UNIVERISTY OF GHANA

BEYOND WAGE AS A MAJOR DETERMINANT OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE IN THE ENTERTAINMENT AND SPORTS INDUSTRY

BY

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THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MPHIL ECONOMICS DEGREE

JULY, 2013.
DECLARATION

This is to certify that this thesis is the result of research undertaken by FORSTER SHITSI JUNIOR towards the award of the Master of Philosophy (MPHIL) degree in the Department of Economics, University of Ghana.

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ABSTRACT

Wages and earnings have been a constant source of interest to labour economists. This study investigates the influence of non-pecuniary factors like personality traits, prestige, education, parents among others on occupational choice using primary data collected from a survey of 150 purposive sampled professionals in the entertainment and sports industry in Ghana.

A multinomial logit (MNL) analysis was conducted to examine the significance and marginal effects of these non-pecuniary variables on the individual’s choice of occupation. The data provide extensive information on the socioeconomic characteristics of the individuals as well as the empirical results from the MNL analysis.

The results from the estimation using a multinomial logit model was linked with some literature and also checked against apriori assumptions. Generally, the findings indicate that education and training, and geographical context had higher marginal influence on the choice of both football and acting career in relation to the base (music) than other factors in the model. Some of the variables conformed to apriori expectation, albeit insignificant.
DEDICATION

To God be the glory for how far He has brought me. I dedicate this work to the Almighty God, created of man. I also dedicate this work to my entire family and friends.
AKNOWLEDGEMENT

To be grateful is to recognize the love of God in everything, He has given us and He has given us everything. Thankfulness is the chief exercise of godliness in which we ought to engage during the whole of our life. I thank the Almighty God for my life and that of family and friends.

My indebtedness is unmeasurable in terms of the effort of people whose contribution has in diverse ways made this work a success. I acknowledge with much appreciation the support of Prof. A. Baah-Nuakoh and Dr. W. Baah-Boateng all of the Department of Economics, University of Ghana, for their great devotion, constructive suggestions, valuable guidance and word of encouragement and advice. I am also appreciative to Dr. W. Baah-Boateng for suggesting this very interesting topic for my thesis.

My sincere gratitude to all the lecturers and stuff of the Department of Economics for their various suggestions and advice in one way or another towards the realisation of this work. Also to my colleagues for your constructive criticisms and suggestions. Much appreciation also go to the African Economic Research Consortium (AERC) for their financial support which heavily supplemented the budget for this research.

My heavy indebtedness to my father, Mr Emmanuel Yao Shitsi, my mother Mrs Matilda Afi Alimo, my siblings, Hope Kwaku Shitsi, Sarah Adzo Shitsi and Esther Mawuli Shitsi, and my uncles Mr Light Sevor and Mr Bright Sevor for their tremendous assistance in all possible ways through my University education.
I also express my sincere appreciation to Miss Theresa Ofori for assisting in my field work. To all my friends not mentioned here, your efforts in diverse ways towards the success of this thesis are well appreciated, may the Lord Almighty bless you and replenish your efforts in thousand folds.

Amen
# TABLE OF CONTENT

DECLARATION .............................................................................................................. i

ABSTRACT .................................................................................................................. ii

DEDICATION ................................................................................................................. iii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT ................................................................................................. iv

TABLE OF CONTENT ..................................................................................................... v

LIST OF FIGURES ......................................................................................................... viii

LIST OF TABLES ........................................................................................................... ix

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS ............................................................................................. x

CHAPTER ONE ............................................................................................................. 1

INTRODUCTION ........................................................................................................... 1

1.1 Background ............................................................................................................. 1

1.2 Problem Statement ................................................................................................. 4

1.3 Research Questions ................................................................................................. 6

1.4 Objectives of Study ................................................................................................. 6

1.5 Brief Methodology and data Source ....................................................................... 6

1.6 Significance of Study ............................................................................................. 7

1.7 Organization of Study ............................................................................................ 9

CHAPTER TWO ........................................................................................................... 10

LITERATURE REVIEW ................................................................................................. 10

2.0 Introduction ............................................................................................................. 10

2.1 Theoretical Literature ......................................................................................... 10

2.1.1 Economic Models ............................................................................................ 10

2.1.2 Psychological and Social Theories .................................................................... 13
2.2 Empirical Literature ................................................................. 25
2.3 Summary ................................................................................. 38

CHAPTER THREE ......................................................................... 39
OVERVIEW OF THE GHANAIAN LABOUR MARKET ......................... 39
3.0 Introduction ........................................................................... 39
3.1 Labour Force and Employment ............................................... 39
  3.1.1 Employment Sector by Sex .................................................. 40
  3.1.2 Age Distribution of the Working-Age Population .................. 42
  3.1.3 Employment by Occupation and Sex .................................... 43
  3.1.4 Employment by Status and Sex ........................................... 44
  3.1.5 Employment by Occupation and Locality ............................ 46
3.2 Unemployment by Gender, Locality and Age ............................ 47
3.3 Summary ................................................................................. 49

CHAPTER FOUR .......................................................................... 50
METHODOLOGY AND EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS .................................. 50
4.0 Introduction ............................................................................. 50
4.1 Model Formulation ................................................................. 50
  4.1.1 Theoretical Framework ....................................................... 50
  4.1.2 Multinomial Logit Model (MNL) ........................................... 51
  4.1.3 Model Specification ........................................................... 53
  4.1.4 Description of Variables and Expected Signs ....................... 53
4.2 Source of Data and Descriptive Analysis .................................... 57
  4.2.1 Socioeconomic Characteristic of Survey Respondents ........... 58
  4.2.2 Multinomial Logistic Regression Model (Empirical Analysis) .... 63
4.3 Summary ........................................................................................................... 69
CHAPTER FIVE ...................................................................................................... 70
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMEDATION ............................................................ 70
5.0 Introduction ..................................................................................................... 70
5.1 Conclusion ....................................................................................................... 70
5.2 Policy Recommendation .................................................................................. 72
5.3 Limitations and Area for Further Research .................................................... 73
REFERENCES ....................................................................................................... 75
Appendix A: Test of Goodness-of-Fit .................................................................. 84
Appendix B: Econometric Estimation of Occupational Choice ............................. 85
Appendix C: Estimated Marginal Effects of the Multinomial Logit Model .......... 86
Appendix D: Occupational Choice Survey Questionnaire .................................... 87
Appendix E: Tables of Socio-economic characteristics of Respondents ............ 90
Appendix F: OneLove d Kuborlor ........................................................................ 92
Appendix G: Football and Formal Education ....................................................... 93
Appendix H: Multinomial Logistic Result for Occupational Choice without wage .... 94
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>RIASEC (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>RIASEC (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Highest Education Level of Respondents</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>Age Distribution of Respondents</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Earning Distribution of Respondents</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>A picture with one of Ghana’s Finest and Innovative Musician</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>A picture of GRASAG Legon Football Team 2012/13</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2.1: Compatible Work Environment</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.1 (a): Distribution of Employment Sector by Sex 2005/06</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.1 (b): Distribution of Economically Active Population by Sex and Employment Sector</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.2: Age Distribution of the Working Age Population</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.3: Distribution of the Economically Active Population by Occupation and Sex</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.4: Distribution of the Economically Active Population by Sex and Employment Status</td>
<td>46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.5: Distribution of the working-Age Population by Occupation and Locality</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.6: Unemployment rate by Gender, Locality and Age (percent)-2006</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.1: Explanatory variables and their expected signs</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.5: Multinomial Logit Results on the Likelihood of Choosing Occupation</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tables of Socio-economic Characteristics of Respondents (Appendix)</td>
<td>90-91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table A4.1: Sex of the Individual by Occupation of the Individual Crosstabulation</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table A4.2: Occupational Status of the Individual by Occupation Crosstabulation</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table A4.3: Foreign Exposure by Occupation Crosstabulation</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table A4.4: Earnings &amp; Years of Experience Statistics</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table A4.6: Role Model by Occupation of the Individual Crosstabulation</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table A4.7: Marital Status of the Individual by Occupation Cross tabulation</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.5A: Multinomial Logistic Results on the Likelihood of Choosing Occupation</td>
<td>94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BFA</td>
<td>Bachelor of Fine Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRASAG</td>
<td>Graduate Students’ Association of Ghana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSCT</td>
<td>General Social Cognitive Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSOEP</td>
<td>German Socio-Economic Panel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS</td>
<td>Ghana Statistical Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HILDA</td>
<td>Household Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISSER</td>
<td>Institute of Statistics, Social and Economic Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRI</td>
<td>Likelihood Ratio Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNL</td>
<td>Multinomial Logit Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MUSIGA</td>
<td>Musicians Association of Ghana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCDS</td>
<td>National Child Development Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOS</td>
<td>National Office of Statistics in Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCC</td>
<td>Occupation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORs</td>
<td>Odds ratio</td>
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<tr>
<td>PHC</td>
<td>Population and Housing Census</td>
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<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Standards in Assessment Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA – FUS</td>
<td>PISA- Follow Up Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA - L</td>
<td>PISA – Longitudinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>Danish Register Data</td>
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<tr>
<td>RIASEC</td>
<td>Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional</td>
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</tbody>
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SCCT  Social Cognitive Career Theory
STC  Statistical Training Centre
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The price of labour is the wage rate, and it is this wage rate that determines the labour market outcomes (labour demand and supply) in a perfectly competitive labour market ceteris paribus. However, beyond the wage, there are several other factors that influence one’s choice of occupation and sector of economic activity. This research seeks to explore the other possible reasons why people enter into music, acting and football.

Career selection is one of the most important choices an individual will make in determining future plans. In a related study, Basavage (1996) in her thesis asked, “What is it that influences children, one way or the other in their choice of future occupation? Classic economics models which focus on pecuniary payoffs are relatively silent as to why many highly able individuals have a taste favouring low paid careers (Humlum et al., 2010). Generally, it is believed that the fundamental motive behind the pursuit of various occupations is the fundamental human need to “make ends meet”. Notwithstanding this assertion, contemporary society with its dynamic and sophisticated social and economic system have taken the problem of occupational choice a step or two further by making it both complex and intriguing (Udoh & Sanni, 2012).

Occupation by Onyejiaku (1987) is a way of life. According to Deng (1986) it moulds one’s character, determines one’s social status, income, style of life, choice of friends and, mental and physical health. This means that there is a persuasive link between one’s choice of occupation and entire way of life. “Work is one of our greatest blessings. Everyone should have an honest occupation” (Rosenstock & Steinberg, 1995).
Every individual has a unique history of their past which influences their way of life in future. This history which is created in part by one’s geographical context, parental background, education and training, and personality goes a long way to influence how they make occupational choices (Borchert, 2002). Therefore, the individual’s environment, passion and interest, their parental background and level of education and training also go a long way to determine the career choices they make.

According to Bakshi et al (2012), development of one’s identity neither begins nor ends in adolescence or early adulthood, and that decisions relating to choice of occupation or career are not limited adolescence or early adulthood. In Bakshi (2011), he also remarks that the choice of career represents a coming of age for youth and adolescents.

Career choice is one key process an individual goes through in life. It constitutes one of the single most important decisions an individual ought to make when coming of age. Hence, Brown and Brooks (cited in Patton and McMahon, 2006), defines career development as “a lifelong process of getting ready to choose, choosing, and typically continuing to make choices from among the many occupations available in our society”.

The researcher defines choice making is the act of choosing or picking from the lot. As economic theory suggests, the choice of an action or inaction is at the expense of another or others. As jobs are limited with regards to the human ability, the total time available or work, and the non-availability of jobs (indicated by the level of unemployment), an individual ought to choose prudently as such choices are made at the expense of alternatives and similarly important and enticing actions or jobs.
The choice of occupation like any other economic choices or decision making are associated with forgone alternatives (opportunity cost) even in the face or part-time and or multiple job holding, and are also influenced by several factors, both natural and man-developed, controlled and uncontrollable. Some factors that influences an individual’s choice of career can be controlled whilst others are inherent, hence difficult to controlled, but can however be nurtured or left to deteriorate.

Talent, age, sex, environment, parental background are some of the factors of career choice that can be categorised under the uncontrolled factors, as the individual decision maker has little or no control over. Other factors as education and training, role model, passion and interest which can be acquired or changed with time fall under the controlled factors of job choice.

However, wages which is considered the first and foremost important and most influential factor of occupational choice, all things being equal can be said to fall between the controlled and uncontrollable factors of job choice. They are considered to be uncontrolled by the individual decision maker in the perfectly competitive factor market, where a fixed level of wage is said to clear the market. It becomes a controlled factor when an individual is able to bargain for an appreciable amount. Wages can be influenced through education and training, which gives an individual job seeker the ability to bargain the wage level above “reservation” to make the offer more attractive to take.

Career choice is substantially meaningful in helping an individual determine developmental outcomes in adulthood. It is impacts and also impacted by personhood. According to Gottfredson (2005), choosing a career path is focal of youth as it is challenging and in fact burdensome. This
makes a career choice process a necessary and challenging aspect of adulthood and need to be looked at with a “contact lens” and approached in a very analytic manner.

1.2 Problem Statement

According to Baumol (1990) and Murphy et al. (1991), the allocation of talent has some growth implications. They both argued that allocation of talent enhance growth since talented people in the right occupations create a positive human capital externalities while talent in the wrong occupations can be very destructive. These works focused on the allocation of talents and its implication on growth.

A huge body of literature exist in economics and psychology which investigates the link between occupational behaviour such as occupational choice and pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors. Studies by Blau et al (1956) conceptualized some psychological, economic, and sociological factors in explaining occupational choice. Holland (1958, 1985) also argued on the impact of personality trait on vocational choice where he introduced the personality typology of occupational choice. Several other studies have examined the influence of some determining factors of occupational choice and how these factors impact on one’s choice of occupation.

Baah-Boateng (2009) also explored the occupational choice in Ghana in which case he controlled for some of these variables like the parental background, and education variables in his work. His work was however general in scope and it was estimated to primarily pave way to analyse occupational segregation as its main focus was on the gender discrimination in the Ghanaian labour market. Findings from Baah-Boateng (2009) suggests that education and parental background play significant roles in the choosing of occupation.
Research on non-pecuniary factors of occupational choice in the sports and entertainment industry is lacking if not non-existent. While the emphasis of most research studies has been focused on the wage determining labour market outcomes like occupational choice, employment, among others, it is hard to ignore that non-pecuniary factors like hobby, parental background, education and training, role modelling, crave for fame, geographical context, talent, and several other unobservable factors play significant role in job choice.

Review of several literature in economics suggests that there is no specific work done in the area of economics and occupational choice process in the entertainment and sports industry in Ghana. It is in view of this and many others that this work sort to explore the entertainment and sports industry in Ghana and expose the economic nature of job choice in these industries to also pave the way for some occupation specific works in this regard. This work is however specific in nature as it is focused on the entertainment and sports industry and the supply side factors to people’s choice of occupation in the entertainment and sports industries in Ghana.

It is therefore imperative that educators and public policy officials learn more about the non-pecuniary factors that influence our young people’s aspirations to professional and non-professional careers. As we learn more about their decision process, we may develop more insight into education, counselling and training of our young people for higher-level productive careers in the sports and entertainment industries.
1.3 Research question

In line with the central focus of the study, answers will be found for the following question:

i. How significant are the non-pecuniary factors in choosing entertainment and sports as occupation?

ii. Which factor, parental background, geographical context, education and training, interest and passion, role modelling, and talent, is the significant in the decision to choose that occupation?

1.4 Objectives of Study

The main objective of study is to establish that, beyond wage as a driver of occupational choice, there are other non-pecuniary factors that turn to influence individual’s decision to choose a particular occupation. The study focuses on three occupations (football, acting, and music) and five main factors (i.e. parental background, geographical context, education and training, passion and interest, and role modelling). Specifically, the study seeks to:

i. examine both pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors that determine ones choice of occupation

ii. examine which of the pecuniary factors is more significant in choosing of occupation.

1.5 Brief Methodology and Data Source

The study seeks to elicit from respective professionals in both Entertainment and Sports (Soccer) Industry the major driving force (factor of choice) that influenced their occupational decisions using the multinomial logit model. This model focuses on only the supply side of the occupational choice process which in this work is influenced by geographical context, parental background, education and training, passion and interest, role model variables, talent, etc. The study employs the multinomial logit model in its analysis, where computation of the selection probability of each occupation will be done by maximizing the log-likelihood function of occupational choice with
respect to the various non-pecuniary variables in order to obtain the respective parameter estimates.

This study applies the multinomial model on a primary survey data set sampled from professionals in the entertainment and sports industry (footballers, musicians, actors and actresses). It involves a purposive sampling 150 professionals (50 from each profession) for the study. The choice of the sampling size is informed by time and financial constraints. This study will undertake a pilot survey and pretesting where enumerators will be trained to administer sample questionnaire to some purposively selected individual in the various field.

1.6 Significance of Study

According to Amerson (2012) in a related study, in the development of equitable curriculum and the enhancement of culturally responsive educational practices, it is necessary to understand how the role of identity and the perceived expectations of parents and teachers influence the occupational choice of young white southern males living in a rural context. Hence, this study in similar fashion explores the several possible reasons (apart from wage) why professionals in the sports and entertainment industry choose such occupations and try to understand the relativity of these other factors to the wage consideration.

According to Udoh & Sanni (2012) in a related study, the dynamic and sophisticated socio-economic system of the contemporary society with accompanying innovations in science and technology presents a wide array of occupations for the Nigerian youth to choose from. However, making a realistic choice is somewhat difficult due to the several factors under consideration, with
which parental background variables like: attitudes towards occupation, level of formal education, and occupation is the most prominent.

Also, review of literature reveals no indication that the economics perspective of the non-pecuniary (non-wage) factors of occupational choice in the sports and entertainment industry has been explored. The work of Baah-Boateng (2009) was a more general attempt to explore the determinants of occupational choice and how it reflects occupational segregation. However, this work is very specific in scope and it focuses on the pecuniary factors determining choice of occupation in the entertainment and sports industry. The study is significant because it explores and exposes the influences of these variables on occupational choice of professionals in the entertainment and sports industry in Ghana from the economic point of view.

The study therefore adds to several related works and also creates a platform which will arouse some interest for further studies in this regards, serving as a source of reference for future research in the area.

Again, findings from the study will help stakeholders (i.e. football managers, music and movie producers, sports academies, sports councils, government agencies, and policy makers) to gain a better understanding of the career recruitment process and also take policy measures to make it more decent, lucrative and attractive. It is therefore imperative that educators and public policy officials learn more about the factors that influence our young people’s aspirations to professional and non-professional careers. As we learn more about their decision process, we may develop more insight into education, counselling and training of our young people for higher-level productive careers in the field of football, music and acting.
1.7 Organization of Study

The study, which seeks to conduct investigation into the link between occupational choice on one hand, and non-pecuniary factors on the other hand, comprising of six (6) chapters. Chapter one looks at the general background of the study, the problem statement, objective of study and the significance of study. The second chapter takes a look at the overview of occupational choice. The third chapter focuses on both theoretical and empirical works on occupational choice. Chapter four underlines and explains the methodology of the study, looking at the model of estimation, pilot survey and pretesting, data collection and analysis. Chapter five deals with the descriptive and empirical analysis of the result and the last chapter concludes the work and looks at the appropriate policy recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews both theoretical and empirical literature on the non-pecuniary factor of occupational choice in the entertainment and sports industry. The theoretical aspect reviews economic, social and psychological literature that describes the individual career choice process and among others. The empirical review of the literature focuses on works by researchers in the area of occupational choice and non-pecuniary determining factors as well as the use of multinomial logit model in the analysis of occupations. The study will also address empirical works in areas of occupational choice and non-pecuniary benefits or factors that employed the discrete choice model.

2.1 Theoretical Literature

2.1.1 Economic models

There are different ways of explaining the behaviour of individual’s decision to work from economic perspective. Thus, several economic models explain why people would want to work or supply labour effort.

Under a simple static model of labour supply, economic agents may be taken to reach their decision in the light of what they want and what they can get (Arrow and Halm 1971). In the model, the individual’s decision to supply labour effort depends on a combination of labour (i.e. measured in terms of consumption of consumer goods) and leisure that maximises his/her utility at the given market price, wage rate, and income. The model is built on the assumptions labour supply is at a given period of time in a short run situation under the neoclassical framework. It is also based on
the fact that individuals maximize utility subject to given constraints (in time, income and market price) where utility entails consumption goods and leisure. The individual has 24 hours within which to work or have leisure, and confronted with his wage and property income.

The model argues that the individual supplies labour at the point of maximum satisfaction when he is able to meet his consumption-leisure demands subject to the given income and time constraint. Given income of the economic agent, prices of goods, wage rate, the individual has three (3) choices to make depending on his taste and preference for work or leisure. The economic agent can choose to work all hours and have no leisure, in which case he/she attains the highest possible income level (i.e. full income). The agents can also choose to Leisure all hours without work in which case he has only his property (non-labour) income to spend on consumer goods, or in the more realistic case, divide total available time between leisure and work.

However, this model has been modified to incorporate the effect of time and money costs associated with working. Money cost of work is defined to include the financial cost incurred in commuting to and from work. According to this theory, if money cost increases further, it gets to a point where working becomes pointless, since the net pecuniary benefit from work becomes zero or even negative. In this case some individuals will cease work altogether. Some individuals might still provide labour services at such higher money cost of work in which case their property or non-labour income reduces.

Time cost of work on the other hand is the hours in time spent commuting from home to work if the individual is to supply labour. It includes cost like hours or time spent in traffic, queuing at bus stations, etc. and it varies with the distance from home to work. The increase in time cost of work
reduces total time available for both work and leisure. It also reduces full income (total income attainable if the individual chooses to work all time without leisure) as a result of a reduction in total available time. With an increase in the time cost of work, the individual who still wishes to work in most cases relocate closer to the work place so as to reduce the time cost of work.

According to the Human Capital theory of labour supply, the probability of an individual $i$ entering an occupation $j$ will be a function of the relative Present Values (PVs) of potential post-investment lifetime earnings, training cost and income forgone due to unemployment in alternative occupations (Boskin, 1974). This means that the potential worker weighs the benefits (both pecuniary and non-pecuniary) and the costs – psychological, social and economic or monetary cost of training.

The pecuniary benefit is in terms of the enhancement of real lifetime earnings while the non-pecuniary benefit is the improvement in the conditions in which the individual works. The social costs take the form of forgone non-market opportunities as the time devoted to invest in human capital may preclude leisure activities. Economic or market costs is in terms of forgone market opportunities and direct financial outlays.

According to Elliot (1991), the decision to acquire skills is an Investment decision and that investment in Human Capital (HC) is the decision to enhance one’s productivity for future returns as skilled labour commands a higher price than raw labour because of its being more productive, all things being equal. The part of human capital investment considered by the researcher is that acquired through education and training, which in this context is acquired through formal education or by “learning by doing” - training. Adam Smith in 1776 was first to draw the analogy
between education and investment in a machine. Today most part of investments undertaken takes the form of human capital. Becker (1988) recorded that between 50 and 90% of the total capital stock of the United States takes the form of human capital.

Taking all the cost and benefits associated in human capital investment, the theory proposes that the individual will in human capital if the total private benefit exceeds the costs associated with the investment and that the individual will invest to the point where the marginal returns equals the marginal cost. Therefore in occupational choice concerning Human Capital, the individual worker will invest in changing occupation only if the net returns are sufficiently large to make the particular change of occupation most profitable use of limited resources (in terms of time, and money)

2.1.2 Psychology and Social theories

There are a number of theories that explain occupational choice from psychological perspectives. One of them is the Ginzberg’s Development Theory developed by Eli Ginzberg in the early nineteen-fifties. The theory argues that choice of vocation is influenced by four facts: the reality factor, the influence of the educational process, the emotional factor and the individual values. The theory proposes that children and adolescents go through three choice stages, starting in preteen and ending in young adulthood. The individual passes through the stages of fantasy, tentative and realistic (Ginzberg et al, 1951).

According to the theory, the fantasy stage is the period where the child is free to pursue any occupational choice and this is characterized in adolescent’s aged below eleven. Children make
decisions having no idea of the consequences involved. Through this stage however, the child’s preferred activities are known and related to future career choice.

The tentative stage of career development begins in the preteen years and continues through high school (eleven to seventeen years). During this period, the child turns to further define their interest in, capacity for and value of an occupation. The adolescent begins the career choice process, recognizes the consequences and responsibilities of choices made. This is the stage where individuals usually identify their role models. Parental influence also begins to fade out at the later stage of this phase.

The realistic stage spans from mid-adolescence through young adulthood (i.e. the ages of seventeen to eighteen according to Osankinle, 2010) during which the child goes through three sub-stages: the stage of exploration, crystallization and specification. In the exploration sub-stage, the adolescent (i.e. the potential footballer, musician and actor) now make choices based on personal likes, skills, and ability rather than fantasy. The child then makes an occupational choice during the crystallization phase of the realistic stage of career development. This choice may depend on a combination of both pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors from the tentative and exploration stage. Finally, in the specification phase, the individual now strive at achieving his career goals by pursuing the educational experience necessary to that respect.

Ginzberg’s career development theory, however, has had some critiques from other scholars. The theory is critiqued not to fit with every adolescent’s career choice process. It has been argued that in the career choice process other issue of gender, race, and social class comes to bare.
Another psychological theory of occupational choice is that of the career self-concept theory also known as Super’s self-concept theory. The theory was propounded by Donald Super in 1967. It states that an individual’s self-concept plays a central role in his or her career choice where the individual is believed to have constructed career self-concept during adolescence (Super, 1967, 1976). One of Donald Super’s greatest contributions to career development has been his emphasis on the importance of the development of self-concept. According to Super, self-concept changes over time, and develops as a result of experience. As such, career development is life-long.

Super’s self-concept theory was developed from Eli Ginzberg’s development theory. Realising the weaknesses in Ginzberg’s work, Super in attempt to address the issues, extended Ginzberg’s life and career development stages from three to five and included different sub-stages. According to Osankinle (2010), this theory identifies five phases of an adolescent’s career choice development process. These phases are: the crystallization phase, specification, implementation, stabilization, and the consolidation phases.

Savickas and Lent (1994) however identifies a sixth stage or phase which it calls the readiness for retirement stage or phase, which is at the age of fifty. According to Savickas and Lent (1994), the crystallization phase falls between the ages of fourteen to eighteen, specification from eighteen to twenty-one, twenty-one to twenty-four being the implementation stage, twenty-four to thirty-five characterizing the stabilization stage, and consolidation at the age of thirty-five and above.

During the crystallization phase, the individual develops ideas about work out of their already existing global self-concept. The adolescent then narrow down their choices and take initiative to enter some type of occupation in the specification stage of the self-conceptualization process of
career development. The implementation stage is when adults complete their educational training and enter the job market. This is followed by the stabilization stage when the adolescent identifies and makes a specific and appropriate career, and finally the consolidation stage where the individual seeks to advance their careers and reach higher status positions. A typical example is that of a musician or an actor with some level of formal education seeking higher and career specific education in order to upgrade skills.

In making a vocational choice individuals are expressing their self-concept, or understanding of one’s self, which evolves over time. Individuals seek career satisfaction through work roles in which they can better express themselves and further implement and develop their self-concept. Super argues that occupational preferences and competences, coupled with the individual’s life situation changes with time and experience, hence the development of the concept of occupational maturity.

The third occupational choice theory is the Holland’s Personality type theory also known as the Holland’s career typology, developed by John Holland in 1959. The theory argues that effort should be made to match an individual’s career choice with his or her personality (Holland, 1973, 1987). According to the theory, individuals who choose or enter into an occupation that fits their personality are more likely to enjoy that particular occupation and stay in it for a longer period of time than individuals who work at jobs that don’t suit their personality (Osankinle, 2010). The theory identifies six (6) basic personalities and environments that need to be considered when matching the individual’s psychological make-up to a career. The personality and environment types include realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional type.
Holland (1958 and 1985) argued that personality traits have an impact on vocational choice and proposed this model containing six personality and work environment types known as Holland type or RIASEC (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional). This type is frequently used in vocational counselling to achieve the optimal match between employer and the employee. Blau et al (1956) introduced a conceptual framework which contained psychological, economic, and sociological factors to explain occupational choice.

According to Jones (2002) on Holland’s theory and career choice, the theory proposes that “Birds of the same feather flock together”. Thus, people like to be around people who are like them in terms of personality (i.e. people like those who like them). Jones (2002) argued that most people are of the six personality types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional (RIASEC) and that people like people who are like them: i.e. social people are more attracted to making friends and working with social people.

Jones (2002) explained further that, people of same personality enjoy working together because it creates a work environment that fits their type. There are also six basic types of work environment: ‘riasec” and individuals are more likely to be successful and satisfied if they choose to work in an environment similar to their personality type. This is depicted in figure 2.1 below.
The first of the personality type, realistic, is the personality type of individuals who like to work with animals, tools, machines; and they generally avoid social activities like communication, teaching, healing, etc. They have good skills in working with tools, machines, plants and animals, and electrical. They value practical things and they regard themselves as practical, mechanical and realistic and like to engage in physical work or things\(^1\).

The investigative are the types who like to engage in thinking, problem solving, and scientific activities. They are logical in nature and generally avoid leading, selling or persuading people. They are good at understanding and solving scientific and logical problems. They value science and see themselves as precise, scientific and intellectual. This is followed by the artistic personality type people.

\(^1\) www.careerkey.org/english
Individuals with good artistic abilities in writing, drama, music, dance, craft, etc and generally avoid highly ordered or repetitive activities are said to have realistic personality. They like to do creative things like art, drama, craft, dance, music or creative writing. They value creative art and see themselves as expressive, original and independent. Musicians and actors (actress) fall under this category or personality type.

People who like to do things to help people in one way or the other, like teaching, counselling, nursing, or giving information as said to be more of the social type. They are good at teaching, nursing, counselling and giving information. They generally avoid using machines, tools, or animals to achieve goals. They value helping people and solving social problems and sees themselves as helpful, friendly, and trustworthy.

The Enterprising type likes to lead and persuade people, and to sell things and ideas. They generally avoid activities that require careful observation and scientific, analytical thinking. They value success in politics, leadership or business and they see themselves as energetic, ambitious, and sociable.

Lastly, people who like to work with records, numbers, machines in a set and orderly way are conventional in nature. They value success in business and see self as orderly and good at following a set plan. They generally avoid ambiguous and unstructured activities. They are also good at working with written records and numbers in a systematic and orderly manner.

The interactive nature of the various personality types (RIASEC) is depicted in the hexagonal diagram in figure 2.2 below. From the figure below is a hexagonal view created by Holland to show the relationship of personality types. Personality types closer to each other are more alike.
(i.e. social and investigative types are closer to artistic). However, personality types further away are least alike (i.e. conventional is further away from the artistic type). For instance a musician or actor who is artistic in nature according to the hexagonal is also social and investigative than conventional.

Figure 2.2: RIASEC (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional)

RIASEC


Just as there are personality types, there are corresponding environment types within which each and every personality will well fit or adjust. The various environment types are the “riasec”, as personality type people create their environment types.
The realistic environment is the one with dominant realistic personality type people. An example of a realistic environment is a construction site since there will be more people having realistic personality than the other types. Examples of occupations that have realistic environments are: farmer, flight engineer, electrician, carpentry, locksmith, forester, among others. The conventional and Investigative environments types are the closest to the Realistic type, with the Social types being the farthest away.

An example of an Investigative environment is a scientific laboratory where there are likely to be more persons with Investigative personality than there will be people who are enterprising type personality. Chemist, Mathematician, Meteorology, Physician, Dentist, Architect, Surveyor, Pharmacist, etc. are some of the occupations that have an Investigative environment. Realistic and artistic environments are the closest to this type of environment whereas the enterprising type is the farthest away.

Artistic environment type is the one with more artistic type people than the other personality type people. Occupations like Dancer, Book editor, Actor, Graphic designer, Musician, Comedian, etc. creates or have an artistic environment. The two work environments closest to the realistic type are Investigative and Social. The farthest away is the Conventional type. Social worker, Counsellor, Parole engineer, Librarian, Nurse, Athletic Trainer, Teacher, etc. are some of the occupations that have Social work environment. The two work environments closest to the Social type are enterprising and artistic. The farthest away is the realistic type.

Also in a business or legal setting, there will be more persons of “enterprising” personality than there will be people who have a investigative type. Enterprising types value people who are
energetic, ambitious, and sociable, people who are good at politics, leading people, and selling things or ideas. Enterprising people create an enterprising environment. Examples of enterprising people are Auctioneer, Sales person, Judge, School principal, Hotel manager, newscaster, Lawyer, etc. The two work environments closest to the Enterprising type are Social and Conventional. The farthest away is the Investigative type.

Last is the Conventional work environment type where there are likely to be more persons having conventional personality than there will be people with Artistic type. An example of a conventional environment is the banking environment or Real Estate Company. The two work environments closest to the conventional type are realistic and enterprising. The farthest away is the Artistic environment type. Secretary, Post Office Clerk, Book Keeper, Bank Teller, Mail Carrier, Typists, are some examples of occupations that have Conventional environment.

In summary, most people in reality, are a combination of types – example, Social-Artistic, Investigative-Conventional, etc. Therefore, one will probably want to look at occupation in more than one category. For instance, a musician or actor is Artistic-Social or Artistic-Investigative in nature. The various personality types and their corresponding compatible work environment is shown in table 2.1 (Compatible Work Environment) below.
Table 2.1: Compatible Work Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Type</th>
<th>Most Compatible Environment</th>
<th>Compatible Environment</th>
<th>Least Compatible Environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Realistic</td>
<td>Realistic</td>
<td>Investigative &amp; Conventional</td>
<td>Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative</td>
<td>Investigative</td>
<td>Realistic &amp; Artistic</td>
<td>Enterprising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic</td>
<td>Artistic</td>
<td>Investigative &amp; Social</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Artistic &amp; Enterprising</td>
<td>Realistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprising</td>
<td>Enterprising</td>
<td>Social &amp; Conventional</td>
<td>Investigative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>Enterprising &amp; Realistic</td>
<td>Artistic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Another career choice or development theory is the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT). Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) is an all-inclusive system more capable of fully classifying individual career development process developed by Lent et al (1994). According to Kelly (2009), SCCT was conceptualized as a derivative of Bandura’s (1986) General Social Cognitive Theory (GSCT). Lent et al (1994), basing on the nature of Bandura’s work expanded the analysis to focus extensively on the development of the individual within the context of career. The work of Hackett and Betz (1981) which focused on career development of women was also incorporated in the analysis of Lent et al. in which case the concept of self-efficacy was initially identified as a significant variable or factor in career development. They further attempted to merge some aspect of theoretical frameworks previously developed and advanced by other renowned career theorists.

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1 These included works like Person-error correspondence by Davis & Lofquist (1984), Social learning (Krumboltz, Mitchel, & Jones, 1976), Life-span, life-space (Super, 1990), Personality typology by Holland (1985), etc.
The three (3) basic SCCT models is said to be developed as a means to understand the ways in which career and academic interest are formed, career choice are implemented, and career performance outcomes are achieved (Lent et al. 1994). Gibbson (2004) argues that the SCCT which is guided in and derived from Albert Bandura’s GSCT (1986), explores how career and academic interests mature, how career choices are developed, and how these developed career choices are turned into action. According to the theory, achievement of these three is based on three (3) tenets of career development, namely Self-efficacy, Outcome expectations, and Personal goals.

Self-efficacy is the belief people have about their ability to successfully complete the steps required for a given task. It is the measure of one’s own ability to complete tasks and reach goals. Self-efficacy affects every area of human endeavour. Albert Bandura (1986) sees self-efficacy as one’s belief to succeed in specific situations. It is seen as the beliefs a person hold regarding him or her power to affect situations. It also strongly influences both the power a person actually has to face challenges completely and the choice a person is most likely to make and it represents the personal perception of external social factors.

The outcome expectations describe the beliefs related to the consequences of performing a specific behaviour or task. Typically, outcome expectations are rationally formed and sometimes adaptively, thus through past experiences, either direct or vicarious, all relevant information considered and the perceived results of these expectations. This explains why usually people are seen to avoid tasks where self-efficacy is low, but undertake tasks where self-efficacy is high. Self-efficacy beyond actual ability leads to overestimation of the ability to complete tasks (over ambitiousness). The reverse discourages growth and development. Research has shown that the
optimum level of self-efficacy is slightly above ability, in which case people are most encouraged to tackle challenging tasks and gain experience\textsuperscript{1}. A goal however is the decision to follow a particular activity or future plan. According to Lent et al (1994), behaviour is organised or sustained based on these previously set goals, and goals are seen to play primary role in behaviour.

This theory describes the acquisition of skills that are developed exclusively or primarily within a social group or context. It depends on how individuals either succeed or fail at group dynamics, and promotes the development of individual emotional and practical skills as well as accurate perception of self and acceptance of others. According to the theory, and as the name connotes, people learn from one another through observation, limitation, and modelling. However, self-efficacy reflects the individuals’ understanding of what skills he or she can offer in a group setting.

\subsection{Empirical Literature}

Many studies attempt to find out the factors that are related to labour market outcomes. Some of the studies in labour economics literature also address issues of occupational choice and non-pecuniary factors using various econometric models like the Multinomial logit and probit model, and several other models.

There has been considerable interest in the analysis of the occupational choice of individuals over the last decade. (Brown et al, 2005). According to Harper and Haq (1997), “the occupational attainment of an individual will be a major determinant of their levels of consumption, self-esteem, and their general status in society,” (p. 638).

\textsuperscript{1} www.phobias.about.com/od/glossary/g/cognitivethedef.htm
Findings from Humlum et al, (2010) indicates that there are clear economically significant effects of identity on planned educational choices and that there exists also important gender differences in how identity affects these choices, both in terms of the direction and the size of the effects. According to them, “these findings can better explain the observed heterogeneity in occupational choices than standard economic models, including some of the observed gender differences”

Humlum et al (2009) formulated a model based on the works of Akerlof & Kranton (2000). In the model choice of level and field of education is said to be motivated by pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors where people are said to choose some level or field of education because it pays off in terms of high expected future income and also in terms of identity which is as a result of more rewarding self-image. The choice of field of education was analysed using a multinomial logit model to the field category whilst a logit model of the choice of life-cycle higher education (5+ years college) versus short and medium-cycle education (2-4 years college) was employed in analysing the planned level of education.

The data used was the PISA-Longitudinal (PISA-L) which is a combined data consisting of the Danish part of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2000 survey (PISA), a follow-up survey in 2004 (PISA-FUS), and the Danish register data (REG) on the PISA youth and their parents. The PISA-L consisted of individuals born in 1984 who were enrolled in education in 2000. The sample consisted of subsampling from PISA which consisted of individuals who had completed or were enrolled in high school education in 2004 and was referred to by the researchers as the high school sample.
According to the results from Humlum et al. (2009), it implied that the education policy and school reforms should not only take into account financial incentives, but also identify issues like rethinking the educational content or extra-curricular activities to be directed at the type of students the educator wants to attract. This shows the significance of non-wage factors in the occupational choice process.

Wells et al., (2009) also in examining the effects of personality factors, parental social status, and Human Capital on the attainment of a white collar occupation employed the binary probability model to analyse the conditional probability by estimating a random effects probability model using Household Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) panel survey data.

The findings revealed that education plays a significant role in white collar occupations and that parental status also produces interesting effects on individual occupational outcomes. With regards to human capital theory, both age and education were found to have a significant influence on occupational attainment, where university education, such as Bachelor, Graduate Diploma, Master and Doctorate, and non-university tertiary education of an advanced diploma all increase the probability of an individual attaining a white collar occupation.

Conversely, it can be inferred that with football career, which is obviously a blue collar occupation, an individual’s choice to enter football reduces as one climbs higher on the educational ladder.

A study by Udoh and Sanni (2012) also revealed that (using a chi-square at p≤0.05 level of significance), the parent variables exert influence on the career choice of Secondary School students of that area. The study employed the simple random sampling technique in obtaining data from a sample of 200 SS3 students from 11 public secondary schools in Nigeria.
This observation is confirmed by Onyefiuwu (1980) who maintains that it would be wrong for one to assert that the family has completely lost its influence on the vocational life of its members because directly or indirectly, it still has that influence.

Jewel (1997) found that the most significant influences to African Americans choice of teaching profession were related to teachers as role models, family support, altruism, the intangible benefits of teaching, and the love for vocational professions. The study interviewed twelve (12) college students at six (6) campuses in two (2) South-eastern states who were preparing to become vocational teachers. The purpose of this study was to identify the factors that influence African Americans to become vocational teachers; and of the sample frame, 6 were students from Historically Black College and Universities and the other 6 were from predominantly white universities.

Parental background which is the first agent of socialization plays a major role in the career choice of individuals in the sports and entertainment industry. According to Borchert (2002), parent’s educational background may influence an individual’s view as to whether or not to continue their education. Parents may have demanded that the individual assume a particular occupation, or the individual may have been influenced by the occupation of parents.

According to Jewel (1997), most of the individuals interviewed in Gordon’s study (1995) showed that their decision to enter into teaching was due to the influences of family members, teachers, or friends, where over 50% of the participants in the study stated their decision had its roots in family (parental background). The significance of parents and parental background which is the first point of socialization contact for the individual cannot be overruled.
In some cases, an individual’s decision to join a particular occupation may be informed by the performance of parents in their occupation in terms of income and social status (Baah-Boateng, 2009). In Ghana, a likely example of parental background influence on career choice is that of the Ayew family (family of former Black Stars of Ghana’s captain whose three sons are all professional footballers). Two of his sons (Jordan and Dede Ayew) are all playing in Abedi’s former club in France (Marsel Football Club).

We inherit beliefs, goals values, behavioural attitudes and dreams from our families. This inheritance can greatly affect individual career choices. Certain career choices may be presented as part of a child’s duty to family, their genes or part of their destiny. “Family life has an important bearing on occupational life” Blau and Duncan (1967).

Amerson (2012) in a related study, argues that in the development of equitable curriculum and the enhancement of culturally responsive educational practices, it is necessary to understand how the role of identity and the perceived expectations of parents and teachers influence the occupational choice of young white southern males living in a rural context. People land themselves in a particular occupation not because they have the passion to.

The influence of parents who are regarded as the first agent of socialization plays a very strong role in an individual’s career choice. In a similar vein, Baah-Boateng (2009), argued that, influence of family background is evident in a typical Ghanaian society where children are seen learning some informal occupation from parents and taking over in future. This also confirms the significance of parental background variables in occupational choice of individuals. Concerning the parental background influence on occupational choice of an individual, Baah-Boateng (2009)
came out with the findings that there is 11% high probability of choosing production occupation as against 8% and 5% high probability of entering into agriculture and sales occupation respectively as an influence of mother on the occupational decision of an individual in Ghana.

Bofa (2012) also pointed out that parental occupation affect an individual choice of occupation where the effects differ from sexes. His findings indicate that the effect of a father’s occupation is positive for the employment choice of all male and negative for all female except for agriculture employment. Mother’s occupation was also found to positively affect the employment choice of all females and negative for all male.

Connolly et al (1992) using a sample of British males from the National Child Development Study (NCDS) to explore the barrier to entry into a particular occupation, came out with the finding that family background is the key determinant of occupational success with educational attainment being used by employers as entry requirement to certain occupations.

In extending the analysis of Connolly et al (1992), Harper and Haq (1997) analysed the occupational attainment of men aged 33 from a sample drawn from the same NCDS. The findings also confirmed that family background has an important influence on occupational attainment.

Becker and Tomes (1979, 1986) argued that earnings capacity and shared occupational choices are transmitted partly genetically and influenced partly through upbringing. Further studies suggest that young people are more likely to choose occupations similar to their parents as they are more capable of assessing their ability to succeed in a familiar occupation. This is also accorded by a
research by Solon (1999) that, the level of earnings and the occupational choices of parents and those of their children have been shown to have a positive correlation.

Peil (1973) demonstrated that there is relatively small influence of formal education on the occupational aspirations of the vast majority of the population who do not get as far as Secondary School level. The study used a stratified random sampling sample of a number of twenty-two (22) middle schools throughout the country, Ghana, who were asked what job they wanted to do and what work they expected to find.

A similar study conducted by the Statistical Training Centre (STC) which collected data on the employment and further education of cohorts using stratified random samples of two hundred (200) middle schools throughout the country in 1964 and 1965 provided information that can be related to the amount of schooling they obtained.

Nacer-eddine & Moundir (2011) using the employment surveys by the National Office of Statistics (NOS) in Australia (employment surveys 1997 & 2007) applied the model of discrete choice (binary logistic regression) and Segmentation technique in the data processing and analysis. Out of the four major findings from the study, the first one showed the correlation between education and training, and occupational choice. It revealed that determines the participation of women in the labour market whereas age determines that of men.

Nyaga (2010) accords with the view that parental background of parents play a role in the career choice process of an individual in Kenya. According to Nyaga (2010), education attainment is a primary factor in labour market participation and earnings determination.
The study used a multinomial logit model and selection-corrected earnings model in its analysis, and finds that attainment of higher levels of education is related to a greater likelihood of working in the private or public sector relative to working in the informal sector. This means that whereas the well-educated tends to prefer private or public sector jobs, the less educated appears to be predisposed to the informal sector.

In Hennessey and Rehman (2007), a multinomial logit model and a stratified random sample of 1200 Irish farms was used and the result showed a significant negative relationship between higher education and the choice of full-time farming as an occupation. Here, the independence between education and occupational choice is explored using the bivariate probit model. The estimated model was significant at 1% level as measured by the likelihood test ratio.

The findings of Miller and Volker (1985) from incorporation of family background into their analysis of occupational choice confirms educational attainment to be an important determinant of first type of job as well as occupational advancement, whilst controlling for family values and culture. The analysis was based on the 1973 Australian Occupational Mobility Survey.

Dolton and Mavromaras (1994) in a research to determine graduate occupational choice and the decision to become a teacher in the UK conducted a conditional and unconditional Probit analysis. The results from the unconditional model indicate that educational attainment, parent’s educational attainment and public schooling determine occupational choice.

Nieken & Stormer (2010) investigates the influence of personality traits on occupational choice by using a large and representative data from the 2005 wave of the German Socio-Economic Panel
(GSOEP). The GSOEP provides a wide range of information on the living and working condition of individuals and their representative households, including information on their socio-economic background as well as working conditions and employer’s characteristics along with measures of attitudes and personality. The researchers employed a multinomial logit model in its analysis where the model is estimated to investigate the influence of personality on occupational choice as employed by Cameron & Trivedi (2009); and Constant & Zimmermann (2003).

They applied a multinomial regression since the independent variable (occupation) is a nominal variable with six different outcomes. The model was used to differentiate male managers, professionals, technicians, service workers, clerks, and manual workers with respect to their personality as measured by the Big Five (extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience). Findings from this work indicated that manual workers are less extraverted, more conscientious as well as less agreeable and open than employees from most other occupational groups.

Formal education and training in Africa countries, as elsewhere is given credit for a wide range of influence on the students who pass through it. It is also considered by some as the key to social changes in attitudes and beliefs, the basis of a stable democratic political system and the cause of mass migration and unemployment (Peil, 1973). Formal education and training is defined in the context of schooling in general with regards to the courses studied and the nature of school.

Education and training provides the platform and opportunity for individuals to explore their talents and even learn new skills that are required in the job market. It makes available the necessary infrastructure, facilities and the right expertise in the training process. For example, the
possibility of a student offering Bachelor of Fine Arts (BFA) in music, dance, theatre arts, etc. to become a musician, actor (actress) is very high as these individuals are exposed to diverse facilities and varying conditions.

Baah-Boateng (2009) also confirmed the influence of education on the career choice of an individual. Findings from Baah-Boateng (2009) indicates that higher education tend to discourage people from choosing agriculture as an occupation. His result showed a negative relationship between higher educational level and agriculture as an occupation. Thus, individuals with secondary school or better had at least 27% lower probability of engaging in agriculture as against 15% lower probability for those with middle or junior high school education.

A study by Bofa (2012) in his work, “determinants of employment status for men and women in Ghana also made some contribution to literature in this regard. The work revealed that education affect one’s choice of employment and this effect is stronger in paid occupation than self-employment.

Study by Quimby & Desantis (2006) to investigate the influence of self-efficacy and role model on career choice of 368 undergraduate female students whose age ranged from 18 to 25 years across J.L. Holland’s (1997) six RIASEC (Realist, Investigation, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional) type. Of the 368 participants, 82% were whites, 0.3% were Latino/Hispanic, 4% African American, 4.7% Asian American, 1% Biracial, and 4% indicated their ethnicity as “other” with 1 participant not responding to the questions. Also 64% of them were freshmen, 18% sophomores, 11% juniors, 7% seniors with 75% of the students enrolled as full-time undergraduate students.
The Skill Confidence Inventory (SCI; Betz et al 1996) was used to measure occupational self-efficacy for each of the six RIASEC types. With role model influence, a revised version of Influence of other on Academic and Career Decision Scale (Nauta & Kokaly, 2001) was used in measuring the degree and type of role model influence on career choice. Also a 5-Likert Type Scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) was used to evaluate the amount of inspiration and role modelling students perceive from Influential others when making career decisions. The research came out with a finding that showed that levels of self-efficacy and role model influence differed across Holland types.

Bakshi et al (2012) used a mixed method survey (both qualitative and quantitative method) to examine the influence of career choice as perceived by youths in Mumbai. In a purposive sampling of 65 youths for the study, 18 to 25 years, and one coming from at least a minimum of middle-income family was used as an eligibility criteria in the selection of respondents for the study.

The work employed interview as instrumental procedure to solicit contact, background, and other relevant information for the purpose of the study and added a 5-point Likert Scale which ranged from 1 (least important) to 5 (most important). In the mixed (quantitative and qualitative) data analysis, the relevant t-statistics (t-test, chi-square test, Pearson’s r) were computed. The thick description, which is a strategy that allows for data interpretation at first-hand, was used in the qualitative data analysis.

Results from Bakshi et al (2012) showed that 62 out of 65 (which is 98.39%) of the respondents or participants had decided on a career choice. The study also came out with the finding concerning how the youth ranged the importance of the various choice factors where the mean rating for self
was the highest. 80% of the participants indicated that self-played the most important role in their career choice, followed by parents (with 43% and 42% for father and mother respectively), and 31% for teachers. Professional career guidance was the least ranked of the factors. 84.62% rated professional career guidance as the least important with justification being that it was due to non-use. Out of the participants, only 2 of the youths had had sorted professional career guidance with the college counsellors, where for 3 of the participants, career guidance experience was not helpful. Evidence from the survey showed that 80% of the participants had no experience of such sort.

Contrary to the influence of parents in career choice process, especially in the teaching profession is the study by Newby et al (1995). The study by Newby et al (1995) administered to a sample of 863 students of colour, “the teaching as a career Inventory”. Findings from the study showed that female value the teaching profession and even rated the profession as more important than the male counterparts. The influence of significant others on the pursuit of teaching career was reported by more males than female. On overall findings however, it was shown that a higher percentage of the sample reported that their decision to pursue teaching profession was influenced by no one.

Wright et al (1995) conducted a similar study on the graduating class of 146 students at McGill University. The researchers defined role model “as a person considered as a standard of excellence to be imitated”. 136 out of the 146 graduating medical students in the class of 1995 participated. A pilot study was conducted to ensure clarity on a 60-item questionnaire designed for the study. Responses on the questions were binary (in the form of yes or no), rank order, or a 3-point rating scale from 0 (not important) to 2 (very important). The Odds ratio (ORs) was used in testing the
hypothesis and a 95% confidence interval on the ORs were obtained. Median was used as the measure of central tendency for the rank order data.

From the analysis, there was a 93% response rate (136 out of 146 participation), with 43% being female and 25.4 years being the average age of the respondents. The 10 non-respondents had similar characteristics as that of the respondents. Also 96% of the students had identified a role model(s) during medical school. 90% of students identified one or more physicians as role models, where 63% of the students received guidance and counselling from their role models.

Also high results from the ORs proved that exposure to role models in a particular clinical field had strong correlation with medical students’ choice of clinical field for residency training. 57% of the respondents reported that their role model(s) were influential in their choice of clinical field for residency training, and 61% claimed their relationship resulted in personal growth and development.

Further, the students in ranking the six important factors (personality, clinical skills and competence, teaching ability, area of specialty, research experience and publications, and position or academic rank) in selecting their role models, ranked personality first with median rank of 1 and mean of 1.7. This was followed by clinical skills and competence with median rank of 2, mean of 2.0, and teaching ability (median rank of 2, mean of 2.2). These were the three most important attributes of role models the students considered in the role model selection. These were followed by the three significantly less important factors in order of ranking as area of specialty, research experience and publications, and academic position with their respective median rank and mean of (4,4.3), (5,5.1) and (5,5.3).
Simpson (1996) using 238bar-certified African American women lawyers as a sample conducted a study to determine the factors influencing the choice of law as a profession by African American women. The study came out with an overall finding that showed that family, cultural values and positive role models have significant impact on the career choice or career development process of these women.

Entertainment and sports in Ghana are occupations that can easily make one recognized in society apart from politics. In Ghana and world over, people know their footballers, movie icons, and musicians than they know their politicians. It is relatively easier to attain social status or recognition with these professions (football, music, and acting) than other professions like banking, teaching, marketing, etc. People watch televisions, read the print media and they identify role models and people they want to become with regards to their social status.

2.3 Summary

In summary, even though wage determinants dominate the literature in labour economics, there is a strand which focuses on occupational choice which has identified non-pecuniary factors as important determining factor (Well et al, 2009). This literature review indicate that career choice process has been approached from a lot of perspectives. The review pointed out the many factors that influence one’s choice of occupation. It also established the fact that education and training, parental background variables, the environment or geographical context, passion and interest among others play significant role in the career choice process of individuals. However, the purpose of this study is to identify the non-pecuniary factors in the occupational choice process of individuals in the entertainment and sports industry in Ghana. The next chapter will explain the methodology employed in the study.
CHAPTER THREE

OVERVIEW OF THE GHANAIAN LABOUR MARKET

3.0 Introduction

Occupation is the act of occupying or the state of being occupied. It is also an activity on which time is spent\(^1\). According to Elias (1997), occupation implies the description of the general way in which the individual use time, rather than what one may be doing at a specific moment. This section will look at the Ghanaian Labour market in general and the socioeconomic characteristic of the Ghanaian labour market and how the various occupational classifications.

3.1 Labour Force and Employment

The labour force comprises of people aged 15 years and older who meet the International Labour Organization (ILO) definition of the economically active population. The ILO defines the economically active population as people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified time period. The labour force people both employed and unemployed. It includes the armed forces, the unemployed, and the first time job seekers, but excludes home makers and the other unpaid caretakers and workers in the informal sector.

Employment classification can be by occupation, status of employment, industry, and the sector of employment. Currently, Ghana’s population as at July 2012 stands at 24,652,402\(^2\) with a 9,802,989 total labour force. The agricultural sector accounts for 60% of the total labour force whilst Industry and Services have 15% and 25 respectively. The Ghanaian working population consist of 47.5% and 52.5% of males and females respectively. This shows the dominance of

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\(^1\) Encarta dictionary, 2009  
\(^2\) [www.indexmundi.com/ghana/demographics_profile.html](http://www.indexmundi.com/ghana/demographics_profile.html) – Estimate explicitly take into account the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS: because this results in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality, high death rates, and lower population growth rates.
females in the Ghanaian Labour market. However, the Males tend to be more effective than their female counterparts in the Ghanaian labour market.

Labour force participation rate is the proportion of the working-age population who are economically active (gainfully employed). The labour force participation rate for the ages 15 – 24 was 38.6% as of 2011. The highest value over the past 21 years was recorded in 2000 (53.9%) and the lowest value was 38.6% in 2010.  

3.1.1 Employment Sector by Sex

In Ghana one must work either in the formal or informal sector. According to Otoo et al (2009), an estimated number of 250,000 young people enter the labour market every year. Out of this number, the formal sector employs just about 5000 (2%) while the remaining 245,000 (98%) are forced to seek employment in the informal economy.

The sectorial classification of occupation consist of the formal and the informal sectors and it is a broader classification of labour in Ghana. In the formal sector, there are laid down procedures of operations both by regulatory bodies, national constitutions and there internal policies within organizations. According to Baah-Boateng and Turkson (2005a), the formal sector is a recorded employment which employs five or more workers in an establishment employing. The formal sector is highly regulated and pension security related

A broader classification of employment is according to sectors. It include the formal private, formal public and the informal sectors which this paper will adopt in it analysis. The GSS (2008)

1 www.indexmundi.com/facts/ghana/labor-participation-rate
revealed that 80.3% of people employed are engaged in the informal sector while almost 19% in the formal sector both private and public

According to Baah-Boateng (2009), the sex distribution by sector indicates men are highly represented in the formal sector than women and women have higher representation than men in the informal sector. Results from Baah-Boateng showed that men had higher representation in all sectors during the years 1988, 2000, 1991/2, and 1998/92 where the percentage representation of men were 15.7, 11.8, 10.5, and 9.8 as against 4.9, 6.3, 3.6, and 3.3 per cents for females in the respective years. Data from his results suggests that the proportion of men and women engaged in the public sector consistently declined as against the rising share of both men and women in the private sector between the years of 1991 and 2006. The results for the year 2005/05 is depicted in Table 3.1. Table 3.1 (a) is an extract from the Distribution of Employment sector by sex, 1984 – 2006 in Baah-Boateng (2009).

However table 3.1 (b) shows the current figures for the sex distribution by sector from the 2010 Population and Housing census (PHC) of Ghana. From the table it is clear that women still have a higher representation in the informal sector (90.9%) than their male counterparts (81.0%) while the men also dominate the formal sector, having a higher representation in both the public and private formal sectors. The men have 8 and almost 10 per cent representation in the public and private formal sectors respectively as against almost 5 and 4 per cent for the females. Again, results from the table indicates that men dominates the other three sectors by 0.1, 0.4, and 0.1 for the Semi-public, NGO and International organizations respectively.
### Table 3.1 (a): Distribution of Employment Sector by Sex 2005/06

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Sector</th>
<th>GLSS 5</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Formal</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td></td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>91.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Count**¹

6,863 5,512

**Source:** Extract from Baah-Boateng (2009)

### Table 3.1 (b): Distribution of Economically Active Population by Sex and Employment Sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Sector</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL COUNT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>412,046</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private formal</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>499,715</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private informal</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>4,096,891</td>
<td>90.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-public/Parastatal</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>9,959</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO (Local and International)</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>34,850</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Organizations</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3,387</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,056,848</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Author’s computation from 2010 PHC of Ghana

### 3.1.2 Age Distribution of the Working-Age Population

The working age population in Ghana is mostly characterized by population within the mid-teens and the early thirties. Those within 15 and 35 years category are officially and internationally recognized as the youth population and they make up the bulk of the country’s working-age population. From the GLSS 5 data in table 3.2 below it clearly shows that the youth population

¹ The total count figures a in millions
make up 62% of the total working population. It also indicates that 35.3% fall within the 15 and 24 age bracket.

According to Otoo et al (2009), despite the youthful nature of Ghana’s population, it is also evident that the population growth rate of the youthful class is far greater than the national population growth rate. They made reference to the 6.5% growth rate of the youthful population between the year 2000 and 2005 as against 1.2% national population growth rate during the same period.

Table 3.2: Age Distribution of the Working Age Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Youth(15-24)</td>
<td>7202</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young people(25-35)</td>
<td>5424</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young adults(36-50)</td>
<td>5355</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>88.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults(51-60)</td>
<td>2062</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aged(61-64)</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20398</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Otoo et al, 2009

3.1.3 Employment by Occupation and Sex

Occupational classification of employment is put into ten main categories according to the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2008). The classification includes Legislator & Manager, Professional, Technician & Associate Professional, Clerk, Services/Sales worker, Agriculture & Fishery worker, Craft & Related trade worker, Plant & Machine operator, Elementary occupation and Armed Forces/ Security personnel.

In the sex distribution of occupation in Ghana, Baah-Boateng (2009) indicates that, in the non-agriculture occupations, women are underrepresented in better paid occupations such as
managerial, professional, technical and clerical occupations but are mostly engaged in services and sales occupation. This is also evident in table 3.3 where the men account for 2.5%, 6.7%, 2.9% and 1.6% as against 2.4, 4.1, 0.9 and 31.6 per cent for women in managerial, professional, technical and clerical occupations respectively. However women dominant in service and sales works with 31.6 per cent representation with less than 11% for men.

The economy of Ghana is predominantly agrarian having the agriculture sector employing majority of the country’s labour force. This is followed by services and sales work. This is evident in the PHC estimation presented in table 3.3 below. From the table the agriculture, forestry and fisheries engages the bulk of the labour force in both sexes (45% males and 37.8% females) with a total 41.3%. Services and sales works employs more than 21% of the labour force with craft and related trade works employing more than 15% according to the PHC estimation of the labour force by sex and occupation. These three occupations accounts for more than 85% of Ghana’s total employment.

3.1.4 Employment by Employment Status and Sex

Employment by status is classified as Employee, Employer, Self-employed, Contributing Family worker, Apprentice and others. Baah-Boateng (2009), female representation (measured by share of women) in paid employment has witnessed consistent improvement since 1970. He indicated that female participation increased from less than 7% in 1970 to 9.7% in 2000 with male participation declining from 35% to 22% within the same period. His estimation of the GLSS data further indicated that between 1991 and 2006 the share of both sexes in paid employment improved with the men doing better than the women. The share of women increased from its 2000 figure to 8% in 2006 while that of men increased to 25%.
Table 3.3: Distribution of the Economically Active Population by Occupation and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Activity</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>Total Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislators and managers</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>128,661</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>338,057</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and associate professionals</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>144,694</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical support workers</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>81,282</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service and sales workers</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>517,370</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural, forestry &amp; fishery workers</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>2,273,112</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft and related trades workers</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>854,515</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant and machine operators</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>483,570</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary occupations</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>220,518</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other occupations</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>15,069</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Total**                               | 100.0   | 5,056,848 | 100.0  | 5,316,830 | 10,373,678 (**))

**Source:** Author’s Computation from 2010 PHC\(^2\) of Ghana

On the employment status, estimates from Baah-Boateng (2009) shows that relatively high proportion of women were contributing family workers. However in 1970 and 2000, both men and women’s representation in contributing family work decline with that of women declining at a faster rate than that of men.

In table 3.4, it is evident that the Author’s estimation of the GLSS 5 confirms the large share of women in self-employment (without employee) of 65.2% against 54.4 for their male counterparts. Also, there is a 14.3% share of women in the contributing family work with that of men at 8.7%.

The table reveals that there is a more or less equal representation of both sexes in domestic employment, apprenticeship and other employment types. It also indicates clearly that men are highly represented in the employee, self-employment with employee and casual work types than

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1 ** = 100% and figure in brackets are percentage figure.
2 PHC = Population & Houses Census
women. The figures show 25.3, 5.6, and 2.5 per cents for males against 11.4, 4.2, and 1.3 for females.

Table 3.4: Distribution of the Economically Active Population by Sex and Employment Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Status</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL COUNT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>1,279,830</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed without employees</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>2,748,801</td>
<td>65.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed with employees</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>283,205</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual worker</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>139,624</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributing family worker</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>440,525</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprentice</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>126,122</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic employee (house help)</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>29,265</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>9,476</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,056,848</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s Computation from 2010 PHC of Ghana

3.1.5 Employment by Occupation and Locality

According to Otoo et al (2009), agriculture and related activities employment of the rural workforce is much higher (74.2%) compared to urban areas (18.6%). The reverse is true for the proportion of people employed in services/sales occupations. The proportion of the urban workforce in service/sales (25.9%) is four times the corresponding figure in rural areas (6.3%). The men are more dominant in agriculture in all sectors (both rural and urban) while the women are also dominant in services and sales work in both sectors. This is evident in the table 3.5 presented below.
Table 3.5: Distribution of the Economically Active Population by Occupation and Locality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Occupation</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legislators and managers</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and associate professionals</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical support workers</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service and sales workers</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural, forestry &amp; fishery workers</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>74.2</td>
<td>55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft and related trades workers</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant and machine operators</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary occupations</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armed forces/security personnel</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Otoo et al, 2009

3.2 Unemployment by Gender, Locality and Age

Unemployment covers people who are out of work, want a job, have actively sought work in the previous four weeks and are available to start work within the next fortnight, or out of work and have accepted a job that they are waiting to start in the next fortnight\(^1\).

The Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) defined unemployment to include all persons who did not work but were actively seeking work or were available to take up work if offered one during the reference period of the survey (the last seven days prior to the survey). The unemployment rate is defined as “the number of people actively looking for a job divided by the labour force”\(^2\). The change in unemployment is said to depend mostly on the inflows made up of the new entrants and those moving between jobs. In Ghana, the unemployment rate averaged 12.1% between the year

\(^1\) ILO definition..... ILO (International Labour Organization)
\(^2\) [www.cepa.org.gh/researchpapers/youth73.pdf](http://www.cepa.org.gh/researchpapers/youth73.pdf)
2000 and 2005, reaching an all-time high of 12.9 % in December, 2006 and a record low of 11.2 % in December, 2001\(^1\). The unemployment rate for the working-age population in 2006 was estimated to be 5.8% based on the GSS definition of what constitutes unemployment. The unemployment distribution by age, sex and locality is depicted in table 3.6.

In table 3.6, urban unemployment which stands at 6.3% is almost four times higher than rural unemployment (1.6). According to Otoo et al (2009), unemployment was much higher in Accra than the other regions. Concerning the sex distribution of unemployment, urban male unemployment was slightly higher than that of their female counterparts (6.5% against 6.2%). However, rural unemployment among the female was 1.7%while that of the males is 1.4%. among the youthful working class also, the rate was higher within the 15 and 24 year age bracket (4.1%) than those in the 45 and 64 bracket (1.8). the table also indicates that unemployment affects the youth than the other age groups.

**Table 3.6: Unemployment rate by Gender, Locality and Age (percent)-2006**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Locality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-44</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-64</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Otoo et al, 2009
3.3 Summary

At the beginning of this chapter, the general nature of the Ghanaian labour market was reviewed under which the various categorization of the labour market and occupations where looked at. Economic figures relating to the labour market was also assessed in general with much reference to the 2010 PHC and the GLSS 5 report.
CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY AND EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

This section discusses the theoretical underpinnings of the study. It also discusses the research design with emphasis on the non-pecuniary variables, and the econometric technique employed in the study.

4.1 Model Formulation

The model formulation for this work takes the form of that employed by Baah-Boateng (2009) in estimating the determinants of occupational choice using a Multinomial Logit (MNL) approach. The only difference will be in terms of the occupational choice determining variables. This model focuses on only the supply side of the occupational choice process which in this work, is said to be influenced by geographical context, parental background, interest and passion, education and training, and role modelling variables. This section consists of the theoretical model, the method used in the data analysis and it also specifies the model employed.

4.1.1 Theoretical Framework

Occupational choice according to Baah-Boateng (2009) is an observed outcome of effective interaction between a prospective employee and the employer. According to Brown et al (2005), initial distribution of workers across occupations is determined by individual preferences, or supply-side factors.

Drawing on the MNL of occupational choice used in Baah-Boateng (2009), we formulate an occupational choice model. The study assumed that all available occupation types are potentially
principal occupations for any given individual such that one is assumed to engage in only one of the available occupations. We assume the utility index of the individual is given as

\[ U_{ij} = V_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} \]  

(1)

Where \( U_{ij} \) is the true utility of individual \( i \) for selecting the \( j \)th occupation, \( V_{ij} \) is the systematic utility (observed or deterministic) component derived by individual \( i \) for choosing occupation \( j \), and \( \varepsilon_{ij} \) being the portion of the utility unknown to the analyst, the unobserved, idiosyncratic or stochastic part.

The \( i \)th individual chooses to work in the \( j \)th occupation if the utility index, \( U_{ij} \) is greater than that of the utility derived from any other occupation. That is \( U_{ij} > \bar{U}_{ij} \) where \( \bar{U}_{ij} \) represents the utility derived by the individual for selecting any occupation other than the one selected.

4.1.2 The Multinomial Logit Model (MNL)

The Multinomial logit model (MNL) is the standard discrete choice approach used to analyse the determinants of occupational choice. The MNL is an “attractive approach being consistent with notions of random utility maximization, easy to specify and straightforward to estimate” (Brown et al, 2005)

The multinomial logit model is the simplest multinomial model proposed by Luce in 1959. This method is proposed for the study because of the nature of regressors employed in the model. The MNL is applied for models where regressors employed do not vary over alternatives. In this work however, the regressors (occupational factors) are the same across the alternatives (i.e. occupational choices).
The mathematical form of a discrete choice model is determined by the assumptions made regarding the error components of the utility function for each alternative. However the specific assumptions about the error term are that: the error components are extreme-value (or Gumbel) distributed, they are identically and independently distributed across alternatives; and also identically and independently distributed across observations/individuals.

The MNL gives the choice probabilities of each occupation as a function of the systematic portion of the utility of all the occupations. The general expression of the probability of choosing a particular occupation “j” from the set of J occupations is given as:

$$P_{ij} = \frac{e^{V_{ij}(j)}}{\sum_{j=1}^{J} e^{V_{ij}(j)}}$$

(2)

Where, \(P_{ij}\) = the probability of the decision-maker \(i\) choosing occupation \(j\)

\(V_{ij}\) = the systematic utility component derived by individual \(i\) for choosing occupation \(j\) as already defined.

Given that the utility index on each occupation type is given as

$$V_i(j) = X_i' \beta_j$$

(3)

Where, \(X_i\) = a vector occupational choice factors.

\(\beta_j\) = a vector of unknown parameters indexed on the utility function.

Substituting (3) into (2) gives the expected probability of the \(i\)th individual choice of occupation \(j\) among the \(k\) occupations as:

$$P_{ij} = \frac{e^{X_i' \beta_j}}{\sum_{i=1}^{J} e^{X_{ij}' \beta_j}}$$

(4)

The sum of all probabilities equals unity (i.e. \(\sum_{i=0}^{I} P_{ij} = 1\)). Putting (4) in terms of log-likelihood, we have the Log-Likelihood function (L) to be,
L(β) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{k} X_{i}' \beta_{j} - \ln (1 + e^{X_{i}' \beta_{j}})

(5)

Where \( X_{i} \) and \( \beta_{j} \) are already defined and \( \ln \) is the natural logarithm.

We then compute the selection probability for each occupation by maximizing equation (5) with respect to \( \beta_{j} \) for a given sample data we obtain the various parameter estimates.

4.1.3 Model Specification

The study proposes to estimate the following equation based on the theoretical framework discussed

\[ \text{OCC}_{i} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{3} \text{W}_{i} + \beta_{3} \text{AGE}_{i} + \beta_{3} \text{EDUT}_{i} + \beta_{6} \text{PAB}_{i} + \beta_{6} \text{GEOC}_{i} + \beta_{7} \text{ROM}_{i} + \beta_{8} \text{PASIN}_{i} + \beta_{9} \text{TAL}_{i} + \varepsilon \]

(6)

Where OCC = Occupation

\begin{align*}
\text{W} & = \text{Wage of the individual} \\
\text{AGE} & = \text{Age of the individual} \\
\text{EDUT} & = \text{highest level of Education and training of the individual} \\
\text{PAB} & = \text{Parental background of the individual} \\
\text{GEOC} & = \text{Geographical context or environment of the individual} \\
\text{ROM} & = \text{Role modelling} \\
\text{PASIN} & = \text{Passion and interest} \\
\text{TAL} & = \text{Talent}
\end{align*}

4.1.4 Description of Variables and Expected Signs

The dependent variable and its regressors are described in this section of the work. The a-priori signs of the various independent variables are explained and shown in table 4.1 below.
The dependent variable in the model is Occupation (OCC). The various occupations under consideration are football, music and acting which takes three values: 1 = acting, 2 = football, and 3 = music.

The Wage variable is measured in Ghana Cedis. However, due to the reluctance of some respondents to reveal their wages, the Likert Scale was adopted in capturing the effect of wage on the individual’s choice of occupation. Respondents were asked to choose from a range of values from 1 to 4 whether wage most influences their choice of occupation. These were re-coded into binary form of 1=Yes and 2=Otherwise. Wage is expected to positively influence an individual’s choice of occupation all things being equal.

The age variable is measured in years based on the individual’s last birthday. The age of the individual respondent fall within the 15-64 age bracket. It is expected that the coefficient of age is negative for football and mix for the other occupations. Unlike music and acting, football as a career has minimum age of entry, hence it is expected that the probability of engaging in football reduces at a higher age all things being equal.

Formal education and training is defined in the context of schooling in general with regards to the courses studied and the nature of school. The education variable has been categorized into 4 different dummies, i.e. No education, Basic, Secondary, and Tertiary, where No education is used as the reference class. The classification is to allow for the impact of the various levels of education on the occupational choice decision. An individual is expected not to engage in football as he or she climbs high the educational levels whiles the reverse is expected to apply for music and acting.
Parental background refers to parent’s occupation, parent’s attitude towards occupation, and type of parenting which could influence one’s choice of occupation. In the questionnaire, the individual was asked whether any of their parents have their line of occupation as a profession. This was dummied into 1 for Yes and zero otherwise. The expected sign for the coefficient of parental background for individuals with same occupation as parents to be positive for all occupations. This is because it is expected that an individual who has similar occupation as parent is likely to have been influenced by parent’s occupation.

In Ghana for example, people who lived in some suburbs had their career choices influenced by the geographical locality. The availability and easy access to some sports facilities, the structure of the area, settlement types, etc. The geographical context takes the value of 1 if the individual stayed close to his occupation enhancing environment (close contact), and zero for otherwise. However, the effect of the environmental context on one’s choice of football, music, or acting occupation is indeterminate as it depends largely on the nature of the environment.

The role model variable enters the model as continuous variables assuming values from 1 to 4. A number of empirical analysis have pointed out the effect of role model in the occupational choice process. Since role model is difficult to estimate, it was generated from the Likert scale where respondents were asked to choose between ranks of: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=Agree, and 4=strongly agree, whether role model play a significant role in their choice of occupation. In this study also, the effect of role model on the choice of the various occupations is expected to be positive for individuals with role models.
Again, passion and interest play major role in influencing an individual’s choice of occupation. Passion is an intense or overpowering emotion such as love, joy, hatred or anger or a strong like or enthusiasm for a subject or activity. Interest is defined as something that somebody enjoys doing. Talent is also defined as an unusual natural ability to do something well, especially in artistic areas that can be developed through training. Both interest and passion, and talent variables were dummied as 1 for yes and zero otherwise.

**Table 4.1: Explanatory variables and their expected signs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPLANATORY VARIABLES</th>
<th>FOOTBALL</th>
<th>MUSIC</th>
<th>ACTING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wage</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>+/-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and training</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental background</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>+/-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical context</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role model</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion and interest</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>+/-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talent</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Author’s expectations, 2013

The interest and passion variable also captured as a continuous variable in the model which assumes values of 1 to 4 just as the role model variable. The effect of passion and interest on the choice of occupation is undefined. The talent variables is also generated from the Likert scale.
where respondents were asked to choose between ranks of: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=Agree, and 4=strongly agree. These options were recoded into dummies of 2 variables were option 3 and 4 were collapsed to a dummy variable 1 for yes and option 1 and 2 into zero (otherwise). All things being equal, the effect of talent on the various occupations is expected to be positive. According to Murphy et al (1991), the allocation of talent has growth implications since talented people in the right jobs create positive human capital externalities. It is therefore expected that a talent well nurtured will lead to an appropriate choice of occupation ceteris paribus while the effect of interest and passion is ambiguous.

4.2 Source of Data and Descriptive Analysis

This study uses primary data as the main data source for the study. The focus of this work is the choice of occupation and its non-pecuniary determinants in the entertainment and sports industry. The method of data collection was basically a survey with questionnaire administration as the main survey instrument for primary data collection. The questionnaire was guided by the questionnaire designed by Udoh & Sanni (2012) and that of Borchert (2002). The questionnaires were intended to be answered with verbal instruction. It was easy to complete, easy to understand and had been designed to give the individual respondent a stimulus to reflect upon after the survey was completed.

Field operation started in the first week of December, 2012 with the pre-testing. This aided in the final drafting of the questionnaire. The second phase of the field work continued in the second week of May, 2013 upon final approval of the questionnaire and it continued for about seven weeks. The task of the interviewers was to interview some purposively sampled professionals from
the various industries while the field supervisor reviews the submitted questionnaires for completeness, accuracy, and consistency.

The data consisted of professionals in the entertainment and sports industry in Ghana, specifically footballers, musicians, and actors (actresses). It involved a purposive sampling of 50 footballers from the Accra division side of the local premier league, 50 musicians of all genres from the Musicians Association of Ghana (MUSIGA), 50 actors and actresses from Ghallywood and the National Theatre, making a total of 150 professionals for the study. The choice of the sampling size is informed by time and financial constraints. In all, 15 enumerators were employed by the researcher to conduct the survey by administering questionnaires to respective respondents.

The data gathered from the survey was analysed using the SPSS and STATA econometric software. The SPSS was used in the initial entering and coding of data from the questionnaire, while the STATA was used in recording and running the model.

### 4.2.1 Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Surveyed Individuals

As stated previously, a total of 150 professionals from the Entertainments and Sports industry were interviewed via phone and direct contact. Upon cross-examination of the questionnaires, the researcher realized that all responses were suitable hence all the 150 questionnaires were found suitable for analysis. Out of the 150 respondents, 32 individuals, representing 21.3% of the sample population were females and 118 (78.7%) were males. The corresponding gender representation in the various occupations is illustrated in the table 4.1 in appendix E.
The results also indicated that all respondents have some form of formal education. The educational level ranged from none to other, with none being the least and other\textsuperscript{1} the highest level of education as far as this research is concerned. The data on education revealed that 3.3\% have master’s degrees (others), and 31.3\% of the sample population had Senior Secondary Education. The majorities (34.0\%) of the respondents were reported to have Tertiary level education and those with the Primary level of education were 10\%. The distribution of respondent’s highest level of education according to the various professions is as presented in Figure 4.1

From Figure 4.1, it is clear that 60\% out of the 3.3\% with others as highest level of education were musicians with the remaining 40\% being actors. No footballer had a second degree (other) as highest level of education. The figure also shows clearly that footballers dominated in the Primary, Junior and Secondary level of education with 66.7\%, 85\% and 48.8\% representations respectively.

However, tertiary level of education which recorded the highest in the overall had the majority (49\%) being actors or actress, and 47.1\% from musician with 19\% from footballers. This could probably be accounted by the fact that most actors and actress upgraded their educational status whiles in their respective profession. Footballers dominated the lower levels of education which means that there was probably no upgrading in education since education is not a necessary nor a sufficient condition to enter into professional football.

\textsuperscript{1} Others refer to those with Master’s degree as highest tertiary level of education.
On the age distribution of the respondents, the survey revealed that 27.3% of the sample population are below 25 years, 43.3% making the majority are between the ages of 25 years to 30 years, and 9.3% are between 31 years and 34 years. This was followed by 7.3%, 4.0%, 2.7%, and 4.7% of the respondents representing the 35-40 years, 41-44 years, 45-50 years, and 51-54 years age brackets respectively. Respondents above 60 years represented 1.3% of the sampled population whilst no individual falls between the ages of 55-60 years. The age distribution of respondents is shown in Figure 4.2. The age distribution is explained in two folds. The distribution is explained by sample, where veteran musicians and actors were interviewed whereas most of the footballers interviewed were amateurs. Secondly, the distribution in accounted for by the age requirement for football. Most footballers retire in their early forties (40+ years) whereas acting and music have no age of retirement.

Source: Author’s Survey, 2013

Figure 4.1: Highest Education Level of Respondents
Concerning the occupational status of respondents, 124 (82.7%) out of the 150 respondents were full-time and 17.3% part-time. 39.5% of the 124 full time professionals were footballers, 29.8% musicians, and 30.6% are actors (actress). The 26 part-time professionals constituted 3.8%, 50.0% and 46.2% for footballers, musicians and actors respectively. This is shown by table 4.2 in Appendix E. This distribution is due to the fact that professional football requires relatively much time devotion and footballers have a relatively rigid time schedules which usually makes it almost impossible to engage in football as part-time compared to acting and music which has a flexible time schedule.

**Source:** Author’s Survey, 2013

**Figure 4.2:** Age Distribution of Respondents
In relation to the years of stay in the particular occupation (years of experience/length of service), a minimum of 6 months (0.5 years) and a maximum of 35 years were observed. The marital status of the respondents also revealed that 23.3% of the respondents are married while the rest are single or divorced (Appendix E).

Foreign exposure of the professional in terms of having performed or played outside the shore of Ghana is also represented by table 4.3 (Appendix E) where the majority (53.3%) of the respondents had no foreign exposure with regards to their career whilst the remaining 46.7% have had some form of foreign experience in that regard. Of the 70 respondents with foreign experience, 17.1% are footballers, 28.6% are actors with the musician constituting the majority (54.3%) with foreign exposure.

Most respondents were not keen to state their earnings and others really did not know their average monthly income. Nevertheless, in an attempt to come out with a fair estimate of household’s average monthly earnings, enumerators were asked to thoroughly explain to respondents that, the survey is basically for academic purposes and that their average monthly income was not going to be used as a basis for taxation. The respondents were therefore asked to give honest responses of average monthly income.

Respondents who did not know their average monthly income were asked to state their daily average income. The daily average income was then multiplied by 30 days\(^1\) to obtain the average monthly income. The income level of respondents ranges from a minimum of GH₵150 per month.

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\(^1\) The rational for the 30 days and not 28 days or 31 days is that, these people are not salary worker and for that matter could work all days in the month. However to make provision for a buffer period, the 30 days was thought to be appropriate.
to a maximum of $\text{GHc}9000$ per month. The average monthly income of the sample population is $\text{GHc}1318.87$. This is depicted in table 4.4 (Appendix E).

![Monthly Earning of respondents](http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh)

**Source:** Author’s Survey, 2013

**Figure 4.3:** Earning Distribution of Respondents

### 4.2.2 Multinomial Logistic Regression Model (Empirical Analysis)

The empirical results of the multinomial regression model is analysed making reference to some related literature. The estimation was done with music as the base occupation. The multinomial logit model successfully identified many significant variables of the occupational choice model. The estimation of the MNL using STATA (version 12) are presented in table 5.5 followed by a critical analysis of the result.
The Likelihood Ratio (LR) test is shown to be the preferred measure of evaluating coefficients estimated by maximum likelihood method by Long and Cheng (1997). At a 1 per cent level of significance, the overall goodness of fit (LR) is found to be highly significant implying that the logistic model fits the data well.

Again the Pseudo $R^2$ also known as the Likelihood Ratio Index (LRI) is equivalent to $R^2$ in a Conventional OLS regression model. The values of the LRI ranges between zero and one. According to Green (2008), the range of the value has no natural interpretation but shows improvement in goodness-of-fit as the values approaches one. A Pseudo $R^2$ of 0.4917 passes the Carson and Mitchell’s proposed Pseudo $R^2$ criterion. This means that the model explains 49 per cent of the variation. This means that the estimation of the model can be considered reliable. This proceeds the discussion of the results.
Table 4.5: Multinomial Logistic Results on the Likelihood of Choosing Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>FOOTBALL</th>
<th>ACTING</th>
<th>MUSIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marginal Effects</td>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>P Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage</td>
<td>-0.0223871</td>
<td>0.02992</td>
<td>0.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.0199578</td>
<td>0.00736</td>
<td>0.745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>0.0322306</td>
<td>0.09906</td>
<td>0.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>-0.0843241</td>
<td>0.07853</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary level</td>
<td>-0.3525286</td>
<td>0.11768</td>
<td><strong>0.003</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Background</td>
<td>-0.0804329</td>
<td>0.05272</td>
<td>0.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical Contexts</td>
<td>0.270887</td>
<td>0.09004</td>
<td><strong>0.003</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Model</td>
<td>-0.0252289</td>
<td>0.03315</td>
<td>0.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest/Passion</td>
<td>0.0389826</td>
<td>0.05321</td>
<td>0.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talent</td>
<td>0.110567</td>
<td>0.06334</td>
<td><strong>0.081</strong>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of observation = 150
LR chi2(12) = 162.07
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log likelihood = -83.757788
Pseudo R2 = 0.4917

Note: ***, **, * signifies 1 per cent, 5 per cent and 10 per cent respectively

Source: Author’s computation, 2013

1 The result of the MNL in Odds Ratios are reported in the appendix and the resulting marginal effects are reported in this table (Table 4.5)
To begin with, the results show that the wage variable is insignificant and does not significantly impact on the individual’s choice of occupation in the entertainment and sports industry. This is very clear as the multinomial logistic result on the occupational choice of an individual without the wage variable (see Appendix H) shows no significant change in the model when the wage variable was included in the model in table 4.5. This implies that individuals engaged in football, music and acting not for the financial benefit or gain. Thus money was not the main driving motive for people’s choice of career in these industry. This result is a result of the nature of the career at the time. However, the industry is more business oriented than it used to be. People are now making wealth as professional footballers, musicians and actors, and the nature of the industry now is enticing people to engage in such occupations.

Results also indicates that there is a significant relationship between age and the probability of entering football as well as music. An increasing age reduces the likelihood of an individual engaging in football and increases that of engaging in music. The negative relationship between age and the probability of entering football is justified in two folds: on the grounds that football has an age limit of entry, all things being equal. Hence, the likelihood of qualifying to play professional football reduces with age. However, music has no age limit of entry which explains why an increasing age increases the probability of engaging in music. Also the relationship is explained by the fact that the energy needed to play soccer depletes with age with the reverse being the case for music profession.

The result shows that those with tertiary education are less likely to be footballers and more likely to be actors. Initially, education reduces the probability of entering into football career by 35 per cent at the tertiary level but increases the chance of going into acting by almost 44 per cent. This
means an extra year of schooling (from Secondary to tertiary level) reduces the likelihood of going into football but increase the likelihood of choosing acting as a profession. The results for football parallels that of Wells et al (2009) and Baah-Boateng (2009). According to Baah-Boateng (2009), higher education tend to discourage people from choosing agriculture as an occupation.

Conversely, it can be inferred that with football career which is obviously a blue colour job like agriculture, the higher an individual climbs the academic ladder, the lower his preference for football career. The relationship is accounted for by the age of the individual. This negative effect has age implications as explained for the age variable. However, the positive relationship between educational background and training conforms to apriori expectation but contradicts Bofa (2012) who revealed that education strongly affects choice of employment in paid occupation than self-employment. There is more to learn from music in formal education, hence the positive the direct relationship whereas, football requires minimum talent.

The results show a significant relationship between parental background and the probability of entering the acting and music profession but insignificant for football. Parent background influences an individual’s choice of choosing acting as profession directly by almost 55 per cent but inversely for music by almost 47 per cent. The result for acting conforms to Bofa (2012) for female occupation and a father’s occupational background but contradicts Baah-Boateng (2009) and other works in relation to parental background and career choice of an individual. It also contradicts Bofa (2012) with regards to the male’s occupational choice and the occupational background of the father. Although results for football is insignificant, the directional effect indicates that a parent who has engaged in professional football would negatively influence the
offspring and his or her career choice in professional football. Until recently, this has been the case with most Ghanaian football parents, who discourage their children from engaging in football.

The result also shows a significant relationship between geographical context and the probability of choosing career. An individual’s geographical context raises the probability of choosing football and music career by 27 per cent and almost 32 per cent respectively, but declines by 59 per cent for acting. This means that respondents in general believe that their geographical location positively influenced their choice of football and music career, and negatively for acting.

Contrary to expectations, role models play insignificant role in the career choice process. Role model first enters the model negatively by reduces the likelihood of choosing football as a profession by 2.5 per cent and decreases the probability of an individual becoming an actor or actress by almost 5 per cent. The negative influence of role model on the career choice of an individual contrast with findings of Wright et al (1995) and Simpson (1996) who finds a positive role model to have a direct influence on one’s career choice but parallels Newby et al (1995) who shows role model has no effect on career choice. However, findings by Quimby and Desantis (2006) in Holland who show that the degree of self-efficacy and role model influence differ across Holland types of personality.

Also one’s interest and passion is insignificant for all occupations. The insignificance of interest and passion in the choice of career can be explained in two folds. First, a lover of football can be put in two folds; one who love to play football, and the one who has the passion and interest to watch and enjoy football but cannot or doesn’t play. Secondly, not all people with interest and passion to play football would want to play professionally. However, the results for acting shows
the likelihood of choosing an acting career reduces by almost 10 per cent with interest and passion in relation to the base (music) whilst that for football increases by almost 4 per cent.

Furthermore, talent enters the regression positively and negatively, for football and acting career respectively. It implies that football talent increases the prospect of entering football but decreases that for acting. The results for football is significant even at 10 per cent but insignificant for acting. The relationship between talent and the choice of occupation can be attributed to the fact that football require minimum talent whereas an individual without acting talent to actually learn to act through formal education. The insignificance of talent in the acting career is explained by the fact that acting talents are not easily identified. An individual talent in football according to the results increases the likelihood of becoming a professional footballer by 11.05 per cent. The low marginal effect is attributive to the fact that talent alone is nothing. Because an un-nurtured talent is as bad as no talent.

4.3 Summary

In the first part of this chapter, the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents were detailed. In the empirical analysis, an estimation was undertaken to examine the effects of non-pecuniary factors on the likelihood of choice of football, acting and music occupations. The results from the estimation using a multinomial logit model was linked with some literature and also checked against apriori assumptions. Generally, results suggested that most of the variables are significant at 1 per cent.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter concludes the work and recommends policies based on the results from the data analysis. The chapter also makes possible future research suggestions in the area of study. The research findings are concisely presented in the opening section of this chapter. The second part presents some remedial measures based on the findings with the last chapter outlining the limitations of the study and proposes some future research areas in the field.

5.1 Conclusion

Employing a dataset sourced from a survey of professionals in the entertainment and sports industry, the study aimed at examining the non-pecuniary factors that influence one’s choice of occupation. The purpose of the study is to examine the research questions posed in section 1.3; namely:

i. How significant are the non-pecuniary factors in making the occupational choice?

ii. Which factor, parental background, geographical context, education and training, interest and passion, role modelling, and talent, was most significant in the occupational choice process?

Form the study, it could be concluded that the geographical variable is highly significant, at 1 per cent for all occupations. The age variable was significant for football and music. Talent was also significant at 10 per cent for football occupation. The parental background variable was found not to be significant for football career in this model. Talent was also found to be insignificant for acting and music but significant in football at 10 per cent level of significance.
Based on the outcome of this study, it becomes evident that parental background which is often reflected in the parent’s occupational exerts significantly influence on the individual towards acting and music occupation. The probability of an individual choosing acting as a career is positively related to his or her parental background by 55 per cent but inversely by almost 47 per cent in engaging in music.

Also, education and training (at tertiary level) play highly significant role in the career choice process of both footballers and actors (significant at 1 per cent and 5 per cent respectively). In accordance to everyday knowledge and apriori assumptions, education and training reduces the probability of an individual pursuing a football career. The higher one climbs the academic ladder, the lower the probability of engaging in professional football. However, the influence on acting career is direct, where an improvement in education raised the individual’s chance of going into acting by almost 44 per cent. This is explained by the fact that one can actually learn to act through formal education and training.

According to findings also, geographical context is highly significant, and it increases the probability of one entering into football and music by almost 27 and 32 per cent respectively while decreasing the probability of acting career by 59 per cent. This means, geographical context is more likely to positively affect ones choice of occupation in music than football, all other things being equal.

Moreover, role model has no significant effect on an individual engaging in professional football and acting as a profession. The results clearly indicates that the probability of an individual
engaging in both careers reduces with role model by 2.5 per cent and 4.7 per cent respectively. It is also insignificant for music.

Furthermore, the effects of interest and passion, and talent are verified. With respect to the former, it increases the likelihood of entering football, albeit insignificant whiles it lowers the likelihood of engaging in acting by almost 10 per, also insignificant. Interestingly, talent is only found to be significant in football career. It is significant at 10 per cent and it increase the likelihood of choosing football as a profession by 11.05 per cent.

In response to the first question of how significant are the non-pecuniary factors in making the occupational choice, findings indicate that most of the variables in the model were significant in one occupation or the other. The geographical context variables was significant for all occupations. The parental background variable was significant for only acting and music. The age variable was also significant for only football and music. Education and training variable (at tertiary level) was significant football and acting, whilst the talent variable was significant for only football.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following policies are recommended:

The findings from the study shows that there is a negative relationship between parental background and the probability of engaging in football. This could be accounted for by several factors like negative attitude of parents towards their work and that of their offspring, dissatisfaction of parents towards the occupation of the individual among others. Therefore, parents should be sensitized on the need to acquire adequate vocational information and discuss them freely with their children so that they may be able to make well informed decisions about
their future career. Parents should also desist from compelling the children into taking up those occupations that they do not possess the required capabilities, talents, interest, and or aptitude for.

Again, findings indicate a negative relationship between education and training, and the likelihood of engaging in professional football. This means that the higher one’s academic level, the lower the probability of engaging in professional football. It is therefore recommended that government and other relevant agencies and sports authorities in charge of educational and sports planning and development should work towards the development and implementation of a comprehensive programme or curriculum of career education from the primary school level to help students acquire sound vocational development.

The few sports academies in the country should also thrive to ensure that students gain some minimum level of education while playing football. The academies should try in way of supplementing government effort to put much emphasis on the mental and academic development of its footballer’s right from the academy level. This has a long run implication of bettering the already growing aspect of sports in the industry and the economy at large.

5.3 Limitations and Area for Further Research

This work was limited in time and finically constrained as the data collection process required one-on-one appointments with most of the respondents, especially the musicians. This constrained the interview of some targeted professionals in the strata. This was because there was less avenue to meet musicians in group. Hence, the field work was supplemented by phone interview, which the researcher believe to have had some negative impact on the process since most respondents interviewed on phone show some level of reluctance in the process.
Also, the study only focused on the supply side of the occupational choice process. However, an individual’s choice of occupation depends on multiple of factors, both demand and supply factors. Thus, a future study will be looking at a general equilibrium framework (a study that incorporates both demand and supply side variables) of occupational choice, and this I believe will shed more light on the occupational choice process in the entertainment and sports industries in Ghana.
REFERENCES


http://www.ghananation.com/music/


APPENDIX

Appendix A: Test of Goodness-of-Fit

Equivalent to $R^2$ in a conventional OLS regression model is the Likelihood Ratio Index (LRI) (also known as the pseudo $R^2$). This is used to test the goodness of fit for multinomial logit model. LRI is computed by using the formula;

\[
LRI = 1 - \frac{\ln L_{ur}}{\ln L_0}
\]

Where $\ln L_{ur}$ represents the log-likelihood value of the unrestricted function, and $\ln L_0$ is the log-likelihood value from a regression which has only the constant as the explanatory variable. The value of the LRI lies between zero and one.

If LRI=1, it implies that the model has a perfect fit. According Greene (2008), values between zero and one have no natural interpretation but as LRI approaches one it shows improvement in goodness of fit. The computed LRI value from our multinomial logit model is given by;

\[
LRI = 1 - \frac{-83.757788}{-164.79184}
\]

\[
LRI = 1 - \frac{\ln L_{ur}}{\ln L_0}
\]

\[
LRI = 1 - 0.5082641713
\]

\[
LRI = 0.4917358287 = 0.4917
\]

The computed ratio shows that the model seems adequate and it shows that it explains 49.17% of variations.
Appendix B: Econometric Estimation of Occupational Choice

. mlogit occu wage age basic secondary tertiary parentalbackground geographicalcontext rolemodel > passionandinterest talent

Iteration 0:  log likelihood = -164.79184
Iteration 1:  log likelihood = -93.385569
Iteration 2:  log likelihood = -85.596713
Iteration 3:  log likelihood = -83.803772
Iteration 4:  log likelihood = -83.757847
Iteration 5:  log likelihood = -83.757788
Iteration 6:  log likelihood = -83.757788

Multinomial logistic regression Number of obs = 150
LR chi2(20) = 162.07
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log likelihood = -83.757788 Pseudo R2 = 0.4917

| occu | Coef.  | Std. Err. | z     | P>|z|  | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|------|--------|-----------|-------|------|-----------------------|
| 1    | (base outcome) |     |       |      |                        |
| 2    | wage   | -.0788854 | .3730856 | -0.21 | 0.833 | -.8101197 | .652349 |
|      | age    | -.2020617 | .0829781 | -2.44 | 0.015 | -.3646957 | -.0394277 |
|      | basic  | .3734737  | 1.106588 | 0.34 | 0.736 | -1.795399 | 2.542347 |
|      | secondary | -1.673677 | 1.169221 | -1.43 | 0.152 | -3.965308 | .6179542 |
|      | tertiary | -5.388828 | 1.42764  | -3.77 | 0.000 | -8.18695  | -2.590705 |
|      | parentalbackground | -2.518137 | 1.114082 | -2.26 | 0.024 | -4.701698 | -.334576 |
|      | geographicalcontext | 5.298712  | .9960382 | 5.32 | 0.000 | 3.346513  | 7.250911 |
|      | rolemodel | -1.078399 | .4234287 | -0.25 | 0.799 | -.9377448 | .7220651 |
|      | passionandinterest | .7112626  | .6452031 | 1.10 | 0.270 | -.5533123 | 1.975838 |
|      | talent  | 1.337687  | .8261757 | 1.62 | 0.105 | -.2815874 | 2.956962 |
|      | _cons  | 1.825326  | 4.197297 | 0.43 | 0.664 | -.6401225 | 10.05188 |
| 3    | wage   | .270122   | .2389686 | 1.13 | 0.258 | -.1982479 | .7384919 |
|      | age    | .0380158  | .0305908 | 1.24 | 0.214 | -.0219411 | .0979727 |
|      | basic  | .0530024  | .7859504 | 0.07 | 0.946 | -1.487432 | 1.593437 |
|      | secondary | -1.030667 | .9393421 | -1.10 | 0.273 | -2.871744 | .8104096 |
|      | tertiary | -1.584709 | .9235204 | -1.72 | 0.086 | -3.394776 | .2253577 |
|      | parentalbackground | -2.444514 | .8301296 | -2.94 | 0.003 | -4.071538 | -.8174894 |
|      | geographicalcontext | 2.528513  | .5842559 | 4.33 | 0.000 | 1.383393  | 3.673634 |
|      | rolemodel | .2752541  | .2439233 | 1.13 | 0.259 | -.2028268 | .7533351 |
|      | passionandinterest | .4130972  | .3805622 | 1.09 | 0.278 | -.3327911 | 1.158985 |
|      | talent  | -.0839673 | .5684381 | -0.15 | 0.883 | -.198086 | 1.030151 |
|      | _cons  | -3.470955 | 2.114634 | -1.64 | 0.101 | -7.615561 | .6736516 |
Appendix C: Estimated Marginal Effects of the Multinomial Logit Model

. mfx, predict (outcome(1))
Marginal effects after mlogit
y = Pr(occu==1) (predict, outcome(1))
= .31622269

| variable      | dy/dx     | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z|  | 95% C.I.     | X            |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|------|-------|--------------|--------------|
| wage          | -.0476441 | .05084    | -0.94| 0.349 | -.147296     | .052008 2.25333 |
| age           | -.0008161 | .00675    | -0.12| 0.904 | -.014053     | .01242 29.8467 |
| basic*        | -.0219071 | .16193    | -0.14| 0.892 | -.339286     | .295472 .22 |
| second-y*     | .2448863  | .19657    | 1.25 | 0.213 | -.140392     | .630164 .42 |
| tertiary*     | .4398166  | .17108    | 2.57 | 0.010 | .103612      | .774222 .386667 |
| parent-d*     | .5456387  | .13487    | 4.05 | 0.000 | .281491      | .810187 .146667 |
| geogra-t*     | -.5936791 | .08901    | -6.67| 0.000 | -.768131     | -.419227 .626667 |
| rolemo-l      | -.0477026 | .05164    | -0.92| 0.356 | -.148914     | .053509 2.88 |
| passio-t      | -.0985177 | .08177    | -1.20| 0.228 | -.258788     | .061747 3.42 |
| talent*       | -.0213083 | .12017    | -0.18| 0.859 | -.256838     | .214221 .626667 |

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

. mfx, predict (outcome(2))
Marginal effects after mlogit
y = Pr(occu==2) (predict, outcome(2))
= .09752535

| variable      | dy/dx     | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z|  | 95% C.I.     | X            |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|------|-------|--------------|--------------|
| wage          | -.0223871 | .02992    | -0.75| 0.454 | -.081039     | .036265 2.25333 |
| age           | -.0199578 | .00736    | -2.71| 0.007 | -.034376     | -.00554 29.8467 |
| basic*        | .0322306  | .09906    | 0.33 | 0.745 | -.161916     | .226377 .22 |
| second-y*     | -.0843241 | .07853    | -1.07| 0.283 | -.238239     | .069591 .42 |
| tertiary*     | -.3525286 | .11768    | -3.00| 0.003 | -.583186     | -.121871 .386667 |
| parent-d*     | -.0804329 | .05272    | -1.53| 0.127 | -.183772     | .022906 .146667 |
| geogra-t*     | .270887   | .09004    | 3.01 | 0.003 | .094403      | .447371 .626667 |
| rolemo-l      | -.0252289 | .03315    | -0.76| 0.447 | -.090202     | .039744 2.88 |
| passio-t      | .0389826  | .05321    | 0.73 | 0.464 | -.065306     | .143271 3.42 |
| talent*       | .110567   | .06334    | 1.75 | 0.081 | -.013572     | .234706 .626667 |

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

. mfx, predict (outcome(3))
Marginal effects after mlogit
y = Pr(occu==3) (predict, outcome(3))
= .58625196

| variable      | dy/dx     | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z|  | 95% C.I.     | X            |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|------|-------|--------------|--------------|
| wage          | .0700312  | .05252    | 1.33 | 0.182 | -.032911     | .172974 2.25333 |
| age           | .0207739  | .0078     | 2.66 | 0.008 | .005482      | .036066 29.8467 |
| basic*        | -.0103325 | .16525    | -0.06| 0.950 | -.33421      | .313563 .22 |
| second-y*     | -.1605623 | .1925     | -0.83| 0.404 | -.537846     | .216721 .42 |
| tertiary*     | -.086388  | .18832    | -0.46| 0.646 | -.455492     | .282716 .386667 |
| parent-d*     | -.4654058 | .13273    | 3.51 | 0.000 | -.72556      | -.205252 .146667 |
| geogra-t*     | .3227921  | .11564    | 2.79 | 0.005 | .096138      | .549447 .626667 |
| rolemo-l      | .0729315  | .05436    | 1.34 | 0.180 | -.03362      | .179483 2.88 |
| passio-t      | .0595351  | .08708    | 0.68 | 0.494 | -.111148     | .230218 3.42 |
| talent*       | -.0892586 | .12105    | -0.74| 0.461 | -.326505     | .147988 .626667 |

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1
Appendix D: Occupational Choice Survey Questionnaire

Introduction

This research is an academic exercise in a partial fulfilment of the award of the M. Phil. in Economics at the University of Ghana, Legon. I would be very grateful if you could furnish me with all the necessary answers to the questions stated below. All information provided will be treated strictly confidential and will only be used for study purposes. Thank you.

Name of Enumerator: .........................................................         Date of interview ...... /....../.........

SECTION A: SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please do not write your name on the survey. Your participation is strictly voluntary and may be discontinued at any time.

Please tick ONE for each item

Q1. Sex: 01=Male [ ] 02=Female [ ]
Q2. Age:
Q3. Which of the following professions do you belong? 01=musician [ ] 02=footballer [ ] 03=actor (actress) [ ] 04=other [ ], specify………………
Q4. Work status: 01=full time [ ] 02=part-time [ ]
Q5. If part-time, what is or are your other occupation(s)?
Q6. Highest education level achieved: 01=none [ ] 02=Primary [ ] 03=JHS [ ] 04=SHS [ ] 05=Tertiary [ ] 06=vocational [ ] 07=other, specify………………
Q7. How long have you been in this profession? …………… years
Q8. Are you happy in your current occupation? 01=Yes [ ] 02=No [ ]
Q9. How well are you paid? 01=fairly well [ ] 02=well [ ] 03=very well [ ] 04=poorly [ ] 05=very poorly [ ]
Q10. How much do you earn?
01=Per day [ ] 02=Weekly [ ] 03=Forth week [ ] 04 =Monthly [ ] 05=Quarterly [ ] 06=Half yearly [ ] 07=Yearly [ ]
Amount …………………
Q11. Have you ever played / performed outside of Ghana? 01=Yes [ ] 02=No [ ]
Q12. Was your earning higher than when you play/perform domestically? 01=Yes [ ] 02=No [ ]
Q13. Are you married? 01=Yes [ ] 02=No [ ]
Q14. I stay: 01=alone [ ] 02=with parents [ ] 03=with family (wife and/or children) [ ]
Q15. What was/is your main motivation for choosing this profession? 01=Money/wage [ ] 02=Hobby/passion/interest [ ] 03=Prestige [ ] 04=Parents/friend’s influence [ ] 05=Role Model [ ] 06= Environment [ ] 07= Talent 08=by default/happenstance [ ] 9=other, specify………………
Q16. Did any of your parents (mother/father) have your line of occupation as a profession? 01=Yes [ ] 02=No [ ]
SECTION B: CAREER SPECIFIC QUESTIONS

From (3) above; If (1) Go to (17) to (20)
If (2) Go to (21) to (27)
If (3) Go to (28) to (32)

Football
Q17. Which club do you play for?
Q18. Have you ever played in the national team? 01= Yes [ ] 02= No [ ]
Q19. Do you have a role model in your line of profession? 01= Yes [ ] 02= No [ ]
Q20. If Yes, who ______________________________

Music
Q21. What type of music do you do? 01= Gospel [ ] 02= Reggae [ ] 03= Highlife [ ] 04= Hip life [ ] 05= Rap [ ] 06= R&B 07= other, specify………………
Q22. How many songs do you have?
Q23. Do you have an album? 01= Yes [ ] 02= No [ ]
Q24. If Yes how many?
Q25. How many singles do you have so far?
Q26. Do you have a role model in your line of profession? 01= Yes [ ] 02= No [ ]
Q27. If Yes, who ______________________________

Acting
Q28. What kind of character/role best suit your personality?
Q29. How many movies have you featured in so far?
Q30. Which is your favourite?
Q31. Do you have a role model in your line of profession? 01= Yes [ ] 02= No [ ]
Q32. If Yes, who ______________________________
**SECTION C: CAREER CHOICE FACTOR QUESTIONS**

On a scale of one (1) to four (4), please tick ONE answer that best describes your response.

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD)  
2 = Disagree (D)  
3 = Agree (A)  
4 = Strongly Agree (SA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CAREER CHOICE FACTORS</th>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q33. I have definitely found a career choice</td>
<td>SD (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q34. Money had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q35. My parents, family or parental background had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q36. My education and training, or my teachers had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q37. My geographical location or environment had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q38. My role model(s) had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q39. Money has been an issue in my career choice process (limitation)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q40. My hobby/passion/interest had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q41. My crave for recognition/prestige had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q42. My career choice was a matter of default/happenstance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q44. My talent had the greatest influence on my career choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECTION D: OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS**

Q45. If you are to change career, what would your career choice would be?

01= footballer [ ] 02=musician [ ] 03=actor (actress) [ ] 04=other [ ], specify……………….
### Appendix E: Socio-economic Characteristics of Respondents

#### Table 4.1: Sex Of the Individual by Occupation of The Individual Crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Occupation Of The Individual</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Footballer</td>
<td>Musician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>12 (37.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50 (42.4%)</td>
<td>38 (32.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 4.2: Occupational Status Of The Individual by Occupation Cross Tabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Status</th>
<th>Occupation Of The Individual</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>footballer</td>
<td>Musician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-Time</td>
<td>1 (3.8%)</td>
<td>13 (50.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Time</td>
<td>49 (39.5%)</td>
<td>37 (29.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 4.3: Foreign Exposure By Occupation Crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foreign Exposure</th>
<th>Occupation Of The Individual</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Footballer</td>
<td>Musician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>38 (47.5%)</td>
<td>12 (15.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12 (17.1%)</td>
<td>38 (54.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

150 (100.0%)
Table 4.4: Earnings & Years of Experience Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Earnings Of The Individual (In Ghana Cedis)</th>
<th>Length Of Service</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Valid</strong></td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Missing</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td>1318.8667</td>
<td>9.0233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Std. Error of Mean</strong></td>
<td>124.69085</td>
<td>.61191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Median</strong></td>
<td>800.0000</td>
<td>7.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mode</strong></td>
<td>500.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Std. Deviation</strong></td>
<td>1527.14478</td>
<td>7.49437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variance</strong></td>
<td>2332171.190</td>
<td>56.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Range</strong></td>
<td>8850.00</td>
<td>34.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Minimum</strong></td>
<td>150.00</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Maximum</strong></td>
<td>9000.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sum</strong></td>
<td>197830.00</td>
<td>1353.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6: Role Model by Occupation of the Individual Crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation Of The Individual</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Footballer</td>
<td>Musician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Model</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>50 (41.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7: Marital Status Of The Individual by Occupation Cross tabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation Of The Individual</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Footballer</td>
<td>Musician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Married</td>
<td>48 (41.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2 (5.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>50 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix F: OneLove d Kuborlor

Figure A1: A picture with one of Ghana’s Most Finest and Innovative Musician\(^1\)

\(^1\) OneLove d Kuborlor – left in picture
Appendix G: Football and Formal Education

Figure A2: A picture of GRASAG Legon Football Team 2012/
## Appendix H: Multinomial Logistic Result for Occupational Choice without wage

### Table 4.5A: Multinomial Logistic Results on the Likelihood of Choosing Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>FOOTBALL</th>
<th>ACTING</th>
<th>MUSIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marginal Effects</td>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>P Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.0197036</td>
<td>0.00733</td>
<td><strong>0.007</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>0.0393966</td>
<td>0.10278</td>
<td>0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>-0.0778906</td>
<td>0.07729</td>
<td>0.314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary level</td>
<td>-0.3533264</td>
<td>0.11582</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Background</td>
<td>-0.0850494</td>
<td>0.05356</td>
<td>0.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical Contexts</td>
<td>0.2778429</td>
<td>0.09037</td>
<td><strong>0.002</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Model</td>
<td>-0.0143471</td>
<td>0.03166</td>
<td>0.650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest/Passion</td>
<td>0.0518081</td>
<td>0.05401</td>
<td>0.337</td>
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<tr>
<td>Talent</td>
<td>0.1033882</td>
<td>0.06124</td>
<td><strong>0.096</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of observation = 150

LR chi2(12) = 160.14

Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Log likelihood = -84.724174

Pseudo R2 = 0.4859

Note: ***, **, * signifies 1 per cent, 5 per cent and 10 per cent respectively

Source: Author’s computation, 2013