing qualitative data: data analysis that happens after all of the data has been collected or analysing data from the start of the collection process. I analysed the data as I collected it as I believe that analysis is a continuous process that begins in the field and continues through into the writing stage. I gathered a lot of material at the start of the data collection process. There was a wide range of material in this data that was not necessarily related to my research objective. As such, I narrowed my focus as I went along to ensure that I obtained the data that I needed to understand the participants' experiences of the school-to-work transition. In an ongoing process like this one, the study question/s, methods, and approach to data collection can change (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998).

Depending on the methodological approach, data analysis may vary at some points. Thematic analysis is well-suited for experience-oriented research (such as this phenomenological study), since the focus is on the essence of lived experiences and exploring how meanings are constructed (King & Horrocks, 2010; Smith, 2015). Thematic analysis includes summarising, categorising, and reconstructing the data in a way that allows one to apprehend the essence of the phenomenon (Given, 2008). In terms of the thematic analysis, I followed Smith (2015) and King and Horrocks' (2010) guidelines as detailed below.

Analysis of interviews. For clarification of any ambiguities in the transcripts and to identify potential codes, I read and reread the transcripts several times. After completing the interviews and transcription process, the first step was to identify codes. I chose one transcript as a case study and highlighted any part of the transcript that could help me identify the participant's point of view, perception, or experience. I tried to find the relevance between the selected sections and the study's purpose. This process involved re-organising, merging, and clustering codes into categories. Once coding was complete, I read through the interview again to check if any code modification was needed.

After completing coding, I then identified codes that went beyond describing the relevant features of the participants' accounts (King & Horrocks, 2010). At this stage, and according to my epistemological point of view, I did not use any pre-defined or template codes; instead, I used an open coding strategy. At this level, my focus was to find meanings through interpreting the data. I investigated similarities, contrasts, and differences in the informants' interviews. Throughout the analysis, I documented initial emerging codes and themes, as well as the process by which they were developed and named (Taylor et al., 2015). To complete the process, I recorded hunches and ideas in my journal. This process continued until the entire transcript was coded. I then developed a table of codes. In the initial stages, I relied upon manual coding. However, I found digital coding software (in this case, NVIVO) to be a helpful platform with which to manage, organise, and code the large data set.

Identifying overarching themes involved merging and clustering of codes into potential themes, checking consistency between the codes and themes, finding connections between the themes and relating the emerged themes to the study's purpose. Initially, I created a preliminary table of themes before I developed and named clusters of themes that captured the essence of the participants' accounts. I also allocated an identifier to each theme to enable faster and easier follow-up. Smith and Shinebourne (2012) propose two different methods of analysis. When the number of samples is limited, each interview can be analysed separately from the beginning. For larger data sets, they recommend creating a table of themes, based on a selected case study. The researcher can then use that case study to navigate the analysis process. In the current study, I used the second approach. For the selected case study, I refined and regrouped the codes, sub-themes, and themes. At the end, and after checking whether the themes provided a good explanation of the data, I created a final concept map (Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3)

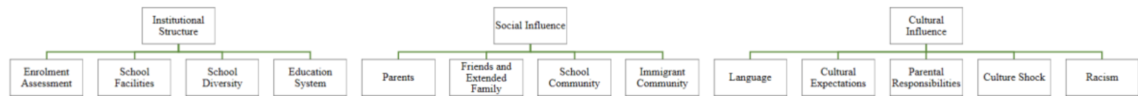


Figure 3.2. Parents' Data Concept Map

Figure 3.3. Careers Advisors' Data Concept Map

In this study, some participants had a completely different points of view about a particular issue. I considered these contradictions to be outliers or new findings (Ravitch & Carl, 2015). In other words, I did not try to fit them into the findings. For example, the data from career advisor and some parent interviews revealed that they have different definition of parental involvement in careers education.

Analytical memos. Writing analytical memos provided me with opportunities to think about what I had learned throughout the study Taylor et al. (2015) argue that this type of document can facilitate the data analysis process and provide a better understanding of both the influences of personal relationships in the setting and the lens through which the data is viewed. In this study, I usually wrote analytical memos on two or three sets of interviews and started them by reflecting on my study questions. The memo included an initial set of codes and themes, my reflections about the analysis process, ethical dilemmas that I had encountered during the interviews, and solutions for these. Each analytical memo concluded with a description of the next steps to be taken and refinements to my interview questions (Appendix C and D).

Writing up. The last stage of the analysis process involved transferring the final themes into a clear, meaningful, narrative statement in order to demonstrate the prevalence of certain themes within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Consequently, I used participant responses extracted from the transcripts to support the narrative argument. It is important to note that the writing process was not straightforward or linear. As an example, I had written the literature review chapters before generating the data. After completing the discussion chapter, I rewrote 80% of the literature review. The methodology and introduction chapters were also modified as I refined my study questions, data generation methods, recruitment process, and data analysis.

My Multiple Roles

Personal reflexivity refers to the researcher's cultural background, beliefs, identity, and experiences that might influence the study's outcomes. The researcher is the first research tool in a qualitative inquiry; however, his/her identity, social position, and role at every stage of the research can have a significant effect on the interpretation and analysis of the data (Ravitch & Carl, 2015). In this study, I critically reflected on my assumptions, worldview, biases, cultural background, and my relationship with my participants. I was also aware of the different roles that I occupied: as a researcher, an immigrant, a parent, and a friend of some of the participants.

In qualitative research, researchers acknowledge their multiple stances and reveal any pre-existing assumptions that could influence their judgements or interpretations of the research data (Greenbank, 2003; Taylor et al., 2015). In this regard, Dwyer and Buckle (2009) have argued that participant membership and the researcher's position as an insider or outsider could influence the data generation process. In this study, I held an insider position as I conducted this study with a population of which I am also a member (Tang, 2006). I have

an immigrant background. I share the same language and certain values and beliefs with some of the participants (those from Iran and Afghanistan). Being an insider researcher enabled me to gain acceptance from my participants which alleviated recruitment problems. As Dwyer and Buckle (2009) have noted:

> The benefit to being a member of the group one is studying is acceptance. One's membership automatically provides a level of trust and openness in your participants that would likely not have been present otherwise. (p. 58)

During the data generation process, I occupied numerous roles: I was a researcher, an experienced immigrant, a friend, and a parent. Some of the parents thought I was an education researcher and therefore had knowledge of the school system in New Zealand; because of this assumption they sought advice from me on how to deal with school problems. Furthermore, some of the parents expressed an interest in my experience as an immigrant in New Zealand. Others felt free and confident to treat me as a friend. As a parent, I also benefitted from conducting these interviews, as I had the chance to learn from other parents' experiences and gain knowledge about how to deal with teenage problems in the form of parenting tips. I also became more aware of various school environments and the difficulties immigrant students may face during their schooling years and after graduation.

In interviewing career advisors, I occupied the role of an outsider. As Dwyer and Buckle (2018) have argued, I studied a group of which I was not a member. Career advisors treated me as a researcher seeking their professional experience and knowledge. As such, they provided information about different topics such as career education and schooling in New Zealand. Some of them also treated me as a person who could be a voice for them or share their concerns and challenges with relevant organisations such as the MoE. However,

being an outsider also caused some difficulties in terms of accessing participants. My invitations were rejected or left unanswered by some schools and career advisors.

Although some researchers like Dwyer and Buckle (2009) have argued that playing two roles in a single study leads to confusion, I do not believe this to be the case. In elaborating on the oscillating role of the researcher, Tang (2007) has noted that one must simply be aware of the different roles they play in qualitative studies. He argued that as a tool, self-reflexivity "can help to expose one's intentions and the power differentials embedded in the process" (p. 14). In this study I was aware of, and reflected on, these multiple roles during the data generation process.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness has become an important concept in qualitative studies. However, there are no clear set of strategies that can be used to assess the quality of a qualitative study (King & Horrocks, 2010; Maher et al., 2018). Some scholars argue that validity and reliability in quantitative research equates to the rigour and trustworthiness in a qualitative inquiry (Maher et al., 2018; Sousa, 2014). Morse et al. (2002) advocate the importance of concept validity and reliability in ensuring that qualitative research is trustworthy. However, other qualitative researchers hold the view that quantitative metaphors and criteria are not sufficient for assessing a qualitative inquiry, as these studies seek multiple realities, through different resources. They argue that measuring the validity of the findings depend on participants making sensing of their experience and how they construct reality (King & Horrocks, 2010; Patton, 2015). Lincoln and Guba (1985) contend that qualitative research can be assessed using four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. This study employed these criteria to ensure its quality.

Credibility deals with the fit between what the study intends to measure and a participant's view of social reality (Maher et al., 2018). It concerns the richness of the data

and the truth of the findings (Patton, 2015). Throughout my study, I adopted a number of procedures to support the study's credibility. I employed member checking and participant validation to check the accuracy of the data as well as establish trust (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, participants were asked to check the transcripts and final findings. For the interviews conducted in Farsi, I selected two parents with fair English skills (who were also involved in the focus group), to check the accuracy of the final themes against their memory of the discussion we had, both in the individual interviews and the focus group. To facilitate credibility, I also conducted a test interview with an immigrant parent and a high-school career advisor; their data was not included in the study's results. These test cases helped me to examine the feasibility of the proposed study process and the acceptability of the interview protocols. Moreover, as a result of these test cases, I modified my interview schedule, and recruitment strategies. As outlined above, while I developed final themes based on the frequency of codes and sub-themes, to cover all aspects, I also considered contradictions as findings. I explain these findings further in my discussion and conclusion chapters.

Transferability involves explicitly explaining the study procedures and the findings so that they can be understood by anyone reading the work. As Patton (2015) explains, transferability refers to the researcher's responsibility to provide readers with sufficient information regarding the case study so they may determine the degree of similarity between the cases studied and any case to which findings might be applied. Elaborating the connection between the study's purpose, research design, relevant literature, and findings were considered important to ensure transferability (Shenton, 2004). The strategy I used to ensure transferability was to provide detailed explanations of the entire study process: pre-data collection, data collection, analysis, and how the findings were presented. I also acknowledge and discuss the study's limitations and their effects on the findings for readers.

Dependability refers to the consistency and stability of the data and data collection methods. A study that has dependability is one where the data reflects the study's rationale and ensures that the methodology is appropriate for the research question/s (Patton, 2015). I employed peer examination (Anney, 2014) to enhance the dependability of this study. I asked two of my PhD peers who have experience in conducting qualitative studies to independently analyse one interview and identify any inconsistencies in my analysis. Results indicated that we had a similar understanding of the data and that my codes were consistent with purpose of the study. For the interviews conducted in Farsi, I relied on one of my PhD peers who is a native Farsi speaker.

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the findings reflect a participant's experience and opinion/s rather than the researcher's personal ideas (Shenton, 2004). Constructionists believe that a researcher cannot detach him/herself from the data generation process; the social interaction between the interviewer and participants affect the production of knowledge. However, King and Horrocks (2010) identify two different forms of reflexivity: epistemological reflexivity and personal reflexivity. They suggest researchers should take note of their personal beliefs and opinions to support the confirmability of the study. Epistemological reflexivity considers the study's purpose and how the research design has been determined.

Ethics principles can increase the trustworthiness of a study, in addition to identifying potential harm and mitigating it (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). As Rallis and Rossman (2009) contend, such studies are profoundly trustworthy: in addition to producing useful, credible knowledge, they also respect the participants' rights, are socially just, and care for them. In the next section, I will present the ethical principles of the current research.

Ethical Considerations

Among various ethical principles, this study adhered to the principle of beneficence and non-maleficence. Beneficence refers to actions that benefit others and require the researcher to weigh or balance the potential benefits and risks (Gelling, 1999). The benefits of my study include contributing to a better understanding of the school-to-work transition for immigrant youth. This study provides advice to help school leaders and immigrant communities develop actions to address the contradictions and mismatches between the needs of immigrant families and careers education. Non-maleficence, or doing no harm, requires that researchers avoid harming or injuring participants. As a result of this concept, researchers are reminded that research that may harm participants is unethical and should not be conducted. In a qualitative study, ethical dilemmas can emerge at any phase of the study; prior to data collection, throughout the recruitment process, during data collection and analysis, and at both the writing and publishing stage (Creswell, 2007; Taylor et al., 2015). Formal ethical guidance and codes of practice commonly aim to address these broad principles through concepts such as informed consent, the right of withdrawal, confidentiality/anonymity, and the protection of privacy.

In addition to identifying and mitigating potential harm to the participants, ethical principles can increase a study's trustworthiness (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). As Rallis and Rossman (2009) contend, "the result is a study that is deeply trustworthy; it not only produces useful, credible knowledge, but most importantly, also respects the rights of the participants, is socially just, and is caring" (p. 281). Researchers can face ethical challenges because they are immersed in participants' everyday lives (Taylor et al., 2015). In a qualitative study, ethical dilemmas can emerge at any phase of the study; prior to data collection, throughout the recruitment process, during data collection and analysis, and at both the writing and publishing stage (Creswell, 2007). Formal ethical guidance and codes of practice commonly

aim to address these broad principles through concepts such as informed consent, the right of withdrawal, confidentiality/anonymity, and the protection of privacy.

Confidentiality and anonymity were the first ethical codes that I needed to address in this study. I could not assure the participants of anonymity or complete confidentiality because I, the researcher, knew the participants, and had access to their personal information. However, I used non-identifiable information to describe each participant: each participant chose their own personal pseudonym. In addition, due to the small sample size, career advisors could potentially be identifiable given that my thesis will be a publicly available document. Furthermore, involvement in the focus group meant that the participants would be known to each other. To mitigate this dilemma, I explained the possibility of being identified to the participants so that their consent to participate was informed. The PhD student who translated one document was also required to sign a confidentiality form. Participants were, as part of the member checking process, also able to ask me to remove any information that they had provided during the interview. My study also had the potential to cause institutional harm to the school from which participants were recruited. I was aware that participants might reveal confidential facts about the school, its policies, its environment, and the people working or studying there (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). To manage this issue, I acknowledged possibility of potential harm in the career advisor and school principal information sheets. I also used a fictional name for the associated schools in all of my reports.

According to the Educational Human Ethics Committee (ERHC) guidelines, the data, including recordings, transcripts, and the researcher's journal, should be securely stored for ten years after the study is published. All hard copy data was converted to soft copy in a secure manner. The hard copy data was all put through a shredder. The laptop and the hard drive had secure passwords and all devices were kept in a drawer at the College of Education, Health, and Human Development. I kept the drawer locked at all times and I was the only

person who had a key. My workspace was located in an open plan space, so to the protection of privacy and ensure that unauthorised people did not have access to the transcripts, I did not leave research documents on my desk at any time.

This study was approved by the ERHC of the College of Education, Health and Human Development, University of Canterbury (Appendix M). However, official approval from the committee did not make my study completely ethical. During the interviews I encounter other dilemmas that were not foreseen in the ethical guidelines. One of the possible harms was related to the length of the interview and the complexity of the questions that could lead to participant fatigue (Lavrakas, 2008). To minimise this risk, I firstly explained to the participants that participation was voluntary. Moreover, I asked them to choose a suitable time and the location for the interview. I explained to the participants that they could opt out of the interview at any time, without penalty, even during the interview. I advised them that they could also refuse to answer any question or ask me to pause or stop recording. After each interview, I offered debriefing to each of the participants. At the end of the interview, I offered participants a token ($20 gift card) of my appreciation for taking part in the study and sharing their knowledge.

Due to the nature of the questions, there was the possibility of an emotional impact. For instance, some of the parents had experienced traumatic life events, such as forced separation, persecution, loss, and violence. I was aware that narrating their life histories and experience of immigration may provoke painful memories and lead to distress (De Haene et al., 2010). To minimise harm, I conducted a test interview with a member of the Iranian community to check whether any of my questions might be offensive, irritating, or could be misunderstood. Dilemmas also occurred during the interviews when participants shared their personal experiences, or told stories about their families or the school. For example, some parents reported bullying or discrimination within the school environment. To manage this

situation, I brought fliers containing information about safety issues, domestic violence, and bullying to the interviews. When participants raised such issues, sometimes I advised them to contact the relevant agencies and counselling services.

Some possible harms were related to the participants' language and culture. As a non-English speaker I was aware that communicating in English may cause non-native speakers stress or frustration. I offered Farsi interviews for any Afghani/Iranian participants who wanted to use this option. A potential confidentiality risk could also be posed by the fact that some of the participants were my friends. When I interviewed one of my friends for the pilot project, she invited me for dinner and then asked me to conduct the interview in the dining room with other family members present, her daughter included. Even though this was a comfortable situation for her as a participant, it may have been uncomfortable for her daughter. To minimise this risk, I informed my participants, particularly my friends, that the interviews must be conducted in a private setting.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the procedures used in this study and why I chose to use these particular methods. This phenomenological study's objective was to understand the experiences of both parents and career advisors in the school-to-work transition. I used semi-structured interviews and a focus group to generate data with a purposive sample of 16 parents of high school students who are completing either level two or three in the New Zealand National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA). All of the parents were recent immigrants, having lived in New Zealand for five years or less. I also interviewed six career advisors from New Zealand schools with culturally diverse populations. I chose to use thematic analysis for this phenomenological study as the focus was on participants' experiences and exploring how they constructed meanings. Finally, the chapter has explained

the techniques used to ensure the study’s trustworthiness and the ethical considerations. The following chapters present the findings from the interviews and analysis.

Chapter Five: Parents

Introduction

This chapter examines parents' views on the school-to-work transition. In particular, it investigates how they see their role as a parent and what influences the support they provide to their children. Furthermore, this chapter explores parents' understanding of the challenges facing immigrant students during this transition. The findings presented in this chapter are based on the individual and focus group interviews with parents. The results have been grouped into three main themes: institutional structure, social networks, and cultural influences. In the second section, I record my understanding and thoughts regarding the parents' interviews which include reflections based on my personal experience. The final part of the chapter summarises the findings.

Before discussing the themes, it is necessary to provide some information about the schools included in this study. Four out of the five schools referred to by the parents are co-educational and publicly-funded schools. They range from decile six to decile ten and are located across Aotearoa New Zealand. A table which provides demographic information for the parents is provided in Appendix G. This information indicates that the students are from privileged communities.

Institutional Structures

> The house light is just a lamp to guide ships, it is not something outlandish, it's merely a light, but if it's absent, many ships may sink. Nobody in the school turned on a light, neither for my daughter nor me. (Bahram)

The theme of institutional structures summarises parents' perspectives of school functions and rules in relation to the school-to-work transition. The data shows that the institutional structures have both a direct and indirect impact on the support parents and students receive from the individual schools. This theme encompasses enrolment strategies,

school facilities, ethnic diversity (in terms of the student population), and educational strategies.

Parents believed that the enrolment assessment was an important process and had a considerable effect on a student's ability to settle in at the school, their academic performance at the school, and subsequently, their school-to-work transition. According to the MoE, the student's age, visa status, and home location determine in which school and at what level students can be enrolled. For most of the parents, these enrolment criteria were unfamiliar and complicated. According to the interview data, most schools used age as the primary criterion for determining which year students could enrol in. Children who move to Aotearoa New Zealand and join the school system automatically enter the same school year as children of the same age already in the country (MoE, 2021). For instance, if the child is 10 years old, then the school will most likely place them in either year 5 or 6. Several of the parents felt that this was not an efficient outcome for their children. They argued that other measures, such as the child's level of English competency and previous academic achievements, should be given more weight when determining class placement. For instance, Lin thought that the school did not adequately assess her son's academic abilities and English skills. As a result of this 'failure,' her son struggled a lot to catch up with subjects like chemistry and physics. Likewise, Bahram suggested that new immigrant students, or those who have recently moved to Aotearoa New Zealand, should be placed in a class based on their knowledge and English language skills, rather than their age:

> The school has to ask this student about her haves and have nots, they should tell her what subjects she can study there, what her minimums to enter the school are, and what maximums she can get based on these minimums. They should tell her, 'So, you'd better take these subjects.

Lin and Bahram were referring to the same secondary school. However, not all schools used the same approach. Other schools considered additional factors in their enrolment assessment. For example, Tahmine and Siavash initially enrolled their daughter at a private school. She was placed in year 11 based on her English skills. Had the school followed the MoE guidelines/advice, then she would have been placed in year 12. As a result of the school's decision, Tahmine and Siavash believed that their daughter was able to gain competency in the English language and did not feel under any undue pressure. It is important to note that they discussed only the academic benefits of this strategy for their daughter, and did not mention the social benefits. However, they did highlight the cost of the private schools, stating that private school cost them approximately $20,000 NZD per year.

Parents also believed that the particular time they arrived in Aotearoa New Zealand affected their children's enrolment and settlement process. For example, Salman's daughter enrolled in March, a month later than the start of the school year. Bahram suggested that this delay may have contributed to the school's lack of attention. According to him, throughout the school year, the staff are busy with a variety of tasks and duties, and, as a result, students who join the school in the middle of the semester may not be properly assessed or given sufficient support so that they can properly adjust to their new environment:

> We actually came to school a month late. Perhaps it was not the right time for them to sit and check well, or they may have had projects in hand that prevented them from scrutinising our case, or they may have lacked assistants to help them.

Two parents noted the influence of school facilities on students' career choice. According to them, in their countries of origin students had a limited number of opportunities to do practical subjects, especially those related to the arts and sciences. However, in Aotearoa New Zealand, they felt that students had a greater chance of participating in

subjects that required more equipment and facilities, such as laboratories and workshops. The parents felt that participation in these subjects could affect their children's future career decisions and interests. For example, as a result of utilising the school's extensive arts facilities, Bahram's daughter changed her mind about her future career and decided to study 'fancy' or 'not serious' majors such as photography. He concluded that when students have access to art facilities and equipment, even those students with no talent in a particular subject, can be inspired. Likewise, Sogand explained that because her son took advantage of the school's various facilities he developed an interest in cinema, directing, and screenwriting.

Parents had divergent opinions about diversity in the student population. The parents believed that students enrolled in schools with more diverse populations were more likely to feel comfortable and encounter fewer challenges associated with discrimination or bullying. Annahita shared about her daughter's experiences in two different schools in Aotearoa New Zealand:

> In the previous school, everyone was white, but in the new school, the students are white and black. In the new school, she feels more comfortable, but the previous school was not like that for her.

Affirming this view, Carole explained, "That's why they have one thing: I don't know if they've realised that most immigrants take kids to schools where there are immigrants. This is one way to avoid that culture shock". Parents added that in more culturally diverse schools, students were able to find friends especially from immigrant background. They also felt that teachers and staff in schools with greater diversity were more considerate, understood students better, and knew how to value difference. For example, Satin mentioned the school's response to the Christchurch Mosque attacks in March 2019, and stressed that they were more ready to respond to incidents that involved cultural and religious differences.

Parents also shared their opinions about the relevance of the education system to their children's school-to-work transition. In particular, parents discussed the impact of teaching methods, extracurricular subjects, subject choices, homework, and the length of the school day. Teaching methods were implicated in school-to-work transitions where immigrant students were taught new learning strategies for subjects such as math and science which can directly affect their grades in these subjects. According to three parents, immigrant students felt inadequate and overwhelmed by the new educational system because they were unfamiliar with the teaching and learning methods. This made learning some subjects like mathematics and science difficult; as a result, the students lost confidence and interest in those fields. For example, Ava discovered that the method used to teach mathematics in her home country was markedly different from the way students learn in Aotearoa New Zealand. Parent also noted how different teaching methods could affect the support that they could provide:

> In fact, my son struggled badly in the school because, you know, the knowledge structure is totally different. I mean between China and Aotearoa New Zealand ... The different teaching ways … the parents are not adjusted to the new ways, new system. (Lin)
>
> The approaches were different in lessons. For example, math was different, physics was different. We weren't allowed to intervene; we couldn't help. And they preferred we didn't intervene so that they could work with one method and avoid confusion. (Ava)

Two parents discussed teaching strategies used within physical education. These parents argued that subjects such as football, basketball and swimming, grouped with "other topics", were taught in a very different manner from home and therefore did not resonate with their children or motivate/engage them. As a result, their children lost interest in these

subjects, which ultimately affected their career choices. As Satin stated, "They are not giving things efficiently that much. So, if you really need to learn good swimming, you have to go to swimming school by paying extra fees". In Lin's view, one reason could have been that the specific physical educators and sports coaches played a facilitator role, rather than a teaching role.

Another concern that the parents had was that the Aotearoa New Zealand curriculum put more stress on practical skills, such as problem solving, teamwork, and caring for the environment. In short, these parents believe that academic skills are far more important than soft skills for their children's school-to-work transition. However, some parents found this approach to be positive because it prepared them for the future and made the transition from school-to-work smoother. The students also felt less stressed as it was easier for them to learn subjects like physics. As Salman said:

> I was sure their educational system is different from Iran's because the educational system of Iran is based on theoretical training, and the students should be good at theory. But the educational system of Aotearoa New Zealand is based on practical training mainly ... they learned easily and without any stress.

Similarly, Carole argued that in Aotearoa New Zealand, skills like leadership and teamwork are more important than having a narrow knowledge about a particular subject. She stated:

> You have some leadership skills, and you have some supportive skills. So that has influence, what he added on top of books. This is the culture here. So that he can survive … because it's not about good grades only.

Participants also highlighted other factors that mediate the school-to-work transition, such as the length of the school day, the number of subjects students had to study every year, and the amount of homework given. Regarding the length of the school day, parents

explained that the New Zealand school schedules were ideal for their children and had resulted in lower levels of stress. They reported that the education systems in their home countries are tough, and that in contrast, it seemed that their children could fit into the Aotearoa New Zealand educational system easily.

> I knew it's gonna be a work-over for him, having come from a military, intense system. And coming here, knowing it's nine to three[13]. Oh, I thought it was gonna be easy … So, I knew that kids won't struggle. It's gonna be easy. So, I didn't stress about it. (Carole)

When asked how this would positively impact their children's school-to-work transition, the parents talked about allowing their children to focus more on school activities and subjects without being distracted by harsh school rules. For instance, Salman believed that her daughter, who was enrolled in secondary school, felt more relaxed and, as a result, would be more likely to participate in school activities and be able to connect with her teachers. In the long run, Salman thought that it would encourage her to remain at school (not leave school early) and complete NCEA 3.

As well as preferring a shorter school day, parents noted that the amount of homework students needed to do in Aotearoa New Zealand schools was much less than they were expected to complete in their home countries. Some believed that having less homework would have a positive effect on their children's stress levels and, as a result, they would feel better about school. As Lin stated:

> In China, teachers are very strict. Students are occupied with many kinds of homework from many subjects, but now he is very relaxed and because of no homework, or very little homework … and this is a very big difference.

---

[13] 9:00 a.m. to 3 p.m.

However, four of the participants believed that the amount of homework was not sufficient, and explained that they expected their children to study for as many hours after school as they did in their home country. Parents expressed concern that the amount of assigned homework was insufficient to ensure that their children understood the subject and gain high grades. As Bahar said:

> In this new school, they don't pay much attention to homework and lessons, and in fact, they don't have the academic discipline and strictness that existed in the previous school …she may lose some points in her math if she does not practice enough and the homework is not enough for her.

In the same vein, Carole asked her children to do extra practice after school.

Some parents held the view that not all the schools in Aotearoa New Zealand were the same. Annahita claimed that different schools in Aotearoa New Zealand had different academic expectations. Her daughter had experienced being a student in two different schools: one private 'girls only' school, the other public and co-educational:

> The academic level of that school [the first school] was much higher. The school's decile was higher and had one of the highest rates among public schools … There was a lot of pressure on her in terms of lessons as well. (Annahita)

Some parents believed that Aotearoa New Zealand schools placed too much emphasis on subjects such as sport. These parents argued that extra-curricular activities are not essential for students wanting to gain to tertiary qualifications or obtain employment. Instead, these parents noted the importance of other subjects, such as mathematics and science: they saw these subjects as more important than sports skills for their children's future careers. However, under the Education Act, Schools' State and State Integrated Boards of Trustees are required to implement the school curriculum in line with New Zealand Curriculum and

the National Education Goals (NEGs) and National Administration Guidelines (NAGs). Health and Physical Education PE (HPE) is one of eight learning areas that schools are required to cover.

Social Influence

This theme captures parents' perspectives on social networks and social relationships that support both parents and children in school-to-work transition processes. In particular, parents highlighted the role of family members, friends, and the school communities in their children's settlement, educational performance, and future careers. They also discussed how these social actors influence transition processes.

Parents spoke about others who had impacted their child's career plans. Many parents described how family members had influenced their children's lives, including their future careers. However, parents may not be aware of all those who have had an influence, including peers and careers advisors. Ten parents suggested that they personally had the most influence on their children's career decisions. In some families, parents were considered role models for their children. They believed that their attitudes and behaviours could motivate their children and influence their career choices. For example, the interviewees believed that having parents who worked constantly, regularly, or habitually, and who were committed to work tasks, inspired their children to be like them. Carole, who was studying for a PhD and working full time when she was interviewed, said that her son,

> knows we work pretty hard. We influenced the hard work beat. So, my son really works hard because he knows we work really hard. So that's the only thing he does to emulate us, working hard.

Rose shared the same view. She said, "Parents are not like that … I think as migrants, we work very hard. Our kids work very hard as well. We push them to work very hard."

Parents also discussed how their socioeconomic status and educational levels impact upon their children's aspirations:

> She says that she sees us as role models because I have been scientifically successful. I am an inventor. I also have insurance and business information, so my child considers me successful. She is very eager to follow in our footsteps. (Siavash)
>
> My husband and I both achieved at least a master's degree, and we enjoy reading, learning a lot. And so, that also encouraged my daughter to set […] her mind to pursue at least a PhD degree. (Chynna)

The data also revealed how immigrant parents define successful school-to-work transitions. Parents consider different factors like academic achievement and 'serious' and 'money making' jobs such as engineering as key components of success. Parents expected their children to succeed academically and to continue onto university education. As Lin stated, "parents expect of kids very high … we aim high, as we believe studies are more essential and want kids to attend good universities." For these parents, taking a gap year or working part-time during school years is not an option because these activities are believed to impede success. These views are illustrated in the following statements:

> I did not expect my sons to work at all. I would just ask them to study even if I had to work. (Sogand)
>
> I think the recent challenge that I have had with my older one is the university challenge, right? Of not wanting to go to university. But I said, no, you have to finish university. So, it's like counting the years when he's going to finish, but he still pushes his luck, still asks me, 'What about take a gap year?' (Rose)

Parents considered obtaining a “good” job a sign of a successful transition from education to employment. Most of the parents believed that the only way to obtain a “good” job is by having a university degree. Parents discussed how a good job meant a job with high earning potential and security, such as being an engineer or physician:

> I always told her, ‘At first, you should be sure about earning enough money and then enjoy your job, which is ideal, but if you study to enjoy, you may not find a secure job, and finally, you may have a mental crisis (Salman)
>
> Because, in the Philippines, within our family, we have lot of medicine students; my niece, two of them I think, both are taking up medicine, and we don’t want him to be behind. (Krishna)

The data also revealed that the parents’ relationships with their children was a factor in influencing their children’s transition into work. Three parents’ feedback indicated that spending time with children could enhance the parent–child relationships. Having a good relationship enabled parents to discuss a variety of topics including education, future careers, and the decisions the young students needed to make:

> We try to go together so that we get to have shared time ... Usually, we spend a shared couple of hours talking every week ... we talk about the things they like at that time, for example their school, anything they’re sad about, any subjects they turn to, or about lessons. He wants to change his major. We have these times, once or twice a week, or even more sometimes. (Ava)

The parents noted that as the language spoken at school was different from what they spoke at home, their children felt more comfortable talking to them (their parents) than to their friends or school staff. For instance, Siavash and Tahmine said that their daughter

expressed her feelings, opinions, and decisions more freely in Farsi than in English: home time was like a debriefing time in which she could share her thoughts with her parents:

> She is happy with us. However, we never force her to be with us all the time ... In fact, we really like her to spend more time with her friends, but I think she prefers an Iranian atmosphere after school where she does everything in English. Therefore, she chooses to spend her free time with us. (Siavash)

From the parents' points of view, another reason they were able to spend more time with their children was that some parents had more free time in Aotearoa New Zealand due to a lighter workload. For example, when she worked as a full-time engineer in Chile, Riva could only spend time with her family during the weekends. However, when the family moved to Aotearoa New Zealand, she was able to have lunch and dinner with her sons every day and discuss different topics. As a result of spending more time together, she believed they could enrich their family bonds, and could have a greater influence on her children's decisions.

Parents believed that a lack of information, as well as having assumptions about living in a new country, influence parental support. For instance, Siavash and Tahmine discussed the assumptions that their daughter would have a "better experience" at a private school in terms of particular aspects of education and the learning environment, among other concerns: "If we had had this information at first, we would not probably have spent nearly 30,000 dollars on the school. She would have gone to this public school from the beginning." Carole who had lived in Aotearoa New Zealand for three years at the time of the interview, agreed with Siavash and Tahmine, saying:

> So, I knew the system. I knew the city. I knew the culture ... So, it really helped me settle in easily because of what I expected and what I knew I

> needed to do to survive. I knew it before because I have done that before. So, it made it easier.

Some parents raised issues relating to a lack of familiarity with Aotearoa New Zealand rules, information about the job market, and available careers or educational pathways for their children. They said that a lack of knowledge meant parents and students lost work and educational opportunities in the new country:

> In New Zealand, and in comparison, with Iran, their financial support is even more, but you don't know about the rules. You don't know what major has better prospects in the future. (Lin)

Although most of the parents agreed that their advice had a direct impact on their children's decisions, three of them thought they had no influence whatsoever. For example, Rose said, "Herself! She made the decision herself ... I never told her that you must do something". In most families, both parents were involved in their children's decision making. However, two parents commented that only their partner had an influence on their child's decision. For instance, Nadiya, who got divorced from her husband two years ago, believed that their daughter was influenced by her husband and felt that she could not give her daughter any advice. She insisted that because her ex-husband was educated and more successful in his profession, his career advice would have had more impact on their daughter's career choice than hers.

Most parents identified siblings and extended family members (including grandparents, aunts, uncles and in-laws), as having a major influence on their children. Extended family members were described as passing on values to younger family members. Thus, their advice and support had an effect on the students' career choices. As Carole stated, "My dad was a computer programmer. And my dad talked to my son a lot about programming and stuff ... Then he started learning coding by himself. So, it's my dad".

Parents also often noted that their children wanted to do the same or similar jobs as other family members, as Satin stated: “First of all, my husband is an engineer. My sister and all brothers-in-law are engineers. So, she got influence from them.”

Friends also influence a student’s school-to-work transition. Most of the parents agreed on the importance of friends and the impact they could have on a student’s settlement, confidence, mental health, academic performance, decision making, and career choices. With regards to the settlement process, Rose explained how the school assigned her children a “buddy” who stayed with them until they became settled in the school. Her children developed friendships with other students through their “buddy”. In contrast, the parents expressed concern that a new environment could make the friendship-building process challenging and stressful for their children. As a result, students were more likely to lose confidence and develop mental health problems. For example, Ava claimed that if her son had found some friends at school when he was first enrolled, he would never have experienced depression and mental health issues. Consequently, he would have been more confident choosing a career pathway at the conclusion of school:

> The satisfaction you get when you yourself get to make friends is very crucial. It’s important psychologically as well. Supporting them and receiving support from them are needed for everyone. Everybody needs to help and get help. It affects mentality very much ... I tried to get appointments to tell them we were immigrants and we have these problems, or for example, our children couldn’t make a lot of friends and ask for help.

Parents also suggested that friends were a reliable source of information for their children. For instance, Sogand’s son learnt about student loans and how he could pay for his university through his secondary school friends. Local friends, or friends who had lived in Aotearoa New Zealand for a long time, often provided the newcomers with much-needed

information. Sogand believed this information was not readily available and said it was not easy to find on school websites, pamphlets, and even in school counselling sessions. Bahram emphasised the need for immigrant families to make friends with locals and/or communicate with those who had lived in the country for a long time: “I sent my daughter to her friends’ houses to get acquainted with the environment and their lifestyles”.

Five parents stated that their children’s friends had a stronger influence on them than the parents. For example, Nadiya believed that her daughter resisted her advice and only agreed with her when her friends gave her similar advice. Similarly, Lin and Sogand revealed that their children’s friends had changed their minds and motivated them to pursue tertiary education. This was also the case for Siavash who said, “In general, I am very happy that there is an intense competition among them and that her classmates are very competent. In her class at the university, all of her classmates are top students posing serious competition.” However, Chynna described a situation in which her daughter’s friends discouraged her from completing her studies:

> The people around her will continue talking her into accepting the idea that furthering your education is not that significant … when she was in China, she decided to continue PhD degree. Ok. But now she’s thinking that … it’s the family who sets up the initial influence and the big picture. But if she is away in a people with totally different ideas, especially her peers, she will also be influenced a lot.

Although most of the parents highlighted the importance of influential friends, three had contrasting opinions and believed that peers had no impact on their children or their career decisions:

> I’m thinking there’s a lot of kids and peer pressure happening. But for my son, he’s not having any pressure. So, he’s not being influenced by anyone.

> Just realising that he needs to do a bit more to survive. Yeah. So that's what he's doing. (Carole)

A few parents highlighted the influence of same-gender friends. For example, Lin believed that her son's male friends had more influence on his academic and career decisions than his female friends.

Participants reflected on the importance of the school community, which includes school staff and parents, in facilitating a student's settlement, academic performance, and school-to-work transition. They discussed the importance of communication with school staff in terms of gaining information. Although some parents obtained information from the school and the MoE websites, other parents still sought information about tertiary fees, gap years, and streaming systems via academic and careers counselling sessions provided by the school. For instance, Sogand stated that she needed to know the "cost" of some majors at Aotearoa New Zealand universities and found this information from the careers staff. In most cases, parents expressed satisfaction with the career services that the school provided. As Salman stated, "They had good communication with the parents; they held meetings regularly, and the parents talked to its career's advisor. That was interesting!"

Some parents raised issues concerning intentional communication. These parents expected the schools to communicate with them, but instead, had to approach the school. These parents noted that the schools did not contact them about important issues or explain how NCEA works; they had to find the right person to obtain this information. Annahita was particular dissatisfied: she mentioned that she and her husband rarely received information from the school. Instead, they searched for the information that they needed using the school's website. Carole, whose daughter studied in another secondary school, concurred with Annahita, stating that she was the one who approached the school to find out about career pathways. However, this was not the case for all of the parents and schools. School

staff called and supported Riva from the very beginning; howevert Riva's children attended a medium decile with diverse population which was different schools than Carole and Annahita's children (high decile and white dominant schools).

Most parents also noted the comprehensive support they received from school staff who work in the school office and are the initial point of contact for students and their families. These parents commonly refer to these staff members as administrators. This support included administrators speaking to, and assisting parents, organising and maintaining student records, as well as referring new parents to the school staff. Although most parents did not have problems with the school administrators, there were a few parents who were unsatisfied. For instance, school administrators confused Ava the first time she registered her son after arriving in the country. The issue was she had to speak with a different staff member each time she visited the school. Moreover, she had to explain everything over and over again because the school did not keep a record her son's information. Bahram experienced the same problems at another school, revealing that his daughter was interviewed by three different people. He said, "The school has to ask this student and record the notes." These parents expect the schools to have a comprehensive system and keep records of all the interactions with them. They believed that such support systems would have resulted in a smoother settlement process and had a positive impact on their children's academic performance and subject choice.

Parents also recounted experiences of school administrators grouping students based on their visa type. For example, Ava recalled an experience with a school that separated international students from domestic students. Her son started his first week of school in an international class made up of students on non-resident visas. However, Ava explained that her son should have been considered a domestic student due to his visa: when notified of their mistake, the school moved her son into another class. That was an issue for her and her son as

she believed the subjects for international students were a bit different from subjects for domestic students.

According to parents, the support their children obtained from counsellors had an impact on different aspects of their school experiences. Parents described counselling as any guidance provided to their children or their families to resolve educational or personal problems. For parents, counselling had two main aspects: wellbeing, and academic/careers counselling. Two parents were dissatisfied with the wellbeing counselling sessions. They believed that counselling should focus on a range of topics, such as finding friends and solutions to language problems. For instance, when Ava shared her son's experiences of finding friends, she mentioned that the guidance was general, and that the counsellor did not provide specific or practical solutions. Although the school had a considerable number of counselling staff, Ava was not able to solve her son's problems via school wellbeing counselling. She ultimately had to seek help from outside the school. However, most of the parents were pleased with the school counselling services. For example, Salman talked about how counsellors helped his daughter enrol for free after the family encountered visa issues.

In regard to the provision of academic and careers counselling, parents discussed topics such as subject choices, career pathways, skills, competence for future careers, and job searches. The parents highlighted the role of subject teachers, deans, and career advisors. Salman stated, "So, I think the teachers and counsellors play a more important role in our children's lives ... These advisors have a great effect on the students' decisions about their future."

Most of the parents talked about the "quality" of academic and careers counselling. In their views, quality counselling meant obtaining accurate information and providing effective guidance. Thirteen of the 16 parents stated that the careers counsellor was probably unable to obtain enough information about the student's academic history and accomplishments.

Therefore, they were only able to provide what parents referred to as "general or inaccurate" advice. For example, Riva reported that even though her son had studied in Chile, the careers staff and dean in Aotearoa New Zealand were unaware of these foundation courses and forbade him from taking calculus. After a long process of persuasion, he was allowed to take the calculus course. Bahram recounted a similar experience in terms of his daughter:

> After three times referring to the school and speaking with various individuals, she finally found out that she could have skipped the subjects that she had taken … They assigned her subjects that she had passed before ... which meant that she just wasted her life.

Parents also commented that guiding students in terms of which subjects they should take is an important part of careers counselling. Unfortunately, career counsellors were unable recommend the optimal combination of courses:

> I think careers should do more if you ask me. You want to be an engineer. But you know there is room you might decide to go this way. They should advise them just to pick some courses … that can end them in another career. (Carole)
>
> In fact, the career service, who are in … charge of the career service department, they should have more knowledge about how to make your set of courses in year 12, 13 … who wants to cover many areas like engineering, medical science board. (Satin)

However, when it came to choosing courses, a few parents, who were associated with different schools, found the counselling sessions satisfying enough. As Bahar said:

> Well, they give lots of guidance … I'm not aware of all the details, but they were talking to Sanam about the academic major she wants to choose. They told her what courses she should choose, so that in case she changes her

mind and wants to change her major, she has wider options available to her. I've seen them talking to her about these things. They guide a lot.

Four parents reported that the career advisors did not involve parents in the decision-making process and left students to make the final decisions. These parents, who were all talking about different schools, believed that although students' interests and aspirations are important, these are not enough to make important decisions such as choosing a career pathway. Sogand stated, "They just want to speak to them alone about their interest." Two of the parents were not happy about the limited amount of time students could talk to a career advisor. They believed that the careers staff did not give students enough time. Carole explained, "I expect them to give them a chance to even talk to the parents or something". In contrast, Salman asserted that there were no limitations on the number of career consultation meetings that his daughter had:

> There wasn't any limitation on the hours we could talk; for example, they didn't make us have a 10-minute or 15-minute meeting, and I asked all my questions comfortably. Secondly, we could manage the time of the meetings and they determined some days, and then, we chose a fixed time to meet and talk together, because some of the parents were in work and they should manage their time.

Four parents talked about the role of the migrant community in assisting them and their children in terms of adapting to the new culture and school system and gaining information. However, according to one parent, this type of support was not always positive. Sometimes these ethnic communities created barriers to integration and impeded the adjustment process. Sogand, who sought support from the Afghani community by attending some classes, was verbally abused by one of the immigrant communities in the class because

she was not wearing her hijab properly and did not speak with Afghani people in Dari (an Afghani language). Of her abuser, Sogand said:

> If he saw me in a blouse and pants instead of a skirt … I usually wear a blouse and pants ... it was over! I was speaking Farsi with some Afghan kids in the class, he began to swear and said, 'You are not allowed to speak Farsi'.

After a while, she stopped going to the class, which unfortunately, was the only free one. She believed this incident caused her mental health problems as she and her sons felt isolated and disconnected from their immigrant community.

Three parents also shared their experiences about how they solved their issues with the help of other parents from the school community. For example, Sogand's neighbour, the mother of one of her son's school friends, was an important part of Sogand's life; she acted as a bridge between herself and the school. The neighbour accompanied her whenever she wanted to meet a teacher or school staff. Sogand said: "We would have been really helpless if that American woman had not helped us." However, she said revealed that talking "about problems together" with her Farsi-speaking friends provided the most relief.

Cultural Influences

> [How] I perceive of good future for my children is very different from how Kiwi parents perceive a good future for my children … How they perceive life is different. (Rose)

Parents also raised the role of cultural influences. Parent noted a gap between Aotearoa New Zealand's culture and that of their home countries. During the interviews, parents expressed their opinions in relation to a number of cultural factors, including differences in language and family values.

Most of the parents revealed that they (and their children) had struggled to communicate in English as this was a second language for them. The parents from non-English speaking countries spoke of how this difference negatively affected various aspects of their lives. Six parents expressed concerns about poor communication due to language differences. They believed that their deficiencies in speaking English prevented them from communicating with the schools and the local community:

> The cultural and language differences become more tangible here. I have lots of language problems and was stunned several times in the street. I forgot where I was and what I wanted to do. I could not talk and I suffered from stuttering … I have language problems, and I am not fluent, and because of this, it is very difficult for me to communicate with others. (Nadiya)

For some parents and children, an inability to communicate well in English led to mental health issues. Due to Sogand's limited English language skills and her inability to develop simple communication skills, she experienced considerable pressure and tension in her first year in the country. She said:

> I could not speak one night when I got up. I was completely mute and was only crying. No sound could be heard from me. When we went to the hospital, they said there was no problem, and then, I recovered.

Salmand concurred with Sogand, stating that communication issues adds pressure on young people: "The children of the migrants are self-deprecating about their language and hometown, which is at a lower level than Aotearoa New Zealand; they fear […] any communication." Similarly, Ava stated, "It was a really important problem, and it was more damaging than educational issues like getting bad grades. It hurt him much more that he felt he couldn't communicate well". Three parents revealed that their children had encountered

language difficulties when they started school which negatively affected their learning and academic performance:

> On the one hand, my son had to face all the challenges in his study because this is not a Chinese language environment. This is the totally different language environment for him ... biggest worry for him, his native language Chinese … and his English needs polishing, needs improvement all the time. (Lin)

A lack of English skills was also associated with social isolation. Ava talked about her son's experience: "They ignored him and wouldn't allow him in their circle, and he felt like a stranger. There is the issue of language, but not so much to make it impossible". However, some parents did not find it difficult to speak English since they had a fair level of English before moving to Aotearoa New Zealand. These parents also spoke English with their children. As Carole explained:, "I got three languages. I have a mother tongue, and I have Swahili. That's the national language in Kenya. And then, we have English. But my kids know more English than my other mother tongue."

Some parents noted differences between parental attitudes and expectations among immigrants compared to local parents, particularly in terms of how much freedom they gave their children. According to seven interviewees, parents in Aotearoa New Zealand are more lenient and give their children the freedom to choose what to do with their lives. Consequently, immigrant students expected their parents to behave the same way and even asked for more freedom in different aspects of their lives, such as choosing friends, attending social events, their pathways, and deciding a future career. These expectations often caused conflicts between the children and their parents. Rose explained her daughter's reaction to parental restrictions: "My daughter said, 'You know, my friend's parents told me that they would love to have me as their daughter, but you don't seem to appreciate me'". Parents also

revealed that immigrant parents often exhibit controlling behaviour. For example, Sogand noted that she regularly visited her son's teachers to monitor his "studies and progress", even though this kind of behaviour looked "out of character" to the teachers. Similarly, Bahar said, "Kiwi parents have a very different mentality from Asians parents. Asian families are very controlling". Some of the parents from Asian backgrounds (e.g., China and Bangladesh) said that they expected teachers to actively supervise their children's academic performance.

Three parents believed that young people in Aotearoa New Zealand are more financially and emotionally independent. In contrast, immigrant children were seen as more dependent upon their parents. For example, Rose discussed the age of "being independent" in relation to the New Zealand context. She believed that in Aotearoa New Zealand, at 16 or 17 years old one is considered a mature adult. In contrast, in her home culture, young people become independent at 21. Rose said, "I think when they're 21 I would be their friend, and I would allow them to do what they want to do. But until then, I'm not comfortable. I'm still the parent. You are still my child, you know." Similarly, Bahram shared his daughter's impression of independence within New Zealand families:

> This is a totally new environment ... Once she said to me, 'Daddy! This girl pays her father 420 dollars per week for house and food. He had told her to pay 420 dollars for having guests over and she works to pay it'.

Some of the interviewed parents perceive this dependency as an important family value and see it as a form of "family bonding" or a way to maintain "close family ties".

Some parents also talked about parental responsibilities within migrant families. They were of the opinion that within Eastern cultures, in particular, both fathers and mothers assume a lot of responsibility for making sure the family runs smoothly. Therefore, children are not interested in taking on any responsibilities at home and rely more on their parents. As Nadiya commented:

> She understands that her mother is like no other. She says that her friends admit that their mothers do nothing for them. For example, I make a lunch box for her and wash her clothes despite the fact she is old enough to do it herself. Somehow, she wants to follow the Iranian culture in which the mother supports kids fully, but on the other hand, she has no means of helping me, and it means that I solely carry all the responsibilities of the house on my shoulders.

They talked about other related issues such as culture shock and discrimination. Moreover, they talked about how they faced discrimination in Aotearoa New Zealand. The parents believed that the young immigrants also experienced culture shock as a result of moving to New Zealand, which resulted in mental distress and stress for them. They stated that coping with culture shock and adjusting to a new culture takes a considerable amount of time and distracts students from their studies and career development. The parents stated that before immigrating, they were unaware of how challenging it would be for their children to start life and education in a new culture. According to Annahita, the whole process of immigration is a major change for immigrant students because they do not participate in their parents' decisions and they do not know how a new country and culture will impact upon them. Parents also expressed the opinion that teenage immigrants have a harder time adjusting, particularly as this change intersects with other changes like puberty:

> Especially, that he had just reached puberty, an age so many changes happen. He was 14. There was a lot of changes … For that reason, it was more challenging and really difficult for the older child. (Ava)

Carole believed that the age of immigration mattered, and that those children who immigrate at a younger age are able to adjust more easily to a new culture:

> I would say, it depends at what stage the immigrant arrives in New Zealand. If the immigrant kid arrives in New Zealand at a young age, they have the same opportunities … The only challenge is, especially if you come as a small baby, you might know trouble with the language, you might struggle with the culture because what happens is the culture shock, and it affects kids who come to be older.

Annahita shared that her older daughter had struggled to fit into New Zealand culture:

> My older daughter has been in the same situation … She was not happy from the beginning, and she is still not satisfied that we brought her here. From the beginning, she felt that there was no reason for us to come here. Well, she thought she was very happy there, and there was no reason to move.

Her daughter not only had to fit into a new culture, but also become accustomed to the new educational system and the New Zealand job market. However, Annahita did not identify any issues with her younger child because she was only nine years old when the family moved to Aotearoa New Zealand.

Parents also discussed problems related to cultural differences that promoted racism and added to the cultural shock. They believed that they and their children were discriminated against because of differences in nationality, religion, appearance, ethnicity, and language. As a result of racism, parents believed that their children would lose out in terms of employment and educational opportunities. For example, Bahram shared his family's job-seeking experiences. He revealed that during the job selection process his qualifications and skills received less priority than his nationality and visa status. He concluded:

> They prefer to employ a local person than a resident, and if they can't find one, they choose to employ a visa-holding worker. So, this reveals that I

have to work much harder than a person at my own level, or even lower, to get to a similar position.

Parents believed that their children would confront the same issues and experience discrimination in terms of job opportunities and access to government assistance. Rose, who held a permanent resident visa and thus, was allowed to work in Aotearoa New Zealand – a bicultural country with a multicultural society - at the time of her interview, said:

> They will lose out because of their skin colour, whether you like it or not. That's a fact. You know, because I see a lot of people that have been hired. I don't know, sometimes I wonder somebody else applied for the job is much more qualified. Why you hire this person? So, it's a Kiwi culture ... They just miss you because you don't have the right colour ... We are not very different from them. But I feel that being a migrant in this country, if we are not at the top of our game, you're not going to get hired. And if my daughter is not on the top of a game and get the best qualification, get the best job where your skill is really needed.

Parents argued that the discrimination their children faced at school had a major impact on their settlement experience, mental health, and ability to communicate. Annahita recounted her daughter's experience, stating that her daughter asked to attend another school with fewer Westerners after she decided to wear the hijab:

> She wore a hijab, and several of her school friends cut ties with her. They were no longer as close with her as before, and they constantly rebuked and ridiculed her for wearing the hijab ... That is why my daughter became isolated. She faced a shortage of friends after deciding to show that she is a Muslim.

While parents such as Salman and Chynna never experienced discrimination, they reported experiencing “differentness”. As Chynna explained, “people shared very similar thinking patterns, ideologies, or ways of doing things” in their home country. She explained that in their home country, they lived in a homogeneous community. In contrast, in Aotearoa New Zealand, they met people from all over the world. These parents talked about difference as a positive aspect of life in Aotearoa New Zealand because their children “enjoyed being different”. They said that staying in Aotearoa New Zealand allowed them to learn more about different people, beliefs, ideologies, and cultures.

Personal Insight

Having outlined the parents’ views on careers education and life in New Zealand, in this section, I share my thoughts, and understanding of, the parent interviews. While there were times when I understood some of the parents’ feelings and experiences, there were also times when their viewpoints on certain topics surprised me. Occasionally, they provoked feelings and memories in me. Other times, they provided me with clues about what to expect as a parent in the future.

One of the incidents parents mentioned was racism in job interviews, during the hiring process and later, in the workplace. It reminded me of a similar experience I had when I applied for an engineering position. During the interview, the interviewer commented on my hijab and how it might make people uncomfortable; finally, he asked me if I intended to keep wearing my hijab. I believe that having this kind of experience may lead people from minority groups to believe that they will not have equal opportunities in the labour market due to their race, nationality, and/or appearance. As a result of dealing with discrimination for so long, the parents in my study seem to have concluded that in order to be hired by employers, they and their children must have higher qualifications and skills than their “white” counterparts. Although I disagree with these parents, living in Aotearoa New Zealand

for five years and watching people from minority groups (such as Māori, Pacifica, migrants, refugees, and rainbow populations) taking part in important roles, gives me hope that even though discrimination exists and the respondents have clearly experienced it, it does not mean that everyone will.

When asked about the challenges of raising children in a new country and in particular, the impact on children's education and employment, the parents asked for my opinion about how they should raise their children in a "Western" culture. I believe this demonstrates the difficulties immigrant parents face in raising children in a new culture. This question reminded me of the worries I had in my first year of immigration. For example, I was concerned when I realised that the school would be offering sexuality courses. I believed that they might encourage my children to have sex, misguide them about sex, and distract them from studying. As a parent, I was also concerned about how I could teach my children to value and practice their culture while studying and living in a "Western" culture. However, after speaking with the school teachers and attending information events the school organises for parents, I realised that discussing topics that may not align with my cultural and religious values, would nonetheless provide my children with information and protect them from future risks. Based on my experience with other immigrant families, including the parents in this study, I believe that some immigrant parents tend to focus on the negative aspects of these cultural differences and/or they are reluctant to embrace the new culture. Moreover, they rarely discuss their concerns with educators or other experts within the school, or within their ethnic community.

Moreover, I noticed that immigrant parents rarely make connections with other families in the school and that they rarely ask for support from other children's parents (those from the same class). From my experience with the New Zealand school system, the school community not only includes the school staff, the board of trustees, and the students'

families. The staff and educators often encourage parents to connect and communicate with each other. For example, at my sons' school, they hold a school family dinner. Each year there are at least two additional gatherings (e.g., a ladies' night and morning tea) with other parents outside of the school. I believe these meetings have helped me to bond with parents who usually have more experience and knowledge in terms of schooling in Aotearoa New Zealand. From my experience, these kinds of relationships could help ease or diminish many of the challenges immigrant parents face when settling into a new environment.

Summary of Findings

This chapter has provided an overview of how the interviewed immigrant parents perceive their role in the career education of their children, what factors influence their children's career decisions, what support the children need, and how parents are able to facilitate this transition process. It was evident that the parents in this study found the education and schooling system different from what they had experienced in their home countries. They shared their ideas about how institutional rules such as different enrolment criteria, enrolment assessments, and subject choice processes, could impact upon their children's careers decision. Analysis of the interview data also revealed that the interviewed parents valued skills like literacy and numeracy over transferable skills such as team work and leadership. Due to these differences, immigrant parents have additional expectations of their students and of the schools.

Parents' expectations of students and educators could shape the way they support their students; this study found a link between what parents define as a successful transition and these expectations. Most of the parents encouraged their children to undertake tertiary education or full-time study after graduating from secondary school instead of looking for employment or taking a gap year. They believed that attaining high academic qualifications is the only way to achieve that goal and compete with their domestic counterparts. As such, this

finding suggests that the interviewed parents discount other pathways because they have limited information about the available career pathways and the New Zealand labour market in globalised economy.

As a result of living in a different environment and culture, some children find it difficult to make friends and obtain information from teachers or careers advisors related to choosing a career pathway. As a result, they tend to seek advice from their parents who become their first source of information. However, some parents stated that they could not develop this bond because of escalating levels of conflict between them and their children which began soon after settling New Zealand. This conflict was often caused by the fact that the children adopted aspects of the new culture while the parents wanted their children to respect the culture and norms of their home country. A few of the parents revealed that after migrating, their children only felt comfortable talking to one parent about their career plans/goals and that this impacted upon their children's future career choices.

Parents' interviews revealed the importance of interpersonal influences, such as friends, school staff, educators, and the immigrant community. Parents believed that their children's friends influence many aspects of their lives. They argued that developing friendships could enhance their children's confidence, and that having support from a group of friends could make the school settlement process smoother for new students. From the parents' point of view, friends are 'unofficial,' but reliable sources of information. They believed that their children could find out more information from their friends than via official resources like school websites. However, parents also highlighted the effect of peer pressure. They stated that peers could impact (both positively and negatively) on the students' school grades, what subjects they choose to study, and ultimately what career path they decide to follow.

The wider school community, including school administrators, school leaders, teachers, counsellors, and careers advisors, is another factor that parents believed both directly and indirectly influenced young people' school-to-work transitions. Parents talked about communication between the school and families as crucial for facilitating the students' settlement at school, as well as building a connection with the school. However, some parents claimed that schools do not have any intention to communicate with parents, especially immigrant parents. They reiterated that they were the ones who approached the school to find help for their children.

Another recurrent theme that emerged in the interviews was the communication and language issues that immigrant parents and students experienced in the new country. Most of the parents revealed that they and their children had struggled with language difficulties. They noted how their lack of English proficiency had contributed to social isolation and mental health issues. The parents also suggested that a lack of language skills could impede the learning process and lead to low academic performance. Having explained the parents' views, in the following chapter, I present the findings from the career advisors' interviews.

Chapter Six: Career Advisors

Introduction

This chapter presents data generated from discussions with six career advisors, gathered over eight interviews. The chapter is divided into five main sections. The chapter begins with a brief overview of each career advisor's profile, their qualifications, and work experience. The second section presents the results of the analysis divided into three themes: multiple roles, the support that the career advisors provide, and the factors that influence the school-to-work transition from their perspective. The fifth section provides a reflection on the interviews; it presents my understandings and thoughts on the interviews. The final section summarises the chapter's findings and their significance in terms of the New Zealand context.

Getting to Know the Career Advisors

The career advisors were recruited from co-educational and publicly-funded schools. Gail is head of the careers department of a public, decile six, girls' secondary school. At the time of the interview, she had been in the position for less than a year. Originally from the UK, she has been living in Aotearoa New Zealand for more than 18 years. She has a Master's degree in Education and a Bachelor of Arts degree, specialising in History and Literature. Although she had the option of completing a diploma in careers advising, she did not complete it after her colleagues advised her that, "it wouldn't be of much value to the job." Prior to becoming a career advisor, she worked as a literacy and learning support specialist and was the director of a learning centre at a different school from where she currently works.

Marita was introduced by Gail. She is head of the international department and, according to her, part of her job involves advising students about different career pathways. Prior to this job, Marita had been a teacher for approximately 27 years. Her main teaching subjects were social studies, English, and Japanese. She also has experience working in the ESOL (English as a second language) department. As part of her job as a student exchange

coordinator, she has travelled to many countries around the world which obviously helps her when working with international students.

Sarah is the head of the careers department in a decile six co-educational secondary school. At the time of the interview, she had been employed at the school for six months as a career advisor. After many years of being a teacher aid in schools, she finally became a registered teacher and worked as an English teacher for approximately four years. Before that, she held a variety of roles in non-educational workplaces (for example, she worked as a flight attendant and was a communication advisor in a construction company). She believes that her varied work experience provides her with a lot of knowledge that she now uses in her current role: "So, I think my background totally supports career advising because I have had loads of jobs." She also stated that her experience as an English teacher helps her in her current role: "being an English teacher is good because I can help with scholarships and writing is my next passion." According to her, it is not a good idea to accept a career advisors' role too early in life. She noted that people usually have another role in the school before becoming a career advisor. She revealed that while she does not hold any post-graduate degrees she has certificates, diplomas, and graduate diplomas in various fields.

George is in his third year as the head of a decile seven, co-educational school. He obtained a Master's degree from a university in New Zealand before he became the head of the careers department. He has 17 years teaching experience which includes five years teaching in the UK. Before he became the head of the department, he was a biology teacher and then the dean for five years.

Denise, who recently became the head of the careers department in a co-educational, decile 5 college[14], has a background in sociology and history. Her employment history

[14] Some secondary schools in Aotearoa New Zealand are called college. This college Denise worked for has more study options than other secondary schools I was involved with.

includes working as an immigration officer and for advisory and consulting services. However, her main experience was in teaching history and social science. When she was a teacher, she often counselled students; this is what led her to accept the offer to work part-time as a vocational advisor. After working as a vocational advisor for a while, she was then asked to be the head of the career advisors department, a role which was, initially, part-time. While she did not have any official training in career advising, she believes that talking to her colleagues who have career advising experience has helped. She has also attended a career advisors conference, which had a positive impact on her role.

David obtained his Bachelor's degree, specialising in physical education and health, in Auckland. He worked as a teacher and a professional development facilitator for a primary school for three years. He then moved to Europe and worked with youth. Upon returning to New Zealand, he continued his career as a youth development researcher. He now works as a career advisor and is the head of the careers department in a decile three, co-educational, college[15] in Aotearoa New Zealand. He has also completed a primary career guidance qualification at the Nelson/Marlborough Institute of Technology.

Multiple Roles

We're like counsellors and mothers and administrators and everything. (Marita)

This theme explores how career advisors understand and describe their role helping students in their transition from school-to-work. All of the career advisors agreed that their job involves examining "students' lives beyond school and what that might look like" (Gail). After analysing the interview data, I classified different aspects of the career advisors job into four categories: evaluating, informing, planning, and motivating.

The career advisors asserted that as part of their job they are responsible for evaluating students' academic abilities, from the start of their enrolment to the present day

(which is normally from year 9 to the end of year 12). They synthesise a student's academic background and achievements (for example, by compiling a list of their NCEA credits), so that they can direct them to the right courses, classes, and subjects, or future career pathways. They typically look at a student's past grades, previous school reports, and their current academic performance. They may also meet with former teachers and deans to gather the required information. As George commented:

> When they first enrol they have an interview and we try and look at what their academic ability was like overseas. So, we usually get information from the last schools, wherever they were ... If it doesn't fit right, I talk to those students and help them into where they would be, or if they need, to move out of a class during the year.

In addition to evaluating a student's academic performance, four of the advisors emphasised the importance of assessing a student's personality, skills, values, attributes, and strengths. The advisors may use personality assessment tools or gain this information via informal interviews with the student and various school staff members: "I can chat to a kid and I can make suggestions about their personality and the way that they perform" (Denise).

Another aspect of a career advisor's job involves informing students and their families about different careers and possible educational and employment pathways. Some career advisors, such as Gail, believe that this is their primary role:

> I consider our job as supportive information providers. We're not here to make value judgments. We're not here to start putting stuff out there that we know is not going to be necessarily helpful. But we are in the business of putting as much information out there generally that all students have access to, and can read from that information.

Similar to Gail, Denise asserted that providing information is an important part of this job. In her eyes, careers advising is like selling students a product, which is choosing a pathway. She suggested that students do not have any information about this product and they do not even know they need it. Thus, according to Denise, an advisor's role is to inform them about their various options.

The advisors explained the different approaches that they use to inform students about their various career options. For instance, some of them emphasised the importance of organising careers events and linking students with course providers, universities, and industry training providers:

> We're doing careers advice, but it could be we're facilitating events and school events externally ... we have to help them, and we take them out and meet providers, and show them those places. (George)

During their school careers fairs, the career advisors often invite students to speak with professionals from diverse professions: "The students were given a short presentation by the individual institutions, and then they had the opportunity of going and talking to them to find out and take more information away" (Gail). However, Denise takes a different approach. She believes that talking to different professionals can happen outside of careers expos:

> I used to take groups of nine and I would just start walking in any direction […] every class. We used to do it about every four weeks on a Friday morning when it's quiet in town ... So, we would walk down and I would stand at the traffic lights. And as the people were waiting, I'd say, excuse me, can you tell me three things you like about your job and three things you find challenging? And I only want five minutes because it'll be boring after five minutes and kids want it to be fresh and five minutes is all they want to hear.

Any part-time work that students do provides them with transferable skills. Students can also gain knowledge about different professions by being exposed to workplaces and experiencing different jobs. Careers advisors believe that they can facilitate this process by making appointments with employers, giving the students rides to various places of employment, and teaching them how to commute or catch a bus.

Planning is another aspect of a career advisor's role. All six advisors explained that their role consists of making plans and developing new timetables for students based on what they decide. In essence, they present them with a range of options: "I mean, that's sort of our goal here … we want when everyone leaves to have a definitive plan and to have actual action […] we don't want them to leave without a plan." (George)

Career advisors work alongside deans and heads of departments to create plans for their students, particularly in relation to acquiring pre-requisite skills like English. Four career advisors explained that as part of their role, they encourage and foster students' motivation so that they can take control of their career paths. Denise believes that for some students, the school-to-work transition is a challenging process because it requires them to push themselves beyond their comfort zones; thus, they must constantly motivate them. Denise asserted that being able to motivate students is a skill that a career advisor should have. In line with Denise, Sarah stated: "we tell them, 'here's your steps and it will be a bit longer than usual.' And my job is to inspire [them] not to let go of that."

Five of the advisors discussed the importance of their role as mediators, noting that they often had to mediate between students and their parents. According to them, in many families, immigrant families included, when it comes to choosing a future career or educational pathways, there are often conflicts between students and their parents. Two careers advisors also mentioned that, some immigrant parents asked the careers advisors to encourage their children to pursue certain subjects and careers. They also believed that

educators at schools may have this authority to choose subjects for the students . As David revealed, a career advisor must "try to find the middle ground" and "reach [a] resolution." Denise concurred with David stating: "I try to win the parents over slowly, gently, because […] we don't want any parents, any grandparents upset, we don't want to have family problems, but we want our children to feel fulfilled." In cases where the parents are aware of their children's decision but do not agree with them, career advisors, "support the students to help their parents and families see their way of thinking" (George). They also talk to the parents, provide them with information about their children's academic results, personality, and possible options. However, they ultimately let them decide. As Gail stated:

> They didn't want to be told how to raise their daughter ... We were just saying this could be of real benefit for everybody. Look at it from that point of view, from that lens, rather than, oh, this is just really good for her. It was like, this could be a really good opportunity that will really benefit the whole family.

Gail also explained that in some cases they, "organise for institutions to contact the family and then take the family on a trip around with that student so the family can then ask those questions." However, there is often some tension between the student and their parents; consequently, students are often hesitant to tell their parents what they want to do. In these cases, careers advisors encourage and support the students to involve their parents in the decision-making process.

All six advisors stated that identifying at-risk students is another aspect of their role. For most of the advisors (four), the term at-risk refers to students who are at a higher risk of leaving school because of low attendance and/or low achievement according to national target. For instance, George, who was a dean at his current place of employment before he became a career advisor, usually identifies at-risk students based on their grades and NCEA

results. However, some advisors noted that students who "are not interested in anything" and "get bored and muck around" can also be considered at-risk. David said that these students are "more likely to have lower health status, poor life expectancy, more crime." To identify at-risk students, career advisors usually look at a student's socioeconomic background, attendance, academic achievements (for example, their grades and class engagement), and any behavioural issues.

Supporting Careers Advisors

This section provides insight into the factors that influence career advisors' support of students and their families. The advisors discussed how these influences might affect the ways they support students and provide them with guidance. They talked about positive aspects of school-related actors such as teachers, the leadership team, the liaison team, and the international department. They also discussed the importance of agency-related actors and individuals from outside the school environment, including bilingual community members, higher education providers, businesses, and key industry employers. The findings also showed that a shortage of time and having to complete paperwork had a negative impact on their success.

All of the career advisors highlighted the supportive role of teachers. According to Marita, teachers can act as career advisors and reduce the workload on those specifically assigned to this role. She believes that the subject and form teachers know the student better than anyone else, and as such, are best positioned to provide career advice. Teachers may also inform students about different careers and support them to make career-related decisions. In addition, teachers provide career advisors with information about an individual student's academic performance and his/her interests. In other words, teachers and career advisors often work hand-in-hand to help students choose subjects and assist them in choosing a career path:

> It is important to know the career advisors have support from senior leadership and other teachers involved in career education in any context so that their job is supported. So, if a teacher talks to a student about their interests and skills and values and that information is collected and comes to the career advisers, we can work together. (David)

Similarly, Marita revealed her processes for obtaining information about a particular student: "I know the teachers, so I talk to the teachers and I'm asking for reports or just anecdotal information about the students, how they're going."

The advisors also noted the positive influence of the school leadership team, including the principal, deans, and the board of trustees. Three advisors suggested that school principals could provide career advice to students instead of just the careers' staff. Further, they noted that leadership team members can facilitate communication with parents, particularly those from immigrant backgrounds. Another aspect of a leader's role involves resolving issues that are not within the career advisor's job description, but which may still impact upon their work: for example, a student's behavioural issues or conflicts between students, parents, and their community. As Gail commented: "Often some of the issues that arise are in school, and that isn't our role. We're beyond this place and the people that work in those kinds of middle management areas, like deans and senior leadership team, they're school centred." George described the experience of working with an Afghani student whose parents did not agree with her choice to study physical education. In this situation, the leadership team provided the career advisors with support and conversed with appropriate members of the Afghani community. Two career advisors mentioned the role of line managers and how they support and helped the career advisors. As Sarah explained, "I have a line manager that discusses our programme and when I plan things and talk about what we're going to do, she supports me."

Gail concurred stating: “If […] things get to the point where I'm not getting the information I need, they’ll step in.”

Most of the career advisors (five) noted the importance of the liaison team. Liaison teams help students access their NCEA results and can assist them with scheduling assessments, obtaining financial assistance, and making sure their credits are recorded correctly. According to three advisors, liaison teams also support them in terms of communicating with the students’ families, something which can be clearly seen in Denise’s statement:

> If I'm not able to have the parents come in, because often it’s a language barrier, we do have somebody that I often work with, which is Angela, …she’s our liaison person, and she will often kind of sit with them and in some cases uses a translator.

For some schools, the data highlights the role of international departments in supporting career advisors. The international department basically oversees pastoral care for all of the international students (including those on the path to residency and those on non-resident visas), and matters of enrolment. According to four participants, the pastoral care team assist career advisors in terms of providing career advice, both for the students and their parents. The school’s international department can also facilitate communication between parents and careers advisors. Marita added that the international department is the contact point for overseas agents and parents who are not living in New Zealand. However, not all of the secondary schools in which I completed interviews had international departments; instead, some have line managers who support international students.

All six advisors shared their views about external support such as higher education and industry training providers, education hubs, community mentors, and employers. Advisors agreed that course providers, and tertiary institutions such as universities, could

support them by delivering short presentations and talking to students. George and Gail noted the importance of the international department at the universities in terms of following-up with students. George elaborated on this point, stating that recent immigrants may not be able to go directly to university after graduating. In addition to the high cost of university, students whose parents are on work visas or even those who have been residing in New Zealand for less than three years are not able to access student loans. He noted the importance of following-up with these students; many schools dedicate resources to their careers departments for this exact purpose. He concluded that the university's international department can help career advisors to connect these students with the university and other types of tertiary providers (e.g., industry training providers, both polytechnics and institutes of technology that make up the New Zealand Institute of Skills and Technology), and offer them advice about future studies. Marita also mentioned the support of education hubs such as Christchurch Educated.

Three advisors noted the importance of community members as "mentors", or individuals from various ethnic groups who provide additional support for students. Due to demands on their time, career advisors may not be able to meet regularly with students, especially those who are considered at-risk. These mentors help career advisors in terms of career counselling. As George explained:

> The reality is, I don't have time to be able to mentor those people regularly ... so, by mentoring, it's meeting with the student, checking in with them, seeing how they're going and what can we do to help.

These mentors typically have "a shared culture or cultural identity" and tend to be from the student's place of birth. These factors mean that they often have a greater understanding of the challenges the student may be facing:

> We had a liaison from the community come in to translate for me. And we talked a lot about cultural appropriateness and protocol prior to the meeting ... It was just about the individual. But it also kept the family safe and it kept them culturally safe because they didn't want to be told how to raise their daughter.

The advisors, however, pointed out that this support may not always be available within the community.

During the interview, advisors discussed the various challenges which impact upon their work. Career advisors cited time shortages as a determining factor that negatively impacts the level of support they can provide. According to them, there is an imbalance between their duties and the time they have to complete all of their work:

> The biggest influence on job performance is time, OK? It really is, because there's actually, there's always a little bit of compromise. We can't do everything. There is probably twice as many things that I could do that I can actually do in reality. So, you've got to prioritise what are the most useful things that are actually going to be the highest benefit. (Marita)

Further, the advisors have many responsibilities and duties, some of which have nothing to do with their job. Denise stated that they organise career events, Gateway, communicate with tertiary agencies, meet with parents, students, and teachers, and provide students with well-being counselling. Administrative duties take up a lot of their time; advisors believed that these duties could be handled by others. Three advisors also pointed out that their career advising role is part-time and usually attached to a teaching or management role. As Denise explained:

> I need to do eight hours doing history or, you know, and it's very hard for the careers adviser to put both hats on because you're here and you're

> talking to a kid and you're like and you're rushing over and you're not prepared for your class because of this. And I just was working too much.

Two career advisors believed that in addition to meeting the Career Development Benchmarks (from the Ministry of Education), it is essential to complete training programmes and career advisor courses. Denise revealed that she did not complete these courses but instead, had received "professional development and information from school communities about how careers can be advised" from other school staff including the dean and the school's principal.

Factors that Influence the School-to-Work Transition

> In reality, the students are going to have the influence of their peers. What they are seeing in the community, what they are watching social media, all of those other things are going to have a bigger influence today. But I think the parent section is higher for immigrants. (Gail)

This section describes the factors that influence immigrant students' transition from school-to-work, from a career advisor's perspective. Advisors noted the impact of family, peers, and the ethnic community's value system. They also noted the influence of different languages, education systems, and immigration regulations.

Only one advisor believed that career advisors had the greatest influence on a student's career choice and their decision-making process. Most of the career advisors believed that families have the biggest influence on their children's choice of career, with one stating that, in many cases, "the student's decision is the family decision." Five career advisors emphasized that a family's internal culture has a significant influence. This includes the values they consider important (like respect, honesty, and education), the roles and expectations they have for family members, and the traditions or rituals they follow as a family. For example, in some families, "students are encouraged to get out and get working

and contribute to the family." As a result, the students may leave school before they are ready to start a job or continue their education. In some cultures, the student's gender and birth order also affects the student's decision-making process. As David stated:

> For lots of Fiji Indian families, the eldest son has to get out and get working and lots of importance is placed on him as being kind of the sole hope of the family in terms of earning money. So, that role in the family is really clear-cut and that happens quite often for the Fiji eldest boy earning money. So, that role in the family is really clear-cut and that happens quite often for the Fiji eldest boy.

Gail added that during crises, like the Covid-19 pandemic, young people are sometimes expected to work to support the family financially. This was particularly true where one or both of the parents lost their jobs. In cases like these, students are more likely to work and assume financial responsibility for the family.

Advisors discussed the "value system" of a culture and "what families believe … is valuable." This value system filters down to the students, because that is their primary influence. For example, some parents encourage their children to choose "prestigious" and "high income" careers such as engineering or medicine. As Gail elaborated:

> We get a lot of students whose families have expectations on what they're going to achieve, and that can be high expectations in some cultures. The expectation is doctors, lawyers, accountants, you know, all that sort of stuff. Whether the students necessarily have the academic prowess for that or not is another thing.

While some parents support their children to complete tertiary and university studies, two advisors noted that in some immigrant families, education is not seen as valuable or important. In these cases, the parents will not support students if they want to complete

higher education. As noted above, in Fijian families, the eldest boy is considered responsible for the household income. As a result of this cultural belief, their families do not typically encourage them to pursue university studies. Although these advisors emphasised that a parent's view can have a negative effect on the transition process, Gail is not surprised that students want to conform to their family's values. In other words, she believes that a student's values are defined by their family and their culture, not by the school and the New Zealand education system. As she elaborated:

> That value system then will actually stop those students being here because they've got commitments at home and therefore, they're not going to achieve. So, the New Zealand education system is set up for achievement. That's the nature of it. It's very European. It's struggling to identify itself along priority learning lines. … You know, just being in school till the end of year 13 and having achieved nothing academically or in terms of great attendance in educational speak in New Zealand, that would not be seen as a successful year ... But culturally, that is seen as a successful experience.

According to the advisors, parents have the most contact with young people and thus, students are more likely to be influenced by their parents than anyone else. While the reasons given relating to the parents' influence varied, advisors identified four common reasons: respect for one's parents, seeing one's parents as role models, the bond between students and parents, and the student needing/wanting their parents' financial support. Two career advisors believed that, in some families, children are expected to follow their parents out of respect, and that this belief can influence the student's decision-making and their transition process. These students may not always be able to choose what they want as it will not satisfy their parents. Denise stressed that immigrant families are more likely to exhibit this pattern of behaviour than non-immigrant families. Moreover, some students see their parents as role

models: they “see what their parents do and how they do it.” Two career advisors also noted that some students cannot transition to the next step without their parent’s financial support. These students may do whatever their parents want in order to access financial support.

All six advisors identified peers and ethnic community members as other actors who influence students’ career aspirations or employment options. George believed that immigrant students want to identify with local peers. However, Marita and Gail believed that some immigrant students prefer to establish friendships with students from their own community. Consequently, they are affected more by friends who share the same language and culture. The other careers advisors agreed that students also feel more valued and accepted when they associate with members of their own community. These students feel more comfortable seeking advice about different careers and pathways from their peers.

Participants noted that differences in the New Zealand education system also play a part in the school-to-work transition among immigrant students. According to them, even though some students have good levels of English proficiency, they are not familiar with the New Zealand education system and how NCEA and the credits work. As Marita explained: “They come traditionally from countries where they’ve been told to study anywhere between 12 to 15 different subjects. They come here and they have to choose five or six and they don’t know where to start.”

All career advisors shared their views on the impact of language barriers. They had divergent opinions about how language barriers might influence the transition process for students from immigrant backgrounds. Five advisors suggested that a lack of English skills can have a negative impact on a student’s assessment process. For example, Marita stated that while some students have good knowledge of a subject (e.g., math and science), a lack of English skills means that they cannot be assessed properly. Furthermore, the advisors noted that a lack of English skills can affect a student’s learning process and academic

achievement. For instance, Denise said that some courses require a high level of English proficiency and mean that some immigrant students may not be able to participate or need to do a further year of study to improve their language skills first. She added that schools do not always have sufficient resources to provide English language support for each of the subjects that students study.

Three career advisors stated that students need a certain level of English proficiency to be able to network with peers, school staff, and employers to obtain information about different career options and pathways. Students with low levels of English proficiency typically find it harder to build connections with agencies and employers. According to David, these students are unlikely to work in some industries where employers generally prefer native English speakers:

> Automotive workplaces and lots of workplaces... if there is a language barrier or if the student doesn't appear interested for whatever reason, they would say no. It will be a big issue, especially for young people who don't have good English, but all the knowledge ... it must be too hard for the employers to manage it.

Advisors also believe that a lack of proficiency in English affects the communication between families and schools. As Gail stated:

> If I can't communicate what I'm trying to put across, and the families can't communicate back what their feelings are, or what their values are, you're kind of playing a bit of a guessing game and you are sailing blind sometimes, and then that's when you make mistakes. Having said that, it's better to make mistakes and keep trying, than not try at all. So, yeah, I find that quite tough.

According to all of the career advisors, immigration regulations and the student's residency status are other factors which affect the school-to-work transition. For example, some students move to New Zealand on a non-resident visa with the aim of obtaining residency. If they wish to remain in New Zealand permanently, they must, however, choose a job from the skill shortage list: this job may not match their interests. For non-residents, taking courses or continuing in higher education is costly; families often cannot afford to support their children. As George stated:

> We had one boy who came as an international and waiting for his residency to come through and it just come through. But at the time, being non-resident, he would have to pay international fees, up to 40 thousand to go to university ... we've got two or three adults in the family working to try and pay for this person to go. And I don't think that's fair.

Even those students who have received permanent residency must wait three years before they can qualify for fees free tertiary programmes; this rule means that they may not see university study as a viable option.

Personal Insight

When I began this study, the first thing that came to my mind was the job title "career advisors". In secondary school, and even in university, we did not have a 'career advisor' or an individual who supported students in terms of choosing their subjects or planning their career path. However, at the end of our final year at secondary school, the school counsellor, along with private counsellors, helped students to choose their field of study and their tertiary provider based on the grade they had achieved in the entrance exam. This type of counselling was limited to our final year of school. In New Zealand, I discovered that students often discuss their future careers and their post-secondary education with the career advisors at least two years prior to their final year. I believe this difference is why many of the parents in

my study did not expect, or were not aware of, the career advice services provided at secondary schools.

I found the career advisors in my study to be cooperative, compassionate, and enthusiastic about improving the careers education system for students, especially students from immigrant backgrounds. What I understood from the interviews is that they are eager to help students and their families to make wise decisions regarding their future studies and careers. In this respect, they offer a proactive service. I believe that is why all of the career advisors I approached were very keen to talk to me and know more about my project. I also felt that they cared about my project and wanted to help me too.

While I was recruiting the career advisors, I also realised that they have a very full schedule. Many times, while interviewing them, we had to pause as students or families had questions for them. It was interesting to me that during the day they have to talk to so many people and answer many questions. This is on top of developing career plans for students in different years. They also have administration work to complete and often teach classes as well.

When I began the interviews, I expected that most of the advisors would have the same style of advising students. However, each of the career advisors had their own style of supporting students. Some of their approaches were quite innovative to me. In my opinion, some of this relates to their job experience, qualifications, the nature of the secondary school or college, and the number of the team members they have. For example, some may work in a team of three. Some were the only career advisors in the entire school. I came to understand that the career advisors who had experience outside of an educational context usually encouraged students to gain experience from outside school or at least talk to people from different professions.

The relationship between the career advisor and the student is usually informal. From my point of view, this was a positive aspect of their jobs since students feel comfortable discussing their problems with them. This was a new concept for me, as I could never have developed such a close relationship with the teachers in my secondary school due to cultural reasons, and I believe that most immigrant parents in my community would agree with me.

One advisor discussed the possibility of becoming a housewife or housekeeper as a career. She explained that housewives and mothers are not generally considered to be employed individuals as they do not receive a salary. However, she argued that these roles should be seen as jobs and that students should not be blamed for choosing a career as a housewife/mother. Having heard what she had to say about this matter, I was so relieved as it gave me the feeling that there was someone who understood my situation as a full-time mother. After quitting my job to care for my children for six years, I have received little praise and encouragement from those around me. In the minds of others, this is a mother's duty and not a job, and when it is not a job, it is meaningless.

Summary of Findings

Analysis of the interviews showed that most of the interviewed career advisors lack the relevant qualifications needed to deliver and practice career education. Some career advisors indicated that they still require relevant credentials or training, particularly in Aotearoa New Zealand's bi-cultural educational context. In terms of job responsibilities, some of the career advisors were also employed in non-career related jobs such as teaching or tutoring, or they were acting as deans. They believed these roles interfered with their advising. In short, these careers advisors experienced difficulty balancing their responsibilities as career advisors with their other roles.

Career advisors noted that their role covered a wide range of responsibilities, including evaluating students' academic abilities and personal interests, providing students

and their families with relevant information, creating plans for students' transitions from school-to-work, mediating between some parents and students, and identifying at-risk students. In this study, most of the career advisors noted the importance of their role as mediators, especially for immigrant families. They held the view that students and parents, especially among the immigrant population, face a greater degree of conflict when choosing their career paths. The career advisor's role also involves identifying at-risk students, who according to those interviewed include those students who are performing badly and those who have no idea what their future plans are. Some of the advisors also noted a link between the family's immigrant background and/or ethnicity and their level of risk.

The data revealed that careers advisors are not the sole advisors in terms of giving careers advice. The advisors agreed that although the careers department can be a valuable resource for students and their families, some students may receive careers advice/assistance from other sources such as teachers and school leaders. Sometimes deans and leadership staff provide career advisors with support, particularly in complicated situations involving cultural differences. As such, careers advisors highlighted the collaboration among careers staff, school staff, and non-school partners. From the advisors' perspectives, collaboration is important as it can facilitate decision-making and a student's school-to-work transition. Partnerships with other agencies outside of school (such as employers, tertiary providers, and guest speakers) may also enhance a career advisor's ability to provide career education and facilitate a smoother decision-making process for students. During the discussion, the advisors stressed the importance of work experience for students. They all agreed that exposure to and involvement in actual workplaces provides students with valuable and reliable information about various career opportunities. However, students who lack, or have poor English language proficiency, have a lower likelihood of finding employment in certain industries since the local employers typically prefer native speakers.

This study highlighted the importance of cultural differences and language barriers and how these factors could negatively impact the school-to-work transition of immigrant students. All of the career advisors in this study agreed that the family and parental involvement in careers education play an important role in a student's career decisions. In immigrant families, this influence can be related to the family's culture, parental expectations, and the specific way parents support their children and are involved with school activities. Language barriers, the education system, and immigration rules can present immigrant students with various challenges. Participants stated that a lack of English proficiency negatively impacts a student's academic performance, their academic evaluation, their ability to build friendships, and communicate with school staff. Their unfamiliarity with the education system and specific immigration rules may cause further problems for them.

In the next chapter I bring together the key threads of chapters five and six along with the extant literature to discuss different aspects of school-to-work transitions from the perspectives of both immigrant parents and career advisors.

Chapter Seven: Discussion

Introduction

This chapter analyses and interprets the study's findings in light of the previous literature. It extends current understandings of the school-to-work transition by foregrounding immigrant parents' and career advisors' perspectives. The chapter is divided into five sections. The first section highlights the importance of parental expectations; the expectations they have of their children and of the school, and the impact of these expectations on the school-to-work transition. The second section explores how both parents and peers influence a student's career choice and decisions around their transition aspirations. The third section discusses communication and involvement, a theme which examines the factors which influence parental involvement and a school's communications with immigrant families. The fourth section outlines the various social systems, resources, contributors, and supporters that could provide help, not only for students, but also for the parents and career advisors. The final section discusses the importance of work experience and the barriers immigrants encounter in either obtaining placement/part-time work or having it as a crucial component of the school-to-work transition.

Cross-Cultural Expectations

The analysis showed that parents, directly or indirectly, have certain expectations of both students and careers advisors. Some of these expectations may have a major impact on their children's choice of subjects and career pathway. Interviews with the career advisors also revealed a similar theme: career advisors also raised the issue of parental expectations and stated these had a major impact on a student's subject choices and career pathway, especially among the immigrant population. There may be consequences such as expecting children to obtain high grades, choosing only tertiary education, choosing specific subjects that lead to specific careers (for example, engineering).

Career advisors in this study noted that immigrant parents often put pressure on their children to do well in school. Most of the parents in the current study believed that having high grades is a clear predictor of a successful school-to-work transition. For them, this is one way to guarantee that their children will secure in future, because of good grades in the present. They support their children by hiring tutors so that they can gain high grades. Prior studies have found that students from East Asian countries, or those with highly competitive school systems, are more likely to hire private tutors (Ha & Park, 2017; Yamato & Zhang, 2017). Immigrant parents' expectations and encouragement of their children to excel academically/achieve high grades can result in positive school outcomes (Froiland & Davison, 2013; Kewalraman & Phillipson, 2020; Lau et al., 2011). Likewise, the parents in this study noted that if children are expected to achieve high grades, then they might benefit from tutoring. Pressure to achieve academically may exacerbate stress levels and increase the anxiety and stress (Deb et al., 2015). Parents also can inadvertently elevate the stress that youth can already feel in the context of the 21st century. Stress associated with a lack of English skills may add to the pressures of parents' expectations and create a stressful environment that may negatively impact not only the student's mental health, but also their learning process and subject choice.

In addition to having high grades, this study found that parents' expectations determined their children's subject choices and ultimately, influenced their decision-making process. Parents steered their children towards specific career paths; for example, becoming educators or doctors. Immigrant parents interviewed for this study believed that certain types of jobs bring honour to the family. The interviewed parents revealed that they see some professions in the arts – photography or music for example – as a 'fancy' option for their children (see chapter five). According to Polenova et al. (2018), Asian Americans appear to have a cultural preference for certain professions. Similarly, Hui and Lent (2018) found that

students who adhered to Asian values perceived family support to pursue careers in science more favourably. Based on my interviews with most parents with Asian backgrounds, these parents encourage their children to choose professions that are highly valued within their culture. However, in some cultures the relation between parental expectations and subject choice is not significant. For example, Yamamoto (2008) has argued that Latino and African American parents have lower educational expectations than parents of other racial and ethnic groups.

Although some of the parents involved in the present study were aware of the importance of transferable skills such as teamwork and problem solving, especially in the New Zealand context, most believed that the knowledge students gained in mathematics and science was more valuable for their children's future careers. These parents also believed that sports and physical education (PE) would not give their children the necessarily knowledge and skills or equip them with essential skills for employment. Other studies found most students believe that sports and active recreation provide them with opportunities to learn important life skills, like teamwork and leadership, while maintaining mental health (Boyd & Sally, 2017; Eime et al., 2013). It also has been argued that in hiring procedures, employers consider a wide range of characteristics developed through sport, such as teamwork, communication skills, motivation, competitiveness, and resilience (Hayden et al., 2015). The current study revealed that immigrant parents are not aware of the importance of PE subjects in terms of enhancing their children's transferable skills and increasing their future employability.

One reason the interviewed parents gave for favouring certain employment pathways was related to their experience in their home countries. For them, it would have been difficult to find a job in these fields. In contrast, they considered jobs like engineering 'serious' and/or 'money-making' jobs. Subject choices can involve a complex interplay of parental beliefs

and expectations (Kewalraman and Phillipson 2020). These beliefs and expectations can be derived from past educational experiences as well as frustrated career ambitions. This study suggests that acculturation, plays a significant role in enabling parents to recognise their children's needs and change the educational experiences and cultural beliefs they held in their countries of origin (Hui & Lent, 2018).

The parents in this study expected school staff to assess their children for placement based on knowledge, their academic backgrounds, and qualifications acquired in their home countries rather than using New Zealand assessment strategies. However, interviews with careers advisors showed that one of a career advisor's main responsibilities is to synthesise information from students, including their academic records, and discuss this information with the school's deans, the teachers, and parents, so as to direct the student to the right course and subject. This study suggests that there are discrepancies between what parents believe the school should do, and what academic advisors at school actually do, or are employed to do. The source of these beliefs could be parents' cultural expectations, parents' experience of their home country and lack of insight into New Zealand education system. For example, according to some parents, there is no career advisors' role in some of the immigrants' home countries, meaning that the term is new to them and their children. This discrepancy also relates to communication barriers between the school and parents.

Analysis of the interview data revealed that the assessment strategies used in the schools could have an impact on the adjustment and settlement of students in the new education system. The parents of students from non-English speaking countries shared that their children's limited knowledge of English knowledge had a negative impact on the assessment for placement process. The choice of subjects was therefore challenging for students. In some cases, students were not able to enrol in the subjects they were interested in because they did not meet the requirements based on their assessment grades. Due to having

their qualifications assessed incorrectly, students are sometimes forced to choose subjects that they have already passed in their home countries. Wilkinson et al. (2013) have shown that for new immigrants, repeating secondary school credits and subjects can be a significant issue. According to my study, there is a high level of frustration associated with having to repeat courses upon arrival in the new country. This practice contributes to low self-esteem and ineffective educational and employment paths (Nichols et al., 2020). The rejection of educational credentials can result in the loss of time during a critical period in the immigrant youth's lives; they must watch as their native peers complete their education and transition into the workforce.

This study also found that parents expect teachers and careers advisors to have more control over the students' subject choices. The interviewed parents believe that students should not be given the freedom to choose their subjects based on their interests and that the schools sometimes ignore what parents want for their children. According to parents interviewed for this study, educators have the authority and power to push students towards particular subjects or careers. Such a view suggests that the parents, in this study at least, need to be educated about the New Zealand school system and be provided with information that explains the role of career advisors and other educators in providing students with support. Ule et al. (2015) have argued that parents should understand that controlling and telling their children what the best option for them will not help them develop their independence as individuals: "Parents trying to support young people to cope with the demands of late modernity simultaneously also prevent them preparing to cope (independently) with these demands in their future life course" (p. 345). My study highlighted students should be viewed as individuals with the right to make their own decisions, and parents and careers advisors should only act as mediators and facilitators in the transition from school to work.

Another key finding of this study pertains to cultural responsive career education. According to the parents' interviews, careers advisors lack cultural responsiveness and are often unfamiliar with the cultural backgrounds and origins of students. This lack of awareness may create obstacles and result in conflicts between careers advisors and immigrant families. Conversely, careers advisors acknowledged that acquiring knowledge about a student's cultural could foster stronger connections between immigrant families and the careers advisors. This aligns with the findings of Reid's (2010) research, which proposed that if careers advisors share the same cultural backgrounds as students, they are more likely to offer effective careers advice, leading to a smoother transition from school-to-work. Similarly, previous studies have demonstrated that a culturally responsive careers advisor can utilise their understanding of a student's culture and values to cultivate a robust rapport with both the student and their family (Ford, 2012; Smith et al., 2020). However, the current study has shown that creating a culturally responsive environment may not be as straightforward as it seems in Aotearoa New Zealand. Considering the demands career advisors already face (their part-time time allowance, the size of the immigrant population in New Zealand, and the diversity of countries that these students represent), it might not possible for educators to learn about every culture (Weinstein et al., 2004).

Interpersonal Influence

Research has demonstrated that interpersonal factors affect different aspects of a student's school-to-work transition, including their career development, career readiness, career awareness, and their level of career maturity. The role of their parents in this process is also a crucial factor. Researchers have previously found that students seek career support from their parents rather than from teachers and counsellors. By offering various types of support, parents are able to assist their children in the development of their careers. A

parent’s support for their child’s education can take the form of psychological, academic, and financial support (Lim & You, 2017; Seon & Kim, 2008).

In the early stages of immigration, parents serve as confidants and advisors. They provide emotional and psychological support to their children. Parents interviewed for this study believed that their children are more emotionally dependent on them, particularly in the early stages of settlement, because they have not yet built their own social networks within and outside of the school. Therefore, these children prefer to share their daily experiences, as well as important decisions, with their parents. Speaking the same language at home also means it is easier for children to share with their parents than others at school. This emotional support may influence a student’s subject and career decisions as it is likely that s/he will want their parents’ approval.

Pursuing certain career paths can be costly. For instance, some occupations require students to attend tertiary education; this is limited by a student’s ability to pay for it and/or their need to obtain a student loan, financial aid, or a scholarship. In New Zealand, new immigrants cannot receive financial assistance from the government. The Aotearoa New Zealand Ministry of Social Development (2022) stipulates that unless students are citizens, or have held a resident visa for three years or more, they are not entitled to financial support for tertiary study. Hence, recently immigrated students normally rely on their parents financially. Parents' expectations could add to immigrant students' financial and emotional dependence. As a result, immigrant students tend to select subjects and pursue careers that are of interest to their parents.

My study found that experiences of racial discrimination and inequalities in the New Zealand labour market may influence a parent’s support for their child’s school-to-work transition. Some interviewed parents had experienced racial discrimination when looking for work in Aotearoa New Zealand. Like Tilbury and Colic-Peisker (2007, 2006), the current

study found that immigrant parents hold jobs below their education and skill levels, with little opportunity for advancement due to being from a different ethnic group, nationality, or having poor language proficiency. These parents believed that their children will also be discriminated against in the same way. They hold the view that like them, their children will have a lower chance of being employed if they do not have high qualifications from New Zealand institutes. As a result of this belief, they encourage their children to work harder and steer them towards fields with a high probability of hiring (e.g., engineering and medicine). These results reflect earlier studies in the US context, claiming that Asian American college students' career choices are influenced by factors such as racism perceived by their parents and family members. Other factors include stereotypes, and a lack of co-ethnic role models who are pursuing atypical career paths (OiYan, 2014).

According to the current study’s findings, young people can choose to pursue the same career as their parents. Children believe that their parents are successful and valuable members of society. It has been discussed that young people also are encouraged to bring honour to the family by choosing some particular jobs. Therefore, young people prefer to choose careers that is already chosen and valued by their parents. This finding supports earlier studies which show that parents’ jobs influence their children’s career choices (Pablo-Lerchundi, 2015). In Japan for instance, male youth tend to follow their fathers' profession (Tsukahara, 2007). Studies examining mothers’ job suggest positive outcomes for their children, especially for daughters, which indicates the importance of gender role models for females too (Boll & Hoffmann, 2015). In the UK, those from occupationally advantaged families were significantly more likely to pursue a career in professional, managerial, or technical fields compared to those without such advantages (Croll, 2008).

The current study highlights the role of peers in young people’s career aspirations, career choices, and employment options. Interviewed parents believed that through their

friends' networks, their children are able to find information which parents cannot find via formal channels or school staff members. This finding supports other studies which have found that students from minority groups, like immigrants, take advantage of their friends' knowledge and networks. These students are more likely to seek advice from their friends, rather than from formal sources (Lau et al, 2012; Moote & Archer, 2018; Wang & Degol, 2013). However, listening to their friends or taking their advice may lessen the child's reliance on their parent and may result in tension with their parent(s). One of the parents expressed concern that when her daughter started school and made friends, she changed her mind about her future career due to the pressure she received from her peers. This shows immigrant parents may initially have a significant influence on the students' transition from school to work; however, other factors such as friends may also influence this process overtime.

Social capital theory, highlights the role of peers as a source of social capital. Social capital refers to the resources and connections individuals possess through their social networks. In this research, parents noted that having friends and positive relationships with classmates enhances their children confidence and social life. Wang & Eccles (2012), has emphasised the importance of peers in providing emotional and social support, which forms the foundation for increasing young people's agency and confidence. This, in turn, enables them to utilise their relationships and resources in pursuit of their goals. For instance, previous studies have shown that strong peer networks are associated with increased willingness to seek help, feelings of collective efficacy, social responsibility, civic engagement (Flanagan, 2013; Wray-Lake & Abrams, 2020), and greater social engagement (Scanlon et al., 2020). Additionally, research by Ruschoff et al. (2018) found that peers' efficacy beliefs were positively associated with young people's engagement in job search activities and indirectly influenced their job search outcomes. Such relationships influence a

student's wellbeing as they help to validate their sense of self-identity and bolster their self-esteem and confidence. They also enhance their happiness and life satisfaction (Bhochhibhoya et al., 2017; Holttum, 2015).

The experiences shared by parents in this study shed light on the challenges faced by immigrant students in accessing social capital within schools. The presence of language barriers often hinders their ability to easily integrate into friend groups, leading to potential exclusion and instances of bullying. This aligns with the concept of social capital inequities, as highlighted in chapter three. The literature argues that immigrant students may have a lower chance of accessing social capital within the school environment. However, it also emphasises the importance of friends' social capital derived from peers, which has been recognised as a valuable yet underutilised form of social capital that can significantly contribute to positive education and career outcomes among immigrant students.

The parents in this study suggested that immigrant students may face additional barriers in developing networks with peers due to language and cultural obstacles. This finding raises concerns regarding the limited opportunities for these students to access the social capital available through peer relationships. As a result, they may experience a lack of support, guidance, and resources that are often derived from meaningful connections with peers. This further reinforces the need to address social capital inequities and provide targeted interventions to facilitate the integration and social inclusion of immigrant students, particularly during the crucial transition into secondary school in a new country where established friendship groups may pose additional challenges.

High levels of cultural and linguistic diversity in the school population can be argued as one of the factors that facilitates the establishment of friendships among immigrant students and aids them in a smoother settlement process. As such, in diverse environment they have higher chance of finding friend from the same background. Parents noted that their

students formed co-national connections more easily than relationships with individuals from other countries. It has been found that a majority of immigrants' friends are from their home countries or cultures, with a higher number of co-national friendships than host-national friendships (McFaul, 2016; Newsome & Cooper, 2016; Wang et al., 2017). As a result, students who have friends from the same ethnic cultural background, may encounter less stress and perform better academically in the school.

Communication and Involvement

This study found that there are significant communication gaps between parents, the students, and the associated schools. It argues there are barriers (like language and culture differences) that may hinder effective communication between the families and the schools. The findings also showed that in addition to proactive communication between the schools and parents, parental school involvement could have an influence on a student’s career decisions and their school-to-work transition.

The current study found that language and culture are the main barriers to developing effective communication between the parents, students, and careers advisers. Parents in this study expressed concern that their involvement in their children’s schooling was lessened because of cultural and linguistic differences, perceived by both the schools and the parents. Careers advisors reported that some immigrant parents have no contact with the school due to a lack of English proficiency. The parents noted that language barriers caused both them and their children difficulties, especially when it came to interpreting information on the school’s and MoE’s websites. School staff may use professional language when communicating with parents, or may send home notices and memos in English to parents who do not speak English. Even though some of these parents had a fair grasp of the English language, they suggested that the information was not detailed enough: the parents felt that the information given required background knowledge of the Aotearoa New Zealand education system. For

example, the parents revealed that even if they knew the meaning of school zones and enrolment, they did not understand what "zone enrolment" meant or how it worked. This finding supports López et al.'s (2001) study which shows that non-English-speaking parents and students need extra support and training to interpret and understand important information about the school systems in new countries.

The current study's findings suggest that language barriers not only cause communication problems, but may also increase mental health issues and social isolation in the immigrant population. The risk of depression among immigrant students is higher than their domestic counterparts and language barriers can be one of the reasons (Hamamura & Laird; 2014). Prieto-Welch (2016) has argued that while any student may suffer from mental health problems as a result of academic pressures, international students are more likely to experience these as a result of language difficulties. However, careers advisers in this research did not raise this point, an omission which may indicate that educators in New Zealand underestimate the connection between mental health problems and language barriers for immigrant families.

The interviewed parents believe that schools should welcome parents and initiate initial communication with the parents as they are not familiar with the school system. They also often do not know whom they should contact. Moreover, their low language proficiency and poor confidence means they are often hesitant to approach the schools. Crozier and Davies (2007) have previously argued that in order to involve parents, educators should initiate communication. In waiting for parents to reach out to schools, educators may lose valuable opportunities to build relationships and learn about the parents and children (Van Velsor, 2007).

Career advisors and parents also differed in their views regarding intentional communication as a key component of involvement. Some of the parents did not perceive

intentional communication from the school. The schools the parent refers to have high population, which may explain why schools are not able to contact all parents on a regular basis. These parents believe that intentional communication may help develop feelings of trust and care between the parents and their children. As a result of cultural and linguistic barriers, immigrant parents may interpret this approach as an indication that the educators are uninterested in their children's future career plans. The current study's identification of the influence of intentional communication echoes several previous studies which have shown that proactive communication styles can have a significant impact on different aspects of social behaviour, emotional problems, and school students' safety (Dishion et al., 2020; Fefer et al., 2020; Garbacz, 2020; Houri et al., 2019; Sheridan et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2020).

In contrast with the parents' view, the interviewed careers advisors were more focused on directional proactive communication practices, especially with immigrant families. They try to understand what the school can do to support immigrant families rather than what parents can do to support students and the school. They invite parents to discuss their children's individual careers plans and possible approaches the school can offer them. Taking into account that these career advisors also worked in high population schools, it appears that they all had a focus on proactively communicating with and supporting families, regardless of the context of the school or the pressures of their roles. This finding is in line with career education guidelines: career educators are encouraged to communicate with parents in a proactive manner (MoE, 2009). The discrepancy between the parents' and the careers advisors' perceptions of proactive communication practices may indicate that the immigrant population needs more communication support.

In the current study, both the parents and career advisors identified parental involvement in career education as a concern. Research has shown that parental involvement in a student's careers education is critical for a successful school-to-work transition

(Ishimura, 2014, Parola et al, 2022; Ule et al., 2015). However, this study found that parents and careers educators have different views of parental involvement. For instance, while the interviewed parents insisted that they are involved in their children's career education, the careers advisors stated that parental involvement among immigrant parents is very rare. From the career advisors' point of view, parental involvement means attending school-based activities (attending parent-school staff conferences and careers fair). They consider these kinds of parents to be actively involved in their children's careers' education. Furthermore, the career advisors' interviews suggest that parental involvement is seen as a linear communication process which emphasises parental adaptation to the school's values, learning strategies, and knowledge. Consequently, schools may consider these parents with less adaptation as 'failed' parents (Ishimaru, 2014). In contrast, immigrant parents limit their role to the home environment, explaining that they play an active role in monitoring their child's academic progress, helping them with homework, and providing career advice. Language barriers often cause difficulty with school-home communication leading teachers to view immigrant parents as uninvolved: they do not acknowledge parents' involvement at home (Newman, 2019).

The current study's findings about parental involvement are consistent with previous studies which have shown that parents' understanding of involvement in career education may be influenced by their socio-cultural and educational backgrounds. The careers advisors in this study stated that, in some cultures, parents view school staff and career advisors as experts. In the current study, a few parents who came from cultural background that valued respect to educators, noted that they did not feel comfortable disagreeing with the career advisors and so kept these thoughts to themselves. The immigrant parents' respect for teachers can limits their involvement in their children's education (McBrien, 2005; Noomi, 2014; Rah et al. 2009).

The analysis of all the data suggests communication between the home and school is relatively rare in secondary school. The parents noted that the time assigned for careers interviews is short. Career advisors acknowledged that they have very limited time to offer each student/family because of the high number of school students and the limited number of careers staff. Some parents, having students enrolled in schools with a high population, also reported a lack of opportunities and time to talk with career advisors about challenging issues. This is another reason for not speaking up and consequently, being involving with their children's careers decision process. Frequent career discussions are beneficial as they reinforce career messages and enable students to make good career choices: "linking teachers, parents, friends and communities with current and reliable information about career options may provide the opportunity for all students to practice and develop their capacity to aspire and meet their career expectations" (p. 167). Matthiesen (2015) has argued that the time constraints associated with the parents-educators meetings means that parents are effectively positioned as passive listeners. When larger issues are raised, or major disagreements occur, these cannot be resolved within such a short timeframe. Despite the meeting structure limiting the possibility of discussing further issues, the follow-up meeting allows both parents and careers advisors to enhance the issues raised and to increase parental involvement in the process.

The current study also found that language difficulties and the need for translators mean that the assigned time is not long enough for these meetings to be effective. As discussed in chapter four, translation is a time-consuming process that sometimes require financial resources. However, the career advisors do not seem to consider or be aware of this issue. It has only been mentioned by a few careers advisors that a translator is needed at their career meetings with immigrant students and parents.

Community of Support: Supporting Students, Parents, and Careers Advisors

Students, parents, and career advisors are among the key players in the school-to-work transition. This study's findings suggest that all of these actors need to take advantage of their social systems, and various contributors or supporters. Developing career preparedness occurs in the context of a social environment where teachers, friends, and family offer emotional support and advice[16]. These individuals may be able to help the students/parents/career advisors in dealing with challenges immigrants face in the school-to-work transition (Vaughan & Spiller, 2012).

The career advisors highlighted the importance of the partnership between careers advisers and classroom teachers. Careers advisors believe that teachers could assist students in making career-related decisions by providing information about different careers and supporting their exploration in the classroom. This finding is consistent with prior literature that underscores the importance of collaboration between teachers and career advisors, especially in terms of providing equitable career education (Akos et al., 2011). Scholars like Vaughan and Spiller (2012) have suggested an integrated whole-school approach that provides career education by integrating career advisors with subject teachers. Similarly, McIlveen et al. (2012) have noted that the integration of career education into subject teaching would provide an opportunity to implement sustainable teaching reform strategies. The results of the current study indicate that combined discussions between students, teachers, and career advisors may enhance the school-to-work transition of immigrant students. Interviews with career advisors and the literature indicate that most career advisors in Aotearoa New Zealand hold at least two positions, one of which is a subject teacher. The careers advisor can share their expertise in the specific field that they are an expert in, which

[16] Employers are also key players. That will be discussed in a subsequent section.

can have a positive impact on the students' careers choice. However, as a result of holding different roles, they are limited in their ability to provide career advice.

This study highlights the importance a school's leadership team and their role in supporting careers education. The MoE (2009) highlights the role played by school leadership teams in providing an effective and sustainable career education and career guidance programme. The school leadership team includes the board of trustees, principals and senior managers, deans, the pastoral care team, and subject and form teachers. The careers advisors in the current study noted that the leadership team could manage issues that are not directly related to career advisors, but which may affect a student's career choices. An example of that in the present study was that leaders could assist career advisors in resolving cultural conflicts between parents, students, and migrant communities. Research in Aotearoa New Zealand has suggested that the leaders also could support students in terms of choosing a subject and career pathways (Vaughan & Spiller, 2012). However, principals are typically overburdened with other duties within the school, and providing career advice may not always be possible. Furbish and Reid (2013) have suggested that careers staff should be brought into the school management team to ensure that the school leadership is fully supportive of career education.

The career advisors in this study emphasised the role of community members and suggested that they could act as mentors for immigrant families and students. These mentors who are familiar with the families' cultures and languages may have a positive impact and help facilitate the transition process. According to MoE (2009), the community mentors could support any students who are not engaged in the learning process and/or those who have been identified as at-risk by their academic performance and behavioural issues. This support may include providing accurate and up-to-date information about career opportunities and/or enhancing a student's career competence by encouraging them to be active in their

community. They could also provide information about potential support in the community for the student in terms of career decisions. These community members could also support careers teams to plan and implement careers education events.

In light of the difficulties in communicating with school staff and receiving information, the interviewed immigrant parents often preferred to obtain information from members of their own ethnic communities or those who share the same language and culture. This finding supports prior research (Mueller et al., 2009; Turnbull & Turnbull, 2001) which has found that parents receive more information and support from other families in their community than from school districts or teachers. However, my study demonstrates that parents do not necessarily receive trustworthy or accurate information through these informal channels. Vernon and Drane (2020), who examined the educational experiences of Australian high school students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, found that frequent and timely educational discussions with educators, parents, and community members could improve the accuracy and relevance of this information.

Work Experience

The career advisors all stated that involving students in the workplace provides them with valuable and reliable information regarding particular careers and the routes they can follow to pursue these careers. They also suggested that having work experience may help the students in their future employability. This finding is consistent with the vast majority of literature presented in chapters three showing importance of engaging with workplaces to facilitate school-to-work transitions, particularly for immigrants. Some careers advisors placed a high priority on connecting students with employers. All of these careers advisors worked in schools with a higher population and a greater variety of study options. They all had a similar understanding of the value and challenges of workplace learning of various kinds.

All career advisors in the current study believed that engaging in work (paid/unpaid) while at secondary school is important. It provides students with access to work experience and an opportunity to develop transferable skills like team work and leadership. They believe that placement, voluntary and part-time jobs, educate students about the world; in short, such experiences teach them that not every culture sees/thinks the same way. This kind of employment also enables students to earn money and gain some independence. Engaging in work also teaches students how to look after themselves. This finding is consistent with the previous literature (Kashefpakdel & Percy, 2017; Kemple & Willner, 2008), which suggests that taking up employment can have a positive influence on a student's future career, income, and academic achievement.

The findings showed that work experience aligns with SCCT principles by providing opportunities for self-efficacy development, vicarious learning, shaping outcome expectations, and exposing them to social influences. Career self-efficacy can evolve and develop over the time and could be changed by different areas of performance, such as job tasks or domains related to a career (Lent et al., 1994). In other words, career beliefs are influenced by performance areas and external factors, which together influence an individual's sense of identity and motivation in their chosen career path. As such, through work experience, students have the opportunity to develop and refine their skills. As they successfully perform tasks and gain competence in their work, their self-efficacy increases (Walker & Tracey, 2012). The more experience they gain, the more confident they become in their abilities to handle various work-related tasks. Also, when they accomplish tasks and overcome obstacles in the workplace, it boosts their belief in their own capabilities, contributing to increased self-efficacy. Learning from both positive and negative experiences helps shape their self-perception regarding their competence in handling future work-related situations. Also, SCCT considers outcome expectations, which are an individual's beliefs

about the potential outcomes of their career-related actions. Work experience allows high school students to gain a realistic understanding of the outcomes associated with different career paths. They can observe the rewards, challenges, and consequences of specific work tasks or roles, which can influence their outcome expectations and guide their career decision-making process.

Career advisors noted that immigrant students rarely have the support to gain work experience while enrolled in secondary school. Employers will often not accept foreign students for placement or hire students from an immigrant background. A major reason is their lack of English proficiency. The career advisors explained that the industrial sector requires high levels of English proficiency for safety and communication purposes; for this reason, immigrant students are unlikely to be employed. This finding supports Wyatt-Beynon et al.'s (2001) claim that non-English speaking students face limitations when it comes to the type of work placements that are available. Koyama (2015) and Lau et al.'s (2021) argued that engaging in practical experiences and opportunity to work in an English-speaking environment may assist immigrant students in becoming more fluent in English. However, the findings of this study indicate that immigrant students in New Zealand may not able to take advantage of work opportunities to enhance their language skills and develop other transferrable skills.

Existing evidence showed that immigrant parents do not have a clear understanding of the importance of work experience. They do not support having a part-time job, going on a gap year, or enrolling in a vocational training institute or a college. Most of these parents focus on their children's academic achievements and NCEA results because they want them to attend university. Interviewed parents worry that working and earning money while still in education will distract their children from their studies, ultimately resulting in poor grades. However, this claim is refuted by other research and some of the career advisors in current

study. For example, in research conducted with new immigrants in Canada, students reported feeling pressured by their parents to pursue employment (e.g., part-time jobs or volunteering) while in school (Lauer et al., 2012). These immigrant parents believed that having work experience would increase their children's chance of employment in the future. Socio-economic status of the parents and financial support from government can have impact on parents' view about working while studying. Most of the immigrant parents in this study came from high socioeconomic backgrounds and have stable economic status in Aotearoa New Zealand. Hence, their students are financially supported and do not require employment in order to afford their educational expenses.

Literature highlighted the importance of work experience for developing one's social networks and having opportunities for developing social capital is more crucial for immigrant students (Lau et al., 2012; Torri, 2018). Although parents have expressed concern about the social networks of their children, particularly at the early stages of their immigration, it appears many are unaware of the value of workplaces in extending their children's social networks.

This study found that parents often close off valuable learning for their children. Prior research has indicated that immigrant parents often may not understand the different career pathways or vocational training/ university studies without experiencing them first-hand. For example, Vernon and Drane's (2021) study with Australian students showed that parents who have not experienced different careers pathways generally do not encourage their children to try new pathways. The parents in this study had experienced of careers pathways in their home countries and, as such, were not able to provide their children with information regarding career paths in Aotearoa New Zealand since they themselves had not managed to navigate a path through work experience in this country.

The career advisors in this study highlighted the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on the students' school-to-work transitions during and after the pandemic. As a result of this pandemic, there are far fewer opportunities for students to gain work experience. Chapter three outlined how the pandemic which began in 2019 is changing employment trends and how it has affected young people's school-to-work transition. While Williams et al.'s (2021) have claimed that the current pandemic has had a profound impact on young people's education and employment, they argue that we must look beyond the pandemic's immediate impact and seize this opportunity to address longstanding problems in the youth labour market. They offer several recommends including, adopting ambitious job creation targets set by the government, reforming the youth employment and skills system, better regulating the labour market, promoting forms of non-work income to enhance young people's financial security, and improving the youth employment and skills system to match skills provision more closely with local labour market needs.

Chapter Summary

This study's findings support previous research which highlights the impact of parents' and career advisors' cross-cultural expectations. Along with cultural differences, the parents' unfamiliarity with the new education system and educational and employment experiences in their home country may have an impact on what they expect from their children. As has been explained, immigrant parents expect their children to achieve high grades, choose certain type of subjects, and pursue university education. A lack of understanding of the new context may result in them closing down opportunities like practical work experience and placement programmes that enable their children to gain skills that are essential for the contemporary job market, both in New Zealand and abroad. The chapter has also discussed that schools and educators must seek to understand the immigrant students' culture and academic backgrounds so that they can provide the best possible advice.

As the findings of this study suggest, both parents and careers advisors may benefit from having a network of support which includes members of the wider community. For careers advisors in particular, such a network would provide opportunities to enhance their cultural awareness and build their knowledge. The results of this study suggest that career advisors need to work in tandem with immigrant communities.

Data analysis revealed that in the early stages of integration, immigrant students benefit more from their parents' advice or input than that from other individuals (such as friends, careers advisors, and educators). In addition to being emotionally and financially dependent on their parents, students often look up to their parents as role models. This study provides contrasting evidence on the importance of friendships for successful school-to-work transitions. On the one hand, the parents interviewed for this study believed that their children need to establish friendships to enhance their mental health and academic performance. On the other hand, they were aware that friends could influence their children's educational/career decisions in a negative way.

This chapter has also identified the importance of communication and its role in the school-to-work transition. Parents and careers advisors identified language difficulties as the most significant barrier to communication between immigrant families and schools. A lack of communication or difficulties associated with communication may cause additional academic stress and/or mental health issues for immigrant students. Career advisors interviewed for this study also stressed the importance of students and families' involvement in careers programmes to ensure a successful transition While there have been several studies which have identified ways to improve communication between parents and schools, this study contends that educators must provide tailored solutions for issues that are exclusively associated with immigrant populations. These solutions could include providing extended career counselling sessions for immigrant students to ensure that they are able to discuss all

of their concerns and, where language difficulties hamper clear communication, the schools should utilise interpreters.

This chapter has also identified the role that various individuals could play in supporting the students, parents, and career advisors. These findings are consistent with other research which indicates that parents and career advisors may benefit from contributions from subject teachers, leadership teams, community members, and bilingual community mentors. Although parents often seek advice about careers education from members of their own community, this information is not always accurate and/or relevant for the New Zealand context. The results of this study suggest that bilingual community mentors, who are familiar with particular languages and cultures, could work in tandem with the schools and immigrant families to support them in terms of providing accurate information and connect them with reliable resources.

Finally, the chapter has explored the value of work experience, focusing in particular on obtaining valuable and reliable information about jobs, enhancing transferrable skills and employability, and developing social capital. However, according to interviews conducted with careers advisors, immigrants have a very low likelihood of finding employment. Immigrant parents are also unaware of the importance of employment for their children, not only for the development of their skills, but also for building their social capital. This study's findings suggest that educators, employers, and parents should all encourage students to accept placements or part-time work while completing secondary education as this will improve their chances of future employability.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter concludes the study and is divided into four sections. The first section presents the findings along with the conclusions that are derived from them. This section explains the different factors that affect parents and career advisors' support, both inside and outside of the school environment. The findings show what other support coul190d enhance immigrant students' school-to-work transition. The second section explains what the findings mean to the fields specifically education and identifies those who may benefit from them. The third section summarises the study's limitations and suggests possibilities for future study. The final section provides an opportunity to share the lessons that I learnt and the new insights that I gained over the course of this research study.

Key Conclusions

Globalisation has led to multiple changes in labour markets around the world. New forms of employment have resulted in a lack of job security, low income, temporary employment contracts, and unemployment among various populations. Studies have shown that in this context, young people are likely to have complex and nonlinear school-to-work transitions. This study investigated the school-to-work transition of immigrant students, as this process is even more complicated for them than local students.

Like other minority groups (e.g., Māori, and Pacifica), immigrant youth are considered 'at-risk' of having unsuccessful school-to-work transitions. Scholars have identified various factors which can negatively impact upon this process: low levels of language proficiency, cultural differences, unfamiliarity with the local education system, and employer discrimination. In reviewing literature, I considered the importance of careers education. Also, the influence of a group of individuals (parents, peers, careers advisors, teachers, leaders, and employers) who can influence students' school-to-work transition have

been reviewed. However, most of the recent studies are limited to Māori and Pacific students and their school-to-work transition: very little is known about the immigrant population in Aotearoa New Zealand. As immigrants make up a significant percentage of New Zealand's population, this study addresses this particular research gap.

My study also investigated the two main factors to the students' school-to-work transition: parents and careers advisors. The study not only examined the parents and career advisors' roles and how they can support students, but also investigated the factors that could influence their support. My research sought to answer three questions 1) What factors inside and outside of school influence parents' ability to support immigrant students in the school-to-work transition? 2) What factors inside and outside of school influence career advisors' ability to support these students in the school-to-work transition? 3) What support would assist immigrant youths school-to-work transition?

In conducting interviews with these two groups of participants (parents and careers advisors), I was able to gain a better understanding of the cultural differences between immigrant families and institutional structure. This form of data generation, also enabled me to understand the discrepancies between these two groups' perceptions, particularly regarding issues such as proactive communication, parental involvement, cultural expectations, successful school-to-work transitions, and the skills that young people need for success in the 21st century and in particular, for the New Zealand context.

While this study sought to identify the individual factors and what support they can provide to parents and career advisors, the findings demonstrate the importance of partnership and collaboration between these contributors. The results indicate that creating communities of support may be an effective way to engage with parents, families, whānau, and communities and ensure immigrant young people receive the best possible careers education. As part of this community, careers education expertise, such as that provided by

career advisors, subject teachers, and bilingual mentors, is developed for the benefit of the entire community.

Support from school staff and members from the immigrant communities could help the parents to understand the new education system, the local labour market, and possible careers pathways. Subject teachers and school leaders could communicate with the parents to ensure they have access to accurate and relevant information about possible career and educational pathways. The study also found that career advisors’ workloads could be reduced through collaboration with various members of this community.

Having identified the importance of community support, this study highlights the lack of communication between the contributors due to language and cultural differences. These factors must be addressed in order to ensure that the community of support can function effectively. Parental involvement can also be negatively impacted by perceived linguistic and cultural barriers, an issue that both the schools and the parents identified. A lack of language proficiency may negatively influence the support parents can provide to their children.

This study supports the literature's emphasis on the value of work experience in facilitating the school-to-work transition, as reflected in its findings. Work experience enables students to obtain valuable and reliable information about jobs, enhances their transferrable skills and employability, and helps in the development of social capital. Due to their cultural background, work experience in their home country and a lack of information about the new country’s education system and labour market, parents in this study were unaware of the importance of employment for their children, not only for the development of their skills, but also for building their social capital. Furthermore, based on interviews conducted with career advisors, immigrant students have a very low chance of finding employment.

This study has raised important questions about the lack of an entry pathway for career advisors in the context of this research. The evidence presented in this study indicates that career advisors in schools may lack the professional qualifications and training needed to offer effective career education, particularly in a multicultural setting. Career advisors without careers related qualifications typically rely on their own experience to guide students. They have usually gained this experience acting in various roles (deanship, teaching, and working in different businesses). Career advisors also need support to enhance their cultural awareness to ensure they interact in a culturally appropriate manner when dealing with immigrant families. The current study highlights the need for appropriate qualifications to be a requirement of the role.

Turning on the Light: Implications and Recommendations for Future Practice

This study provides some practical insights for policy makers, school community members, school leaders, and researchers who are involved in immigrant youth studies in New Zealand and in similar contexts abroad.

Policy-makers and schools. This study illustrates how some of the policies and initiatives at the national and international levels may directly or indirectly influence the immigrant students' school-to-work transition. The investigation of parents' expectations (of their children, the school, and the education system) found that immigrant parents are not familiar with the Aotearoa New Zealand labour market and the skills that their children need to have in order to ensure a successful school-to-work transition. This finding raises the question of how the MoE and schools could support parents and their children to gain an understanding of the specific skills young people need in the 21st century, and for the New Zealand context. Work Connect is a free programme designed to assist eligible migrants from the Pacific Islands in preparing for employment in New Zealand. Programmes of this type could also be designed for the immigrant community in order to assist students and their

families to understand the New Zealand context and helps them to promote their unique skill sets and qualifications.

Discrepancies between the perceptions of parents and careers advisors regarding communication practices may indicate that there is a need for more communication support policies among immigrants. Schools could address this by implementing various communication initiatives tailored to the needs of immigrant families. For example, schools could establish parent advisory committees consisting of representatives from immigrant parents, who could provide valuable insights and perspectives on communication practices. These committees could work together with school administrators and staff to co-create communication strategies that are culturally responsive and address the specific challenges faced by immigrant families. The communication in parents-careers advisors could be improved by allocating longer meeting times or a greater number of careers meeting in a year for immigrant families. Also, careers advisors could use an interpreter in these meetings. While many students could assist their parents in translating conversations with career advisors, there are time when a career advisors must speak to parents without their children being present; in these cases, having an interpreter is critical. For example, an interpreter may be needed in cases where a parent/s is concerned about their child's mental health or poor school performance. However, schools, especially those with high numbers of immigrant students, may have limited budgets and therefore, may not be able to provide such services for the immigrant parents. According to New Zealand Health Navigator (2021), in most areas of New Zealand, interpreters are available for hospital and primary care visits. These interpreters are funded by the District Health Boards. This study suggests that a similar service could be used in an educational setting. These interpreters could be hired directly by the school, the MoE, or sent from other organisations such as Red Cross, Resettlement Services, and Interpreting New Zealand. The schools also may benefit from funding such as

Refugee Flexible Pool (MoE, 2022) to support the immigrant families and addressing broader issues that may hinder students from participating in and achieving educational success.

Furthermore, schools could explore innovative communication channels that accommodate the diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds of immigrant parents. This may involve providing interpretation services or translation support during school events, newsletters, and other communication materials. In Aotearoa New Zealand, there are some services such as Christchurch Resettlement Services (CRS) and citizen advice bureaus, which provide free help for new immigrants and refugees. These agencies offer various professional services to promote wellbeing and enhance resilience. They provide services in areas such as bilingual family support, social work, and culturally and linguistically diverse counselling. These agencies are normally funded from a range of contracts and grants from a variety of sources: the government (e.g., Ministry of Social Development (MSD)), local-governments (e.g., Canterbury District Health Boards), Pegasus, and non-government and charitable organisations (such as the NZ Lottery Grants Boards). This study has shown the need for these kind of services tailored specifically to the education (secondary school) sector. These agencies may help immigrant families to connect to schools and gain a clearer understanding of both the education system and school-to-work pathways in Aotearoa New Zealand. They could also partner with career departments to connect with families and students. However, it must be acknowledged that these agencies may not have sufficient resources to support schools. In term of careers advice, the social workers and counsellors may not familiar with this field and thus may not be able to support the families in this way.

In addition to resettlement services, immigrant and refugees have access to the MoE Senior Advisor for Refugee and Migrant Support. In addition to providing case-by-case support to schools, these advisors support schools in understanding the funding available to help students. As part of their work, these advisors provide educators with training to help

them gain a better understanding of the immigrant/refugee experience and conditions in the countries where immigrant/refugees typically come from (McBrien & Hayward, 2022).

Schools could establish home visit programs where teachers or careers advisors visit the homes of immigrant families, fostering stronger connections and deeper engagement. These home visits would provide an opportunity for educators to gain an understanding of the home environment, cultural dynamics, and the challenges faced by immigrant families. By stepping into the intimate setting of a family's home, careers advisors could observe the living conditions, cultural practices, and familial dynamics that shape students' experiences and aspirations.

During these home visits, educators may engage in meaningful conversations with parents and students, building trust and rapport. They could listen to the parents' perspectives, concerns, and aspirations for their children's education and career paths. This intimate setting allows for open dialogue and a better understanding of the cultural values, expectations, and challenges that may impact students' career choices. In addition to gaining insights, careers advisors could provide tailored guidance and support based on the specific needs of the family. For example, some parents' motivation stems from their cultural values, where the eldest child is expected to take immediate responsibility for supporting the family after completing school. During the careers advisor's home visit, they could address the challenging situation faced by the immigrant family, where the parents want to send their child to work in a field that the child does not like. The careers advisor in this situation may create a supportive and non-judgmental environment, acknowledging the cultural values and expectations of the family. With cultural responsivity, the careers advisor could then share information about alternative options that could address both the parents' concerns and the child's aspirations. This compromise could involve part-time work or internships that allow the child to explore their passions while fulfilling their family cultural values.

Home visits also provide an opportunity for educators to engage with the broader family network, including extended family members who may play a significant role in decision-making. By involving the entire family in discussions about education and career pathways, educators could foster a supportive network that reinforces the importance of education and aligns cultural values with students' career aspirations. By implementing home visit programs, schools could go beyond the boundaries of the classroom and actively engage with immigrant families in their own environment. These personal interactions build trust, enhance communication, and ensure that educators provide culturally responsive guidance and support tailored to the unique needs of each family.

Community Partners. This study has emphasised the importance of community partners in community of support in helping immigrant families navigate school career programmes. In the current study, community mentors were identified by career advisors as potential collaborators who could help schools support students from immigrant backgrounds. Community mentors who are familiar with the culture of immigrant families and can speak their language could help fill the communication gap between the schools and these families. Orozco (2010) has suggested that the mentor relationships are especially beneficial for newly-arrived immigrant youth; they serve as a bridge between old and new cultures. A mentor with acculturation skills could provide information on the new cultural norms. Mentors with college degrees are also well suited to helping their mentees succeed in the classroom, not only by helping them with their homework, but also by providing them with advice on how to obtain university admission, an objective inaccessible to many newcomers and immigrants (Bohon et al., 2005; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2008). These mentors could be members of the community and/or immigrant parents who have been in the country for a longer period of time. They could translate material or help the parents to understand information related to choosing school subjects and possible career paths. They also could

support new immigrant parents by encouraging them or taking them to school career activities and events. The career advisors' lack of cultural awareness could be addressed through collaboration between the mentors and career advisors. They could provide the career advisors with information about the families and facilitate communication between the families and the school. In addition, these mentors could be interviewed by career advisors to determine whether they are familiar with career education and career counselling. Career staff could provide training to these individuals so that they could better support students.

To support immigrant students in accessing social capital, schools could further enhance their impact by empowering young people to utilise their peer networks. This requires nurturing their agency, confidence, and skills to capitalize on the resources available to them. Organizations such as tertiary agencies could adopt intentional strategies to facilitate this process. In 2020, the University of Canterbury (UC) launched the Hōpara programme. Funded by the university, this programme has been designed to develop secondary students' academic confidence and career aspirations. It focuses on minorities (e.g. Māori, Pacific, immigrants and refugee) who are under-represented in tertiary education. Mentors, university students from different disciplines, go into the schools on a regular basis and work with specific students. With support of the programme co-ordinator, they also run workshops that cover a range of topics like how to define success, how to achieve goals, and career planning. Currently, only two universities (the University of Canterbury and the University of Auckland) offer this programme. The results of the current study highlight the need for developing a nationwide programme for immigrant students. Studies showed that in youth mentoring programs, mentors are valuable sources of support for young individuals. Additionally, deliberate initiation behaviors discussed by young people often lead to the development of stronger connections with supportive adults.

Doing part-time jobs and having experience in different businesses and industries enhances a student's knowledge of the labour market and provides hands-on experience. It also helps them to understand the requirements of particular jobs and equips them with skills for their future. However, as has been discussed, employers are not as welcoming or inclusive of immigrants as they could be. By working in diverse work settings, immigrant students have the chance to build connections and expand their social networks. Interacting with colleagues, supervisors, and customers from various backgrounds provides them with valuable opportunities to establish meaningful relationships and connect to the social capital embedded within these interactions. Through these connections, immigrant students could access information, advice, and potential future employment opportunities.

However, there may be challenges for immigrant students in accessing social capital through part-time work. Career advisors mentioned that this was largely due to language barriers. Career advisors emphasised that often a lack of English proficiency represents a safety concern. Supporting immigrant young people to learn and understand safety rules in English could increase their chance of employability. This study has also recommended the need for a department, such as Health and Safety, in industries such as construction, to support immigrant students in getting acquainted with the workplace and its safety rules. Schools should ensure that work experience placements comply with health and safety rules. Schools also need to ensure that students have a clear understanding of the safety instructions (MoE, 2016).

Careers Advisors. This study has raised important questions about the lack of an entry pathway for career advisors in the context of this research. The evidence presented in this study indicates that career advisors in schools may lack the professional qualifications and training needed to offer effective career education, particularly in a multicultural setting. Career advisors without careers related qualifications typically rely on their own experience

to guide students. The current study highlights the need for appropriate qualifications to be a requirement of the role.

The interviews in this study revealed that some of the career advisors are not familiar with the immigration laws and regulations that relate to immigrant students and their families. A lack of knowledge about these laws could result in poor advice. At times, parents' expectations add to the complexity of this process. Consequently, to provide effective career support, career advisors need to ensure that parents/students are quickly and accurately connected with the people who have the appropriate knowledge. Based upon the responsibilities they hold in their role and the lack of time they often have, this study suggests immigrant advisors could be part of an integrated whole-school community of support. MBIE could also provide schools with this information on a regular basis or career advisors could attend courses on this topic.

The findings of this study have significant implication for understanding the role of 'career leaders' in secondary schools. According to Andrews and Hooley (2017), a career leader is a middle leader assigned or identified within a school who is responsible for providing careers education, as well as the necessary knowledge and skills to develop a careers education programme. They have the authority to lead within the school and establish partnerships with various community members/organisations, institutions, and businesses outside of the school. This role involves a significant amount of interaction with various members of the school staff as well as individuals and organisations outside the school. As such, the career leaders must have a clear understanding of what the role entails. They must also have the time, resources, power, expertise, and professional authority to implement such a programme (Andrews & Hooley, 2019). As a result of this study, careers advisors should assume a leadership role or act as 'career leaders' in the school. Having access to different

resources and managing a team of careers experts enables them to deliver careers education in schools effectively.

School Leaders. This study provides insights for the secondary school leaders by illustrating the complexities and challenges that immigrant families face in their students' school-to-work transition. Given the importance of careers school activities, when well designed and supervised, school leaders could create communities and foster a sense of involvement for parents and their children. School leaders could facilitate the development of relationships with other partners such as employers, tertiary educators, etc. who could serve as mentors, role models, and friends. These relationships will help to ensure a successful school-to-work transition. However, this study has found that immigrant students who stand to gain the most from these sorts of activities are often the least likely to be involved due to language and cultural barriers. Immigrant parents often underestimate the value of such programmes and/or perceive them to be a 'waste of time.' Such perceptions may discourage immigrant students from participating and developing their connections within the school community. School leaders, therefore, must work to educate immigrant parents about the benefits associated with such programmes and their effect on their child/ren's future career/s.

This study illustrates the complexities and challenges that careers advisors face including time constraints and heavy workloads. As mentioned previously, it is crucial to ensure that the school management allocates sufficient budget and resources to relieve some of these problems. Additionally, improving communication between career advisors, their leaders, and subject teachers in the school is likely to increase the level of acknowledgment career advisors achieve. In addition to reducing their sense of isolation, improved communication would allow them to voice their challenges and concerns as well as those of the immigrant families that they work with. Having a clear understanding of these issues

would enable school leaders to make more informed decisions regarding career advisors and their career departments.

The findings of this study have significant implications for schools regarding parental involvement in career education. It is evident that there is a disconnect between the perspectives of parents and careers advisors when it comes to defining and recognising parental involvement. While parents emphasise their involvement in their children's career education, career advisors, particularly when dealing with immigrant parents, perceive their involvement as rare. This discrepancy in understanding could create misunderstandings and hinder effective collaboration between parents and school’s careers education.

School leaders could acknowledge parental involvement at home while simultaneously looking at initiatives to encourage parents to get involved in their students' career education. Recognising and appreciating the unique ways in which parents engage with their children's careers education beyond physical presence at school activities, such as careers evenings, is also important. For instance, schools could implement initiatives such as regular communication channels, such as newsletters or online platforms, where parents could access information about career resources, workshops, and events. They also could provide parents with guidance on how to have conversations about career aspirations and opportunities at home. Additionally, schools could organise career-related workshops or seminars specifically designed for immigrant parents to enhance their understanding of the changing job market and the importance of career planning. By actively involving parents in these initiatives and considering their cultural backgrounds and values, school leaders could foster a collaborative partnership between parents, students, and educators, leading to a more inclusive and effective approach to career education (Baker et al, 2016).

Limitations of the Research and Suggestions for Further Research

Most of the parents in the current study had tertiary level education and their socioeconomic status was high in their home countries. This study did not include the voices of participants from lower socioeconomic backgrounds which would have added to the understanding of how those with limited education or those dealing with other challenges such as a lack of financial support, experience their child/ren's school-to-work transition/s. Additionally, the majority of the parents who participated in this study were female (13 out of 16). This is particularly true of many immigrant families which tend to have more 'traditional' family structures. In some cultures, mothers are not supposed to work. Significantly, in this study, some of the female participants noted that the fathers were more involved with their child/children's schools because they have a higher level of English proficiency and, thus, can communicate better with the staff. Pursuing diversity through a more non-selective sample might have led to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon or via examining fewer but more contrasting cases.

In line with other studies conducted in the Aotearoa New Zealand context, the results of this study demonstrate that very little professional development is provided for career advisors and that many career advisors lack appropriate qualifications. The study also found that the career advisors are overwhelmed due to having multiple roles and responsibilities. As indicated above, future research should consider whether career advising should be a professional job in its own right, with appropriate level qualifications.

Leaders and subject teachers are important contributors in the school-to-work transition. This study has highlighted the significant role they play in supporting career advisors and immigrant parents. Exploring the perspectives of relevant stakeholders could help identify whether their positions on career education are conducive to pursuing different

or similar interests and objectives. It is important that these views are not only heard, but also, are taken into account.

There was no mention of the "international department" by any of the parents in this study, while some of the career advisors discussed the collaboration between the careers department and the international department. There are some of these parents who have students enrolled in schools with an international department. There seems to be a lack of awareness among parents regarding the international department and how counsellors in this department may be able to assist their children in making subject choices. Furthermore, it appears that not all schools in Aotearoa New Zealand have an international department. More information on international department role in supporting careers advisors would help us to establish a greater community of support for parents and careers advisors.

This study has considered the role of employers from the career advisors' perspectives. Future studies should seek to understand the difficulties experienced by employers from their perspectives. Involving employers as interviewees could have enriched this study's findings and provided insights into employers' perceptions of immigrant youth in Aotearoa New Zealand. However, due to limited resources (a lack of access to employers) and time, this study was unable to examine the role of employers in the school-to-work transition.

In this study, data was collected in one stage: the whole process took approximately six months to complete. However, the field of school-to-work transition would benefit from longitudinal studies of this process. According to SCCT theory and studies by Spurk et al. (2019), individuals progress through different stages of their career, the resources they have and the way these resources impact their career choice vary. Each stage may presents unique opportunities for resource accumulation and utilisation. Also, some stages may provide conditions for the development of factors that contribute to subjective career success, such as

personal skills, experiences, networks, or opportunities for growth. Future studies could investigate students' experiences at different stages, such as when they first begin to think about their career and what school subjects they choose, until they complete their secondary school education and are settled in their first employment. In addition, future studies could explore what a successful work-to-school transition looks like from the students' perspective. Overall, more research in this field is needed for leaders and policymakers to have a better understanding of different factors that may affect the school-to-work transition of immigrant youth. The findings would enable them to make informed decisions regarding the development of school curriculum, communication and settlement policies, and assign appropriate funding for careers education.

Although recent statistics have shown that as the consequence of the pandemic many individuals, immigrants included, have suffered through periods of unemployment, some career advisors noted that the pandemic has reversed outcomes for immigrant students. They revealed that because their parents lost their jobs, many young people became 'bread winners,' financially supporting the whole family. This fact shows, anecdotally, that immigrant young people have a higher chance of employment than their parents. Research is needed to investigate this issue further.

This study focused on immigrants who moved to Aotearoa New Zealand after 2014 (the last five years). As explained in the methodology chapter, these immigrants are considered "recent" immigrants, and are similarly defined by Immigration New Zealand (INZ). However, for some immigrants, the social and educational settlement process can take longer than five years; after this time period, they still encounter challenges that newcomers do. Based on my personal experience of working with immigrant refugees, some individuals need more than five years to become completely conversant in English. They still require interpreters to meet their needs in different sectors, particularly when accessing healthcare

and education. Conversely, some immigrants may have a shorter settling in period like some of the parents in this study. For example, some may have lived overseas before coming to Aotearoa New Zealand, an experience which often has a positive impact on their settlement. For some immigrants, English was taught in their home country as a second or additional language meaning that they are less likely to struggle with communication barriers. Further research could investigate how immigrant students' experience of leaving overseas may impact their school-to-work transition in the new country.

Literature and guidelines utilise the term ‘at-risk.’ As defined in Aotearoa New Zealand Career Education and Guidance (2009), ‘at-risk’ students are those who are not prepared for the school-to-work transition and who do not have proper career competence or plans; refugees and migrants are thus among the most likely to be ‘at risk’ (MoE, 2009). However, the immigrant families interviewed for this study did not consider or perceive themselves or their children as ‘at-risk’. Careers advisors, who revealed that identifying ‘at risk’ individuals is a key part of their job description, also did not see immigrant students as ‘at-risk’. This finding supports Rimmer’s (2012) claim that the term ‘at-risk’ does not necessarily reflect the students’ needs. Further study could explore the mismatch between the needs of ‘at-risk’ young people and the governmental and schools’ strategies to adequately support them in the school-to-work transition.

Although this study did not focus on the importance of promoting mental health in schools and responding to school-aged immigrants’ mental health needs, the results suggest that this population and their parents are more vulnerable to developing various mental disorders due to the fact that they are exposed to multiple pressures. Furthermore, educators may underestimate the impact of these pressures. Participants shared their experiences of social isolation, discrimination, and bullying and how these stressors negatively impacted on their children’s confidence and mental health. Further study could examine how school

counselling sessions could be offered to immigrant students and whether this would help them to better manage these pressures they face in their school-to-work transition.

Individuals' demographic characteristics, personalities and career-related attitudes and motivations have been examined as predictors of students' careers decision making (Marciniak et al., 2022). While this study included participants from different ethnic groups and nationalities, it did not examine differences across these predictors.

Final Thoughts: My Personal School-to-Work Transition

"Honesty and openness is always the foundation of insightful dialogue."

bell hooks

To conclude, I would like to share my own school-to-work transition. As stated in the methodology chapter, I believe that 'the world of meanings' does not exist independent of my mind. It is engaged with my consciousness and relative to people, culture, and social frames. As such, my personal experience has had a significant impact on my understanding of the participants' social realities and the thesis' conclusions.

I perceive my PhD journey as another stage of my school-to-work transition. I always had a dream to study abroad and, like many students, I wanted to obtain a degree, become a Dr. and find my dream job. I also had other ambitions, including to make my parents, husband, and family members happy and proud. I have two brothers and one sister. All of them have completed doctorates and work in academia so my parents also "expected" me to complete postgraduate studies. Additionally, I wanted to improve my curriculum vitae and publish papers. I also wanted to enhance my knowledge around education and various pedagogies.

However, studying for my PhD changed me in unexpected ways. The 'Maryam' who began her PhD in 2018 is very different from the 'Maryam' who is nearing completion in

2022. I am very grateful for having completed my study in New Zealand because the journey I have undertaken over the last four to five years has had a profound impact on my worldview and challenged my views on many things. Completing a PhD is not just about undertaking research, presenting, and publishing work. It not only involves working with people in academia and meeting friends from diverse backgrounds, but also learning about their cultures, foods, and languages. It is also about understanding and embracing multiculturalism. It is about learning and understanding justice, equity, responsiveness, inclusion/inclusivity, feminism, and racism.

When I was drafting my PhD proposal and wanted to justify my study, I desperately looked for literature and statistics which showed the economic benefits that immigrants provide to the host country. My firm belief was that immigrants, particularly immigrants who fill in gaps in the job shortage list, would have a positive impact on the country's GDP and that research must be conducted to support these people and their children through the settlement process. The perspectives I hold regarding money, economic status, and being beneficial to society significantly shaped the initial rationale for this study.

After conducting interviews with educators, career advisors, immigrants, and refugees, I came to realise that one of the reasons why I should conduct this study was not because immigrants may be better positioned to serve the community, but that we must promote multiculturalism and inclusion for the benefit of *all* young people; not just those in Aotearoa New Zealand, but all around the world. My aim now is to highlight the difficulties that the immigrant population may face in term of the school-to-work transition. I believe that this study's findings will be useful to countless individuals and organisations who promote multiculturalism and inclusivity and those who support people from minority and vulnerable populations. During my PhD journey, I have learnt that we need to support people, regardless of how useful or harmful they may be for our society.

During my time working and researching at university and various schools and organisations, I have answered many of my own personal questions: Why do we need to encourage diversity? Why do we celebrate pride month? Why do teachers and lecturers start their class in te reo Māori? Why is te reo Māori and sign language official languages in Aotearoa New Zealand? Why is there no death penalty in this country? Why does the government support people (giving them benefits and free housing, even though some of them are criminals or use the money for alcohol and/or drugs)? I am very proud that I have gained insight and proudly support the ideas above. This insight is my gift from this journey.

At the age of 39, I have completed one Bachelor's degree, two Masters' degrees, and am nearly finished a PhD. Completing these qualifications has provided me with an opportunity to think about my beliefs and reshape them. What I have learnt from my PhD journey is that taking any step, like getting a degree, starting a job, or volunteering can change a person's life forever. It is not just about adding a degree or job experience to our CV or increasing our wealth, it is about the journey we take; learning is a life-long journey. As a result of this journey, I have decided that I will support my children with any decision they want to make regarding their careers. I will encourage them to trust the journey and learn from it, instead of just focusing on the target (for example, passing the course or making money). Having such a view makes their journey more valuable and worthy. I believe that if they embrace this view, they can make life better, not only for themselves, but also for the people around them. In saying this, I am aware of the complexity of this journey; there are no easy or quick solutions when it comes to career guidance. As a parent, I would encourage my children to seek advice from school educators and not rely solely on their own judgment.

References

Abo Elsoud, M. E., AlQudah, A., & Elish, E. (2020). Does a change in immigration affect the unemployment rate in host countries? Evidence from Australia. *Journal of Applied Economics*, *23*(1), 21-43. https://doi.org/10.1080/15140326.2019.1684740

Acquah, D. K., Limmer, H., & Malpass, D. (2017). 'I don't know where to find the careers adviser … he has disappeared': The impact of changes to careers advice on 14–16 year-olds in university technical colleges and schools. *Research Papers in Education, 32*(2), 197-216. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2016.1167234

Adams, C., & van Manen, M. (2008). Phenomenology. In L. M. Given (Ed.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*. SAGE. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412963909

Adom, D., Osei, M., & Adu-Agyem, J. (2020). COVID-19 Lockdown: A Review of an Alternative to the Traditional Approach to Research. *Research Journal in Advanced Social Sciences,1* (1). Retrieved from https://royalliteglobal.com/rjass/article/view/107

Afzal Humayon, A., Raza, S., & Aamir Khan, R. (2018). Effect of family influence, personal interest and economic considerations on career choice amongst undergraduate students in higher educational Institutions of Vehari, Pakistan. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership, 7*(2), 129-142.

Akos, P., Charles, P., Orthner, D., & Cooley, V. (2011). Teacher perspectives on career-relevant curriculum in middle school. *RMLE Online, 34*(5), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1080/19404476.2011.11462078

Akosah-Twumasi, P., Emeto, TI., Lindsay. D., Tsey, K., and Malau-Aduli, BS. (2018). A systematic review of factors that influence youths career choices—the role of culture. *Frontiers in Education. 3*(58), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2018.00058

Ali, M.S., & Jalal, H. (2018). Higher education as a predictor of employment: The world of work perspective. *Bulletin of Educational Research*, *40*(2), 79-90.

Aliya, K., & Gulnur, O. (2022) Unpacking immigrant youth career development in Canada, *Journal of Immigrant & Refugee Studies*, 1-15. https://doi.org/10.1080/15562948.2022.2069901

Alloway, N., Dalley, L., Patterson, A., Walker, K., & Lenoy, M. (2004). *School students making education and career decisions: Aspirations, attitudes and influences*. Department of Education, Science and Training.

Anders, J., Henderson, M., Moulton, V., & Sullivan, A. (2018). The role of schools in explaining individuals' subject choices at age 14. *Oxford Review of Education, 44*(1), 75-93. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054985.2018.1409973

Andre, L., van Vianen, A. E. M., & Peetsma, T. T. D. (2017). Adolescents' and parents' regulatory focus as determinants of future time perspective on school and professional career. *Learning and Individual Differences, 59*, 34-42. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2017.08.010

Andrews, D., & Hooley, T. (2017). ' … and now it's over to you': Recognising and supporting the role of careers leaders in schools in England. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *45*(2), 153–164. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2016.1254726

Andrews, D., & Hooley, T. (2019). Careers leadership in practice: A study of 27 careers leaders in English secondary schools. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 47(5), 556-568. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2019.1600190

Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS), 5*(2), 272-281.

Archer, L., DeWitt, J., & Wong, B. (2014). Spheres of influence: What shapes young people's aspirations at age 12/13 and what are the implications for education policy? *Journal of Education Policy, 29*(1), 58-85. https://doi.org/10.1080/02680939.2013.790079

Arnett, J. J. (2014). Emerging adulthood: The winding road from the late teens through the twenties (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Arudo, T. (2008, September 2-4). *Peer counseling experience among selected Kenyan secondary schools.* [Conference presentation]. KAPA Conference, Nairobi.

Aspden, T., Cooper, R., Liu, Y., Marowa, M., Rubio, C., Waterhouse, E.-J., & Sheridan, J. (2015). What secondary school career advisors in New Zealand know about pharmacy and how that knowledge affects student career choices. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 79*(1), 1-8. https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe79107

Atherton, G., Cymbir, E., Roberts, K., Page, L., Remedios, R. (2009). How young people formulate their views about the future: Exploratory research. Aim Higher Central London Partnership

Austin, K., O'Shea, S., Groves, O., & Lamanna, J. (2020*). Career development learning for students from low socioeconomic status (LSES) backgrounds.* Literature Review. National Centre for Student Equity in Higher Education (NCSEHE).

Autor, D. H., Levy, F., & Murnane, R. J. (2003). The skill content of recent technological change: An empirical exploration. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 118*(4), 1279-1333. https://doi.org/10.1162/003355303322552801

Awad, A. (2019). Economic globalisation and youth unemployment – evidence from African countries. *International Economic Journal*, 33(2), 252-269. https://doi.org/10.1080/10168737.2019.1604787

Baker, T. L., Wise, J., Kelley, G., & Skiba, R. J. (2016). Identifying barriers: Creating solutions to improve family engagement. *School Community Journal, 26*(2), 161-184.

Bakke, I. B., & Hooley, T. (2022) I don't think anyone here has thought about career really: What the concept of "career" means to Norwegian teenagers and school counsellors. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, *66*(1), 73-87. https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2020.1833242

Baldwin, R. (2016). *The Great Convergence : Information Technology and the New Globalization*, Harvard University Press.

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs as shapers of children's aspirations and career trajectories. *Child Development, 72*(1), 187-206. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00273

Bartlett, R., Wright, T., Olarinde, T., Holmes, T., Beamon, E. R., & Wallace, D. (2017). Schools as sites for recruiting participants and implementing research. *Journal of Community Health Nursing, 34*(2), 80-88. https://doi.org/10.1080/07370016.2017.1304146

be career ready. https://www.gettingsmart.com/2017/11/ready-andworking-pathway-programs-are-changing-what-it-means-to-be-career-ready/

Beck, V., Fuller, A., & Unwin, L. (2006). Increasing risk in the 'scary' world of work? Male and female resistance to crossing gender lines in apprenticeships in England and Wales. *Journal of Education and Work, 19*(3), 271-289. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080600776920

Beicht, U., & Walden, G. (2017). Transitions of young migrants to initial vocational education and training in Germany: The significance of social origin and gender. *Journal of Vocational Education & Training, 69*(3), 424-449. https://doi.org/10.1080/13636820.2016.1275032

Beicht, U., & Walden, G. (2019). Transition to company-based vocational training in Germany by young people from a migrant background – the influence of region of origin and generation status. *International Journal for Research in Vocational Education and Training, 6*(1), 20–45. https://doi.org/10.13152/IJRVET.6.1.2

Benach, J., Vives Vergara, A., Amable, M., Vanroelen, C., Tarafa, G., & Muntaner, C. (2014). Precarious employment: Understanding an emerging social determinant of health. *The Annual Review of Public Health*, *35*(1), 229–53. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-032013-182500

Benner, C. (2004). Labor in the network society: Lessons from Silicon Valley. In M. Castells (Ed.), *The network society* (pp. 174-197). Edward Elgar. https://www.elgaronline.com/view/9781843765059.xml

Berry, J. W., & Hou, F. (2016). Immigrant acculturation and wellbeing in Canada. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne, 57*(4), 254 -264.

Berry, J. W., Phinney, J. S., Sam, D. L., & Vedder, P. (2006). Immigrant youth: Acculturation, identity, and adaptation. *Applied Psychology, 55*(3), 303-332. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2006.00256.x

Berthelon, M., Bettinger, E., Kruger, D. I., & Montecinos-Pearce, A. (2019). The structure of peers: the impact of peer networks on academic achievement. *Research in Higher Education, 60*(7), 931–959. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-018-09543-7.

Betz, N. E. (2007). Career self-efficacy: Exemplary recent research and emerging *directions. Journal of career assessment, 15*(4), 403-422.

Beutel, A. M., & Anderson, K. G. (2008). Race and the educational expectations of parents and children: The case of South Africa. *The Sociological Quarterly, 49*(2), 335-361.

Bhochhibhoya, A., Dong, Y., & Branscum, P. (2017). Sources of social support among international college students in the United States. *Journal of International Students, 7*(3), 671-686. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v7i3.293

Bitew, G., & Ferguson, P. (2010). Parental support for African immigrant students' schooling in Australia. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 41*(1), 149-165. https://doi.org/10.3138/jcfs.41.1.149

Blackman, S. (2011). Rituals of intoxication: Young people, drugs, risk and leisure. In P. Bramham & S. Wagg (Eds.), *The new politics of leisure and pleasure* (pp. 97-118). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230299979_7

Blair, A., & Haneda, M. (2021). Toward collaborative partnerships: Lessons from parents and teachers of emergent bi/multilingual students. *Theory into Practice, 60*(1), 18-27. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2020.1827896

Blustein, D. (2013). The psychology of working: A new perspective for career development, counseling, and public policy. Routledge.

Blustein, D. L. (2006). The psychology of working: A new perspective for career development, counseling, and public policy. Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203935477

Boat, A.A., Miranda, A. & Syvertsen, A.K. Enhancing Education and Career Pathways Through Peer and Near-Peer Social Capital. *Youth Adolescence 51*, 1287–1304 (2022). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-021-01540-x

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1998). *Research for education: An introduction to theories and methods* (5th ed.). Allyn and Bacon.

Bohon, S. A., Macpherson, H., & Atiles, J. H. (2005). Educational barriers for New Latinos in Georgia. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 4*(1), 43-58. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532771xjle0401_4

Boll, C., & Hoffmann, M. (2015). It's not all about parents' education, it also matters what they do. Parents' employment and children's school success in Germany. *Parents' Employment and Children's School Success in Germany (February 2015). SOEPpaper*, (735).

Bottrell, D. (2008). Dealing with disadvantage: Resilience and the social capital of young people's networks. *Youth & Society, 40*(4), 476-501. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X08327518

Boyd, S., MacDonald, J., Stevens, E., & Felgate, R. (2017). *Reviewing the game plan*. New Zealand Council for Educational Research. http://www.nzcer.org.nz/system/files/NZCER-Reviewing-the-game-plan-FINAL_0.pdf

Boyd, S., McDowall, S., & Ferral, H. (2006). Innovative pathways from school: Taking the first step. *Final report 2006*. New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77-101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Brekke, I. (2007). Ethnic background and the transition from vocational education to work: A multi-level analysis of the differences in labour market outcomes. *Journal of Education and Work, 20*(3), 229-254. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080701464517

Brenner, M. E., & Kia-Keating, M. (2016). Psychosocial and academic adjustment among resettled refugee youth. *Annual review of comparative and international education 2016* (pp. 221-249). Emerald Group. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-367920160000030016

Bridgeland, J., & Bruce, M. (2011). *2011 National survey of school counselors: Counseling at a crossroads*. College Board Advocacy & Policy Center. https://secure-media.collegeboard.org/digitalServices/pdf/nosca/11b_4230_NarReport_Booklet_Web_111104.pdf

Brinkmann, S. (2014). Interview. In T. Teo (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of critical psychology* (pp. 1008-1010). Springer.

Brown, D., & Thomson, C. (2005). Special education policy: Meeting the challenges of Diversity. In J. C. K. Sullivan (Ed.), *Education policy directions in Aotearoa New Zealand*. Thomson/Dunmore Press.

Brown, M. G., Wohn, D. Y., & Ellison, N. (2016). Without a map: College access and the online practices of youth from low-income communities. *Computers & Education*, *92*(1), 104-116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2015.10.001

Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (2013;2012;). In Brown S. D., Lent R. W.(Eds.), Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work (2nd;2. Aufl.;2nd;2; ed.). Wiley.

Bullot A., C., L., Fildes, J., Hall, S. and Plummer, J. (2017). *Mission Australia's 2017.* Youth Survey Report 2017.

Burga, R., Leblanc, J., & Rezania, D. (2020). Exploring student perceptions of their readiness for project work: Utilizing social cognitive career theory. *Project Management Journal, 51*(2), 154-164. https://doi.org/10.1177/8756972819896697

Byrne, M., Willis, P., & Burke, J. (2012). Influences on school leavers' career decisions - implications for the accounting profession. *International Journal of Management Education (Oxford Brookes University), 10*(2), 101-111. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijme.2012.03.005

Camara, W. (2013). Defining and measuring college and career readiness: A validation framework. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, *32*(4), 16-27. https://doi.org/10.1111/emip.12016

Careers and Enterprise Company. (2021). Trends in careers education 2021. https://www.careersandenterprise.co.uk/media/xadnk1hb/cec-trends-in-careers-education-2021.pdf

Careersnz. (2013). *What is a career?* https://www.careers.govt.nz/assets/pages/jobs-galore/jobs-galore-2013-career-planning-pages.pdf

Careersnz. (2018). *What help should schools provide with careers?* https://www.careers.govt.nz/plan-your-career/helping-young-people-make-decisions/what-help-should-schools-provide-with-careers/

Careersnz. (2020). *COVID-19 and the labour market*. https://www.careers.govt.nz/job-hunting/whats-happening-in-the-job-market/covid-19-and-the-labour-market/

Careersnz. (2021). *Work experience options*. https://www.careers.govt.nz/plan-your-career/get-ideas-for-your-career/work-experience-options/#cID_8018

Careersnz. (n.d.). *Where-to-from-school-brochure*. https://www.nzqa.govt.nz/assets/About-us/Publications/Brochures/Where-to-from-School-brochure-web.pdf

Carnoy, M. (2002). *Sustaining the new economy: Work, family, and community in the information age*. Harvard University Press. http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/canterbury/detail.action?docID=3300439

Castelli, F. (2018). Drivers of migration: Why do people move? *Journal of Travel Medicine*, *25*(1), https://doi.org/10.1093/jtm/tay040

Castells, M. (1985). *High technology, space, and society* (Vol. 28). Sage.

Chalmers, J. (2013). Occupational standing over the life course: What is the role of part time work? In A. Evans & J. Baxter (Eds.), *Negotiating the life course: Stability and change in life pathways* (pp. 191-214). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-8912-0_11

Chang, E. S., Greenberger, E., Chen, C., Heckhausen, J., & Farruggia, S. P. (2010). Nonparental adults as social resources in the transition to adulthood. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 20*(4), 1065–1082. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1111/j.1532-7795.2010.00662.x.

Chavira, G., Cooper, C. R., & Vasquez-Salgado, Y. (2016). Pathways to achievement: Career and educational aspirations and expectations of Latina/o immigrant parents and early adolescents. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, *15*(3), 214-228. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348431.2015.1131693

Cherng, H.-Y. S., & Ho, P. (2018). In thoughts, words, and deeds: Are social class differences in parental support similar across immigrant and native families? *The Sociological Quarterly, 59*(1), 85-110. https://doi.org/10.1080/00380253.2017.1383142

Chesters, J., & Wyn, J. (2019). Chasing rainbows: How many educational qualifications do young people need to acquire meaningful, ongoing work? *Journal of Sociology, 55*(4), 670-688. https://doi.org/10.1177/1440783319888285

Chiswick, B. R. (2011). Immigration: High-skilled versus low-skilled labour? In Productivity Commission 2011 (Ed/s.). *A 'sustainable' population? - key policy issues* (pp. 27-40). Australian Productivity Commission.

Choi, J., Kushner, K. E., Mill, J., & Lai, D. W. L. (2012). Understanding the language, the culture, and the experience: Translation in cross-cultural research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 11*(5), 652-665. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940691201100508

Choudhry, M. T., Marelli, E., & Signorelli, M. (2012). Youth unemployment rate and impact of financial crises. *International Journal of Manpower, 33*(1), 76-95. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437721211212538

CICA. (2017). *Equipping the next generation in an increasingly complex environment*. https://cica.org.au/wp-content/uploads/CICA-Media-Release-3-May-2017.pdf. Cochran-Smith, M., Villegas, A. M., Abrams, L., Chavez-Moreno, L., Mills, T., & Stern, R. (2015). Critiquing teacher preparation research: An overview of the field, Part II. *Journal of Teacher Education, 66*(2), 109-121.

Cochrane, W., Thomas Stubbs, M. R., & Hodgetts, D. (2017). A statistical portrait of the New Zealand precariat. In S. Groot, C. Van Ommen, B. Masters-Awatere, & N. Tassell-Matamua (Eds.), *Precarity: uncertain, insecure and unequal lives in Aotearoa New Zealand* (pp. 28-36). Massey University Press. https://go.exlibris.link/Kf9Xl6JQ

Cohen, L., Duberley, J., & Mallon, M. (2004). Social constructionism in the study of career: Accessing the parts that other approaches cannot reach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64*(3), 407-422. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2003.12.007

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education* (8th ed.). Routledge.

Coles, B., Godfrey, C., Keung, A., Parrott, S., & Bradshaw, J. (2010). *Estimating the life-time cost of NEET: 16–18-year-olds not in education, employment or training*. University of York. http://www.york.ac.uk/inst/spru/research/pdf/NEET_Summary.pdf

Creed, P. A., Patton, W., Prideaux, L.A. (2007). Predicting change over time in career planning and career exploration for high school students. *Journal of Adolescence*, *30*(3), 377–392. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2006.04.003

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Five qualitative approaches to inquiry* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (5th ed.). SAGE.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2016). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage.

CrinÒ, R. (2010). Service offshoring and white-collar employment. *The Review of Economic Studies, 77*(2), 595-632.

Croll, P. (2008). Occupational choice, socio-economic status and educational attainment: a study of the occupational choices and destinations of young people in the British Household Panel Survey. *Research papers in Education, 23*(3), 243-268. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671520701755424

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage.

Crozier, G., & Davies, J. (2007). Hard to reach parents or hard to reach schools? A discussion of home-school relations, with particular reference to Bangladeshi and Pakistani parents. *British Educational Research Journal, 33*(3), 295-313. https://doi.org/10.1080/01411920701243578

Cuervo, H., & Wyn, J. (2016). An unspoken crisis: The 'scarring effects' of the complex nexus between education and work on two generations of young Australians. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 35*(2), 122 -135. https://doi.org/10.1080/02601370.2016.1164467

Curtis, D. D. (2008). *VET pathways taken by school leavers*. Australian Council for Educational Research. https://research.acer.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1001&context=lsay_research

Cyr, J. (2016). The Pitfalls and Promise of Focus Groups as a Data Collection Method. *Sociological Methods & Research, 45*(2), 231–259. https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124115570065

Dadgar, M., & Trimble, M. J. (2015). Labor market returns to sub-baccalaureate credentials: How much does a community college degree or certificate pay? *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 37*(4), 399-418. https://doi.org/10.3102/0162373714553814

Dalziel, P. (2010). Developing the next generation: Employer-led channels for education employment linkages. In J. Bryson (Ed.), *Beyond Skill* (pp. 154-175). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230291270_8

Damette, O., & Fromentin, V. (2013). Migration and labour markets in OECD countries: A panel cointegration approach. *Applied Economics*, *45*(16), 2295-2304. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2015.06.013

Davidson, C., & Tolich, M. (2003). Competing traditions. *Social Science Research in New Zealand: Many Paths to Understanding, 2*(1), 23-38.

De Haene, L., Grietens, H., & Verschueren, K. (2010). Holding harm: Narrative methods in mental health research on refugee trauma. *Qualitative Health Research, 20*(12), 1664-1676. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732310376521

De Jacolyn, E., Stasiak, K., & McCool, J. (2021). “Just be strong, you will get through it” a qualitative study of young migrants’ experiences of settling in New Zealand. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(3), 1292. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18031292

Deacon, S. A. (2006). Creativity within qualitative research on families. In S. Hesse-Biber, & P. Leavy (Eds.) *Emergent methods in social research*, (pp. 95-107). SAGE Publications, Inc. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412984034.n5

Deb, S., Strodl, E., & Sun, H. (2015). Academic stress, parental pressure, anxiety and mental health among Indian high school students. *International Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Science, 5*(1), 26-34. https://doi.org/10.5923/j.ijpbs.20150501.04

Deloitte UK & the Education and Employers Taskforce (2010). Helping young people succeed: How employers can support careers education. https://www.educationandemployers.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/deloitte-eet-young-people-succeed-report-final.pdf

DeLuca, C., Godden, L., Hutchinson,N. L., & Versnel, J. (2015) Preparing at-risk youth for a changing world: revisiting a person-in-context model for transition to employment. *Educational Research*, *57*(2), 182-200. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2015.1030854

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2018). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (5thed.). Sage.

Díaz-Mora, C. (2008). What factors determine the outsourcing intensity? A dynamic panel data approach for manufacturing industries. *Applied Economics, 40*(19), 2509-2521. https://doi.org/10.1080/00036840600970179

Dibben, M., & Youngs, H. (2022). New Zealand Cases of Collaboration within and Between Schools: The Coexistence of Cohesion and Regulation. In *School-to-School Collaboration: Learning Across International Contexts* (pp. 11-25). Emerald Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-80043-668-820221002

DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical Education, 40*(4), 314-321.

Dietrich, J., & Kracke, B. (2009). Career-specific parental behaviors in adolescents' development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75(2). https://doi.org/109-119. 10.1016/j.jvb.2009.03.005

Dietrich, J., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2013). Parental involvement and adolescents' career goal pursuit during the post-school transition. *Journal of Adolescence, 36*(1), 121-128. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2012.10.009

Dishion, T. (2011). Promoting academic competence and behavioral health in public schools: A strategy of systemic concatenation of empirically based intervention principles. *School Psychology Review, 40*(4), 590-597. https://doi.org/10.1080/02796015.2011.12087532

Dishion, T. J., Garbacz, S. A., Seeley, J. R., Stormshak, E. A., Smolkowski, K., Moore, K. J., Falkenstein, C., Gau, J. M., Kim, H., & Fosco, G. M. (2019). Translational research on evidence-based parenting support within public schools: Strategies, challenges, and potential solutions. In editor/s name/s (Ed/s.) *Establishing family-school partnerships in school psychology: Critical skills* (pp. 223-244). https://doi.org/10.4324/9781138400382-11

Dodd, V., Hanson, J., & Hooley, T. (2022). Increasing students' career readiness through career guidance: Measuring the impact with a validated measure. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *50*(2), 260-272. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2021.1937515

Dolby, N. (2012). Rethinking multicultural education for the next generation: The new empathy and social justice. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203124512

Donthu, N., & Gustafsson, A. (2020). Effects of COVID-19 on business and research. *Journal of Business Research, 117* (1), 284-289. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.06.008

Dubos, Rene. Social capital: Theory and research. Routledge, 2017.

Dwyer, P., Harwood, A., & Tyler, D. (1998). *Life-patterns, choices, careers: 1991-1998 Research Report 17.* Youth Research Centre. http://hdl.voced.edu.au/10707/44847.

Dwyer, S. C., & Buckle, J. L. (2009). The space between: On being an insider-outsider in qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 8*(1), 54-63. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690900800105

Dyson, L. L. (2001). Home-school communication and expectations of recent Chinese immigrants. *Canadian Journal of Education/Revue Canadienne de L'éducation, 26*(4), 455-476. https://doi.org/10.2307/1602177

Eatough, V., & Smith, J. (2017). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In C. Willig & W. Rogers (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research in psychology* (pp. 193-209). SAGE. https://methods.sagepub.com/book/the-sage-handbook-of-qualitative-research-in-psychology-second-edition https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526405555

education 2030. http://www.oecd.org/fr/education/scolaire/education-2030.htm.

Education and Employers. (2020). *Education at a glance 2020*. https://www.educationandemployers.org/research/education-at-a-glance-2020/

Education and Work, 25(4), 423-442. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2012.708723

Education Review Office. (2015). *Careers education and guidance: Good practice*. Education Review Office.

Education Review Office. (2016). *The key competencies: Realising the potential of the New Zealand curriculum*. https://ero.govt.nz/sites/default/files/2021-05/The%20Key%20Competencies%20Realising%20the%20Potential%20of%20the%20New%20Zealand%20Curriculum.pdf

Education Review Office. (2016a). *Communities of learning: Collaboration to improve learner outcomes.* Education Review Office. Retrieved from https://www.ero.govt.nz/assets/Uploads/Collaboration-to-Improve-LearnerOutcomes.pdf

Edwards, R., & Alldred, P. (2000). A typology of parental involvement in education centring on children and young people: Negotiating familialisation, institutionalisation and individualisation. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 21*(3), 435-455. https://doi.org/10.1080/713655358

Eime, R. M., Young, J. A., Harvey, J. T., Charity, M. J., & Payne, W. R. (2013). A systematic review of the psychological and social benefits of participation in sport for children and adolescents: Informing development of a conceptual model of health through sport. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity, 10*(1), 1-21.

Elkin, G., & Sutton, Z. (2000). Career advisors in New Zealand secondary schools: A challenging role for the 21st century. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 9*(3), 7-12.

England. *Education Inquiry*, *5*(2). http://doi.org/10.3402/edui.v5.23922

Epstein, G. (2010). Informational cascades and the decision to migrate. In G. Epstein & I. N. Gang (Eds.), *Migration and Culture* (Vol. 8, pp. 25-44). Emerald Group. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1574-8715(2010)0000008008

Esfehani, M. H., & Walters, T. (2018). Lost in translation? Cross-language thematic analysis in tourism and hospitality research. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 30*(11), 3158-3174. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2017-0701

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4.

Eyre, J., & Hipkins, R. (2019). *Subject choice for the future of work: Insights from focus groups*. New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Fang, J., Gozgor, G., & Nolt, J. H. (2022). Globalisation, economic uncertainty and labour market regulations: Implications for the COVID-19 crisis. *World Economy*, *45*(7), 2165-2187. https://doi.org/10.1111/twec.13230

Faria, L. C. (2013). Influence of parents' employment/unemployment condition in adolescents' career exploration and indecision. *Psicologia, Reflexão e Crítica, 26*(4), 772.

Faulstich Orellana, M. (2015). *Immigrant children in transcultural spaces: Language, learning, and love* (1st ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315752617

Fefer, S. A., Hieneman, M., Virga, C., Thoma, A., & Donnelly, M. (2020). Evaluating the effect of positive parent contact on elementary students' on-task behavior. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 22*(4), 234-245. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098300720908009

Ferry, N. M. (2006). Factors influencing career choices of adolescents and young adults in rural Pennsylvania. *Journal of Extension, 44*(3), 1-6.

Fersch, B. (2013). Meaning: lost, found or 'made' in translation? A hermeneutical approach to cross-language interview research. *Qualitative Studies, 4*(2), 86-99. https://doi.org/10.7146/qs.v4i2.8859

Feuerstein, A. (2000). School characteristics and parent involvement: Influences on participation in children's schools. *The Journal of Educational Research, 94*(1), 29-39. https://www.jstor.org/stable/27542300

Fitzenberger, B., Hillerich-Sigg, A., & Sprietsma, M. (2020). Different counselors, many options: Career guidance and career plans in secondary schools. *German Economic Review, 21*(1), 65-106.

Fletcher, M., Prickett, K. C., & Chapple, S. (2022). Immediate employment and income impacts of Covid-19 in New Zealand: Evidence from a survey conducted during the alert level 4 lockdown. *New Zealand Economic Papers, 56*(1), 73-80. https://doi.org/10.1080/00779954.2020.1870537

Follesø, R. (2015). Youth at risk or terms at risk? *Young, 23*(3), 240-253. https://doi.org/10.1177/1103308815584877

Fong, K. (2017). Child welfare involvement and contexts of poverty: The role of parental adversities, social networks, and social services. *Children and Youth Services Review, 72*(1), 5-13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2016.10.011

Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2005). The Interview: From neutral stance to political involvement. In In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed, pp. 695-727). Sage.

for schools and employers. https://www.education.govt.nz/assets/Uploads/SES-Students-on-Work-Experience-HS.PDF

Forbes-Mewett, H., & Sawyer, A. M. (2019). International students and mental health. *Journal of International Students, 6*(3), 661-677.

Ford, K. (2018). Persisting gaps: Labor market outcomes and numeracy skill levels of first-generation and multi-generation college graduates in the United States. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, *56*(August), 21-27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rssm.2018.06.003

Ford, T. (2012). Culturally responsive leadership: How one principal in an urban primary school responded successfully to Māori student achievement. *Research Information for Teachers, vol*(2), 28-36.

Foster, K. R., & Spencer, D. (2011). At risk of what? Possibilities over probabilities in the study of young lives. *Journal of Youth Studies, 14*(1), 125-143. https://doi.org/10.1080/13676261.2010.506527Fromentin

France, A. (2007). *Understanding youth in late modernity*. McGraw-Hill Education

Frey, B. B. (2018). *The SAGE encyclopedia of educational research, measurement, and evaluation*. SAGE. https://methods.sagepub.com/reference/the-sage-encyclopedia-of-educational-research-measurement-and-evaluation https://doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139

Froiland, J. M., & Davison, M. L. (2013). Parental expectations and school relationships as contributors to adolescents' positive outcomes. *Social Psychology of Education, 17*(1), 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-013-9237-3

Froiland, J. M., & Davison, M. L. (2016). The longitudinal influences of peers, parents, motivation, and mathematics course-taking on high school math achievement. *Learning & Individual Differences, 50*(1), 252-259. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.07.012

Fromentin, V. (2013). The relationship between immigration and unemployment: The case of France. *Economic Analysis and Policy*, *43*(1), 51-66. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0313-5926(13)50003-8

Fuller, C., McCrum, E., & MacFadyen, T. (2014). Teachers' knowledge and experiences of information advice and guidance: Some implications for the current policy context in

Furbish, & Reid, L. (2013). Best practices in career education and development in New Zealand secondary schools. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 22*(1), 14-20. https://doi.org/10.1177/1038416213480952

Furbish, D. (2011). The influence of professional standards on New Zealand career development practice. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 20*(3), 10-17.

Furbish, D. (2012). An overview of New Zealand career development services. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 21*(2), 14-24. https://doi.org/10.1177/103841621202100203

Furlong, A. (2014). Young people and social consequence of post-industrial economy. In P. Kelly & A. Kamp (Eds.), *Critical Youth Studies for the 21st Century* (pp. 25-37). Brill.

FYA. (2018). *The new work order report series.* https://www.fya.org.au/report/new-work-order-summary/

Gaitan, C. D. (2004). *Involving Latino families in schools: Raising student achievement through home-school partnerships*. Corwin Press. https://go.exlibris.link/MVLRn46H

Garbacz, S. A., Bolt, D. M., Seeley, J. R., Stormshak, E. A., & Smolkowski, K. (2020). Examining school proactive outreach to families in public middle schools. *School Psychology Review, 49*(4), 493-509. https://doi.org/10.1080/2372966X.2020.1787081

Garrison, Y. L., Lee, K. H., & Ali, S. R. (2017). Career identity and life satisfaction: The mediating role of tolerance for uncertainty and positive/negative affect. *Journal of Career Development*, *44*(6), 516-529.

Geel, van M., & Vedder, P. (2009). The role of family obligations and school adjustment in explaining the immigrant paradox. *Youth Adolescence*, *40*(1), 187–196.

Gelinas, L., Pierce, R., Winkler, S., Cohen, I. G., Lynch, H. F., & Bierer, B. E. (2017). Using social media as a research recruitment tool: Ethical issues and recommendations. *The American Journal of Bioethics, 17*(3), 3-14. https://doi.org/10.1080/15265161.2016.1276644

Gelling, L. (1999). Ethical principles in healthcare research. *Nursing Standard, 13*(36), 39-42. https://doi.org/10.7748/ns1999.05.13.36.39.c2607

Gibson, M. A., & Carrasco, S. (2009). The education of immigrant youth: Some lessons from the U.S. and Spain. *Theory into Practice, 48*(4), 249-257. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405840903188118

Giddens, A. (1999). *Runaway world: How globalisation is reshaping our lives*. Profile. https://go.exlibris.link/FtD0pflW

Gilby, K. L. D. (2012). *An exploration of issues for effective home-school communication strategies with Asian immigrant parents.* University of Waikato.

Giorgi, A. (2009). *The descriptive phenomenological method in psychology: A modified Husserlian approach*. Duquesne University Press.

Giorgi, A., Giorgi, B., & Morley, J. (2017). The descriptive phenomenological psychological method. In C. Willig & W. Rogers (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research in psychology* (pp. 176-192). SAGE. https://methods.sagepub.com/book/the-sage-handbook-of-qualitative-research-in-psychology-second-edition https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526405555

Girma, S., & Görg, H. (2004). Outsourcing, foreign ownership, and productivity: Evidence from UK establishment-level data. *Review of International Economics, 12*(5), 817-832. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9396.2004.00483.x

Given, L. M. (2008). *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*. Sage.

Goodwin, J., & O'Connor, H. (2005). Exploring complex transitions: Looking back at the 'Golden Age' of from school to work. *Sociology (Oxford), 39*(2), 201-220. https://doi.org/10.1177/0038038505050535

Gorter, D., & Cenoz, J. (2017). Language education policy and multilingual assessment. *Language and Education*, *31*(3), 231-248.

Goux, D., Gurgand, M., & Maurin, E. (2017). Adjusting your dreams? High school plans and dropout behaviour. *The Economic Journal, 127*(602), 1025-1046. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/ecoj.12317

Graham, M., Hjorth, I., & Lehdonvirta, V. (2017). Digital labour and development: Impacts of global digital labour platforms and the gig economy on worker livelihoods. *Transfer: European Review of Labour and Research*, *23*(2), 135-162. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1024258916687250

Greenbank, P. (2003). The role of values in educational research: The case for reflexivity. *British Educational Research Journal, 29*(6), 791-801.

Griffiths, K., Bullough, S., Shibli, S., & Wilson, J. (2017). The impact of engagement in sport on graduate employability: Implications for higher education policy and practice. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics, 9*(3), 431-451. https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2017.1359648

Grimm, S., & Ronneberger, K. (2007). *An invisible history of work: Interview with Sergio Bologna*. https://springerin.at/en/2007/1/eine-unsichtbare-geschichte-der-arbeit/

Groves, O., Austin, K., O'Shea, S. et al. (2021). 'One student might get one opportunity and then the next student won't get anything like that': Inequities in Australian career education and recommendations for a fairer future. *The Australian Educational Researcher*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13384-021-00468-2

Guan, Y., Guo, Y., Bond, M. H., Cai, Z., Zhou, X., Xu, J., & Ye, L. (2014). New job market entrants' future work self, career adaptability and job search outcomes: Examining mediating and moderating models. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *85*(1), 136-145. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.05.003

Guan, Y., Wang, F., Liu, H., Ji, Y., Jia, X., Fang, Z., & Li, C. (2015). Career-specific parental behaviors, career exploration and career adaptability: A three-wave investigation among Chinese undergraduates. Journal of Vocational Behavior, *86*(1), 95-103. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.10.007

Gunkel, M., Schlägel, C., Langella, I. M., Peluchette, J. V., and Reshetnyak, E. (2013). The influence of national culture on business students' career attitudes - An analysis of eight countries. Z *Persforsch*, *27*(1), 47–68. http://doi.org/10.1177/239700221302700105

Gupta, N., Dhamija, S., Patil, J., & Chaudhari, B. (2021*). Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on healthcare workers. Industrial psychiatry journal*, 30(1), 282–284. https://doi.org/10.4103/0972-6748.328830

Ha, Y., Park, HJ. (2017). Can after-school programs and private tutoring help improve students' achievement? Revisiting the effects in Korean secondary schools. *Asia Pacific Educ. 18*(1), 65–79. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-016-9451-8

Hadjar, A., & Scharf, J. (2019). The value of education among immigrants and non-immigrants and how this translates into educational aspirations: A comparison of four European countries. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, *45*(5), 711-734. https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2018.1433025

Halcomb, E. J., & Davidson, P. M. (2006). Is verbatim transcription of interview data always necessary? *Applied Nursing Research, 19*(1), 38-42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apnr.2005.06.001

Hamamura, T., & Laird, P. G. (2014). The effects of perfectionism and acculturation stress on levels of depression experienced by East Asian International students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 42*(issue), 205–217.

Hammersley, M., & Traianou, A. (2012). *Ethics in qualitative research: Controversies and contexts*. SAGE. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781473957619

Hancock, K. J., & Zubrick, S. (2015). *Children and young people at risk of disengagement from school*. Commissioner for Children and Young People, Western Australia.

Hanse, M. (2021). *The U.S. education system isn't giving students what employers need*. *Harvard Business Review, vol*(issue), pages. https://hbr.org/2021/05/the-u-s-education-system-isnt-giving-students-what-employers-need

Hanson, G., & Liu, C., & McIntosh, C. (2017). The rise and fall of U.S. low-skilled immigration. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, *1*(issue), 83-168. https://www.nber.org/system/files/working_papers/w23753/w23753.pdf

Hayden, L. A., Whitley, M. A., Cook, A. L., Dumais, A., Silva, M., & Scherer, A. (2015). An exploration of life skill development through sport in three international high schools. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health, 7*(5), 759-775. https://doi.org/10.1080/2159676X.2015.1011217

Hennink, M. M. (2008). Language and communication in cross-cultural qualitative research. In P. Liamputtong (Ed.), *Doing cross-cultural research*, *34*(issue), 21-33. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-8567-3_2

Higgins, J. F., Vaughan, K., Phillips, H., & Dalziel, P. C. (2008). *Education employment linkages: International literature review*. https://researcharchive.lincoln.ac.nz/handle/10182/832

Hill, A. (2022, May 19) 'How is that a real job?' Parents struggle to keep up with children's career options. *The Guardian*. https://www.theguardian.com/money/2022/may/19/how-is-that-a-real-job-parents-struggle-to-keep-up-with-childrens-career-options

Hipkins, R., & Vaughan, K. (2019). Subject choice for the future of work: Insights from research literature. *New Zealand Council for Educational Research*.

Ho, P., & Kao, G. (2020). Are all immigrant families created equal? The acculturation and social integration of mixed-nativity families. *Journal of Family Issues, 42*(issue), pages. https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X20911973

Holttum, S. (2015). Students, inclusion, help-seeking and compassionate caring. *Mental Health and Social Inclusion, 19*(2), 61-67. https://doi.org/10.1108/MHSI-02-2015-0005

Hooley, T., & Dodd, V. (2015). *The economic benefits of career guidance.* https://cica.org.au/wp-content/uploads/Careers-England-Research-Paper-The-Economic-Benefits-of-Career-Guidance-July-2015.pdf.

Hooley, T., Watts, A. G., & Andrews, D. (2015). *Teachers and careers: The role of school teachers in delivering career and employability learning*. International Centre for Guidance Studies, University of Derby. https://www.euroguidance.nl/_images/user/publicaties/Teachers%20and%20Careers-final.pdf

Horton, J. (2015). Identifying at-risk factors that affect college student success. *International Journal of Process Education*, *7*(1), 83-101. https://myworkforceconnection.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/risk.pdf

Hossain, F., & Bloom, D. (2015). Toward a better future: Evidence on improving employment outcomes for disadvantaged youth in the United States. MDRC. https://www.mdrc.org/sites/default/files/Toward_Better_Future.pdf

Houghton, A. M., Armstrong, J., & Okeke, R. I. (2021). Delivering careers guidance in English secondary schools: Policy versus practice. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, *69*(1), 47-63. https://doi.org/10.1080/00071005.2020.1734533

Houri, A. K., Thayer, A. J., & Cook, C. R. (2019). Targeting parent trust to enhance engagement in a school-home communication system: A double-blind experiment of a parental wise feedback intervention. *School Psychology, 34*(4), 421-432. https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000318

Howieson, C., McKechnie, J., & Semple, S. (2012). Working pupils: challenges and potential. *Journal of*

Hu, X., Wan, G., & Wang, J. (2020). The impacts of globalization on the labor share: Evidence from Asia. *The Singapore Economic Review*, *65*(1), 57-73. https://doi.org/10.1142/S0217590820440038

Hughes, D., Mann, A., Barnes, S.-A., Baldauf, B., & McKeown, R. (2016). *Careers education: International literature review*. Warwick Institute for Employer Research and Education and Employers Research. http://hdl.voced.edu.au/10707/408886

Hui, K., and Lent, R. W. (2018). The roles of family, culture, and social cognitive variables in the career interests and goals of Asian American college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *65*(1), 98–109. https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000235

Hutchinson, J. (2012). Career-related learning and science education: The changing landscape. *School Science Review, 346*(1), 91-98.

Hutchinson, J. (2018). Career guidance in five English independent schools. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *46*(1), 51-65. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2017.1408775

Immigration New Zealand (2017). *Migrant youth: A statistical profile of recently arrived young migrants.* https://www.mbie.govt.nz/dmsdocument/2836-migrant-youth-statistical-profile-pdf

Immigration New Zealand (2019a). *Explore visa options for living permanently*. https://www.immigration.govt.nz/new-zealand-visas/options/live-permanently/explore-visa-options-for-living-permanently

Immigration New Zealand (2019b). *Information about refugee family support resident visa.* https://www.immigration.govt.nz/new-zealand-visas/apply-for-a-visa/visa-factsheet/refugee-family-support-resident-visa

Immigration New Zealand. (2020). *How we support migrants*. https://www.immigration.govt.nz/about-us/what-we-do/our-strategies-and-projects/how-we-support-migrants

Immigration New Zealand. (n.d.). *Green List roles.* https://www.immigration.govt.nz/new-zealand-visas/apply-for-a-visa/tools-and-information/work-and-employment/green-list-occupations

Inkson, K. (2009). Understanding careers: The metaphors of working lives. *Development and Learning in Organizations: An International Journal, 23*(1), 23-25. https://doi.org/10.1108/dlo.2009.08123aae.001

International Monetary Fund (2008), *Globalization: A brief overview*. https://www.imf.org/external/np/exr/ib/2008/053008.htm#:~:text=It%20refers%20to%20the%20increasing,(technology)%20across%20international%20borders.

Irving, B. A. (2010). Making a difference? Developing career education as a socially just practice. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 19*(3), 15-23. https://doi.org/10.1177/103841621001900304

Irving, B. A. (2011). Career education as a site of oppression and domination: An engaging myth or a critical reality? *Australian Journal of Career Development, 20*(3), 24-30. https://doi.org/10.1177/103841621102000305

Irwin, S. (2020). Young people in the middle: pathways, prospects, policies and a new agenda for youth research. *Journal of Youth Studies, 24*(8), 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1080/13676261.2020.1792864

Ishimaru, A. (2014). Rewriting the rules of engagement: Elaborating a model of district-community collaboration. *Harvard Educational Review, 84*(2), 188-216. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.84.2.r2007u165m8207j5

Jackson, C., Ball, J., Hirsh, W., & Kidd, J. (2003). Informing choices: The need for career advice in medical training. *Journal of the National Institute for Career Education and Counselling*, *9*(1), 10-15. https://doi.org/10.20856/jnicec.0903

Ji, Cheng S., and Sally A. Koblinsky. (2009). Parent involvement in children's education: An exploratory study of urban Chinese immigrant families. *Urban Education,44* (6), 687–709. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085908322706

Jodl, K. M., Michael, A., Malanchuk, O., Eccles, J. S., & Sameroff, A. (2001). Parents' roles in shaping early adolescents' occupational aspirations. *Child Development, 72*(4), 1247-1266. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00345

Johnson, A. (2013). She'll be right : a state of the nation report from the Salvation Army. https://www.salvationarmy.org.nz/sites/default/files/uploads/_archive/file/20130211SPPUTSASotN2013Web.pdf

Johnson, M. K., & Mortimer, J. T. (2011). Origins and outcomes of judgments about work. Social Forces, 89(4), 1239–1260. Johnson, S. B. (2013). Technical and institutional factors in the emergence of project management. *International Journal of Project Management, 31*(5), 670–681.

Jokisaari, M., & Nurmi, J.-E. (2005). Company matters: Goal-related social capital in the transition to working life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67*(3), 413-428. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2004.09.002

Jones, S., Mann, A., & Morris, K. (2016). The ‘employer engagement cycle’ in secondary education: Analysing the testimonies of young British adults. *Journal of Education and Work, 29*(7), 834-856. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2015.1074665

Kalleberg, A. L. (2009). Precarious work, Insecure workers: Employment relations in transition. *American Sociological Review, 74*(1), 1-22. https://doi.org/10.1177/000312240907400101

Kallio, H., Pietilä, A.-M., Johnson, M. & Kangasniemi, M. (2016). Systematic methodological review: developing a framework for a qualitative semi-structured interview guide. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 72*(12), 2954– 2965. https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.13031

Kamp, A. (2005). On track to what? A Foucauldian analysis of a recent Victorian post-compulsory education policy initiative. *Youth Studies Australia, 24*(2), 39-44.

Kanten, S. (2016). The role of career self-efficacy on the effect of parental career behaviors on career exploration: A study on school of tourism and hotel management students. *European Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies, 1*(6), 144-155.

Kao, G., & Rutherford, L. T. (2007). Does social capital still matter? Immigrant minority disadvantage in school-specific social capital and its effects on academic achievement. *Sociological Perspectives, 50*(1), 27-52. https://doi.org/10.1525/sop.2007.50.1.27

Karaka-Clarke, T. H., Smith, J., & Rātima, M. (2021). The hikairo schema for secondary : Culturally responsive teaching and learning. NZCER Press.

Kashefpakdel, E. T., & Percy, C. (2017). Career education that works: an economic analysis using the British Cohort Study. *Journal of Education and Work, 30*(3), 217-234. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2016.1177636

Kavale, J. (2012). *Systemic and strategic development of school-based career guidance from the perspectives of stakeholders*. Technische Universität Dortmund. http://dx.doi.org/10.17877/DE290R-5154

Kelly, P. (1999). Wild and tame zones: Regulating the transitions of youth at risk. *Journal of Youth Studies, 2*(2), 193. https://doi.org/10.1080/13676261.1999.10593035

Kelly, P., & Kamp, A. (2015). *A critical youth studies for the 21st century*. Brill.

Kelsey, J. (1999). *Reclaiming the future: New zealand and the global economy*. Bridget Williams Books. https://doi.org/10.3138/9781442679054

Kemple, J. J., & Willner, C. J. (2008). *Career academies: Long-term impacts on labor market outcomes, educational attainment, and transitions to adulthood*. MDRC. https://www.mdrc.org/sites/default/files/full_50.pdf

Kewalramani, S., & Phillipson, S. (2020). Parental role in shaping immigrant children's subject choices and career pathway decisions in Australia. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance, 20*(1), 79-99. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10775-019-09395-2

Khampirat, B. (2020). The relationship between paternal education, self-esteem, resilience, future orientation, and career aspirations. *Plos One*, *15*(12), e0243283. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0243283

Kim S., Ahn T., Fouad N. (2016). Family influence on Korean students' career decisions. *Journal of Career Assessment, 24*(3), 513–526. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072715599403

Kim, Y. (2011). The pilot study in qualitative inquiry: Identifying issues and learning lessons for culturally competent research. *Qualitative Social Work, 10*(2), 190-206. https://doi.org/10.1177/1473325010362001Lange

King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in qualitative research*. SAGE.

Knabe, A., & Rätzel, S. (2011). Scarring or scaring? The psychological impact of past unemployment and future unemployment risk. *Economica, 78*(310), 283-293.

Kogan, I. (2007). A study of immigrants' employment careers in West Germany using the sequence analysis technique. *Social Science Research, 36*(2), 491-511. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2006.03.004

Konstam V., Celen-Demirtas S., Tomek S., Sweeney K. (2015). Career adaptability and subjective wellbeing in unemployed emerging adults: A promising and cautionary tale. *Journal of Career Development, 42*(6), 463–477. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845315575151

Kowal, S., & O'Connell, D. (2014). Transcription as a crucial step of data analysis. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis* (pp. 64-76). SAGE. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446282243

Koyama, J. (2013). Resettling notions of social mobility: Locating refugees as 'educable' and 'employable'. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 34*(5-6), 947-965. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/01425692.2013.816033

Koyama, J. (2015). Learning English, working hard, and challenging risk discourses. *Policy Futures in Education*, *13*(5), 608-620. https://doi.org/10.1177/1478210315579547

Krahn, H. J., & Galambos, N. L. (2014). Work values and beliefs of 'Generation X' and 'Generation Y'. *Journal of Youth Studies, 17*(1), 92–112.

Kuijpers, M., Meijers, F., & Gundy, C. (2011). The relationship between learning environment and career competencies of students in vocational education. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 78*(1), 21-30. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.05.005

Langdridge, D., & Hagger-Johnson, G. (2009). *Introduction to research methods and data analysis in psychology* (2nd ed.). Pearson Prentice Hall.

Lange, M. d., Gesthuizen, M., & Wolbers, M. H. J. (2014). Youth labour market integration across Europe: The impact of cyclical, structural, and institutional characteristics. *European Societies, 16*(2), 194-212. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616696.2013.821621

Langenkamp, A. G. (2019). Latino/a immigrant parents' educational aspirations for their children. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *22*(2), 231-249. https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2017.1365054

Larson, M. (2018). *Career exploration in action. Practice Brief, National Collaborative on Workforce and Disability, 46*, 1-18.

Latif, E. (2015). The relationship between immigration and unemployment: Panel data evidence from Canada. *Economic Modelling*, *50*(1), 162-167. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2015.06.013

Lau, E. Y. H., Li, H., & Rao, N. (2011). Parental involvement and children's readiness for school in China. *Educational Research, 53*(1), 95-113. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2011.552243

Lauer, S., Wilkinson, L., Yan, M. C., Sin, R., & Tsang, A. (2012). Immigrant youth and employment: Lessons learned from the analysis of LSIC and 82 lived stories. *Journal of International Migration and Integration, 13*(1), 1-19.

Lavrakas, P. J. (2008). *Encyclopedia of survey research methods*. SAGE.

Lee, E., & Vivarelli, M. (2006). The social impact of globalization in the developing countries. *International Labour Review, 145*(3), 167-184. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1564-913X.2006.tb00016.x

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a unifying social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 45*(1), 79–122.

Lent, R. W., Ireland, G. W., Penn, L. T., Morris, T. R., & Sappington, R. (2017). Sources of self-efficacy and outcome expectations for career exploration and decision-making: A test of the social cognitive model of career self-management. *Journal of vocational behavior, 99*, 107-117.

Leonard, M. (2005). Children, childhood and social capital: Exploring the links. *Sociology, 39*(4), 605-622. https://doi.org/10.1177/0038038505052490

Lesko, N. (2012). Act your age: a cultural construction of adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, vol*(issue), pages. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203121580

Leung, S. A., Hou, Z.-J., Gati, I., & Li, X. (2011). Effects of parental expectations and cultural-values orientation on career decision-making difficulties of Chinese University students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 78*(1), 11-20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.08.004

Levy, D. J., Heissel, J. A., Richeson, J. A., & Adam, E. K. (2016). Psychological and biological responses to race-based social stress as pathways to disparities in educational outcomes. *American Psychologist, 71*(6), 455–473. https://doi.apa.org/doi/10.1037/a0040322.

Liamputtong, P. (2010). *Performing qualitative cross-cultural research*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511812705

Lim, S. A., & You, S. (2019). Long-term effect of parents' support on adolescents' career maturity. *Journal of Career Development, 46*(1), 48–61. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845317731866

Lin, N., Cook, K. S., & Burt, R. S. (2017). Social capital: Theory and research. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315129457

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Sage.

Liu, J., McMahon, M., & Watson, M. (2015). Parental influence on mainland Chinese children's career aspirations: Child and parental perspectives. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance, 15*(2), 131-143. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10775-015-9291-9

Liv Anne, S. (2011). Key factors behind labour market marginalization of young immigrants: Limited access to apprenticeships, 'state dependence' or low qualifications? *Young, 19*(2), 129-158. https://doi.org/10.1177/110330881001900202

Lloyd, C. B. (2005). *Growing up global: The changing transitions to adulthood in developing countries*. The National Academies Press. https://doi:10.17226/11174

Lohmar, B., & Eckhardt, T. (2008). *The education system in the Federal Republic of Germany 2006: A description of the responsibilities, structures and developments in education policy for the exchange of information in Europe* [Conference presentation]. Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of German, Germany.

López, G. R., Scribner, J. D., & Mahitivanichcha, K. (2001). Redefining parental involvement: Lessons from high-performing migrant-impacted schools. *American Educational Research Journal, 38*(2), 253-288. https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312038002253

Ma, J., Pender, M., Welch, M. (2022). Education pays 2019: The benefits of higher education for individuals and society. *College Board.* https://research.collegeboard.org/media/pdf/education-pays-2019-full-report.pdf

Macfarlane, A. H. (2007). *Discipline, democracy and diversity: Working with students with behaviour difficulties*. New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Macnaghten, P., & Myers, G. (2004). Qualitative research practice. In C. Seale, G., Gobo& J. F., Gubrium (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice* (pp. 65-79) SAGE. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781848608191

Madjar, I., McKinley, E., Jensen, S., & Van Der Merwe, A. (2009). *Towards university: Navigating NCEA course choices in low-mid decile schools*. Starpath project. https://cdn.auckland.ac.nz/assets/education/about/research/docs/starpath/Towards-university-Navigating-NCEA-course-choices-in-low-mid-decile-schools.pdf

Magee, M., Kuijpers, M., & Runhaar, P. (2022). How vocational education teachers and managers make sense of career guidance. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 50(2), 273-289. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2021.1948970

Maher, C., Hadfield, M., Hutchings, M., & De Eyto, A. (2018). Ensuring rigor in qualitative data analysis: A design research approach to coding combining NVivo with traditional material methods. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 17*(1), 1-13

Mann, A., & Dawkins, J. (2014). *Employer engagement in education: Literature review*. CfBT Education Trust. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED546811

Mann, A., & Percy, C. (2014). Employer engagement in British secondary education: Wage earning outcomes experienced by young adults. *Journal of Education & Work, 27*(5), 496-523. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2013.769671

Mann, A., Rehill, J., & Kashefpakdel, E. (2018). *Employer engagement in education: Insights from international evidence for effective practice and future research*. Education Endowment Foundation. https://www.educationandemployers.org/research/employerengagementineducation/

Marciniak, J., Johnston, C. S., Steiner, R. S., & Hirschi, A. (2022). Career preparedness among adolescents: A review of key components and directions for future research. *Journal of Career Development, 49*(1), 18–40. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845320943951

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). SAGE.

Mason, M. (2010). Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews. *Forum Qualitative Social Research, 11*(3), 19-11.

Matthiesen, N. C. L. (2016). Understanding silence: an investigation of the processes of silencing in parent–teacher conferences with Somali diaspora parents in Danish public schools. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 29*(3), 320-337. https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2015.1023236

Mbagwu, MI., Ajaegbu, OO. (2016). Influence of parents' educational background on career choice of teenagers among senior secondary school students in Owerri. Edorium Journal of Psychol, *2*(1), 14–20.

McBrien, J. L. (2005). Educational needs and barriers for refugee students in the United States: A review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research, 75*(3), 329-364. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543075003329

McBrien, J. L., & Hayward, M. (2022). Refugee-background students in New Zealand and the United States: Roots and results of educational policies and practices. *Journal of Global Education and Research, 6*(2), 133-147. https://doi.org/10.5038/2577-509X.6.2.1085

McFaul, S. (2016). International students' social networks: Network mapping to gage friendship formation and student engagement on campus. *Journal of International Students, 6*(1), 1-13. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v6i1.393

McGrath, C., Palmgren, P. J., & Liljedahl, M. (2019). Twelve tips for conducting qualitative research interviews. *Medical Teacher, 41*(9), 1002-1006. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2018.1497149

McGrath, K. F., and Van Bergen, P. (2015). Who, when, why and to what end? Students at risk of negative student–teacher relationships and their outcomes. *Educational Research Review*, *14*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2014.12.001

McGunagle, D. and Zizka, L. (2020), Employability skills for 21st-century STEM students: the employers' perspective, *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning, 10*(3), 591-606. https://doi.org/10.1108/HESWBL-10-2019-0148

McIlveen, P., Morgan, T., & Bimrose, J. (2012). A longitudinal study of the experience of a career development program for rural school students. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 21*(1), 22-30. https://doi.org/10.1177/103841621202100104

Menken, K. (2010) Teaching to the test: How no child left behind impacts language policy, curriculum, and instruction for English language learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *30*(2), 521-546. https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2006.10162888

Menken, K., & Shohamy, E. (2015). Invited colloquium on negotiating the complexities of multilingual assessment: AAAL conference 2014. *Language Teaching*, *48*(3), 421-425. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444815000166

Merriam, S. B., & Grenier, R. S. (2019). *Qualitative research in practice: Examples for discussion and analysis* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Mertens, D. M. (1998). *Research methods in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative & qualitative approaches*. SAGE.

Meyer, L. H., Weir, K. F., McClure, J., Walkey, F., & McKenzie, L. (2009). *Motivation and achievement at secondary school: The relationship between NCEA design and student motivation and achievement: A three-year follow-up*. https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/schooling/50665

Ministry for Ethnic Communities. (2021). *Former refugees, recent migrants and ethnic communities' employment action plan*. https://www.ethniccommunities.govt.nz/assets/News/Former-Refugees-Recent-Migrants-and-Ethnic-Communities-Employment-Action-Plan.pdf

Ministry of Education. (2009). *Career education and guidance in New Zealand.* https://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/content/download/2767/35051/file/Career-guidelines-web.pdf

Ministry of Education. (2016). *Students on work experience: A health & safety guide*

Ministry of Education. (2019). *Evidence brief for the Tertiary Education Strategy.* https://conversation.education.govt.nz/assets/TES/16-Sept-2019-Annex-2-Draft-Evidence-Brief-003.pdf

Ministry of Education. (2020). *The National Administration Guidelines (NAGs).* https://www.education.govt.nz/our-work/legislation/nags/

Ministry of Education. (2021). *Enrolling and starting at secondary school*. https://parents.education.govt.nz/secondary-school/your-child-at-school/enrolling-and-starting-at-secondary-school/

Ministry of Education. (2022). *Refugee background students – Education in New Zealand*. https://www.education.govt.nz/school/student-support/supporting-transitions/refugee-background-students/

Ministry of Social Development. (2022). *Eligibility criteria - Fees free*. https://www.feesfree.govt.nz/eligibility-criteria/

Mishna, F., Muskat, B., & Cook, C. (2012). Anticipating challenges: School-based social work intervention research. *Children & Schools, 34*(3), 135-144. https://doi.org/10.1093/cs/cds002

Mishra, P., & Müller, L. (2022). Resources, norms, and dropout intentions of migrant students in Germany: the role of social networks and social capital, *Studies in Higher Education*, *47*(8), 1666-1680, https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2021.1948525

Moote, J., & Archer, L. (2018). Failing to deliver? Exploring the current status of career education provision in England. *Research Papers in Education, 33*(2), 187-215. https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2016.1271005

Morgan, D. L. (1996). Focus groups. *Annual Review of Sociology, 22*(1), 129-152. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.22.1.129

Morgan, L. W., Greenwaldt, M. E., & Gosselin, K. P. (2014). School counselors' perceptions of competency in career counseling. *Professional Counselor, 4*(5), 481-496. https://doi.org/10.15241/lwm.4.5.481

Morse, J. M. (2000). Determining sample size. *Qualitative Health Research, 10*(1), 3-5. https://doi.org/10.1177/104973200129118183

Morse, J. M., Barrett, M., Mayan, M., Olson, K., & Spiers, J. (2002). Verification strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 1*(2), 13-22. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690200100202

Moses, J.O., Villodas, M.T. (2017). The potential protective role of peer relationships on school engagement in at-risk adolescents. *Youth Adolescence, 46*(1), 2255–2272. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-017-0644-1

Mtemeri, J. (2017). Factors influencing the choice of career pathways among high school students in Midlands Province, Zimbabwe. *University of South Africa. Pretoria, South Africa.* Retrieved from: http://core. ac. uk/download/pdf/95521630. pdf.

Müller, S., & Schneider, T. (2013). Educational pathways and dropout from higher education in Germany. *Longitudinal and Life Course Studies, 4*(3), 218-241.

Müller, W., & Gangl, M. (eds) (2003). *Transitions from education to work in Europe: The integration of youth into EU labour markets*. Oxford University Press on Demand. https://doi.org/10.1093/0199252475.001.0001

Musset, P. and Mytna Kurekova, L.(2018), *Working it out: Career guidance and employer engagement* [OECD Education Working Papers, no. 175]. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/51c9d18d-en.

Na, K. S., & Tasir, Z. (2017, November 16-17*). Identifying at-risk students in online learning by analysing learning behaviour: A systematic review.* IEEE Conference on Big Data and Analytics (ICBDA), Kuching, Malaysia, 118-123, https://doi.org/10.1109/ICBDAA.2017.8284117.

Naseem, J. (2014). Education and employment: Understanding the labour market experiences of graduate minority ethnic women in France and the UK. *Educate, 14*(1), 5-9.

Neblett, N. G., & Cortina, K. S. (2006). Adolescents' thoughts about parents' jobs and their importance for adolescents' future orientation. *Journal of Adolescence, 29*(5), 795-811. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2005.11.006

Neuman, W. L. (2013). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Pearson Education.

Neumark, D., & Rothstein, D. (2003). School-to-career programs and transitions to employment and higher education. *Economics of Education Review, 25*(4), 374-393. https://doi.org/10.3386/w10060

New South Wales Government. (2019). Careers and transitions advisers. https://education.nsw.gov.au/content/dam/main-education/teaching-and-learning/curriculum/career-learning-and-vocational-education/career-learning/school-to-work-program/2019_School_to_Work_Overview.pdf

New Zealand Health Navigator. (2022). *Interpreter services*. https://www.healthnavigator.org.nz/languages/i/interpreter-services/

New Zealand Labour Party (2016). *Transforming careers advice*. http://www.labour.org.nz/announced_policies.

New Zealand Law Commission. (2005). New Issues in Legal Parenthood. https://www.lawcom.govt.nz/sites/default/files/projectAvailableFormats/NZLC%20R88.pdf

Newsome, L. K., & Cooper, P. (2016). International students' cultural and social experiences in a British university: "Such a hard life [it] is here". *Journal of International Students, 6*(1), 195-215. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v6i1.488

Newton, D. (2017). *Ready and working: Pathway programs are changing what it means to*

Nguyen, N., & Liu, S.-H. (2011). *Successful youth transitions*. NCVER.

Nichols, L. (2018). Newcomer women's experiences of immigration and precarious work in Toronto. *Women's Health and Urban Life, 14*(1). 7–30, https://doi.org/10.51357/cs.v14i1.123

Nichols, L., Ha, B., & Tyyskä, V. (2020). Canadian immigrant youth and the education-employment nexus. *Canadian Journal of Family and Youth/Le Journal Canadien de Famille et de la Jeunesse, 12*(1), 178-199. https://doi.org/10.29173/cjfy29497

Nolan, M. (2013). *Understanding the unemployment problem*. Infometrics. http://www.infometrics.co.nz/understanding-the-unemployment-problem/

Nugent, G., Barker, B. & Welch, G. (2014). A model of STEM learning and career orientation based on social cognitive theory. In M. Searson & M. Ochoa (Eds.), *Proceedings of SITE 2014--Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education international conference* (pp. 1432-1440). https://www.learntechlib.org/primary/p/130968/.

O'Connell, M., Milligan, S., & Bently, T. (2019). *Beyond ATAR: A proposal for change.* https://www.bigpicture.org.au/files/beyond_atar_a_proposal_for_change_all.pdf

O'Connell, M., Singhania, A., Hamdorf, M., & Cazaly, C. (2022). Pathways or goat tracks – Non-ATAR university entrance. https://www.ncsehe.edu.au/wp-content/uploads/2022/04/OConnell_RMIT_Final.pdf

O'Reilly, V., McMahon, M., & Parker, P. (2020). Career development: Profession or not? *Australian Journal of Career Development, 29*(2), 79-86. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1038416219898548

O'Shea, S., Groves, O., & Delahunty, J. (2021). '…having people that will help you, that know the ropes and have walked that road before you': How does first in family status impact graduates in the employment field? *Journal of Teaching and Learning for Graduate Employability, 12*(2), 36-50. https://doi.org/10.21153/jtlge2021vol12no2art982

Office of the Auditor General. (2013). *Immigration New Zealand: Supporting new migrants to settle and work.* National Library of New Zealand Catalogue. https://oag.parliament.nz/2013/new-migrants/docs/oag-new-migrants.pdf

OiYan, P. (2014). "The land of opportunity doesn't apply to everyone": The immigrant experience, race, and Asian American career choices. *Journal of College Student Development, 55*(6), 499-514. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2014.0056

Olteanu, A., & Rădoi, M. A. (2010). Positive and negative effects of globalization. *Lex Et Scientia*, *17*(2), 209-212.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2018a). *Seven questions about apprenticeships. OECD Publications*. https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264306486-en

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2018b). *Future of education and skills:*

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2004). *Career guidance and public policy: Bridging the gap*. OECD. https://www.oecd.org/education/skills-beyond-school/34050171.pdf

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2012a). *How does education affect employment rates?* OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/eag_highlights-2012-11-en

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2012b). *What are the returns on higher education for individuals and countries?* Education Indicators in Focus (No. 6). OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/5k961l69d8tg-en

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2015a). *Helping immigrant students to succeed at school – and beyond*. https://www.oecd.org/education/Helping-immigrant-students-to-succeed-at-school-and-beyond.pdf

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2015b). What are the advantages today of having an upper secondary qualification? (No. 34). OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/5jrw5p4jn426-en

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2019). *How do OECD countries compare in their attractiveness for talented migrants?* https://www.oecd.org/els/mig/migration-policy-debates-19.pdf

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2020). *Job retention schemes during the COVID-19 lockdown and beyond*. OECD Publishing. https://read.oecd.org/10.1787/0853ba1d-en?format=pdf

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2021a). Getting the most out of employer engagement in career guidance (No. 36). OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/fbbc3788-en

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2021b). *OECD employment outlook 2021*. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/5a700c4b-en

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2022*). Education at a Glance 2022: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/3197152b-en.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (OECD) (2015c). Immigrant students at school: Easing the journey towards integration. OECD. https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264249509-en

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development/EU. (2018). *Settling in 2018: Indicators of immigrant integration*. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264307216-en

Ottaviano, G. I. P., Peri, G., & Wright, G. C. (2013). Immigration, offshoring, and American jobs. *The American Economic Review*, *103*(5), 1925-1959. https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.103.5.1925

Pablo-Lerchundi, I., Morales-Alonso, G., & González-Tirados, R. M. (2015). Influences of parental occupation on occupational choices and professional values. *Journal of Business Research, 68*(7), 1645-1649. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.02.011

Packer, M. J. (2017). *The science of qualitative research*. Cambridge University Press.

paper. https://cica.org.au/wp-content/uploads/2017-07-18__Career_paper__formatted__FINAL__RS.pdf

Park, H., & Kao, G. (2016). *Family environments, school resources, and educational outcomes* (Vol. 19). Emerald. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3539201619

Parliament of Victoria. (2018). *Inquiry into career advice activities in Victorian schools.* https://www.parliament.vic.gov.au/images/stories/committees/eejsc/Career_Advice_Activities/EEJSC_58-04_Text_WEB.pdf. Accessed 18–22 Jan 2021

Parola, A., Fusco, L. & Marcionetti, J. (2022). The parental career-related behaviors questionnaire (PCB): Psychometric properties in adolescents and young adults in the Italian context. *Current Psychology,* 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-02764-1

Pastoor, L. D. W. (2015). The mediational role of schools in supporting psychosocial transitions among unaccompanied young refugees upon resettlement in Norway. *International Journal of Educational Development, 41*(1), 245-254. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2014.10.009

Patel, S. G., Salahuddin, N. M., & O'Brien, K. M. (2008). Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy of Vietnamese Adolescents: The Role of Acculturation, Social Support, Socioeconomic Status, and Racism. *Journal of Career Development, 34*(3), 218–240. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845307308488

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (3 ed.). SAGE.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice: The definitive text of qualitative inquiry frameworks and options* (4th ed.). SAGE.

Percy, C. & Tanner, E. (2021*). The benefits of Gatsby benchmark achievement for post-16 destinations.* The Careers & Enterprise Company. https://www.careersandenterprise.co.uk/media/zt0bgoa0/1488_destinations_report_v4.pdf

Peruffo, E., Rodríguez, R., Mandl, I., & Bisello, M. (2020). *Game-changing technologies: Transforming production and employment in Europe*. Publications Office of the European Union. https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/sites/default/files/ef_publication/field_ef_document/ef19047en.pdf

Pieterse, J. N. (2019). *Globalization and culture: Global mélange*. Rowman & Littlefield.

Poland, B. D. (1995). Transcription quality as an aspect of rigor in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 1*(3), 290-310. https://doi.org/10.1177/107780049500100302

Polenova, E., Vedral, A., Brisson, L., and Zinn, L. (2018). Emerging between two worlds: A longitudinal study of career identity of students from Asian American immigrant families. *Emerging Adulthood*, *6*(1), 53–65. https://doi.org/10.1177/2167696817696430

Poon, O. (2014). " The land of opportunity doesn't apply to everyone": The immigrant experience, race, and Asian American career choices. *Journal of College Student Development*, *55*(6), 499-514. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2014.0056

Poon, Y. S. R., Lin, Y. P., Griffiths, P., Yong, K. K., Seah, B., & Liaw, S. Y. (2022). A global overview of healthcare workers' turnover intention amid COVID-19 pandemic: A systematic review with future directions. *Human Resources for Health, 20*(1), 1-18. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12960-022-00764-7

Prieto-Welch, S. L. (2016). International student mental health. *New Directions for Student Services, 2016*(156), 53-63. https://doi.org/10.1002/ss.20191

Punie, Y., Zinnbauer, D., & Cabrera, M. (2006). *A review of the impact of ICT on learning*. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. https://www.academia.edu/download/32688954/ICTlearning.pdf

Qin, D. B., & Han, E. J. (2014). Tiger parents or sheep parents? Struggles of parental involvement in working-class Chinese immigrant families. *Teachers College Record, 116*(8), 1-32. https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811411600807

Quinter, M., & Edwards, K. (2011). Factors influencing students career choices among secondary school students in Kisumu municipality, Kenya. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies, 2*(2), 81-87.

Rah, Y., Choi, S., & Nguyễn, T. S. T. (2009). Building bridges between refugee parents and schools. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 12*(4), 347-365. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603120802609867

Rallis, S. F., & Rossman, G. B. (2009). Ethics and trustworthiness. In J. Heigham & R. A. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics* (pp. 263-287). Palgrave Macmillan.

Ranasinghe, R., Chew, E., Knight, G., & Siekmann, G. (2019). *School-to-work pathways*. NCVER.

Rapely, T. (2004). Interview. In C. Seale, Gobo, G., & Gubrium, J. F. (Ed.), *Qualitative research practice*. SAGE.

Ravitch, S. M., & Carl, N. M. (2015). *Qualitative research: Bridging the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological*. SAGE.

Razali, F., Talib, O., Manaf, U. K. A., & Hassan, S. A. (2018). A measure of students' motivation, attitude and parental influence towards interest in STEM career among Malaysian form four science stream student. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 7*(4), 245-264.

Redmond, M. (2003). Cultural and ethical challenges in cross-national research: Reflections on a European union study on child & youth migration. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 2*(4), 15-24. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690300200402

Reid, L. A. (2010). *Understanding how cultural values influence career processes for Māori*. Auckland University of Technology.

Reinke, H., & Goller, M. (2022). Supporting young immigrants in their transition from school to work? A staff perspective on challenges of vocational integration classes. *International Journal for Research in Vocational Education and Training*, *9*(1), 92-119. https://doi.org/92-119. 10.13152/IJRVET.9.1.5

Riele, K. t. (2006). Youth 'at risk': further marginalizing the marginalized? *Journal of Education Policy, 21*(2), 129-145. https://doi.org/10.1080/02680930500499968

Rimmer, M. (2012). The participation and decision making of 'at risk' youth in community music projects: An exploration of three case studies. *Journal of Youth Studies, 15*(3), 329-350. https://doi.org/10.1080/13676261.2011.643232

Roberts, J. K., Pavlakis, A. E., & Richards, M. P. (2021). It's More Complicated Than It Seems: Virtual Qualitative Research in the COVID-19 Era. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 20*. https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069211002959

Rogošić, S., & Baranović, B. (2016). Social capital and educational achievements: Coleman vs. Bourdieu. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal, 6*(2), 81-100. https://doi.org/10.26529/cepsj.89

Rossiter, M. J., & Rossiter, K. R. (2009). Diamonds in the rough: Bridging gaps in supports for at-risk immigrant and refugee youth. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, *10*(4), 409-429. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-009-0110-3

Rossiter, M. J., Hatami, S., Ripley, D., & Rossiter, K. R. (2015). Immigrant and refugee youth settlement experiences: "A new kind of war". *International Journal of Child, Youth and Family Studies*, *6*(4), 746-770. https://doi.org/10.18357/ijcyfs.641201515056

Rothman, S. (2019). What do schools want from engagement with business? *Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER)*. https://research.acer.edu.au/policy_analysis_misc/30

Roulston, K. (2014). Analysing interviews. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative data analysis*. SAGE. https://methods.sagepub.com/book/the-sage-handbook-of-qualitative-data-analysis https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446282243

Ruschoff, B., Salmela-Aro, K., Kowalewski, T., Dijkstra, J. K., & Veenstra, R. (2018). Peer networks in the school-to-work transition. *Career Development International, 23*(5), 466–477. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1108/CDI-02-2018-0052.

Saleem, N., Hanan, M. A., Saleem, I., & Shamshad, R. M. (2014). Career selection: Role of parent's profession, mass media and personal choice. *Bulletin of Education and Research, 36*(2), 25-37.

Sampson, H. (2013). Globalisation, labour market transformation and migrant marginalisation: The example of transmigrant seafarers in Germany. *International Migration & Integration*, *14*(4), 751–765. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-012-0266-0

Sampson, J., Marlowe, J., de Haan, I., & Bartley, A. (2016). Resettlement journeys: A pathway to success? An analysis of the experiences of young people from refugee backgrounds in Aotearoa New Zealand's education system. *New Zealand Sociology*, *31*(1), 31–48. https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.280406028690249

Sanders, J., Munford, R. and Boden, J. (2018), Improving educational outcomes for at-risk students. *British Educational Research Journal*, *44*(5), 763-780. https://doi.org/10.1002/berj.3462

Sanders, J., Munford, R., Thimasarn-Anwar, T., Liebenberg, L. (2017), Validation of the child and youth resilience measure (CYRM-28) on a sample of at-risk New Zealand youth. *Research on Social Work Practice*, *27*(7), 827-840. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731515614102

Sassen, S. (2016). *Global networks, linked cities*. Routledge.

Savickas, M. L. (2012). Life design: A paradigm for career intervention in the 21st century. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 90*(1), 13-19. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1556-6676.2012.00002.x

Savickas, M. L. (2013). Career construction theory and practice. In S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent (Eds.), Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work (2nd ed., pp. 42–70). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Savickas, M. L. (2015). Career counseling paradigms: Guiding, developing, and designing. In P. J. Hartung, M. L. Savickas, & W. B. Walsh (Eds.), *APA handbook of career intervention, Vol. 1. Foundations* (pp. 129–143). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/14438-008

Savickas, M. L., Nota, L., Rossier, J., Dauwalder, J.-P., Duarte, M. E., Guichard, J., Soresi, S., Van Esbroeck, R., & van Vianen, A. E. M. (2009). Life designing: A paradigm for career construction in the 21st century. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 75*(3), 239-250. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2009.04.004

Sawir, E., Marginson, S., Deumert, A., Nyland, C., & Ramia, G. (2008). Loneliness and international students: An Australian study. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 12*(2), 148-180. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315307299699

Sawitri, D. R., Creed, P. A., and Zimmer-Gembeck, M. J. (2015). Longitudinal relations of parental influences and adolescent career aspirations and actions in a collectivist society. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*. *25*(3), 551–563. http://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12145

Scales, P. C., Boat, A. A., & Pekel, K. (2020). Defining and Measuring Social Capital for Young People: A Practical Review of the Literature on Resource-Full Relationships (Report for the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation). Minneapolis, MN: Search Institute. https://www.search-institute.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/SOCAP-Lit-Review.pdf.

Scarpetta, S., Sonnet, A., & Manfredi, T. (2010). Rising youth unemployment during the crisis. *ECD social, employment and migration* (Working Paper No. 106). https://doi.org/10.1787/5kmh79zb2mmv-en

Schaefer, M. B., & Rivera, L. M. (2014). Working collaboratively in a small secondary (6-12) school to facilitate career development. *American Secondary Education*, *42*(2), 51–68. http://www.jstor.org/stable/43694185

Schierup, C.-U., & Jørgensen, M. B. (2017). *Politics of precarity: Migrant conditions, struggles and experiences* (Vol. 97). Brill. https://go.exlibris.link/LsHstg8X

Schloss, J. (2011). Career development in schools: Do teachers have the skills? *Australian Journal of Career Development, 20*(3), 4-9. https://doi.org/10.1177/103841621102000302

Schneider, C., & Arnot, M. (2018). Transactional school-home-school communication: Addressing the mismatches between migrant parents' and teachers' views of parental knowledge, engagement and the barriers to engagement. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 75*(1), 10-20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2018.05.005

Scott, S. D., Sharpe, H., O'Leary, K., Dehaeck, U., Hindmarsh, K., Moore, J. G., & Osmond, M. H. (2009). Court reporters: A viable solution for the challenges of focus group data collection? *Qualitative Health Research, 19*(1), 140-146. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732308327883

Seitz, S. D., (2019). Skype Interviewing, In P. Atkinson, S. Delamont, A. Cernat, J.W. Sakshaug, & R.A. Williams (Eds.), *SAGE Research Methods Foundations.* https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526421036782463

Seon, H. Y., & Kim, G. H. (2008). The difference of the parents' involvement styles according to the properties of parents and children in adolescent career decision making. *Asian Journal of Education, 9*(2), 161-179

Shaienks, D., & Gluszynski, T. (2009). *Education and labour market transitions in young adulthood.* Statistics Canada, Culture, Tourism & the Centre for Education Statistics. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.632.3410&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Sharma, R., Fantin, A.-R., Prabhu, N., Guan, C., & Dattakumar, A. (2016). Digital literacy and knowledge societies: A grounded theory investigation of sustainable development. *Telecommunications Policy, 40*(7), 628-643. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.telpol.2016.05.003

Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information, 22*(2), 63-75.

Shepherd, S. (2022, January, 02). *More than half of New Zealand workers considering changing jobs in 2022*. https://www.newshub.co.nz/home/money/2022/01/more-than-half-of-new-zealand-workers-considering-changing-jobs-in-2022.html

Sheridan, S. M., Bovaird, J. A., Glover, T. A., Andrew Garbacz, S., Witte, A., & Kwon, K. (2012). A randomized trial examining the effects of conjoint behavioral consultation and the mediating role of the parent–teacher relationship. *School Psychology Review, 41*(1), 23-46. https://doi.org/10.1080/02796015.2012.12087374

Shim, J. M. (2013). Involving the parents of English language learners in a rural area: Focus on the dynamics of teacher-parent interactions. *Rural Educator, 34*(3), 18-26.

Shizha, E., Abdi, A.A., Wilson-Forsberg, S., & Masakure, O. (2020). African immigrant students and postsecondary education in Canada: High school teachers and school career counsellors as gatekeepers. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, *52*(3), 67-86. http://doi.org/10.1353/ces.2020.0025.

Shklarov, S. (2007). Double vision uncertainty: The bilingual researcher and the ethics of cross-language research. *Qualitative Health Research, 17*(4), 529-538. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732306298263

Silberman, R., & Fournier, I. (2007). Is French society truly assimilative? Immigrant parents and offspring on the French labour market. In A. F. Heath & S. Y. Cheung (Eds.), *Unequal chances: Ethnic minorities in Western labour markets* (Vol. 1, pp. 221-270). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.5871/bacad/9780197263860.003.0006

Sinha, J.B.P. (2014). Collectivism and individualism. *Psycho-social analysis of the Indian mindset*. Springer, New Delhi. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-81-322-1804-3_2

Skillsroad. (2018). *Skillsroad 2018 youth census report*. https://cica.org.au/wp-content/uploads/Skillsroad-2018-Youth-Census-Report.pdf.

Skorikov V. (2007). Continuity in adolescent career preparation and its effects on adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 70*(1), 8–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2006.04.007

Smidt, A. (2018). *Strategies for career education in New Zealand schools to foster 21st century career development.* Otago Polytechnic. https://online.op.ac.nz/assets/OPRES/CAP-Smidt-2018-thesis.pdf

Smith, H. J., Chen, J., & Liu, X. (2008). Language and rigour in qualitative research: Problems and principles in analyzing data collected in Mandarin. *BMC Medical Research Methodology, 8*(1), 44. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-8-44

Smith, J. A. (2010). Interpretative phenomenological analysis: A reply to Amedeo Giorgi. *Existential Analysis, 21*(2), 186.

Smith, J. A. (2015). *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*. SAGE.

Smith, J. A., & Eatough, V. (2006). Interpretive phenomenological analysis. In G. M. Breakwell, S. E. Hammond, C. E. Fife-Schaw, & J. A. Smith (Eds.), *Research methods in psychology*. Sage.

Smith, J. A., & Shinebourne, P. (2012). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In editor/s name/s (Ed/s.) *APA handbook of research methods in psychology, vol 2: Research designs: Quantitative, qualitative, neuropsychological, and biological.* (pp. 73-82). APA. https://doi.org/10.1037/13620-005

Smith, J. A., Larkin, M., & Flowers, P. (2009). *Interpretative phenomenological analysis: Theory, method and research*. SAGE.

Smith, J., Rātima, M., & Macfarlane, A. H. (2020). The hikairo schema for primary : Culturally responsive teaching and learning. NZCER Press.

Smith, L. (2011). Experiential 'hot' knowledge and its influence on low-SES students' capacities to aspire to higher education. *Critical Studies in Education, 52*(2), 165-177. https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2011.572829

Smith, T. E., Sheridan, S. M., Kim, E. M., Park, S., & Beretvas, S. N. (2020). The effects of family-school partnership interventions on academic and social-emotional functioning: A meta-analysis exploring what works for whom. *Educational Psychology Review, 32*(2), 511-544. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-019-09509-w

Smyth, C., Zappalà, G., & Considine, G. (2002). *School to adult life transitions through work and study: A select review of the literature.* Smith Family.

Solberg S. and T.Borbely-Pecze (2015), *Engaging Employers*, 2015 International Symposium. https://cica.org.au/wpcontent/uploads/ICCDPP-Engaging-Employers.pdf.

Sousa, D. (2014). Validation in qualitative research: General aspects and specificities of the descriptive phenomenological method. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 11*(2), 211-227. https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2013.853855

Spurk, D., Hirschi, A., & Dries, N. (2019). Antecedents and outcomes of objective versus subjective career success: Competing perspectives and future directions. *Journal of Management, 45*(1), 35–69.

Standing, G. (2009). *Work after globalization: Building occupational citizenship*. Edward Elgar. http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/canterbury/detail.action?docID=487392

Standing, G. (2011). *The precariat: The new dangerous class*. Bloomsbury. http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/canterbury/detail.action?docID=738838

Statistical Office of the European Communities (Eurostat). (2015). *Employment statistics*. http://hdl.voced.edu.au/10707/376913.

StatsNZ. (2012). *The New Zealand labour market during recession*. https://www.stats.govt.nz/reports/the-new-zealand-labour-market-during-recession

StatsNZ. (2017). *Defining migrants using travel histories and the '12/16-month rule'*. https://www.stats.govt.nz/methods/defining-migrants-using-travel-histories-and-the-1216-month-rule

StatsNZ. (2021). *Youth unemployment rate three times national average*. https://www.stats.govt.nz/news/youth-unemployment-rate-three-times-national-average

Stephani, T. (2013). *What is discourse analysis?* Bloomsbury.

Stevens, A. H., Kurlaender, M., & Grosz, M. (2019). Career technical education and labor market outcomes evidence from California community colleges. *Journal of Human Resources*, *54*(4), 986-1036.

Støren, L. A., & Wiers-Jenssen, J. (2010). Foreign diploma versus immigrant background: Determinants of labour market success or failure? *Journal of Studies in International Education, 14*(1), 29-49. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315308327951

Strandh, M., Winefield, A., Nilsson, K., Hammarström, A. (2014). Unemployment and mental health scarring during the life course. *European Journal of Public Health, 24*(3), 440-445. https://doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/cku005

Suárez-Orozco, C., Motti-Stefanidi, F., Marks, A., & Katsiaficas, D. (2018). An integrative risk and resilience model for understanding the adaptation of immigrant-origin children and youth. *American Psychologist*, *73*(6), 781–796. https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000265

Suárez-Orozco, C., Onaga, M., & de Lardemelle, C. (2010). Promoting academic engagement among immigrant adolescents through school-family-community collaboration. *Professional School Counseling, 14*(1), 15-26. https://doi.org/10.1177/2156759X1001400103

Suárez-Orozco, C., Suárez-Orozco, M. M., & Todorova, I. (2008). *Learning a new land*. Harvard University Press.

Sultana, R. G. (2004). *Guidance policies in the knowledge society: Trends, challenges and responses across Europe*. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. https://doi.org/10.1108/et.2004.00446fae.001

Suryadi, B., Sawitri, D. R., Hayat, B., & Putra, M. D. K. (2020). The influence of adolescent-parent career congruence and counselor roles in vocational guidance on the career orientation of students. *International Journal of Instruction, 13*(2), 45-60. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.1324a

Sy, M., O'Leary, N., Nagraj, S., El-Awaisi, A., O'Carroll, V., & Xyrichis, A. (2020). Doing interprofessional research in the COVID-19 era: a discussion paper. *Journal of Interprofessional Care, 34*(5), 600-606. https://doi.org/10.1080/13561820.2020.1791808

Tang, D. T. S. (2007). The research pendulum. *Journal of Lesbian Studies, 10*(3-4), 11-27. https://doi.org/10.1300/J155v10n03_02

Tao, D., Zhang, R., Lou, E., & Lalonde, R. N. (2018). The cultural shaping of career aspirations: Acculturation and Chinese biculturals' career identity styles. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue Canadienne des Sciences du Comportement*, *50*(1), 29. https://doi.org/10.1037/cbs0000091

Taylor, A. & Krahn, H. (2013). Living through our children: Exploring the education and career ‘choices’ of racialized immigrant youth in Canada, *Journal of Youth Studies*, *16*(8), 1000-1021, https://doi.org/10.1080/13676261.2013.772575

Taylor, Bogdan, R., & DeVault, M. (2015). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource*. John Wiley & Sons.

Taylor, J., Harris, M. B., & Taylor, S. (2004). Parents have their say about their college-age children’s career decisions. *Nace Journal, 64*(2), 15-21. https://www.hampshire.edu/sites/default/files/shared_files/Parents_Have_Their_Say.pdf

Tearney, F. Working Paper 2016: History of education in New Zealand. The McGuinness Institute. https://www.mcguinnessinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/20161213-Working-Paper-2016%EF%80%A203-History-of-education-in-New-Zealand.pdf

Temple, B., & Edwards, R. (2002). Interpreters/translators and cross-language research: Reflexivity and border crossings. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 1*(2), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690200100201

Thomson, S., & Hillman, K. (2010). Against the odds: Influences on the post-school success of 'low performers'. NCVER. https://www.ncver.edu.au/__data/assets/file/0017/7811/against-the-odds-2285.pdf

Tilbury, F., & Colic-Peisker, V. (2006). Deflecting responsibility in employer talk about race discrimination. *Discourse & Society, 17*(5), 651-676. https://doi.org/10.1177/0957926506066349

Tilley, S. A. (2003). “Challenging” research practices: Turning a critical lens on the work of transcription. *Qualitative Inquiry, 9*(5), 750-773. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800403255296

Tiny Chiu Yuen, T., Moses, P., & Phaik Kin, C. (2020). Teacher, parental and friend influences on STEM interest and career choice intention. *Issues in Educational Research, 30*(4), 1558-1575.

Tolentino, L. R., Garcia, P. R. J. M., Restubog, S. L. D., Bordia, P., & Tang, R. L. (2013). Validation of the career adapt-abilities scale and an examination of a model of career adaptation in the Philippine context. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *83*(3), 410-418.

Tomlinson, J. (2007). Cultural globalization. In G. Ritzer (Ed.), *The Blackwell companion to globalization*. (pp. 352-366.). Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470691939

Torii, K. (2018). *Connecting the worlds of learning and work: Prioritising school-industry partnerships in Australia's education system.* https://vuir.vu.edu.au/38742/1/Connecting-the-worlds-of-learning-and-work.pdf

Tsukahara, I. (2007). The effect of family background on occupational choice. *Labour, 21*(4-5), 871-890. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9914.2007.00395.x

Turnbull, A. P., & Turnbull, H. R. (2001). *Families, professionals, and exceptionality: Collaborating for empowerment*. Prentice Hall.

UK Commission for Employment and Skills. (2015). *Catch 16-24*. https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/404997/15.02.18._Youth_report_V17.pdf

Uka A. (2015). Students' educational and occupational aspirations predicted by parents' and adolescents' characteristics. *European Journal of Social Science Education and Research, 2*(3), 207–14. https://doi.org/10.26417/ejser.v4i1.p207-214

Ule, M., Živoder, A., & du Bois-Reymond, M. (2015). 'Simply the best for my children': Patterns of parental involvement in education. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *28*(3), 329-348. https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2014.987852

Unite Against COVID-19. (2022). *Financial support.* https://covid19.govt.nz/testing-and-isolation/financial-support/

United Nations. (2015). *Trend in international migrants*. https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/populationfacts/docs/MigrationPopFacts20154.pdf

United Nations. (2022). *World social report.* http://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/wp-content/uploads/sites/22/2020/02/World-Social-Report2020-FullReport.pdf

University of Westminster. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/237595519

van Nes, F., Abma, T., Jonsson, H., & Deeg, D. (2010). Language differences in qualitative research: Is meaning lost in translation? *European Journal of Ageing, 7*(4), 313-316. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10433-010-0168-y

Van Velsor, P., & Orozco, G. L. (2007). Involving low-income parents in the schools: Community-centric strategies for school counselors. *Professional School Counseling, 11*(1), 17-24. 2156759X0701100103. https://doi.org/10.1177/2156759x0701100103

Vanoverberghe, J., Verhaest, D., Verhofstadt, E., & Omey, E. (2008, 2008/09/01). The transition from school to work in Flanders: A duration analysis. *Journal of Education and Work, 21*(4), 317-331. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080802379895

Varga, S. M., & Zaff, J. F. (2018). Webs of support: An integrative framework of relationships, social networks, and social support for positive youth development. *Adolescent Research Review, 3*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40894-017-0076-x.

Vaughan, K. (2009). *Student perspectives on leaving school, pathways, and careers*. Ministry of Education.

Vaughan, K. (2011). The potential of career management competencies for renewed focus and direction in career education. *New Zealand Annual Review of Education, 20*(1), 24-51.

Vaughan, K., & Gardiner, B. (2007). *Careers education in New Zealand schools*. New Zealand Council for Educational Research. https://www.nzcer.org.nz/system/files/15778.pdf

Vaughan, K., & Roberts, J. (2007). Developing a 'productive' account of young people's transition perspectives. *Journal of Education and Work, 20*(2), 91. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080701314621

Vaughan, K., & Spiller, L. (2012). *Learning to fly: Career management competencies in the school subject classroom*. AERU Research Unit of Lincoln University. https://www.nzcer.org.nz/system/files/learning-to-fly.pdf

Vaughan, K., Phillips, H., Dalziel, P. C., & Higgins, J. F. (2009). A matter of perspective: Mapping education employment linkages in Aotearoa New Zealand. https://www.nzcer.org.nz/system/files/matter-of-perspective-eel3.pdf

Vernon, L., & Drane, C. F. (2020). Influencers: The importance of discussions with parents, teachers and friends to support vocational and university pathways. *International Journal of Training Research, 18*(2), 155-173. https://doi.org/10.1080/14480220.2020.1864442

Vickerstaff, S. (2007). 'I was just the boy around the place': What made apprenticeships successful? *Journal of Vocational Education & Training, 59*(1), 331-347. https://doi.org/10.1080/13636820701520369

Vindrola-Padros, C., Chisnall, G., Cooper, S., Dowrick, A., Djellouli, N., Symmons, S. M., ... & Johnson, G. A. (2020). Carrying out rapid qualitative research during a pandemic: emerging lessons from COVID-19. *Qualitative health research, 30*(14), 2192-2204. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732320951526

Walker, T. L., & Tracey, T. J. G. (2012). The role of future time perspective in career decision-making. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 81*(2), 150–158.

Wall, E., & Olofsson, A. (2008). Young people making sense of risk: How meanings of risk are materialized within the social context of everyday life. *Young, 16*(4), 431-448. https://doi.org/10.1177/110330880801600405

Waller, R., Harrison, N., Hatt, S., & Chudry, F. (2014). Undergraduates' memories of school-based work experience and the role of social class in placement choices in the UK. *Journal of Education and Work, 27*(3), 323-349. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2012.742183

Walsh, L. (2016). *Educating generation next: Young people, teachers and schooling in transition*. Springer.

Walsh, L., & Black, R. (2014). The ambiguous mobilities of young Australians. In P. Kelly & A. Kamp (Eds.), *A Critical Youth Studies for the 21st Century*. Brill.

Wang, H., Kong, M., Shan, W., Vong, S. K. (2010) The effects of doing part-time jobs on college student academic performance and social life in a Chinese society. *Journal of Education and Work, 23*(1), 79–94. https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080903418402

Wang, I. C., Ahn, J. N., Kim, H. J., & Lin-Siegler, X. (2017). Why do international students avoid communicating with Americans? *Journal of International Students, 7*(3), 555-582. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.570023

Wang, M.-T., & Degol, J. (2013). Motivational pathways to STEM career choices: Using expectancy-value perspective to understand individual and gender differences in STEM fields. *Developmental Review, 33*(4), 304-340. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2013.08.001

Watkins, M., & Noble, G. (2013). *Disposed to learn: schooling, ethnicity and the scholarly habitus*. https://go.exlibris.link/jzzNHjG9

Webber, M., Eaton, J., Cockle, V., Linley-Richardson, T., Rangi, M., & O'Connor, K. (2018). *Starpath phase three – final report*. The University of Auckland.

Weinstein, C. S., Tomlinson-Clarke, S., & Curran, M. (2004). Toward a conception of culturally responsive classroom management. *Journal of Teacher Education, 55*(1), 25-38. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487103259812

Welde, A. M. J., Bernes, K. B., Gunn, T. M., & Ross, S. A. (2015). Integrated career education in senior high: Intern teacher and student recommendations. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 24*(2), 81-92. https://doi.org/10.1177/1038416215575163

Wildemuth, B. M. (2016). *Applications of social research methods to questions in information and library science*. Abc-Clio.

Wilkinson, L., Yan, M. C., Tsang, A. K. T., Sin, R., & Lauer, S. (2013;2012;). The school-to-work transitions of newcomer youth in Canada. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, *44*(3), 29-44. https://doi.org/10.1353/ces.2013.0000

Wilkinson, S. (2015). Focus groups. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*. SAGE.

Williams NN, Williams BK, Jones-Fosu S and Carter T. An examination of cross-cultural experiences on developing culturally responsive teacher candidates [version 1; peer review: 3 approved]. Emerald Open Res 2019, 1:13 (https://doi.org/10.12688/emeraldopenres.12852.1)

Williams, J., Alexander, K., Wilson, T., Newton, B., McNeil, C., & Jung, C. (2021). *A better future: Transforming jobs and skills for young people post-pandemic*. https://www.employment-studies.co.uk/system/files/resources/files/A%20Better%20Future%20-%20Transforming%20jobs%20and%20skills%20report.pdf

Willis, S. C., Shann, P., & Hassell, K. (2009). Pharmacy career deciding: Making choice a “good fit”. *Journal of Health Organization and Management. 23*(1), 85-102. https://doi.org/10.1108/14777260910942579

Wilson-Forsberg, S., Masakure, O., Shizha, E., Lafrenière, G., & Mfoafo-M’Carthy, M. (2020). Disrupting an imposed racial identity or performing the model minority? The pursuit of postsecondary education by young African immigrant men in Southern Ontario, Canada. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *23*(5), 693-711. https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2018.1497965

Wong S.-W., Chui Y. H., Chan Y. C., Ting S. R., Lam J. K. (2016). Enhancing students career readiness through peer counselling programme in Hong Kong. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 25*(1), 23–32. https://doi.org/10.1177/1038416215612821

Woodman, D. (2012). Life out of synch: How new patterns of further education and the rise of precarious employment are reshaping young people's relationships. *Sociology, 46*(6), 1074-1090. https://doi.org/10.1177/0038038511428755

Woodward, D., Drager, N., Beaglehole, R., & Lipson, D. (2001). Globalization and health: A framework for analysis and action. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization, 79*(9), 875-881.

World Population Review (2021). *Immigration by country 2022*. https://worldpopulationreview.com/country-rankings/immigration-by-country

Wyatt-Beynon, J., Ilieva, R., Toohey, K., & Larocque, L. (2001). A secondary school career education program for ESL students. *Curriculum Inquiry, 31*(4), 399-420.

Wylie, C., & Hodgen, E. (2011). Forming adulthood. *Past, present and future in the experiences and views of the competent learners at 20*. Ministry of Education. https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/schooling/2567/forming-adulthood

Wyn, J. (2009). *Youth health and welfare: The cultural politics of education and wellbeing*. Oxford University Press. http://hdl.handle.net/11343/31378

Wyn, J., Smith, G., Stokes, H., Tyler, D., & Woodman, D. (2008). Generations and social change: Negotiating adulthood in the 21st century-report on the life-patterns research program: 2005-2007. Australian Youth Research Centre, University of Melbourne.

Xiao, J. J., Newman, B. M., & Chu, B. (2018). Career preparation of high school students: A multi-country study. *Youth & Society*, *50*(6), 818–840. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X16638690

Yamamoto, Y., & Holloway, S. D. (2010). Parental expectations and children's academic performance in sociocultural context. *Educational Psychology Review, 22*(3), 189-214. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-010-9121-z

Yamato, Y., & Zhang, W. (2017). Changing schooling, changing shadow: Shapes and functions of juku in Japan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 37*(3), 329-343. https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2017.1345719

Yao, E. S. W., Deane, K. L., & Bullen, P. (2015). Trends and transitions from secondary school: Insights from a boarding school for disadvantaged New Zealand youth. *Journal of Youth Studies, 18*(10), 1347-1365. https://doi.org/10.1080/13676261.2015.1048202

Yates, A., & Bruce, M. (2017). The future of career education in New Zealand secondary schools: A review of the literature. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 26*(2), 62-70. https://doi.org/10.1177/1038416217700421

Youth Action. (2017). *The missing link in school to work transitions: Youth action policy*

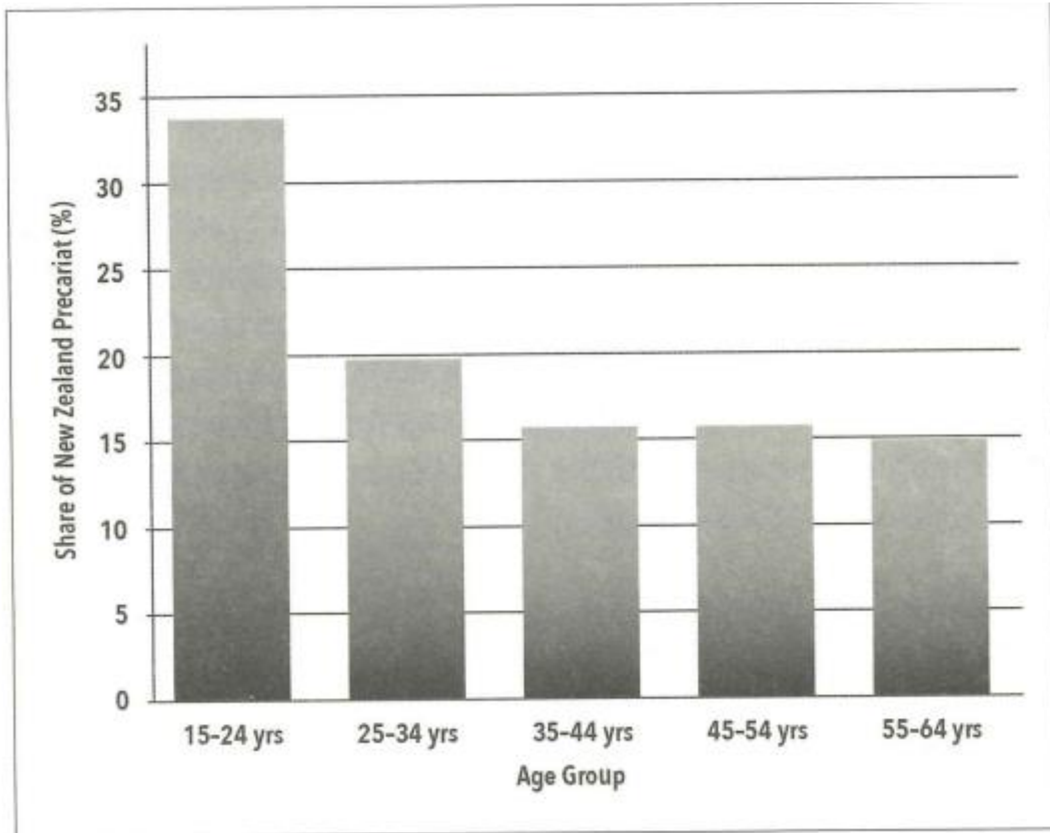
Youth Guarantee. (n.d.). *Youth guarantee: Supporting young people to achieve NCEA.* http://youthguarantee.education.govt.nz/

Žakelj, T., Švab, A., & ČEPLAK, M. M. (2013). The role of parents in young people's educational trajectories in Slovenia. *Annales, 23*(29), 317-328.

Zhou, N., Cao, H., Nie, Y., Li, X., Yu, S., Liang, Y., Deng, L., Buehler, C., Zang, N., Sun, R., & Fang, X. (2020). Career-related parental processes and career adaptability and ambivalence among Chinese adolescents: A person-centered approach. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 30*(1), 234-248. https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12520

Appendices

Appendix A: Composition of the New Zealand Precariate by Age



Appendix B: Record Rise in OECD Unemployment Rate in April 2020

OECD
BETTER POLICIES FOR BETTER LIVES

Paris, 9 June 2020

OECD Unemployment Rates
News Release: April 2020

Record rise in OECD unemployment rate in April 2020

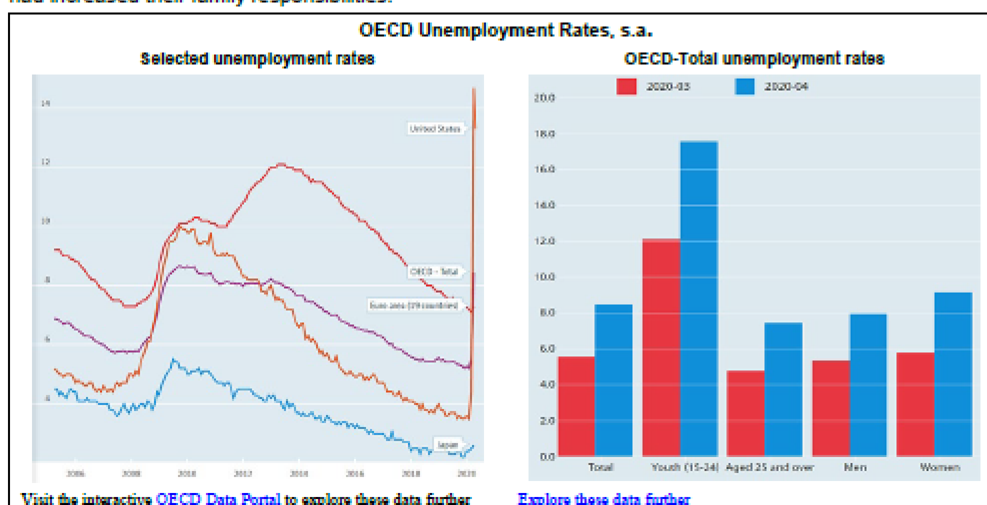
The **OECD** unemployment rate increased by an unprecedented 2.9 percentage points in April 2020 to 8.4%, compared to 5.5% in March, reflecting the impact of Covid-19 containment measures. The number of unemployed people in the **OECD** area increased by 18.4 million to 55 million in April. The **United States** accounted for the main part of this increase, with a rise in unemployed of 15.9 million.

The unemployment rate rose faster among **women** than among **men** in OECD countries; increasing by 3.3 percentage points in April (to 9.1%) compared to an increase of 2.6 percentage points (to 7.9%) for **men**. **Younger people** (aged 15 to 24) have been particularly affected by the crisis. The **youth** unemployment rate surged by 5.5 percentage points (to 17.6%), compared to an increase of 2.7 percentage points for people aged **25 and above**.

However, there have been significant differences in the pace of increases across OECD economies. In the **euro area** (up to 7.3% from 7.1% in March) and in **Japan** (2.6% from 2.5%), they were moderate but in **Canada** (13.0%, from 7.8%), **Colombia** (19.9%, from 12.2%) and the **United States**[1] (14.7%, the highest level since the series started in January 1948, from 4.4%), unemployment rates surged.

Early data for May (referring to the week ending 16 May) show that the unemployment rate continued to increase in **Canada** (by 0.7 percentage point, to 13.7%, the highest level since comparable data became available in 1976) but it decreased by 1.4 percentage points (to 13.3%) in the **United States**[2]. Administrative data for May showed an increase of 0.5 percentage point in the registered unemployment rate for **Germany** but stability in **Belgium** and a fall in **Norway** (although still about five percentage points higher than in February 2020).

It should be noted that unemployment statistics do not account for the full amount of labour market slack due to Covid-19. In **Italy**, the 1.7 percentage points fall in the unemployment rate in April mainly reflects the rise in the number of persons of working age (15-64 years) classified as out of the labour force, e.g. people reporting that they were unavailable to work as the closure of schools and care services during the lockdown had increased their family responsibilities.[3]



Visit the interactive OECD Data Portal to explore these data further   Explore these data further

The measures put in place by national governments to reduce the spread of the Coronavirus (Covid-19) may have impacted on the ability to field surveys, and so, in turn, on the quality of statistics typically produced. In addition, because of differences in national

[1] The reference period of the survey is 29 March-11 April in Australia, 12-18 April in the United States, Canada and Korea and 24-30 April in Japan.

[2] For Canada and the United States, the statistical treatment of persons on temporary layoff is different from other countries. See the note on the divergence in employment and unemployment statistics during the Covid-19 crisis on next page.

[3] According to the Italian Statistics Flash on April 2020 Employment and Unemployment released on 3 June 2020, the number of inactive persons increased by 5.4% in April from previous month and the inactivity rate rose by 2.0 percentage points to 38.1%.

1

practices used to determine whether individuals are unemployed when under confinement, international comparability has also been affected. See the **note on the divergence in employment and unemployment statistics during the Covid-19 crisis** on next page.

Note : Employment and unemployment statistics during the COVID-19 crisis

The broad comparability of unemployment data across OECD countries is achieved through the adherence of national statistics to International Guidelines from the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) – the so-called ILO guidelines.

Departures from these guidelines may however exist across countries depending on national circumstances (e.g. statistical environment, national regulations and practices). Typically, these departures have only a limited impact on broad comparability of employment and unemployment statistics. However, the unprecedented impact of Covid-19[4] is amplifying divergences and affects the cross-country comparability of unemployment statistics in this news release.

This concerns in particular the treatment of persons on temporary layoff or employees furloughed by their employers. These are *persons not at work during the survey reference week due to economic reasons and business conditions* (i.e. lack of work, shortage of demand for goods and services, business closures or business moves).

According to ILO guidelines, '**employed**' persons include those who, in their present job, were 'not at work' for a short duration but maintained a job attachment during their absence (ILO, 2013 and 2020). Job attachment is determined on the basis of the continued receipt of remuneration, and/or the total duration of the absence. In practice, formal or continued job attachment is established when :

- *the expected total duration of the absence is up to three months (which can be more than three months, if the return to employment in the same economic unit is guaranteed and, in the case of the pandemic, once the restrictions in place - where applicable - are lifted)*

OR

- *workers continue to receive remuneration from their employer, including partial pay, even if they also receive support from other sources, including government schemes.*

In turn persons are classified as '**not employed**' if:

- *The expected total duration of absence is greater than three months or there is no or unknown expected return to the same economic unit*

AND

- *People in this condition do not receive any part of their remuneration from their employer.*

Not-employed persons are classified as '**unemployed**' if they fulfil the criteria of active "job search"[5] and "availability" specified for the measurement of unemployment.

However, departures from these guidelines in national practices do exist. In particular, in North America persons on temporary layoff are considered to be "only weakly or not at all attached to their job and are to be counted as unemployed" (Sorrentino, 2000). In the United States, people on temporary layoff are classified as 'unemployed' if they expect to be recalled to their job within six months. If they have not been given a date to return to work by their employer and if they have no expectation to return to work within six months, they need to fulfil the "job search" criteria to be classified as 'unemployed'. For the latest US figures "people who were effectively laid off due to

[4] Broad comparability is ensured during normal business conditions, while divergences are potentially exacerbated during economic and financial crisis, such as the Great Recession or the current Covid-19 crisis.

[5] Some not-employed persons may be classified as "inactive/out of the labour force" because, due to the pandemic, they are either not able to actively look for a job even if they are available to work or are not available to work because of family responsibilities as schools and care services are closed.

pandemic-related closures were counted among the unemployed on temporary layoff" without further testing for their return to their previous job (BLS, 2020). In Canada, persons in temporary layoff are also classified as 'unemployed' if they have a date of return or an indication that they will be recalled by their employers.

Conversely, persons on temporary layoff are classified as employed (not at work) in Europe, as recommended by the ILO Guidelines (Eurostat, 2016). In practice, formal job attachment is tested on the basis of (i) an assurance of return to work within a period of three months or (ii) the receipt of half or more of their wage or salary from their employer. Somewhat stricter than ILO guidance, absences during COVID-19 crisis whose duration is unknown are treated as absences longer than three months. Those failing to satisfy these two criteria are classified as unemployed if they are "available to start work" (over the next two weeks) and have actively searched for a job in the last four weeks. All other persons on layoff are classified as inactive.

References

BLS (2020), Frequently asked questions: The impact of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic on The Employment Situation for March 2020, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March 2020, Washington DC. https://www.bls.gov/cps/employment-situation-covid19-faq-march-2020.pdf

Eurostat (2016), EU Labour Force Survey Explanatory notes, Eurostat, March 2016, Luxembourg. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/1978984/6037342/EU-LFS-explanatory-notes-from-2016-onwards.pdf

ILO (2013), Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization, 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS), Geneva. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---stat/documents/normativeinstrument/wcms_230304.pdf

ILO (2020), COVID-19: Guidance for labour statistics data collection, International Labor Organisation (ILO), Geneva. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---stat/documents/publication/wcms_741145.pdf

C. Sorrentino (2000), International unemployment rates: how comparable are they?, Monthly Labor Review, June 2000, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), Washington DC. https://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2000/06/art1full.pdf

Methodological Notes for OECD Unemployment Rates News Release

The OECD area unemployment rate is calculated as the total number of unemployed persons in all OECD countries as a percentage of the total labour force (i.e. the unemployed plus those in employment); this is equivalent to an average of unemployment rates of all OECD countries weighted by the labour force of each country. Rates and levels are seasonally adjusted (s.a.).

OECD Database: OECD Short-Term Labour Market Statistics

Country Notes: Statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Contacts: For further information readers are invited to contact the OECD's Media Relations Division on (33) 1 45 24 97 00 or e-mail news.contact@oecd.org; for technical questions contact stat.contact@oecd.org

Next release: Wednesday, 7 July 2020

Appendix C: Analytical Memo: A Careers Adviser Interview

Multiple roles of a careers adviser.

This theme corresponds to the careers adviser (David) perspective about different aspects of his role: He believed that making the students ready for the next step, which could be continuing in tertiary or working in the industry, is the first aspect of a careers adviser role. This includes providing information about different subjects, pre-requisite courses, careers as well as conducting career programs and online workshop for the students:

> So about one-quarter of the students know what they want to do and they do that without our help. So they don't really need us except for maybe information about the course or looking at the scholarship or making things easier for them so printing out forms and things like that. So it's more of a sort of a transition or facilitation role to make it easier.

Some students cannot decide what option they should take and another aspect of the careers adviser's role relates to facilitating the decision-making: "So a young person who has lots of options, and they are not very good at deciding, tends to do not do anything. So we try to get them narrow it down and a focus on something." In that sense, the careers adviser, get the support people including parents, teachers, and mentors on board to navigate the student in the decision-making process:

> Another quarter of the students would be they are trying to decide between what options they should take. That might be like early childhood and business. So they try to decide between two so we do a lot of work seeing people around to try stuff aiming for both as much as they can before they make the decision.

Another interesting aspect highlighted by David is managing a situation where there students and parents do not agree on the students' career plan. What he understood from his role is to help students and their parents to understand each other's point of views. He usually tries to find a middle ground and explain different options to the student and the family. In some cases when the students want to hide their decisions from parents, the career adviser tries to

assure them to make their families be aware of their decisions. He used the word “mediating role” and he described it as follows:

> We support the students to help their parents and families see their way of thinking but it is really up to them… we know everything works better if everyone is in agreement. So there is often some tension between the young person not want to tell the parents about something and I say: well! life is going to be better if your parents say this is a good idea.

He believed that most of the time parents are right but he usually leaves the decision-making on the students and their parents.

Lastly, the careers adviser monitors the students’ academic progress; identifies their personalities, and understands their plans:

> So we are working with mentors, teacher and students to identify what their plans are and how they are feeling school. Anybody who have red flags on those attendances or engagement can be sent to us. And then we work with them. So the earlier the better.

The influence of support people

The next theme relates to different range of support, and instructions immigrant students received from actors such as inside contributors: teachers, mentor, and leadership team, as well as outside contributors; businesses, the industry, and tertiary providers: “what we try to think of is that every person in the school is influencing the young people in careers in a consistent way” and “we work with a lot of employers to do work experience and employers are really good at working with young people”

David explained that support actors not only play an important role in the transition process of the students but they also assist him in delivering career advising. For example, teachers and leadership team could collaboratively work with him and provide students’ academic results and progress reports. He elaborated his point of view when he suggested me some area of interest that could be explored in my study:

> Does the career adviser have support from senior leadership and other teachers involved in career education in any context so that their job is supported? So if a teacher talks to a student about their interests and skills and values and that information is collected and comes to the career advisers we can work together. … And then the senior leadership, if they think it is important and talking about it and they talking about that and they are prioritising it over other things, then we can do our job a lot better.

The influence of immigration

David touched on the influences associated with immigration and appeared to inhibit or facilitate immigrant students' pathways towards employment. Language skill is the first barrier for both immigrant students and their parents. Some students, for instance, have good knowledge of science and math but not enough English skills to do school assessments:

> They might have the content knowledge but not in English so there is. I guess mockup and what they do know in terms of what they know in English and explained in English as what they can from their host country.

These students are also unlikely to work in any industry or business since employers prefer English speakers:

> They might have the content knowledge but not in English so there is. I guess mock up and what they do know in terms of what they know in English and explained in English as what they can from their host country.

> Lots of workplaces if there is a language barrier or if the student doesn't appear interested for whatever reason did you just say no, will be a big issue. Especially for young people who don't have good English but all the knowledge but it must be too hard for the employers to manage it.

There are influences related to understanding and adapting to new education system. The schooling system in New Zealand is usually different from the home country and that could raise difficulties for them:

> Lots of the time, if they have come from somewhere. That schooling is not necessarily recognised…so we have got pair of students who are 19 from Brazil who are pretty small and clever an awesome but not in English. So they know lots and they've got lots of education but

> they just can't get it out in an English format. so they have to go back a year. so they have to get back to years. so 19 years old going to sort of 15 16 years old in the class it could be quite challenging.

Cultural background is another influence that could have a profound impact on the students' future pathway. In some cultures, gender and the birth order of a child in a family could determine what pathway he/she should choose:

> There are some cultural barriers in terms of believes about what students should do and what they shouldn't do. So I know for lots of say Fiji Indian families the eldest son has to get out and get working and lots of important put on him as being kind of the sole hope of the family in terms of earning money. So that role in the family is really clear-cut and that happens quite often for the Fiji eldest boy.

Some cultures, like Asians, believe that showing respect is related to doing whatever the careers adviser said even it is not valid or the best option:

> …lots of immigrant families come and they don't know what is available. So if you tell them this is a good choice, they are going to accept it. And also families and students from the Philippines have almost a different relationships to a career expert. So if they come to me they're gonna believe what I say because they've got that kind of ingrained and respect for the position. So if I say I am the careers adviser then I must be awesome and you should believe everything I say and so yeah we do.

The last influence associated with the residential status of the students and immigration rules. Some student and their families migrated to New Zealand under non-resident visas aiming at getting the residency. However, they are not aware of immigration rules and the skill shortage list. Consequently, they choose their interest while it cannot support them in their resident visa application. If they want to stay in New Zealand permanently, they need to choose a job from the skill shortage list, which is not necessarily match their interests. On the other hand, the careers adviser should be aware of students' visa status and immigration rules to support the students to find the best choice that would help them to settle in New Zealand:

> I think the Immigrant career stuff is really interesting. It's like a lot of…. because a lot of the time you work against immigration rules, residency rules. Things like, is the job that they really want on the skill shortage list?

Analysis

Careers advisers' critical role among immigrants

Careers advisers work with a wide range of students who might not have a smooth transition from school-to-work. According to this interview, the main responsibilities and duties of career advisers focus on at-risk students including immigrant students, who leave school at an early stage, do not have a plan for their future, and have communication barriers. This is in alignment with career education and guidance (MoE, 2009): " Students who are at risk of leaving school undecided about future pathways or unprepared for transition to the workplace or further education are a priority" (p.18). According to the Education Review Office (ERO) this is an important element of successful career education practice for at-risk students. The careers team in that sense, monitor at-risk students' academic progress and the selected courses, They also involved parents and families to investigate the available opportunities and find a suitable pathway for students (ERO, 2015).

David insisted on parents' significant role on students' plans. It is also highlighted by ERO Careers Education Guidelines "good relationships with parents/whanau and the community" is linked to high-quality careers education programs and successful schools in implementing career education in-depth discussions with parents ERO (2015, p. 25). However, that might not be the case for immigrants especially the ones who came to the country recently. Not being familiar with the education system, difficulties in language and communicating with school and careers staff, and perceiving school as a highly professional place could lessen the parents' role. Therefore, usually parents do not interfere in their children's decision-making and let the careers advisers and children lead. Moreover, the culture of respect to school staff is prominent among some immigrant families e.g. Asians. As such, these parents tend to only rely on the advice from the careers advisers.

The mismatch between students'/parents' expectations and students' goals

Parents are considered a major contributor to career education. It is highlighted by Career Education and Guidance (MoE, 2009): "Parents, caregivers and whānau have a major influence on their children's career decisions. Students need their advice and support as they make their learning and career plans and transitions. Parents, caregivers, and whānau can also contribute to the school's career education program as adults who are managing their own careers" (p.31). However, parental expectations and hopes do not always match the students' aspirations and that could hinder both transition process and careers advisers support. As an illustration, a student may want to do practical jobs instead of going to university and having a degree but his/her parents have different ideas. Sometimes, parents and students cannot agree on the future field of work or study. For instance, the student believes nursing matches his/her personality and interests but his/her family expects him/her to continue in nursing. The other way around, sometimes parents wants their child to work while he/she wants to continue in tertiary, especially when the young person is responsible for household expenses and needs to start working as soon as he/she graduate. Finally, in some cases, both parents and the student agree on the future pathway but the student's goal does not go with his/her academic achievements. Having different definition of success and cultural values could contribute to these discrepancies.

Employers' disinclination to immigrant students

One aspect of Career Education and Guidance (MoE, 2009) is to support migrants, who are identified as at-risk and "may have particular career education and guidance needs" (p.18). Exploring and experiencing careers can be considered as a solution to enhance their transition from school to work (ERO, 2015). Employers partnership with schools and career programs could have a considerable impact on immigrant students' decision making and promote the advice given by the careers advisers: "students and staff can become more aware of the world of work beyond school and the range of opportunities and challenges students will face"

(MoE, 2009, p. 32), Students in this regard, could have access to more updated information about labour market and industry requirements. Furthermore, they can develop their communication skills, find connections, and learn about opportunities in different businesses. However, immigrant students do not have many chances of using this service. The lack of English skills is the main barrier, as some immigrant students cannot have complete communication with others. Employers believe a lack of English knowledge may raise health and safety issues in the workplace, hence employing English native speakers is being preferred. To conclude, for immigrant group of students, there is a contrast between career guidelines and their practices.

References

ERO. (2015). *Careers education and guidance: good practice*. Education Review Office.

MoE. (2009). *Career Education and Guidance in New Zealand*. Ministry of Education.

Appendix D: Analytical Memo of an Immigrant Parent Interview

How Saba perceive her role?

According to Saba's interview, she perceived her role as person who should recognize her children ability/ talent and guide them to the right pathway without imposing extra pressure. For example she stated:

> "If children are not good at something, we cannot push them. They should be able and have capacity to perform what we expect from them. We must guide them correctly. Some of them do not have the capacity and sometimes they are capable of what we expect them. We shouldn't put them under enormous amount of pressure."

Also, her culture as in many culture studying is much more important than having a job and that can affect the way she guide her children:

> "I try to guide them [she paused] you know studying is very important for us. Maybe for some nationalities, their children education and its role on their future is not as important as it is for us. They can make money doing simple jobs but for us it's very important. I don't know may be it is related to their culture."

However there are other people (like her cousins) have more impact on her daughter career choice and she does not perceive her role as important as theirs:

> "The people around us. I mean, our relatives. They (her children) look up to their cousins. They will find out how successful they are in their careers [she paused] they have good lives."

What influence Saba's support?

As stated before, parents' cultural background and experience they had in their home countries influence on their support. For instance, she stated that

> "I was a very strict teacher to my students, maybe because of the school system in Iran, I put my children under a lot of pressure to study. For example, my daughter has learned five different languages so far. In Malaysia, students study English, Chinese and Malay from the first year. On Saturdays, she used to go to a French course. I taught her Farsi. She's got certification of completion for year one and two in Farsi."

She believed that being an Asian or coming from Muslim culture brings some limitations for her children.

> "First of all, we are Muslims and secondly we are Asian; most of Asians think the same way and they have certain limitations. Europeans are different and they have a different view as they have been brought up this way"

Not being familiar with the New Zealand education system and regulations is another issue raised by Saba as she stated:

> "We're foreigners we don't know much about the system or what subjects needed to be passed for a certain field of study.", and "We don't know about the rules but we usually try to ask."

Challenges families perceive immigrant face during the transition?

Isolation and lack of friends is one of the challenges mentioned

> "The main problem my son has is that he's not a sociable person [07:51]. He is not very good at socializing with others. He's mostly on his own. He has few friends from Morocco or Afghanistan but they meet at university. He doesn't have any close friends to hang out."

Also lack of communication and language difficulty was highlighted by her: "I have noticed that foreign children, especially Chinese, can't easily make friends here and the main problem is the language and communication."

How parents understand the career advisor role?

She never had direct contact with the career advisor and her daughter is only in contact: "Actually I haven't contacted them but once I told Hannah to ask the career adviser talk about how she can get a scholarship" and "I asked my daughter to ask the advisor for more information. I encourage her to ask her questions to mitigate her needs herself."

But she finds the career advisors support helpful:

> "There hasn't been something special, it has been about which subject she has to choose or about the university, the scholarships, or other educational facilities, if there are, to study for bachelor degree; It's very difficult, people say different things. Some of them say it is possible but others don't. Advisors have more information and they can help well."

She also find the school programs to familiars students with different skills and careers useful for her child:

> "The educational atmosphere they provide for students can really prepare them to choose their career themselves. They have dressmaking workshops. I have even heard that students can borrow a swing machine from school to practice at home during the school holidays just because they're interested. Maybe other students, boys for example, interested in carpentry or in cooking. They have workshops for them. The school gives the students the opportunity to experience different things little by little to help them realize what they are interested in [20:42]. I think it's really interesting ...really helpful."

Areas that needed to be improved and next steps

1- In her answer she talk about the term "success" which is one of my study area. By understanding how they define "success" or "having successful career/job" I might can go deeper and understand how their background and culture affect the way they guide their kids. For example Saba thinks "successful job" means having prestigious occupation such as dentist or any medical professions.

"I'd really like my son to study dentistry but he doesn't like and he wants to study power engineering"

"I have told her that Medicine has better future job [she paused] it also have a prestigious. She can see these people around who are successful and they have good lives."

2- When she talked about coming from different culture and the limitations :
"First of all, we are Muslims and secondly we are Asian; most of Asians think the same way and they have certain limitations. Europeans are different and they have a different view as they have been brought up this way"

I can ask her “certain limitations” in what terms? Or I can ask “How these limitation may affect the career choice of your daughter?

3- When I asked “what challenges do your children have” she gave me some general idea about any challenge related to schooling or being an immigrant. Therefore, I needed to be more specific and ask about the challenges they face in terms of choosing future career. Or challenges they might face in the future.
4- I recognize inconsistency in her responses related to her role as she said she put pressure on her kids to choose their future career and on the other hand she perceived her role as person who should only understand her children capability and guide them rather than imposing her thoughts. Asking the participant directly about the contrasting idea and make them more clearly (Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2015) is an approach that I may use in this situation.

According to below statements, her main concern was about her children grades at school and she didn’t talk about having a job after school at all. So I couldn’t get any data relevant to school-to-work transition process from her point of view.

“Fortunately, there are good teachers here and you don't need extra classes”

“But thanks to god, I have no problem with her lessons. She has always been a very good student. She always gets full marks.”

“She had been doing the course for a long time so she's very good at mathematics and she is always the first one who hands in the task. She gets very good marks in mathematics and she does far better than other students.”

Taylor, Bogdan, R., & DeVault, M. (2015). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource*: John Wiley & Sons.

Appendix E: Careers Advisors Interview Schedule

Career Advisors Interview Questions

Questions	Prompting questions
1- How have you been lately?	• In general, how have you been feeling? • What have made you feel like that?
2- Please, tell me about your self	Sociodemographic information Personal and work commitments
3- Tell me about your job	• Describe your job: What is it about? or What do you usually do? • How do you feel about your job? • What influence your performance? •
4- How would you define the students you work with?	• Tell me about their characteristics • What type students you work with?
5- Please, tell me about your experience working with the students you support	• What type support you offer them? • What facilitates your work? • What hinder your work? • What and who do you think influence their future career? • What do you think would help them to get a job after they got their NCEA 2/3? • How do you define a successful transition?
6- What could you tell me about these students' family?	• Describe your experience working with them • How school support the parents in terms of starting and maintaining communication with parents
7-	Is there anything else would you like to say regarding your experience working with immigrant students?

- Discuss: How knowing the term "immigrant student" might help you to support these students?(leading question)

Appendix F: Parents Individual and Focus Group Interview Schedule

Individual Interviews:

Questions	Prompting questions
1- How have you been lately?	• In general, how have you been feeling? • What have made you feel like that?
2- Please, tell me about your self	• Sociodemographic information • Personal/family and work commitments • Length of stay in NZ • Children (age/school year)
3- How is it living in a foreign country?	• What do you think is an immigrant parent? • Describe if you ever perceived any difference that and immigrant experience when compared to local students • What assumptions do you think local people make about immigrants? •
4- In general, what do you find most/the least enjoyable about being an immigrant?	
5- How would you describe the relationship you have with your child?	• How do you spend time together • What is your expectation from them? • What are their expectation from you? • What was the recent challenge you and your child have faced?
6- What do you think about her/his school?	• What is your expectation from them? • What is the role of career advisors in his/her school? • What kind of support they provide so far? • What support from school would they like to have?
7- How about you? What is your experience with career advisors?	• How often you meet them? • What do you usually discuss about? • How satisfied you are with that support? • What type of advice they gave you? Was it influential?

8- If you think back when you made your choice to migrate to NZ, how ready you and your children think you were for the university/schooling system?	• Consider what you think you were lacking, what information you had, etc. • What were your expectations of schools? • When you started out as a parent what did you think your family life would be like? • How has the reality matched up with what you imagined? • How do you think your previous experiences equipped you for the demands you encounter as part of setteling your child? What information you had about your schools? •
9- Now that you are a here, what you think you and your child need in order to have an efficient transition from school to work?	
10- Who do you think influence the most your child future career?	• Think about personal characteristics such as age, sex or gender, personality, skills, knowledge, language, etc. • • Why do you think he/she/they have the influence? • How about you? How do you have influence on your child decision? • I would like to know as a parent what advice you have been able to offer to your son/daughter which might help him/her obtain a job? • How do you think the cultural differences between NZ and your home country impacst your Child future career? •
11- What would you advise a person who wants to migrate to New Zealand	Why you would give such advice?

with and has high school studnet?	
12- What is your opinion in terms of whether or not a gap exists between immigrant and local students' chances to achieve their careers goals?	•
13-	• Is there anything else would you like to say regarding your experience working with immigrant students?

Focus Group

Questions	Prompting questions
1- Can you please introduce yourself (anything you feel comfortable to share with others) 2- Why you migrated to NZ?	• Why you choose NZ? • How do you feel about living in NZ •
3- How do you identify yourself as an immigrant parent?	• What kind of characteristics do immigrant parents have. • What sort of problems do immigrant parents face in a new country like NZ
4- What challenges do families perceive immigrant youth face during the school-to-work transition?	• Tell me about cultural barriers. • Language barriers. • Discrimination and racism
5- What is your opinion if your child decides to not to go to the university after secondary school and choose to work in industry?	•
6- How you can support your children?	• In terms of their education • School-to-work transition
7- What do you think about your children motivation and aspiration for careers pathway	• Who do you think has the most powerful influence on their careers pathways? Why you think so?
8- What results do you expect from your children?	• Which pathway and why?

9- What type of support you receive from education system in NZ and what do you expect from teachers and careers advisors?	•

Appendix G: Interviewers

Ava is an Iranian mother of two boys: Benjamin aged nineteen and Daniel aged seventeen. She moved to New Zealand from Iran in 2015 with her husband Mohammad. They had been working as Engineers in their home country. Their oldest son Benjamin is studying at a University in New Zealand and Daniel is a high school student at level three. They are now New Zealand citizens but they migrated to New Zealand with the residency visa under the skilled migrant category.

Carole is a postgraduate student at University of Canterbury (UC) and mother of three boys 16, 11 and 5 years old. For the first time she and her husband came to New Zealand in 2010 when she was doing her masters'. After completing her degree and in 2012 they returned to their home country. In 2017 they migrated to New Zealand as permanent resident and Carole started her Ph.D at the university. Her husband works in North island Rotoroua. Her oldest son is completing NCEA level 3 at one of Canterbury high schools. They are all originally from Kenya.

Krishna is from Philippines and migrated to New Zealand in 2018 with her husband and four children aged 25, 19, 13 and eight years old. She is a housewife and her husband work in a company in Aotearoa New Zealand. She lost her job from October 2020 because of Covid-19 pandemic. Her oldest son is studying at University of Canterbury and but other children are still at schools.

Nadiya is a single mother from Iran. She migrated to New Zealand with her three kids in 2016 to join her husband but due to some family problems, she only stayed one month with him. She got divorced immediately and for a while had been to a safe house with her two sons and a daughter. She has started her life from scratch and now she is living independently. She has been granted permanent resident visa and now she is studying English

at an instituted to improve her language skills. Her daughter is 15 years old and her two sons are eight and four years old.

Annahita is 46 years old mother who has migrated to New Zealand 5 years ago with her husband and two daughters. One of her daughters is 16 years old and the other is 11 years old. She used to teach at university when she was in Iran and when she moved to New Zealand, she had many jobs including interpreter, translator, French teacher at primary schools, and manager in an afterschool centre. Her husband also have a full-time job in a company. All of them now are New Zealand citizens.

Riva is a 47 years old women and mother of two boys: Antonio 20 years old and Jose 18 years old. She and her husband Marco with two children have moved to Aotearoa New Zealand from Chile in 2018. Riva's husband is doing PhD at UC and Riva is working part-time. Riva used to be an engineer at her home country. However, after moving to New Zealand she had to stop working for a while as he she could not find relevant job to her background.

Bahar is 45 years old woman and originally from Iran. She and her family are now New Zealand citizens. They moved New Zealand about six years ago and lived in Auckland for almost a year and due to her husband job redundancy, they moved to Aotearoa New Zealand to find new jobs. Now Afshin and Bahar both have full time jobs in Canterbury. Bahar and Afshin have a 15 years old girl Sanam. She is at NCEA level 2.

Parents' profile

Name	Gender	Nationality	Age	Marital Status	Employment Status	Length of Stay in New Zealand	Interview Structure
Ava	Female	Iran	45	Married	Casual contract	5	Individual Interview
Carole	Female	Kenya	40	Married	Casual contract	3	Individual Interview
Bahram	Male	Iran	49	Married	Permanent	1	Individual Interview
Krishna	Female	Philippines		Married	Not employed	3	Individual Interview
Nadiya	Female	Iran	41	Single	Not employed	4	Individual Interview
Annahita	Female	Iran	46	Married	Fulltime	6	Individual Interview
Riva	Female	Chile	48	Married	Casual contract	3	Individual Interview
Bahar	Female	Iran	45	Married	Fulltime	6	Individual Interview
Lin	Female	China		Single	Unemployed	2	Individual Interview
Chynna	Female	China	44	Married	Casual		Individual Interview
Rose	Female	Malaysia		Married	Casual	3	Individual Interview
Salman	Male	Iran		Married	Fixed-term	5	Individual Interview
Sogand	Female	Afghanistan	39		Unemployed	5	Individual Interview
Satin	Female	Bangladesh	40	Married	Casual	4	Individual Interview
Siavash	Male	Iran		Married	Self-employed	2	Co-parent Interview
Tahmine	Female	Iran		Married	Unemployed	2	Co-parent Interview

Appendix H: Careers Advisors Information Sheet and Consent Form

College of Education, Health and Human Development Telephone: +64 226567760

Email: Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.cantebury.ac.nz

28/05/2020
ERHEC Ref: 2019/42/ERHEC

From Education to Employment: Immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand
Information sheet for career advisors

Kia Ora,

My name is Maryam Sharifkhani and I am a PhD student with the College of Education, Health and Human Development at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. I am conducting a study exploring how career advisors in Aotearoa New Zealand understand the youth school-to-work transition process. As a career advisor working with student/students completing NCEA at Level 2 or 3, I would like to invite you to participate in this study. In addition to five career advisors, this study also will involve parents/caregivers of students who are enrolled in the NCEA at Level 2 or 3 and who have migrated within the last five years and living in Aotearoa New Zealand. You will not directly benefit from taking part in this study, but information gathered may contribute to any subsequent actions that policy makers and school communities may take to support immigrant families and their students to achieve smooth and effective school-to-work transitions.

It is entirely your choice as to whether or not to participate. If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to take part in one interview with possibility of one follow-up interview that will take no longer than one hour each. I will not interfere with your daily activities or private life; the time, date and place in which we meet will be agreed upon between us. The interview will be conducted in English and will be audio recorded. If you agree to participate, you have the right to withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. If you withdraw, I will do my best to remove any information relating to you, provided this is practically achievable. However, once analysis of raw data starts on [the date of withdrawal of data], it will become increasingly difficult to remove the influence of your data on the results. During the interview, you can stop at any time and/or skip any questions you would prefer not to answer. Afterwards, you will be offered with a transcript of our interview and have the right to review it and/or ask me to leave out any part(s), which will then not be used. At the conclusion of your participation in the study you will be given a $20 gift card for each time you are interviewed.

This study may pose some risks for participants. Complete anonymity will not be assured as I, the principal researcher, will have access to your personal information; in addition, you will likely be identifiable given the small sample. However, the study has been designed to minimise any risk to the participants and schools from participating in this study. I will take particular care to ensure that any information obtained through the study that could identify you remains confidential. My academic supervisors and I will have complete access to your data. The results of the project may be published but your name and the school name will be replaced with a pseudonym and it will not be possible to be identified in any reporting of the data gathered. All of your data will be securely backed up in password protected files on the University of Canterbury server and after ten years, it will be

destroyed. Upon request, I will provide you with a summary of results on completion of the study by email. A thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

My study has received ethical approval from the University of Canterbury Educational Research Human Ethics Committee. Any complaints can be addressed to The Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz). This project is being carried out for a Ph.D. degree by Maryam Sharifkhani under the supervision of Associate Professor Annelies Kamp and Dr. Kerry Vincent, who can be contacted at maryam.sharifkhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz, annelies.kamp@canterbury.ac.nz and kerry.vincent@canterbury.ac.nz. They would be happy to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project (if practicable), via email or telephone.

If you have read and understood this information sheet and you would like to be a participant in this study, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me on the interview day or email it before the interview day.

I am looking forward to learning about your experiences.

Ngā mihi,

Maryam Sharifkhani
Ph.D. Candidate
University of Canterbury College of Education, Health and Human Development

Contact details of the researcher

Name of researcher: Maryam Sharifkhani
Address: University of Canterbury, Rehua 415 (desk 12), Christchurch 8140, New Zealand
Email / Telephone: Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz / +64 226567760

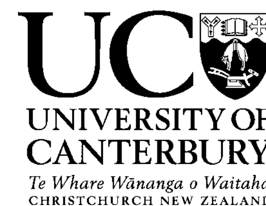
Contact details of supervisors

Name of main supervisor: Associate Professor Annelies Kamp
Address: University of Canterbury, Rehua 521, Christchurch 8140, New Zealand.
Email / Telephone: Annelies.kamp@canterbury.ac.nz / +6433693632

Name of associate supervisor: Dr.Kerry Vincent
Address: University of Canterbury, Rehua 518, Christchurch 8140. New Zealand.
Email / Telephone: Kerry.vincent@canterbury.ac.nz / +6433690350

College of Education, Health and Human Development Telephone: +64 226567760

Email: Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.cantebury.ac.nz



28/05/2020
ERHEC Ref: 2019/42/ERHEC

From Education to Employment: Immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand
Consent form for career advisors

Include a statement regarding each of the following:

- ☐ I have been given a full explanation of this project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
- ☐ I have read, understood and retained a copy of the information sheet provided to me.
- ☐ I understand the purpose of the research, the data collection procedure and am fully aware of what is required of me if I agree to participate in the research.
- ☐ I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.
- ☐ I am fully aware that conversations and interviews will be recorded and transcribed for research purposes.
- ☐ I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.
- ☐ I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and in password protected files on the UC server and will be destroyed after ten years.
- ☐ I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.
- ☐ I understand that there is no formal evaluation or examination involved in this project.
- ☐ I understand that I can contact the researcher Maryam Sharifkhani via email (Maryam.sharikhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz) or cellphone (0226567760) or supervisors, Associate professor Annelies Kamp (annelies.kamp@canterbury.ac.nz) and Dr. Kerry Vincent (kerry.vincent@canterbury.ac.nz) via email for further information.
- ☐ I have been informed that my name will not be published anywhere in the research and identity will not be revealed to anyone and I have been given the chance to choose a preferred pseudonym. Please use ----------- as a pseudonym for me.
- ☐ I have been informed that I will receive a copy of the report of this study to my e-mail address given below.
    - I would like a summary of the results of the project via ....
      (Indicate your preferred email address)

- ☐ I have been notified that this research has received ethical approval from the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury. I have also been informed that for any concern or complain I can contact the Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics

Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

☐ By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

Name: --- Signed: ------------------------------------ Date: --------------

Email address: --- Cell/Phone Number: ---------------------------------

Please return this completed consent form to Maryam Sharifkhani on the interview day or email Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz by the interview day.

Appendix I: School Principal Information Sheet and Consent Form

College of Education, Health and Human Development

Telephone: +64 226567760

Email: Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.cantebury.ac.nz

[Date]
ERHEC Ref: [Enter when approval given for your study]

From Education to Employment: Immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand

Letter for school principals

Kia Ora [school principal's name],

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study at your school. My name is Maryam Sharifkhani and I am a PhD candidate in College of Education, Health and Human Development at the University of Canterbury. My doctoral research seeks to investigate the school-to-work transition experiences of immigrant youth through exploring career advisors' understanding of the transition process. This research will generate knowledge to enhance school-to-work transitions for students from immigrant backgrounds, based on an inclusive approach that addresses different students' needs. Five career advisors in total, one from each school with diverse population of students in Canterbury, will be invited. In addition, parents/caregivers of students who are enrolled in the NCEA at Level 2 or 3 and who have migrated within the last five years and living in Aotearoa New Zealand will be involve in this study.

With your consent, I will invite your school administrators to introduce me to staff responsible for career education program for students who are going to complete NCEA at L2 or L3, to invite them to be involved in my study. The careers advisor who volunteer to participate in this study will be interviewed once with possibility of a follow-up interview, on date and place in which we will be agreed upon between us, and each interview session will take no longer than one hour. Should your career advisor participate in the research project, she/he will be given a koha in the form of a $20 gift card for each time she/he is interviewed. This study will be conducted among small community and participants may reveal identifiable information about schools, staff and teachers. The study has been designed to minimise any risk to the school, advisors or you from participating in this study. The data will be pooled for the thesis project and every effort will be made to provide confidentiality for the school, and the careers advisor. The results of the project may be published but your school name will be replaced with a pseudonym and it will not be possible to be identified in any reporting of the data gathered. All of your data will be securely backed up in password protected files on the University of Canterbury server and, after ten years, it will be destroyed. Upon request, I will provide you with a summary of results on completion of the study by email. A thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library. Please find the attached the information sheet, which provides further details on the study.

This project is being carried out for a Ph.D. degree by Maryam Sharifkhani under the supervision of Associate Professor Annelies Kamp and Dr. Kerry Vincent, who can be contacted at maryam.sharifkhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz, annelies.kamp@canterbury.ac.nz and kerry.vincent@canterbury.ac.nz. They would be happy to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

If you have read and understood this information sheet and you would like career advisors in your school to be a participant in this study, please see and complete the attached consent for and return it via email.

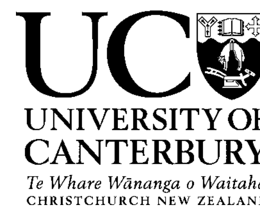
I am looking forward hearing from you.

Ngā mihi,

Maryam Sharifkhani
Ph.D. Candidate
University of Canterbury College of Education, Health and Human Development

College of Education, Health and Human Development Telephone: +64 226567760

Email: Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.cantebury.ac.nz



[Date]
ERHEC Ref: [Enter when approval given for your study]

From Education to Employment: Immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand

Consent form for Principals

Include a statement regarding each of the following:

☐ I have been given a full explanation of this project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

☐ I have read, understood and retained a copy of the information sheet provided to me.

☐ I understand the purpose of the research, the data collection procedure and am fully aware of what is required of me if I agree to participate in the research.

☐ I understand that participation is voluntary for career advisors and they may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

☐ I am fully aware that conversations and interviews will be recorded and transcribed for research purposes.

☐ I understand that any information or opinions provided by career advisors, will be kept confidential to the researcher and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

☐ I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and in password protected electronic files on the University of Canterbury servers and will be destroyed after ten years.

☐ I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

☐ I understand that there is no formal evaluation or examination involved in this project.

☐ I understand that I can contact the researcher Maryam Sharifkhani via email (Maryam.sharikhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz) or cellphone (0226567760) or supervisors, Associate professor Annelies Kamp (annelies.kamp@canterbury.ac.nz) and Dr. Kerry Vincent (kerry.vincent@canterbury.ac.nz) via email for further information.

☐ I have been informed that school name will not be published anywhere in the research and identity will not be revealed to anyone.

☐ I have been informed that I will receive a copy of the report of this study to my e-mail address given below.

- I would like a summary of the results of the project via ....
  (Indicate your preferred email address)

☐ I have been notified that this research has received ethical approval from the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury. I have also been informed that

for any concern or complain I can contact the Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

☐ By signing below, I consent to the career advisor being invited to participate in this research project.

Name: -- Signed: ------------------------------------ Date: --------------

Email address: -- Cell/Phone Number: ---------------------------------

Please return this completed consent form to Maryam Sharifkhani or email Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz.

Appendix J: Parents Information Sheet and Consent Form

College of Education, Health and Human Development

Telephone: +64 226567760

Email: Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.cantebury.ac.nz

14.02.2020
ERHEC Ref: 2019/42/ERHEC

From Education to Employment: Immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand

Information sheet for parents

From Education to Employment: Immigrant students in Aotearoa New Zealand

Consent Form for parents (One-to-one interview)

☐ I have been given a full explanation of this project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

☐ I have read, understood and retained a copy of the information sheet provided to me.

☐ I understand the purpose of the research, the data collection procedure and am fully aware of what is required of me if I agree to participate in the research.

☐ I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

☐ I am fully aware that conversations and interviews will be recorded and transcribed for research purposes.

☐ I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

☐ I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and in password protected electronic files on the UC server and will be destroyed after 10 years.

☐ I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

☐ I understand that I can contact the researcher Maryam Sharifkhani via email (Maryam.sharikhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz) or cellphone (0226567760) or supervisors, Associate professor Annelies Kamp (annelies.kamp@canterbury.ac.nz) and Dr. Kerry Vincent (kerry.vincent@canterbury.ac.nz) via email for further information.

☐ I have been informed that my name will not be published anywhere in the research and identity will not be revealed to anyone and I have been given the chance to choose a preferred pseudonym. Please use ----------- as a pseudonym for me.

☐ I have been informed that I will receive a copy of the report of this study to my e-mail address given below.

- I would like a summary of the results of the project via .... *(Indicate your preferred email address)*

☐ I have been notified that this research has received ethical approval from the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury. I have also been informed that for any concern or complain I can contact the Chair, Educational Research Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

☐ By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

Name: --- Signed: ------------------------------------ Date: --------------

Email address: --- Cell/Phone Number: ---------------------------------

Please return this completed consent form to Maryam Sharifkhani or email Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Appendix K: Parents' Information Sheet

Instructions: Please provide a response for each of the following questions:

1. **Your age:** 30-40 O 40-50 O 50-60 O More than 60 O Rather not say O

2. **Your gender:** Female O Male O Others O Rather not say O

3. Your marital status: Single O Married O Separated O Divorced O

Widowed O Rather not say O

4. Your annual income (or combined annual income if you have a spouse)?

Less than $60,000 O $60,001 to $70,000 O $70,001 to $80,000 O

$80,001 to $90,000 O $90,001 to $100,000 O Greater than $100,000 O

Rather not say O

5. **You (or your spouse) employment status?**

Full-time O Part-time O Unemployed O Rather not say O

6. Your ethnicity?

Asian O Middle East O Rather not say O

Other:

7. **How long have you been in New Zealand?**

Less than one year O More than one year O Rather not say O

8. How many children do you have?

One O Two O Three O Four O More than four O Rather not say O

9. **What is your current qualification?**

Elementary O High School O Post college O Bachelor O Master's O PhD O

Rather not say O

Appendix L: Recruitment Flyer

UC
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY
Te Whare Wānanga o Waitaha
CHRISTCHURCH NEW ZEALAND

PARTICIPANTS NEEDED

For a study exploring students' school-to-work transition

Are you the parent of a student/students who completed or are going to complete NCEA at Levels 2 or 3?

Have you migrated to New Zealand within the last five years?

If you answered *YES* to these questions, you may be eligible to participate.

As a participant, you will be asked to:

- Complete a short information form about yourself.
- Be interviewed (online) one time with possibility of a follow-up interview and a focus group interview, each interview will take no longer than one hour.

You will receive a gift voucher to compensate your time.

Please contact at **Maryam.sharifkhani@pg.canterbury.ac.nz** or PM me for more information.

Appendix M: Ethical Approval

HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE

Secretary, Rebecca Robinson
Telephone: +64 03 369 4588, Extn 94588
Email: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: 2019/42/ERHEC

13 August 2019

Maryam Sharifkhani
Educational Studies and Leadership
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Maryam

Thank you for providing the revised documents in support of your application to the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee. I am very pleased to inform you that your research proposal "From Education to Employment: Immigrant Students in Aotearoa New Zealand" has been granted ethical approval.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your emails of 17th July and 12th August 2019.

Should circumstances relevant to this current application change you are required to reapply for ethical approval.

If you have any questions regarding this approval, please let me know.

We wish you well for your research.

Yours sincerely

R. Robinson

Dr Patrick Shepherd
Chair
Educational Research Human Ethics Committee

Please note that ethical approval relates only to the ethical elements of the relationship between the researcher, research participants and other stakeholders. The granting of approval by the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee should not be interpreted as comment on the methodology, legality, value or any other matters relating to this research.