Chapter II

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION
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2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the guidance services in secondary education. It is said that the students in secondary education at present face more problems than before, such as academic problems, vocational choosing problems, family problems and personal problems. If there is a good guidance service in the schools these problems can be reduced considerably. To achieve this manifold objective, an effective guidance programme in a school will have to be organized in the form of a constellation of benefits comprising the following specific services: The individual inventory service; the information service; the counselling service; the placement service; and the follow-up service. The individual inventory service is intended to assist the student to obtain a realistic picture of his abilities, interests, personality characteristics, achievement in different subjects and activities, level of aspirations and state of health. It enables the student to know himself on a socio-comparative basis; provide a record of the student's progress. It helps the guidance teachers and others to understand him more adequately. The service involves collecting the essential data about the student. There are many sources from which pertinent and useful data about the student can be collected; the student himself, his previous record and certificates, psychological tests, questionnaires, interviews, autobiographies and
socio-metric devices. Orderly maintenance of records is essential to assist the student as well as his teachers and parents in making important decisions. The information collected should be suitably compiled, preferably in a cumulative record card which may take anyone of a number of forms such as a file folder, loose leaf note-book, a jacket into which sheets of paper containing the data may be kept. The information collected may be used for counselling, making case studies of students and preparing for case conferences.

The information service is intended to develop in the students a broad and realistic view of life's opportunities and problems at all levels of training. It creates an awareness of the need and an active desire for accurate and valid occupational, educational and personal-social information. It assists in learning the techniques of obtaining and interpreting information for progressive self-directiveness and promotes attitudes and habits which assist in the making of choices and adjustments productive of personal satisfaction and effectiveness. It also provides assistance in progressively narrowing choices to specific activities which are approximate to aptitudes, abilities and interests manifested and to the proximity of defined decisions. Information provided by this service can be divided into three categories: Educational information, Occupational information, and Personal-social information.
The counselling service involves helping the student to understand what he can do and what he should do; understand the choices he faces, the opportunities open to him and the qualifications he possesses for the goal he has chosen. It handles his difficulties in a rational way and strengthens his attributes to make his own decisions and plans on the basis of self-understanding, accept responsibility for his decisions and take action on the plans developed. Counselling is possible if the counsellor has enough information regarding the individual's assets and liabilities and of the possible courses of action opens to him. It consists of an interview or a series of interviews between the counsellor and the counsellee and may involve the administration of certain psychological tests.

The placement service is intended to help the student in situating himself in the right scholastic track in the proper course; finding a suitable place in the post-school environment; the fit choice of co-curricular activities available in the school; choice of job-oriented courses; getting admission to a polytechnic or a college; getting part-time jobs during working session and whole-time jobs during vacation and after getting education and training. Appropriate data from schools should be collected and transmitted to receiving college, universities and prospective employers. Close contact with institutions of higher learning as well as with personnel managers in business
and industry, co-ordination among teachers and guidance workers are essential to make a success of this service.

The follow-up service is the review or systematic evaluation carried out to ascertain whether guidance in general satisfies the needs of the students. The extent to which the students have been able to achieve according to their abilities and aptitudes, whether curricular and co-curricular choices have been wise, and how students adjust to the part-time or whole-time jobs is also taken into account. The students need to be followed in order to determine the nature and extent of their need for further assistance. The typical follow-up method employs the techniques of interview, post-card survey or questionnaire. Information obtained through follow-up techniques can be used for improving the curriculum, stimulating better teaching, increasing the value of the guidance service and establishing better school-community relationships. For the success of this service, it is necessary that all the members of the staff join hands. There should also be some means of bringing about coordination in follow-up activities.

Types of guidance services depend on the characteristic of the problems faced by the students and the guidance given to them. These are educational guidance, vocational guidance and personal guidance. Out of these vocational
guidance is more complicated as it is related to the world of work. It is a bridge between the school and the world of work. It is difficult indeed to consider vocational guidance independently. It is closely connected with educational and personal guidance. Educational and vocational guidance are so closely akin that they are almost always discussed together in professional writing and research. The student's choice of courses and his/her vocational plans are functionally inter-related. Educational guidance becomes fruitful only by keeping an eye on the vocational implications of subjects and the field of occupations they will lead to. Similarly, a plan of vocational guidance must be followed or accompanied by educational guidance. Both are parts of the total guidance process, by which an individual's potentialities are discovered and developed, through his own efforts for his/her personal happiness and social usefulness. Educational guidance is often influenced by vocational considerations and vocational guidance is incomplete without educational guidance preceding it. The distinguishing mark between the two is the character of the dominating purpose. In vocational guidance, the vocational considerations dominate, whereas in educational guidance "making a living" after the school years.\(^{1:50}\)

2.2 General aspects of vocational guidance

By the nature of the case, many of the major problems of vocational guidance are located in the junior high school.
This is true because the majority of students who leave school do so before reaching the tenth grade and because curricular choices involving broad selection of occupations must often be made at the beginning of the ninth grade or during the ninth grade.

Through an inventory service, the guidance programme should assist the students to appraise their abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality qualities. The students should be helped to 'measure' themselves, their assets and liabilities. Helping students to be familiar with vocational implications of different subjects to be studied in the secondary school. Helping students to be familiar with occupations and their requirements. For successful adjustment to the world of work, students should be helped to be familiar with occupations and their requirements. The students should be made familiar with the employment situation in the country, the job trends, requirements of different jobs as period of training, emoluments, conditions of work and future prospects. This knowledge will be of great help in making adjustments, and preparing proper plans for his future. One of the major responsibilities of the guidance teacher is to bring the complex reality into focus and to help the individual to evaluate both his opportunities and his limitations, so that the transition from secondary school to the academic or vocational stream of higher secondary school or junior college is facilitated.
Helping students to prepare themselves for entry into the careers of their choice. As students step into the working life, they will have to be provided with information about the training facilities sufficiently in advance to avoid inconvenience. Helping students to get suitable jobs. A good programme of vocational guidance should help the students in getting a good start in the profession. For this, it is necessary that schools keep themselves in touch with employment exchanges so that they are in a position to give adequate information to school leavers about the jobs available. (2:51-52)

The primary aim of vocational guidance is the promotion of personal satisfaction with life as a whole. As such, the process of vocational guidance will consist of the following factors: Enabling the individual to discover information about himself, his abilities, interests, needs, ambitions, limitations and their causes. Providing him with information about his environment, the advantages and disadvantages of different occupations and educational courses, the qualifications necessary for entry into them, and the total range of opportunities available to him in theory and practice. Providing him with a frame of reference in which to see himself in relation to these educational and vocational opportunities; to orient him to the helping agencies available and to alert him to future decision-making points in his career. Providing counselling in
order to promote self-understanding and to develop educational and occupational plans. Providing a placement service to help him to implement those plans. Providing a follow-up service to help him if necessary, when faced with future decision-making situations. (3:53)

2.3 Unity of guidance

Vocational guidance has been defined as the assistance that is given in connection with "choosing, preparing for, entering upon, and making progress in an occupation". It would be well to stress again the point already made many times, that it is impossible to separate sharply the vocational aspects. In choosing a school or a course, the future occupation often bears a large part, but not always. Occupational choices depend frequently upon educational background, and they are often concerned with health, social, and cultural problems. The counsellor cannot, and should not, try to keep the various aspects of guidance entirely distinct. This would be working directly contrary to that unity of character and personality that is essential. In spite of this unity and the impossibility and undesirability of separating vocational guidance from other kinds or aspects of guidance, it is helpful to consider certain parts of vocational guidance separately from other forms. Sometimes the vocational aspect stands out so clearly that it dominates everything else - civic, moral, cultural
aspects shrink into comparative insignificance. Often, choice of occupation and getting a job are absolutely necessary and prerequisite to everything else - good citizenship, culture, and even good character itself. Recognizing the impossibility of complete separation, we shall attempt to stress the methods that are commonly used primarily to assist in choice of occupation, in getting a job, and in becoming adjusted to the job.\(^{(4:370)}\)

2.4 **Specific Aims of Vocational Guidance**

The specific aims of vocational guidance may be stated as follows:

To assist the student to acquire such knowledge of the characteristics and functions, the duties and rewards of the group of occupations within which his choice will probably lie as he may need for intelligent choice.

To enable him to find what general and specific abilities, skills, are required for the group of occupations under consideration and what are the qualifications of age, preparation, sex, for entering them.

To give opportunity for experiences in school and out of school that will give such information about conditions of work as will assist the individual to discover his own abilities and help in the development of wider interests.
To help the individual develop the point of view that all honest labour is worthy and that the most important bases for choice of an occupation are (a) the peculiar service that the individual can render to society, (b) personal satisfaction in the occupation, and (c) aptitude for the work required.

To assist the individual to acquire a technique of analysis of occupational information and to develop the habit of analyzing such information before making a final choice.

To assist him to secure such information about himself, his abilities, general and specific, his interests, and his powers as he may need for a wise choice.

To assist economically handicapped children who are above the compulsory attendance age to secure, through public or private funds, scholarships or other financial assistance so that they may have opportunities for further education in accordance with their vocational plans.

To assist the student to secure a knowledge of the facilities offered by various educational institutions for vocational training and the requirements for admission to them, the length of training offered, and the cost of attendance.

To help the work or to adjust himself to the occupation
in which he is engaged; to assist him to understand his relationships to workers in his own and related occupations and to society as a whole.

To enable the student to secure reliable information about the danger of alluring short cuts to fortune through short training courses and selling propositions, and of such unscientific methods as phrenology, physiognomy, astrology, numerology, or graphology, and to compare these methods with that of securing really trustworthy information and frank discussion with experts. (5:372)

2.5 Need of Vocational Guidance

"Everyone who has counselled students, knows that many of them have chosen occupations which cannot possibly be justified in terms of their abilities and other characteristics. Yet thousands of students in professional colleges every year pursue curricula which turn out to be tragic mistakes." (5:123)

Vocational guidance is needed for youth because of its inexperience. It is more successful for youth because of its greater possibilities of choice; but men of all ages have their problems and need help from time to time much as they need a dentist. (7:27)

There are two views as to where the emphasis should be put in counselling - should it be educational or
vocational? These two views are not necessarily related to the two questions: is the student doing well in school and will he do well afterwards? But too often the emphasis is put upon educational guidance because the instructors are primarily concerned with what takes place in a school. Too often the attitude is: we give good courses of instruction; it is up to the student to get the good things if he can or will; what he does with them afterwards is his responsibility alone. It must not be overlooked, however, that many instructors give much of their time advising students individually regarding both their school work and their future career.

Crawford has written: "It is my hunch that proper educational guidance is more important and more meaningful, so far as cultivation of the individual's highest powers are concerned, than is vocational guidance." (8:307) His argument seems to be that many able men can enter accounting, banking, law, or the steel business about equally well and so can delay their decision until the senior year of college. But if one makes the wrong decision early in college and selects chemistry instead of history, he is badly handicapped in changing his career at the end of his senior year; frequently he will not even attempt to do so. (9:18)

Vocational guidance ought to be more stressed than educational guidance. There is very little difference
between the two points of view for students in professional school: the engineering student looks forward to being an engineer, the student in an agricultural school expects to earn a living in some way related to farming. Consequently the relative merit of the two views depends largely upon their usefulness with students who have not entered a specialized course. In the first place, it has always appeared that a vocation is a more meaningful concept to a student than a college major. The latter is viewed as a temporary means to some end, whereas the vocation is a permanent occupation after graduation. In the second place, the vocation is something outside and beyond the college walls in terms of which to orient oneself, whereas the college major is what a faculty has set up for him to study. The student who has a vocational goal chooses the courses for his major with an eye to a more definite objective than the student who has only an educational major to complete. In the third place, it is the vocation actually pursued that determines the significance of the courses taken in college. Selection of chemistry instead of history as a man's college major is unfortunate for the man and for society only if he might have become a far better history professor than a chemist. For the large minority who do not know what they are going to do after graduation educational guidance is easier than vocational; they are compelled to major somewhere. But although they
fulfill the requirements (so often with only a very few quality points to the good), that does not mean that the educational guidance was a real success. The only real solution for all students is guidance which leads to the development of a goal which will lead them on enthusiastically to do something worthwhile in life. (10:29-30)

2.6 Vocational Guidance

The classic definition of vocational guidance, formulated and revised by the National Vocational Guidance Association, reads as follows: "Vocational guidance is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon and progress in it." (11:772)

Gruner has redefined vocational guidance and its functions as follows:

Vocational guidance is the process of assisting an individual to understand his own attitudes, emotional needs, and capacities as they relate to vocational planning and to help him relate them to labour market conditions and the demands of specific occupations, in order that he may make the most adequate personal, vocational adjustment.

Such a definition is based on the fact that the individual must be viewed as an integrated whole, the individual
personality make-up being the framework within which
must be viewed his abilities, aptitudes, and interests.
It recognizes that the usual data we gather about the
client are cold and almost without value unless the
information is related to his emotional resources. (12:330)

One of the principles of vocational guidance is that
the counselor or teacher does not determine for the
pupil what occupation he shall enter, but refers him to
sources of information upon which he can base his choice.
In individual counselling, an adviser wishes to have
within reach a collection of occupational literature,
and an index to occupational information, in order to
refer to a specific section for information and to point
out the sources of information to the counselee. At
that point, the counsellor can readily show the counselee
the appropriate section of the bibliography and suggest
that he read some of the publications before returning
for the next interview. (13:25-26)

Group Guidance

Vocational guidance can be given individually as well
as in groups.

The primary contribution of group guidance to voca-
tional guidance usually has been to provide a background
of information about occupational opportunities. It has
been assumed that the probability of wise occupational
choice would increase with the student's knowledge of the jobs he might get, and much of the experimental evidence lends support to this assumption.

If we may assume that the job of educational guidance has been properly done and that related occupational information has been introduced as needed, then the proper time for group guidance in occupational opportunities is just before the student goes out to look for a job. For prospective graduates this means the last half of the senior year. For prospective dropouts it means just before they drop out. In small schools prospective dropouts may be invited to join the course planned for seniors. In larger schools separate courses may be organized for those who expect to leave before graduation. The same basic principle applies to elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges, graduate schools, and institutions in the field of adult education. If large numbers terminate their education and go to work at the end of the twelfth and fourteenth grades, then these are the grades in which to teach occupations. (14:191)

The course in occupations undertakes to save the time of the counsellor in answering such questions as the following:

What jobs are open to us? What jobs did previous dropouts and graduates get? Where? What places hire the
largest numbers of young people? In what kinds of business can I be my own employer?

What do you have to do in them? What is a typical day's work? How does it differ from what most people think it involves?

What does it take to get them? Are there rigid requirements of age, sex, height, weight, vision, marital status, and union membership? What aptitudes are essential and desirable? Must you have a license? How do you get it?

What preparation is required? How much? What kind? Do I have it?

What of the future? Which occupations and which business are growing? Which are declining? What are the opportunities for advancement?

What do they pay? At the beginning, after five years, after ten? Is the work steady, or are there layoffs in slack seasons and in depressions?

What do the workers like and dislike about them?

These few questions expand rapidly into dozens of others related to them. (15:192)

The occupations selected for study should include the following, in order of importance:
1. The occupations in which substantial proportions of former students have found employment.

2. Other major occupations in the geographical area in which dropouts and graduates look for jobs.

3. Other occupations of interest to the student.

It is not uncommon practice to begin with the occupations in which the students are most interested. There are obvious psychological advantages in this procedure, provided it does not prevent a reasonable allocation of time to the occupations which most of them are likely to enter.

Numerous studies have revealed the sharp contrast between the occupations in which high school seniors express an interest and the occupations in which follow-up studies show them to be employed a year later. It becomes, therefore, the responsibility of the teacher to see that they learn something about the occupations in which they are most likely to find employment. Half of the students in any class will be below the median ability level of the group. Approximately half of the occupations studied should accordingly be occupations open to students below this median level of ability.

Another important caution for the teacher of occupations is to keep attention focussed on beginning jobs.
High school students do not choose jobs as bankers, buyers, and fashion designers. They may think they do, but what they really choose are beginning jobs as bank clerks, sales-clerks, and alteration workers. They may hope some day to reach the top, but cold statistics indicate that very few of them do. No amount of education, no amount of inspiration, and no amount of vocational guidance will change the fact that the great bulk of human workers must always be employed on the lower levels.

Because most of our students will remain in or near the jobs at which they begin, it is imperative that most of our attention be given to such jobs. Opportunities for promotion need not be concealed, but they should not be overemphasized. If we are going to be realistic and truthful and if we are not going to contribute to future frustration, we must abandon the inspirational ballyhoo that any boy can be president, and we must encourage our students to choose occupations in which they may hope to be reasonably contented if cherished promotions do not materialize.

There is one large category of employment frequently omitted from courses in occupations. It is the area of self-employment. Every town has its independent grocers, clothing merchants, barbers, beauty-parlor operators, shoe repairmen, small building contractors, plumbers, electricians, who are their own employers. Most of them have a certain aptitude and skill in the management of their own affairs.
It is just as much the job of the counsellor to reveal opportunities for the utilization of this aptitude as it is to reveal opportunities for musical, artistic, or any other talent.

In self-employment the danger of failure and the rewards of success both tend to be higher than in other kinds of work. The risks should not be minimized; the opportunities should not be overlooked. If the class in occupations is to tour large local industries, it should tour small plants too. If personnel directors from large companies are invited to meet with the class to discuss employment opportunities in their companies, the proprietors of little one-man businesses should be invited to discuss their occupations. If occupational pamphlets are to be displayed, the display should include pamphlets which describe the opportunities in self-employment. (18:194)

Neither should the counsellor plan to tell the individual what occupation he should enter. On the contrary, certain guidance workers contend that students should make the decisions on their life-careers and that the guidance service provides them only with the bases for intelligent choices.

The conference with a student about the choice of a vocation will deal with (1) the nature of his vocational plans and interests and the reasons for them, (2) the
accuracy of his thinking about his plans, (3) the adequacy of his information about occupations, (4) the adequacy of his information about his own capacities and interests, and (5) the degree of harmony of his plans with his capacity and interests. The counsellor may interpret data from tests and other information which will extend the student's knowledge of himself, or may suggest lines of reading to extend his information about occupations. The counsellor may appropriately point out any discord between his plans and his capacities and interests. (19:484)

All the following should be checked by the student and the counsellor:

1. What degree of success can the advice expect?
2. What degree of enjoyment can he expect?
3. Does the occupation utilize the abilities which he possesses in largest measure?
4. Does he have sufficient ability for an occupation of higher level?
5. Can he remain in school long enough to obtain the required training?
6. Is his health adequate to meet the requirements of the occupation and has he any physical weaknesses that may be aggravated by the conditions of work?
7. What are the extent of demand and the probabilities
for permanent employment in the occupation under consid-
erations? (20:485)

The lack of harmony between their plans and their success in school work should be pointed out. Their low level success might be compared with the high-level success of other students with the same vocational objective. Failure to compete successfully in the courses preparatory for the vocation may be interpreted as indicative of probable failure to compete successfully in the occup-
pation. (21:488)

The responsibilities of the adviser are two-fold, (1) to interpret the data available in defining the probable success and failure in the chosen occupation and in the course of training preparatory for it, (2) to encourage and to help the student discover lines of activity in harmony with his abilities and interests.

Change should not be pressed too strenuously, but the student should be given time to consider the data and to recognize their logic. The adviser should confer with the individual periodically to interpret the new data and to note any lack of agreement between success and plans. (22:489)

The student considering several vocations should be encouraged to make more intensive studies of the vocations in which he has special interest. If he has shown special interest or special ability along other lines, the adviser
should recommend that these lines be included in the small group for special study. (23:489)

A student without a vocational preference presents a more baffling problem. Several types of assistance can be given him. The adviser can canvass the student's school and out-of-school experiences with him, noting ability and interest in each. He can help the student decide on the general level of the occupation in which he could succeed. (24:490)

2.7 Occupational Choice

Most human action is caused by feelings, by our desire to be more comfortable or less uncomfortable, more satisfied or less frustrated, in short, by our desire to feel better than we do. Human action is affected by intellect only after feelings have indicated that some kind of action is desirable and only to the extent that our intellect can convince us that a particular course of action will improve or relieve our feeling tone. Intellect gives direction to our actions when factual information or logical reasoning indicates that one course of action is more likely than another to bring us the satisfactions that we seek. (25:75)

It may appear that human action sometimes is caused, not by a desire to feel better than we do, but by a desire to maintain the comfortable state that we have already
attained. Certainly the latter desire can provide motivation for action, but only when we feel some concern that our comfortable state may deteriorate if we do not act. We then act to relieve our concern. In relieving our concern, we feel better. Thus we act in order to feel better. \((26:75)\)

It may appear that some persons enjoy unhappiness, persecute themselves, or sacrifice themselves for others. Such actions may not make the individual either happy or satisfied. They are, nevertheless, undertaken in the hope that they will make the individual less unhappy than he would be if he followed any other course of action. To the martyr, death is preferable to capitulation. He may be an atheist who expects no reward in heaven and yet prefer death to life on terms that would be intolerable to him. The person who persecutes himself does so in order to relieve a feeling of guilt or because for some other reason he finds relief or satisfaction in his own unhappiness. Paradoxical as it appears, perverted as it may be, he seeks unhappiness in order to enjoy it. \((27:75)\)

The client who is unable to face reality may distort information about occupations just as he may distort information about himself. He may accept those facts which support a course of action that appeals to him, while he rejects those facts which he finds disturbing. Wishful
thinking is a fairly common characteristic of the human race. When people appear not to act rationally in choosing an occupation, their failure to do so may be traced to one of three causes: inadequate information about themselves, inadequate information about occupations, or inability to think clearly. Inability to face reality is one kind of inability to think clearly.

An occupation is only a name for a group of jobs which have something in common. The specific jobs within one occupation may differ in many ways. They may involve different supervisors, different employers, different locations, different physical surroundings, different associates. Because of these differences a person may be satisfied in one job and dissatisfied in another job in the same occupation if one of the jobs meets more of his needs than the other.

Needs and values sometimes change. A young person's eagerness for adventure may be replaced in later years by a preference for stability. An occupation which meets the needs of a client at age twenty may no longer meet his needs at age fifty. Participation in an occupation, daily association with the kind of people who are attracted to it, acceptance of and conformity to the mores of the occupational group can in time have a subtle but substantial effect on a person's values. The result may be
make the occupation appear either more or less desirable than it seemed at first. If changes in needs and values are anticipated, they may affect the original choice of an occupation; if they are not anticipated, they may lead a person to change his occupation in later life. (23:76)

2.7.1 Factors Affecting Occupational Choice

Economic factors affect occupational choice by helping to determine the age at which a person terminates his formal education and enters the labour market on a full-time basis. The economic cycle, moving from periods of prosperity to depression and back again, helps to determine the number and nature of the employment opportunities available at the time a person is looking for a job. Immediate and potential future earning affect the extent to which a contemplated occupation may be expected to meet one's economic needs.

Education influences occupational choice by opening the doors to some occupations that would otherwise be closed, by making a person aware of occupations of which he had no previous knowledge, by arousing or discouraging his interest in them, by providing tryout experiences which lead the student to anticipate success or failure in specific activities. For some students, school or college provides a new social group with which they identify and which profoundly influences the social and economic needs which they feel their occupations must meet.
Psychological factors influence occupational choice by helping to determine the extent to which one perceives his own needs, accepts or suppresses them, faces the realities of employment opportunities and of his own abilities and limitations, and thinks clearly about all these facts. The extent to which aptitudes and interests are general or specific will probably be argued as long as there are psychologists to speculate and statisticians to calculate probabilities, but there is little doubt that interests help to determine whether or not he will achieve enough success to get and to hold the job that he has chosen.

Sociological factors affect occupational choice by helping to determine the occupations with which a person is familiar, by virtue of his contacts with family and friends. The cultural plan of the social group in which a person has been reared and of the social group with which he currently identifies himself helps to determine the occupations which he will consider to be socially acceptable and socially preferred. Social patterns of exclusion or acceptance help to determine the occupations which are available to the individual; thus a union may admit relatives of members in preference to others, an employer may discriminate on racial or religious grounds, the qualifications for a job may include social contacts and social skills which are seldom acquired except through
family associations. All of these factors affect occupational choice by helping to determine the employment opportunities that will be available to an individual and those which he will consider, by influencing the social needs which he will feel that his occupation must meet and the extent to which he will expect any contemplated occupation to meet these needs. (29:77-78)

Kline and Schneck, in reporting "An Hypnotic Experimental Approach to the Genesis of Occupational Interests and Choice," expressed their belief in these words.

What has not been stressed in vocational guidance is the origin of vocational interests, their relationship to personality organization and their relationship to individual aptitudes. There is evidence that changes in personality organization greatly influence not only occupational interests but the level of job adjustment, and that in fact the prescribed approach to vocational maladjustment in a great number of cases appears to be psychotherapy rather than vocational guidance. A manipulation of the expressed occupational interests of an individual does not in fact prove to effect adjustment in cases of vocational maladjustment. Psychotherapy involving distinct changes in personality organization has on the other hand been capable of altering occupational factors to the extent of effecting adjustment out of maladjustment. (30:1)
Miller and Form in their book on Industrial Sociology expressed the following view.

Individuals find their occupational goals through a compounding of work experience, observation, and expectation. Accident is the deciding factor in determining the occupation of a majority of workers. The accident of birth establishes family, race, nationality, social class, residential district, and to a great extent educational and cultural opportunity. This means that the family and its status provide rather definite boundaries within which the new individual will observe the work activities and participate in work life. For some persons, these boundaries enclose wide areas; for others, the scope of observation and experience is squeezed into narrow corridors. And as opportunity is diminished so too is expectation. The social world in which the work candidate lives can constrain occupational expectation as completely as it excluded opportunity. Therefore, many work possibilities never appear as possibilities in the thinking of the individual. Occupational expectation is determined by technical, educational, and social influences. The status expectation of the family members, relatives, and friends profoundly shapes the choice of an occupational goal. The range of considered occupations is determined largely by the status expectations within the social class in which the individual finds himself.\(^{(31:231)}\)
Raylesberg saw personal values as the determining factor in occupational choice. Most occupations are sufficiently complex to lend themselves to many perceptions, and hence different individuals may perceive the same occupation differently. Occupations perceived as in harmony with personal values will be considered of interest while those perceived as not will be viewed with disinterest. Evidence would seem to indicate that most occupations have room for people with diverse personality patterns provided they can select an aspect of the occupation in harmony with their value structure and abilities. Vocational counselling should therefore be oriented in the direction of choice within occupational fields as well as among occupational fields. (32:198)

Segal, after studying the role of personality factors in the vocational choices of accountants and creative writers, concluded that vocational choice is not a peripheral decision of the individual made on a chance or necessarily a reality basis, but is a concrete expression of personality development and emotional experiences within the framework of the environmental pressures and opportunities with which an individual is confronted. An individual's choice of an occupation reflects certain techniques of seeking gratification of basic psychological needs. It seems that the individual senses this in an intuitive or unconscious manner. (33:220)
2.7.2 Vocational Development

Super has proposed a "theory of vocational development" in a series of ten propositions:

1. People differ in their abilities, interests, and personalities.

2. They are qualified, by virtue of these characteristics, each for a number of occupations.

3. Each of these occupations requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests, and personality traits with tolerances wide enough, however, to allow both some variety of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.

4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work, and hence their self concepts, change with time and experience (although self concepts are generally fairly stable from the late adolescence until late maturity), making choice and adjustment a continuous process.

5. This process may be summed up in a series of life stages characterized as those of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline, and these stages may in turn be subdivided into (a) the fantasy, tentative, and realistic phases of the exploratory stage, and (b) the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage.
6. The nature of the career pattern (that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs) is determined by the individual's parental socio-economic level, mental ability, and personality characteristics, and by the opportunities to which he is exposed.

7. Development through the life stages can be guided, partly by facilitating the process of maturation of abilities and interests and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of the self concept.

8. The process of vocational development is essentially that of developing and implementing a self concept: it is a compromise process in which the self concept is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes, neural and endocrine make-up, opportunity to play various roles, and evaluations of the extent to which the results of role playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows.

9. The process of compromise between individual and social factors, between self concept and reality, is one of role playing, whether the role is played in fantasy, in the counselling interview, or in real life activities such as school classes, clubs, part-time work, and entry jobs.

10. Work satisfactions and life satisfactions depend upon the extent to which the individual finds adequate
outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits, and values; they depend upon his establishment in a type of work, a work situation, and a way of life in which he can play the kind of role which his growth and exploratory experiences have led him to consider congenial and appropriate. (34:185)

2.8 Occupational Information in Counselling

Occupational information is used in counselling for the same basic purpose for which the counsellor uses any other kind of information. The purpose is to help the client to clarify the goal that he wants to reach and to move in the direction in which he wants to go, so long as the goal and the means of attaining it are not injurious to others. (35:148)

Individual goals differ, counselling techniques differ with them, and so does the use of occupational information in counselling. The goal may be as simple as finding a temporary job for the Christmas holidays or as complex as trying to discover whether or not a change of employment will help to relieve a serious case of emotional disturbance.

Occupational information is useful in counselling when and to the extent that it can help the client to solve his problem as soon as he has the necessary
information, counselling may consist only of providing the information or of telling the client where he can find it; some counsellors would not even call this counselling. But when the client needs help to get the essential information, to appraise its accuracy, or to see how it relates to his problems, or when he needs help in considering his own reaction to the information, then there may be need for all of the competence and skill and patience that the counsellor may possess. (36:149-150)

Information about occupations is frequently an essential aspect of this interview. Care should be taken that the counsellor not color the information the client receives. There are several procedures which minimize this possibility. Where direct information is given by the counsellor, the use of printed matter rather than his own knowledge of the job is advisable no matter how extensive it is. Referral to books and magazines or to people employed in the fields of the client's interest are usually fruitful. The counsellor will find it difficult to discuss fields to which he has a strong positive or negative reaction without distorting information. At the same time, he forces the client to agree or disagree with him.

There are two possible solutions to this dilemma: one is to indicate to the client the distinction between the two counsellor roles and the necessity for client
acceptance of the major responsibility. In spite of the utmost precaution in attempting to make the distinction clear, the client often fails to grasp its meaning. A more feasible approach is one we have frequently used. This is to maintain from the start a non-directive approach and to supply information to the client through written reports or through reference to another counsellor who acts as an interpreter of tests and as a source of information.

Giving occupational and educational information may utilize client-centered counselling. Adherence to non-directive counselling techniques occasionally indited that clients had done considerable investigating and realistic thinking about vocations and schools, and at times were as sophisticated as the counsellor along with these lines. A client, if given a chance, often would suggest rather unique or bizarre yet quite appropriate vocational fields for himself. As for vocational information with which the client is not previously familiar, there is no gainsaying its importance. As with psychometric data, there are cases in which vocational counselling cannot be properly conducted without it. But such information does little good unless it can be communicated. Nondirective interviewing skill helps make such communication possible. Many vocational clients can be effectively counselled with the traditional methods in which
psychometrics and vocational information play the dominant role. Such an approach, however, makes for poor handling of emotional complications, and such complications are extremely common, as most vocational counsellors will readily admit. To be able to handle the largest possible proportion of clients, the use of nondirective techniques is recommended.

The counsellor will have general information about many vocational fields, specific information about some occupations within each field, and extensive information about the occupation composition of and job opening in his community. The counsellor must be as familiar with the vocational aspects of the local community as with its educational opportunities. Every counsellor should have at hand bibliographies giving lists of occupational studies and where the studies can be obtained. Most counsellors are not sufficiently well trained in the techniques of occupational study and analysis to make it safe for them to rely entirely upon their own effort to obtain the necessary facts. The choice of an occupation must not be made for the student by the counsellor.

It seems to be a rather common procedure for counsellors to attempt to supply occupational information themselves as the need arises. Sometimes this amounts to the conscientious counsellor's going to sources himself to track down the needed information. It is proposed as an alternative method
that an accessible, easily used, up-to-date occupational library be provided, and that the client be informed of its availability. Most school guidance programmes and the general public overemphasize the values of testing in guidance and neglect the occupational information and counselling services. Probably one of the weakest links in the counselling process is the use of information in the interview. There is a danger in giving specific information too early or when not solicited by the client. On the other hand, clients appreciate leading statements which bring up possibilities they may have overlooked. The following principles seem to enhance the possibility of client satisfaction with the occupational information technique.

2.9 **Principles of Using Occupational Information**

In general, information given to the client should be given without personal reference. It seems best to let the client apply it to himself as the data and his feelings support the suggestions. It seems wise, when presenting occupational facts, to give them directly from printed material rather than from memory. This prevents erroneous or outdated information from being given and helps to prevent the shift of responsibility from client to counsellor. If the counsellor gives too much direct information, he is likely to be regarded as the expert
upon whom responsibility for the solution of the problem
and the complete direction of the interview may be shifted.
Strang corroborates this view by regarding the counsellor
as a "sounding board" or "resource". When the synthesized
patterns seem to indicate occupations to the counsellor
but not to the client, the counsellor suggests them as
possibilities to consider. This is done in a manner to
allow the client to accept or reject them freely. Readi-
ness for occupational data may be directed by the sensitive
counsellor from the degree of self-understanding and self-
acceptance displayed during the appraisal phases. In
general, occupational information and suggestions are
held in abeyance until (1) the individual appraisal phases
are completed, (2) the client feels a need for such infor-
mation, or (3) the counsellor feels that occupational infor-
mation would serve an instrumental or therapeutic function.
The counsellor has a responsibility to help the client
relate occupational facts to the predetermined personal
data from tests and the personal history. This is an
interactive process between counsellor and client. The
counsellor helps the client to verify and clarify the
occupational information gained in his library research.
While emphasizing analysis and synthesis of vocational
information, there is a tendency to de-emphasize the general
educational values of certain courses of study.
These principles are useful in helping the client decide upon tentative life goals. (37:125-126)

References


10. Ibid., pp. 29-30.


15. Ibid., p. 192.

16. Ibid.,

17. Ibid., p. 193.

18. Ibid., p. 194.


20. Ibid., p. 485.

21. Ibid., p. 488.

22. Ibid., p. 489.
23. Ibid.

24. Ibid., p. 490.


26. Ibid.

27. Ibid.

28. Ibid., p. 76.

29. Ibid., pp. 77-78.


