CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

2.1 Theories and Models of Guidance and Counselling

2.2 Models on Strategic Alignment

2.3 Theories on Life Skills Attainment

2.4 Theories on Personality Development

2.5 Theories on Vocational Choices
THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

The theory provides a structural framework for the conceptual understanding of the study. It is a set of well developed concepts that emphasized an integral framework that can be used to expand and explain particular phenomena. This chapter focuses on the theoretical and philosophical perspectives of the present study. It addresses to explore and understand the role of guidance and counselling to students at higher secondary level. The theories on the paradigms of life skills attainment, personality development and vocational choice provide a base for developing a package on guidance and counselling for higher secondary students.

The chapter discusses the theories as follows:

2.1 Theories and models of Guidance and Counselling

2.2 Models of Strategic Alignment

2.3 Theories of life skills

2.4 Theories of Personality development

2.5 Theories of Vocational choices

2.1 Theoretical Framework

Counsellors use many theories for their counseling framework that direct them in the decisions they make and methods of counselling they use. The present study guided by an eclectic approach that include the theories such as Behavioural theory, Social learning theory, Rational- Emotive-behavioural theory, Gestalt therapy, self theory, Neuro-Linguistics Programming and Tansactional analysis.

2.1.1 Behavioural Theory

The emphasis of this theory is on how behaviour is learned or acquired. Thus, the underlying principle behind behavioural theory is that behaviour can be
learned, unlearned and relearned. The view is that learning and its process within the environment critically affects the way people think and act.

The behavioural theory is grounded on a scientific view of human behaviour that applies a systematic and structured approach to counselling. Behaviour modification or behaviour therapy is the application of basic research and theory from experimental psychology to influence behaviour for purposes of resolving personal and social problems and enhancing human functioning. Behavior modification aims to increase people’s life skills hence making them competent in various aspects. Therefore, this knowledge will help the counsellor understand and explain students behaviour in different environments and equip the counsellors with the skills on how to strengthen counselling in order to develop their academic, social and personal competences. Thus, although the client generally determines what behaviour will be changed, the counsellor usually determines how this behaviour can best be modified.

In designing a treatment plan, behaviour counsellors employ techniques and procedures that are specifically appropriate for a particular client. In selecting these strategies, counsellors have a wide range of options, a few of which include relaxation training, systematic desensitization, modeling methods, assertion-training programmes and self-management programmes. Therefore, students may acquire academic, social and personal competencies by modeling appropriate social, personal competencies and even individual coping skills from the counsellor. Through their actual behaviour during sessions, a counsellor can best teach self-disclosure, risk taking, openness, and honesty among others. Assertion training that helps people to express their feelings, thoughts beliefs and altitudes are also emphasized in behavioural approach.
2.1.2 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory as proposed by Albert Bandura in 1986 stresses that behaviour is not solely determined by inner drives or the environment, but is a result of an interactive association between inner processes and environmental variables. The inner processes are covert events based on earlier experiences and are controlled by external environmental influences to bring about overt responses. In Bandura’s view, verbal representation and imaginable representation of the environment guide a person’s behaviour. Thus, one can use both insight and foresight to solve his or her problems.

Learning also occurs through *observational learning* in a process known as *modeling*. Therefore, students can acquire competencies such as academic, social and personal through modeling. The counsellor needs to act as a role model to the students in each of the environments. Bandura also developed the concept of *efficacy expectations*, which he conceived as convictions of an individual that certain behaviour will produce certain outcomes. Efficacy expectation can also be explained as a person’s judgment about his or her ability to plan, execute and maintain a particular action or behaviour. These expectations influence choices of activities and environment settings. For provision of effective guidance and counselling, the understanding of the student efficacy expectation in his/her prevailing environment is essential. He also explained issues on motivation and based it on representation of future outcomes, which generate current motivators of behaviour because of the anticipated future reinforcements. The anticipation of self-approval or self-criticism motivates or de-motivates behaviour. Bandura also observed that learning is controlled by the limits of someone’s expectation efficacy. Thus, people learn from various environments of being modeled, reinforced and
emotional contacts. Among the environments that Bandura proposed in counselling and learning new behaviour include: modeling, efficacy expectations and phobia reduction. These processes can be enhanced through guided participation, modeling and systematic desensitization. The following figure shows the social learning theory:

![Diagrammatic representation of social learning theory](image.png)

*Figure: 2.1 Diagrammatic representation of social learning theory*

### 2.1.3 Rational-Emotive Theory

Rational –emotive theory as developed by Albert Ellis (2002) is a directive, confrontational form of psychotherapy designed to challenge clients’ irrational beliefs about themselves and others. The theory is based on the assertion that individuals develop psychological problems because of their beliefs, especially irrational and self defeating beliefs. Irrational beliefs cause people to view undesirable events as a catastrophe rather than a disappointment or an inconvenience. Irrational beliefs can
therefore cause people to feel depressed, worthless, or enraged instead of simply disappointed or annoyed. The theory helps them to understand, rationally and logically, that their false beliefs with rational ones, their emotional reactions and psychological approach to issues become more appropriate, less distressing, and more likely to lead to constructive behaviour.

Rational –emotive therapy is based on Ellis ABC theory. In this case, a student scores a poor grade in a course and believes that the poor results were as a result of poor teaching. Therefore, the student experiences emotional distress. However, as noted by Ellis the student emotional consequence is not caused by poor grade but by his belief about the poor grade. The A refers to the activating event, the B to the person’s belief about the event and the C to the emotional consequences that follow. According to Ellis, it is not the activating event (A) that causes the upsetting consequences (C), but rather it is the client’s beliefs (B) about the event. That is, A does not cause C; B causes. If the belief is irrational, then the emotional consequence can be extreme distress. Consequently irrational beliefs can lead to psychological distress. Hence Rational-Emotive Theory can be used to help students identify their irrational beliefs in academic, social and personal aspects and replace them with rational ones in order to fully develop these competencies. For effective counselling, counsellors can assist the students by utilizing RET with a good deal of warmth, approval and reassurance which tend to help them achieve self-fulfillment.

Figure: 2.2 Diagrammatic Representation of Rational-Emotive Therapy
2.1.4 Gestalt Therapy

Gestalt therapy is an existential/experiential form of psychotherapy that emphasizes personal responsibility, and that focuses upon the individual's experience in the present moment, the therapist-client relationship, the environmental and social contexts of a person's life, and the self-regulating adjustments people make as a result of their overall situation. Gestalt therapy was developed by Fritz Perls, Laura Perls and Paul Goodman in the 1940s and 1950s.

The word Gestalt means whole, or configuration. Gestalt therapy is an approach that is holistic (including mind, body and culture). Gestalt therapy largely focuses on process (what is actually happening) rather than content (what is being talked about). The emphasis is on what is being done, thought, and felt at the present moment (the phenomenality of both client and therapist), rather than on what was, might be, could be, or should have been. Gestalt therapy is a method of awareness practice (also called "mindfulness" in other clinical domains), by which perceiving, feeling, and acting are understood to be conducive to interpreting, explaining, and conceptualizing (the hermeneutics of experience). This distinction between direct experience versus indirect or secondary interpretation is developed in the process of therapy. The client learns to become aware of what he or she is doing and that triggers a shift or change. The objective of Gestalt therapy is to enable the client to become more fully and creatively alive and to become free from the blocks and unfinished business that may diminish satisfaction, fulfillment, and growth.
2.1.5. Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP)

The word Neuro-linguistic programming can be broken down into three distinct words: Neuro, linguistic and programming. Neuro refers to the brain and neural network that feeds into the brain. Neurons or nerve cells are the working units used by the nervous system to send, receive, and store signals that add up to information. Linguistics refers to the content, both verbal and non-verbal, that moves across and through these pathways. Programming is the way the content or signal is manipulated to convert it into useful information. The brain may direct the signal, sequence it, change it based on our prior experience, or connect it to some other experience we have stored in our brain to convert it into thinking patterns and behaviours that are the essence of our experience of life.

Neuro Linguistic programming (NLP for short) was developed in the early 1970s by an information scientist and a linguist at the University of California at Santa Cruz. They had observed that people with similar education, training,
background, and years of experience were achieving widely varying results ranging from wonderful to mediocre. They wanted to know the secrets of effective people. They were especially interested in the possibility of being able to duplicate the behaviour, and therefore the competence, of these highly effective individuals. It was the golden era of modelling and simulation. They decided to model human excellence. They looked at factors such as education, business and therapy. They have then zeroed in on the communication aspect. They started studying how the successful people communicated (verbal language, body language, eye movements, and others). The basic premise of NLP is that the words we use reflect an inner, subconscious perception of our problems. If these words and perceptions are inaccurate, they will create an underlying problem as long as we continue to use and to think them.

Figure 2.4 Diagrammatic representation of NLP

The neuro linguistic therapist will analyze every word and phrase the client use in describing symptoms or concerns about health. He or she will examine the
facial expressions and body movements of clients. After determining problems in perception, the therapist will help him/her to understand the root cause. The therapist will help to remodel thoughts and mental associations in order to fix preconceived notions. These preconceived notions keep the client from achieving the success you deserve. NLP will help you get out of these unhealthy traits and replace them with positive thoughts, and patterns that promote wellness.

2.1.7 Transactional Analysis

Transactional Analysis is a theory of personality as well as a method of psychotherapy developed by Eric Berne. Transactional Analysis (TA) is defined as a theory of personality based on the analysis of all possible transactions between two or more people on the basis of three distinct ego-states—Parent, Adult and Child. As a theory of personality, it provides an account of how people are structured psychologically in terms of the ego-state model developed by Eric Berne.

The Ego-state Model (PAC Model)

The ego-stage model attempts to explain how people function and express their personality in terms of behaviour. An ego stage is a coherent system of thought and feeling manifested by corresponding patterns of behaviour. TA recognizes the existence of three distinct type of ego states in every individual—Parent (P), Adult (A) and Child (C).

1. The parent Ego-state (P): This ego state is derived from the incorporation of the specific parental figures into one's behaviour. When an individual is in this state of his ego, he tends to feel, think, act, talk and respond just as one of his parents did when he was young.
2. The Adult Ego-state (A): Objectivity and reality orientation based on experience constitutes the adult ego-state. When a person is in this state of ego, he tends to appraise his environment objectively, approaches the possibilities involved in outcome of his efforts based on his past experience.

3. The Child Ego-state (C): It contains all the natural feelings, needs, impulses and potentialities of an infant. When one is in this ego-state he behaves as a little boy as he did in his childhood.

Transactional Analysis

Transaction is a unit of social intercourse (dealing between persons) involving communication between two people. The application of ego-state model to analyse sequence of transaction is properly called transactional analysis. When two or more people confront each other, sooner or later one of them will speak, or give some other indication of acknowledging the presence of the others. This is called transactional stimulus. Another person will then say or do something which is in some way related to the stimulus, and that is called transactional response.

Every transactions essentially involves and is based on ego-states of the individuals entering into the transaction. Six ego states are involved in a transaction between two persons. TA attempts at determining which ego state in one person is transacting with which ego state in another and in what ways. There are three basic kinds of transactions-complementary transactions, crossed transactions and ulterior transactions.
1. **Complementary Transactions**: In this type of transaction, the stimulus person and response person are in identical or complementary ego-states and hence the vectors or transaction arrows are parallel. There are nine possible types of complementary transactions - PP, PA, PC, AP, AA, AC, CP, CA and CC. As long as the transactions are complementary, with parallel arrows, communication may proceed unhindered.

![Diagram](image1)

Complementary Transaction: PC - CP

*Figure: 2.5* Diagrammatic representation of complementary transaction in TA

2. **Crossed Transactions**: This type of transaction occurs when communication takes place between different pairs of ego-states. The transaction arrows (vectors) cross one another resulting in breaking of communication.

![Diagram](image2)

Crossed Transaction AA - CP

*Figure: 2.6* Diagrammatic representation of Crossed transaction in TA
In the above illustration, an Adult-to-Adult stimulus (AA), such as a request for information, receives a Child-to-Parent response (CP), so that the stimulus and response arrows, instead of being parallel, are crossed with one another.

3. Ulterior transaction: It is a two-level transaction in which beyond the obvious transaction, there is a hidden transaction between two different ego-states of the persons concerned. In such communication, a non-verbal message is sent along with the spoken!" is an ulterior transaction.

The Four Life Positions

Transactional Analysis constructs four possible life positions held with respect to oneself and others. They are:

1. I'M NOT OK - YOU'RE OK : Such people feel inferior when they compare themselves with others. These people are depressed and withdraw from others.

2. I'M NOT OK - YOU'RE NOT OK: These people become deeply sick and lose interest in living. They might end up in mental hospitals or kill themselves or others.

3. I'M OK - YOUR'RE NOT OK: These people feel victimized and they blame others for their miseries. A child who is brutalized long enough by the parents will switch over to the third life position in transaction. This consider as a criminal position as there is every chance for such a child to develop a criminal personality type. These people may turn persecutors.

4. I'M OK - YOU'RE OK : These people are mentally healthy. People of this life position is happy and have intimate relationship. At this new position, the person recognize that both you and I have worth, value and
dignity as people. I accept myself as me and you as you. This is a statement on essence of human being than behavior.

2.1.8 Eclectic Approach

This study is mainly based on the structural framework of eclectic approach. The leading proponent of the eclectic approach is Fredrick Thorne in 1945. The underpinning tenets of Eclectic means selecting, reconciling and choosing appropriate methods from various sources of systems. According to this approach there is the preference for integration of the essential features of the various counselling theories about human behaviour into a more comprehensive theory. Fredrick Thorne explains that eclecticism collects and integrates all known methods of personality counselling and psychotherapy into an eclectic system, which might form the basis of standardized practice with no priority given to any theoretical viewpoint. Thus, in his approach there is assimilation of extractions from psychoanalytic, humanistic, cognitive and behavioural approaches to form a multidimensional system of therapy. In order to enable clients to live effectively, the therapist must select from many systems those elements that promise to be most useful in a given situation. In an institution of learning, the counsellor may use all known techniques of counselling to help the students develop their academic, social and personal competencies. In an effective counselling relationship, the counsellor facilitates growth and competencies that lead to positive change in the client. Eclectic theory is useful in understanding and dealing with the particular and specific counselling needs of the students. Thus according to this theory, in an effective counselling process, the trained professional counsellor utilizes all available methods to assist in the client’s development.
The Process of Child Therapy

This is an integrated therapeutic approach using an eclectic counseling which integration of the essential features of the various counselling theories about human behaviour into a more comprehensive theory. The following flow-chart shows the events in the process of child therapy.

*Figure: 2.7 The dispositional strand on the process of child therapy*

As the flow chart mention, the first step is initial Assessment phase.
Initial Assessment Phase

This is the preparation phase and during this phase information gathered about the child’s problems and related aspects. This includes collection of data from parents, teachers and peers. All the information have been gathered help the counselor to formulate a preliminary hypothesis with regard to the problem of the child. With this hypothesis in mind, counseling therapy can commence.

Therapy for the child

In the process of therapy the counselor has to follow some steps such as selection of appropriate media, joining with the child along with parents, inviting the child to tell his story (or problems) and enabling the child to proceed the story by using appropriate counseling skills, resolution of issues, empowerment of child (involves gaining mastery over the issues) and helping the child to think and behave positively.

Review of Therapeutic outcomes

This is the final assessment and evaluation which is best done in collaboration with the family. This is to confirm that further work is not required and to terminate the process.

2.1.2 MODELS OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

For developing a guidance and counselling package, various models have to be conceptualized. The present study guided by the structural framework of the following guidance and counselling models.
2.1.2.1 Sequentially Planned Integrative Counselling for children (SPICC Model of Counselling)

Sequentially Planned Integrative Counselling for children (SPICC) is a model that makes use of a number of well established therapeutic approaches in a deliberately sequential process. SPICC model draws on theoretical concepts and practical strategies from a variety of well established psychotherapeutic approaches. These include client centred psychotherapy, psychodynamic psychotherapy, Gestalt therapy, narrative therapy, cognitive-behaviour therapy and behaviour therapy.

*Figure 2.8: SPICC Model*
This model has developed on the view that when working with children some therapeutic approaches work more quickly and effectively than other approaches in achieving particular goals during the counseling process. For example, client centred psychotherapy is particularly helpful in enabling the child to join and tell their story, Gestalt therapy is very useful for raising a child’s awareness on helping the child to get into touch with strong emotions, narrative therapy is suitable for helping a child to change their view of themselves, cognitive-behavioural therapy and behaviour therapy are recognized as being most appropriate for producing changes in child’s thinking and behaviours.

2.1.2.2 A TEXAS COMPREHENSIVE, DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM MODEL

A Texas Comprehensive, Developmental Guidance and Counseling Program Model designed to meet locally identified needs and goals of students in Texas and to make optimal use of available resources. Implementing a Developmental guidance and counseling program means different things depending on situations at the local level; it might mean developing a new program, strengthening an existing program, or redirecting existing resources into a revamped program. This model comprises of content areas and skill levels such as awareness, self confidence development, skills development, decision making, goal setting, planning, problem solving skills, application, communication skills, responsive behaviour and cross cultural effectiveness.

The process for tailoring the program model to suit the local situation is outlined in the following figure.
Theoretical Overview

Programme Development Cycle

The process is presented as a Program Development Cycle which requires five separate steps – organizing, planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating. These steps are illustrated and highlighted. Each of the suggested steps is important and should be taken; however, varying the order or taking some steps
simultaneously may better suit a district’s or school’s needs. An outline of the phases is presented first followed by a brief description of each step.

*Figure 2.10 Program Development Cycle-Texas model*

**The Program Development Cycle**

1. **Organizing**
   a. Commit to action
   b. Identify leadership for the program improvement efforts

2. **Planning**
   a. Adopt the developmental guidance and counseling program model and the program development process to be used
   b. Assess the current program

3. **Designing**
   a. Establish the desired program design
   b. Publish the program framework
   c. Plan the transition to the desired program
d. Develop and implement a master plan for changed implementation

4. Implementing

a. Make program improvements
b. Make appropriate use of the school counselors’ competencies

5. Evaluating

a. Evaluate the developmental guidance and counseling program

2.1.2.3 Developing holistic student-centred guidance in higher education

The development of guidance services in higher education is a topical concern. In addition to changes in society and working life, they are aimed at harmonising the structures of higher education and making degrees more readily comparable. Also, students entering higher education are now a much more diverse population than previously. As higher education systems expand, guidance and counselling services have a critical role to play, not only in reducing drop-out, but more broadly in ensuring that the expansion of tertiary provision is grounded in and responsive to the changing needs of individual students.

The University of Jyväskyla has addressed these guidance-related challenges that face higher education by creating a model for university-level guidance. In this model, guidance is an activity implemented through a collaborative counselling culture, and centred round the division of expertise and responsibility. The plan is based on Van Esbroeck’s (1997) holistic student-centred model of guidance (see Watts & Van Esbroeck, 1998). This encourages all services to consider the holistic nature of the students’ problems and needs, and realise how sharing and working together can help to address them more adequately. Indeed, “guidance and counselling are increasingly being viewed as proactive support for students’

The holistic model presented in Figure 11 centres on the individual student’s needs, and calls for the integration of the expertise of teachers, counsellors, and other professionals outside the university, but within the context of collaboration across all areas of guidance and counselling. University teachers constitute the first-in-line agents responsible for guidance. The tasks of second-in-line guidance providers are more administrative, but not without some degree of specialisation. They are not involved in, but are linked to, the formal function of teaching. Their role is mainly limited in the provision of information, but could include counselling and advice (Watts & Van Esbroeck, 1998). Specialised career services are part of the third line of provision. They ‘‘are currently the fastest-growing area of guidance and counselling services in higher education across Europe’’ (Watts & Van Esbroeck, 1998, p. 37).

The career services have focussed mainly on the guidance related to a student’s career choice. They also offer information about working life, provide guidance to promote a student’s employability and develop links with working life that enhance it. Career services follow a philosophy of collaborative counselling culture, engaging in active networking with subject departments and maintaining contacts with working life and employment offices.

This model of comprehensive, holistic and student-centred guidance, incorporating educational, personal, and career guidance, is proposed as a means for mapping the services within an institution with a view to strengthening the ties between them.
Figure: 2.11 The holistic student-centred model of guidance

2.1.2.4 Unesco Module on ‘Guidance and Counselling Programme Development’

The Module on ‘Guidance and Counselling Programme Development’ was prepared in Botswana. It is designed to provide help in starting a Guidance and Counselling Programme. It stresses the importance of planning in programme development. This provides advice on how to design, implement and evaluate programmes effectively.

1. Assessment of Needs

In order to determine the goals and objectives of the programme, it is important to assess the current situation with regard to Guidance and Counselling. The programme developer must clearly indicate the position of the organization in terms of clients and their problems (gathered through a needs assessment). The
general needs of the country, which existing programmes have not met, should also be taken into account.

2. Defining Goals and Objectives

After the identification of students’ needs and the environment, the aim of a Guidance programme should be to provide beneficiaries with the skills and attitudes necessary to function fully in society. The goal of the programme also emphasizes the need to assist young people to become responsible citizens, who develop realistic and fulfilling plans for their lives based on self-knowledge, their own needs and those of the environment. The goal of all programmes should be the development of a complete person, capable of surviving in a complex world, and to provide all individuals, despite their socio-economic status, sex and cultural background, the information to fall back on when needs arise.

3. Selection of a Programme Structure

After the needs of clients have been determined and set aims and objectives, the programme structure should be described. A decision is then made on which content needs are to be addressed first. As the content is structured, the delivery methods are also considered. It is during the programme development that the standard one contents are separated from the standard two contents and put in order. That is, the lower and upper class contents are determined. The content is in accordance with the fact that Guidance is developmental and systematic.

Implementation of the Programme

The ability to implement a plan of action effectively goes a long way towards determining the success of the programme. It is, therefore, important to consider various aspects that affect programme implementation, such as the financial and human resources, as well as the existing structures and policies that
have a bearing on programme implementation. For any programme to achieve its desired results, it has to be effectively implemented. Even though planning and design are done properly, the failure to employ effective implementation strategies may adversely affect the programme, and this will determine the survival of the programme.

Implementation Strategies

Form groups to identify the most appropriate strategies for implementing any four topics of interest from the four fields of Guidance as follows:

Group 1 - Personal Guidance
Group 2 - Educational Guidance
Group 3 - Social Guidance
Group 4 - Career Guidance

After a consideration of factors affecting the implementation of the programme, it is important to explore various strategies. It is at this point that the programme leader will have to prove himself/herself able to run an effective programme. The leader has to have imagination and foresight. Different delivery mechanisms are employed with individuals and groups. They will vary from one school to another and are not definitive. Some implementation techniques, however, are common to most programmes. They include the following:

1. Extended Registration
2. General School Assembly
3. Time Tabling
4. Community Involvement
5. Research Projects
6. Career Fairs/Seminars
8. Curriculum Infusion

9. Workshops

10. Peer Counselling


Evaluation of the Guidance Programme

Implementers can only measure the worth and impact of a programme if they carry out research and evaluation. It is important to equip participants with the necessary skills to monitor and evaluate programmes. This will allow them to assess programme accountability and effectiveness. Unless programmes are systematically evaluated, implementors will not be able to determine the extent to which their programme has achieved the desired goals. Evaluation checks not only deficiencies but also allows for programme improvement.

Programme development is sequential. All steps have to be carried out systematically for any guidance and counselling programme to have positive results. The following process has to be observed:

*Figure: 2.12 Development of Guidance and Counselling programme-UNESCO module*
This is a cycle which is repeated from time to time, so that the programme addresses the changing needs of those for whom it was designed.

2.2 STRATEGIC ALIGNMENT

‘Strategic alignment’ refers to linking overall strategies suitable for each activity for imparting guidance and counselling to students for achieving intended outcomes. The counsellor’s job is to create an environment that supports the activities appropriate to achieving the desired outcomes. The key is that the components in the system, especially the strategies used and the assessment tasks, are aligned with the learning activities assumed in the intended outcomes. Strategic alignment is the realization of higher performance by the achievement of fit among counselling strategy, structure and environment through progress of students.

Strategic alignment’ has two aspects. The ‘strategic’ aspect refers to the selection of appropriate strategies for each activity for the package. The ‘alignment’ aspect refers to set up a conducive environment that supports the activities appropriate to achieving the desired learning outcomes. It is a broad view that all components in the package - the content and its intended outcomes, the strategies used, the assessment tasks - are aligned to each other. All are tuned to activities addressed in the desired learning outcomes. In setting up an aligned system, specify the desired outcomes of guidance and counselling in terms of not only of topic content, but in the level of understanding want students to achieve. Then set up an environment that maximises the likelihood that students will engage in the activities designed to achieve the intended outcomes. Finally, choose assessment tasks that will tell how well individual students have attained these outcomes.
Strategy development is a curious mixture of science and art, fact and insight, knowledge, experience and creativity. If strategy is to be delivered successfully it must be clearly articulated and communicated throughout the process. In other words, the strategy must be widely understood at all levels so that operational plans and day to day activities are aligned with goals and objectives.

2.2.1 Primary Counselling Strategies

The adolescents are able to experiment with new and complex cognitions and they can think more abstractly than before. Many adolescents use artistic methods to express themselves, release emotions and convey messages to other people. The following are some creative strategies used as primary counseling.

**Art**: This helps the counsellor to understand the current issues or problems. Mainly three types of art use for this:

   a) The use of a family picture
   b) The use of free drawing
   c) The use of shapes and colours

**Metaphor**: It is a figure of speech containing an implied comparison: It expresses one thing in terms of something else. It uses an alternative picture and its contents to represent the real-life picture symbolically.

**Role play**: Role play is an excellent method for releasing energy during counselling adolescents.

**Journals**: Many students like writing diaries lyrics, poetry so that keeping journals is a task which is interesting familiar and satisfying for them.

**Behavioural and Cognitive strategies**: These are used mainly on following areas:
• Self confidence
• Anger management
• Problem solving
• Assertiveness training
• Making decisions

**Questionnaires and Rating scales:** These tools use for collecting immediate responses from the clients.

**Genograms:** Genograms are a useful way of collecting and organizing information about a family and personal identity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary counselling function</th>
<th>Symbolic &amp; Creative strategy</th>
<th>Art</th>
<th>Journals</th>
<th>Metaphor</th>
<th>Behavioural and cognitive</th>
<th>Rating scales &amp; Questionnaire</th>
<th>Genograms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relationship building</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting to know the adolescent and the adolescent’s constructs within the relationship</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Journals</td>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>Behavioural and cognitive</td>
<td>Rating scales &amp; Questionnaire</td>
<td>Genograms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessing the problem</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Journals</td>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>Behavioural and cognitive</td>
<td>Rating scales &amp; Questionnaire</td>
<td>Genograms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessing and exploring the adolescent’s emotional state, constructs, self-concept and beliefs; identifying issues and themes</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Journals</td>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>Behavioural and cognitive</td>
<td>Rating scales &amp; Questionnaire</td>
<td>Genograms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Addressing the problem</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Journals</td>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>Behavioural and cognitive</td>
<td>Rating scales &amp; Questionnaire</td>
<td>Genograms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing behaviours by exploring and promoting change in intrapersonal beliefs, personal growth and interpersonal relationships; experimenting with behaviours</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>Journals</td>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>Behavioural and cognitive</td>
<td>Rating scales &amp; Questionnaire</td>
<td>Genograms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure:** 2.13 Primary counselling strategies
2.2.2 Strategic plan models

There are several strategic plan models. Murgatroyed and Morgan (1993) proposed an interesting framework within which planning parameters can be fitted. They built four generic models based on two parameters - access and service - by dichotomizing both ‘access’ and ‘service’ into open and niche access, and basic and enhanced services respectively. Open access institutions are such institutions where anyone can walk in take admission if he or she fulfils necessary qualifications. There is no restriction on the basis of merit, caste, creed, religion, gender, language, economic class, etc. Niche access institutions are those where entry of students is controlled on predefined criteria.

![Strategic Planning Model by Murgatroyed and Morgan (1993)](image_url)

*Figure: 2.14 Strategic Planning Model by Murgatroyed and Morgan (1993)*

These four generic models provide a sound basis for identifying and classifying an institution into one of four categories. This provides the institution an
opportunity to examine the focus of TQM within the larger framework of the service mix—whether to continue enhanced services over a time frame. The model also offers schools the choice to shift from one category to another, and accordingly choose strategic plans.

**Kaufman a four-stage model of strategic planning (1992)**

There are several strategic planning models. Kaufman (1992) offered a four-stage model of strategic planning. The four stages are the following:

1. **Scoping:** Scoping refers to the scope of the study in general and the mission and vision of the programme in particular.

2. **Data collection:** The second stage of strategic planning is collecting data and information on a variety of issues that intrinsically determine the adoption of Package. Data and information are needed on the following:
   - Ideal vision
   - Beliefs and values
   - Current missions
   - Ideal and current results
   - Needs

3. **Planning**

Planning constitutes five important principles:

1. The first and foremost is the identification of matches and mismatches. There are areas and activities that can complement (matches) one another. Others can contradict (mismatches) one another. It is important to identify them and make deliberate efforts to reconcile the differences.

2. Reconciliation is the second stage of planning.
3. The third stage is developing collectively the short- and long-term missions to guide actions.

4. The fourth stage is carrying out a SWOT analysis to identify strengths, weakness, opportunities, and threats.

5. The final stage is developing strategic action plans that will translate the missions into reality.

4. **Implementing and evaluating**

This is the final stage, comprising the following primary stages:

- Putting the plan into action
- Carrying out formative evaluation
- Carrying out summative evaluation
- Continuing or revising, as required

*Figure 2.15 Eclectic strategic Planning model*
The eclectic model is as the best model as it covers all aspects of planning. This is the basis for the strategic alignment of the package.

2.3 LIFE SKILL DEFINITIONS AND COMPONENTS

"Life skills" are defined as psychosocial abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life. They are loosely grouped into three broad categories of skills: cognitive skills for analyzing and using information, personal skills for developing personal agency and managing oneself, and inter-personal skills for communicating and interacting effectively with others (UNICEF 2003)

Life skills education is a structured programme of needs- and outcomes-based participatory learning that aims to increase positive and adaptive behaviour by assisting individuals to develop and practise psycho-social skills that minimize risk factors and maximize protective factors.

It is important to define life skill concepts so that those who develop and implement curriculum and programs have the same understanding of the terms. Several of the life skills have very similar meanings. Checking the definitions as life skill selections are made ensures that the ones chosen most closely describe the impacts desired. Life skills are complex concepts that are more easily understood and addressed if broken down into sequential steps, sub skills, or component parts. Imagine that there is another ring added to the outside of the TLS Model. The outside ring would contain sub skills, or component parts, of each of the life skills. Several ways may be used to arrive at these components depending upon the application or accompanying subject matter through which the life skill is to be practiced. Some examples are included to help curriculum developers, but other divisions might be more appropriate in a certain situation. The purpose is to describe
a skill more specifically and to identify criteria—observable/measurable indicators—that will demonstrate impact. Life skill concepts overlap, so some of the same component parts may be listed in several places because life skills are practiced in different contexts and are interrelated. Curriculum developers creatively design learning experiences describing life skill development as appropriate to the situation. Using this list as a starting place, curriculum developers are urged to think in terms of subskills when writing life skill objectives.

In the present study the components of life skills selected mainly based on the Targeting Life Skills Model—Patricia A. Hendricks.

Figure: 2.16 Pictorial Representation of Targeting Life Skills Model
The following table represents the components and subcomponents of Targeting life skills model

Table 2.1
*The components and subcomponents of Targeting life skills model*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head</th>
<th>Head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thinking</strong> — using one’s mind to form ideas and make decisions; to imagine, to examine carefully in the mind, to consider Learning to learn— acquiring, evaluating, and using information; understanding the methods and skills for learning</td>
<td><strong>Managing</strong> — use of resources to accomplish a purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Using the senses to gain new information or find new ways to use information</td>
<td>Goal setting—deciding on the purpose or desired result; something to work toward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Remembering information that is learned; includes processes, such as the Experiential Learning Model, to help ensure information is retained</td>
<td><strong>Six steps to achieving a goal</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Understanding the meaning of the information</td>
<td>1. Identify an appropriate goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Questioning to gain more information</td>
<td>2. Identify tasks or steps necessary to achieve the goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Using the learned information in new situations, to solve problems, or to change one’s behavior</td>
<td>3. Make an action plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Being able to break down information into parts</td>
<td>4. Follow the plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Integrating parts of information to form a whole</td>
<td>5. Evaluate the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Judging the value of information for a given purpose</td>
<td>6. Revise the plan if the intended goal was not met.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Being able to communicate information to someone else</td>
<td><strong>Planning/organizing</strong> — a method for doing something that has been thought out ahead of time; how the parts can be put together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Supporting the efforts of others to learn</td>
<td>1. Consider the total situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Being open minded; willing to think about and try new things</td>
<td>2. Identify the parts, steps, and necessary sequence or order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decision making</strong> — choosing among several alternatives</td>
<td>3. Assign a person to be responsible, design a time line, and identify resources required to accomplish the parts or steps (if needed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A decision-making process</strong></td>
<td>4. Assemble the parts into a structure according to the desired purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Specify goals and constraints (limits).</td>
<td><strong>Wise use of resources</strong> — using sound judgment; not wasteful; being responsible; setting priorities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Generate alternatives.</td>
<td><strong>Resources include</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Consider risks and appraise alternatives.</td>
<td>(examples are given of each)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Choose an alternative to implement.</td>
<td>• Time—managing time, including wise use of leisure time for enjoyment; balancing work time and play time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem solving</strong> — clearly identifying a problem and a plan of action for resolution of the problem</td>
<td>• Money—budgeting income, comparison shopping</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Theoretical Overview

The problem-solving process
1. Identify/clearly define the problem situation.
2. Gather information; consider priorities, resources, needs, interests.
3. Identify possible solutions.
4. Compare and select the best alternative.
5. Plan a strategy; set a goal, and determine ways to reach it.
6. Carry out the plan—apply the solution to the problem.
7. Evaluate the results: Is the problem solved?

Critical thinking—strategies for analyzing, comparing, reasoning, and reflecting focused on deciding what to believe or do; discovering meaning; building connections with past learning Critical thinking can be thought of as talking things over with oneself in one’s mind, deciding what to think or do, improving the quality of decision making.
- Observe the situation carefully—Do I agree with what is being said or done?
- Examine your reaction—How do I really feel about what is being said or done?
- Consider alternative responses and opposing viewpoints—Based on what I know, is the statement true?
- Decide among the alternatives—

Service learning—gaining skill and experience through active participation in organized service experiences that meet actual community needs and that are coordinated with the school and community; learning linked with real life Qualities learned through service learning may include: empathy, tolerance, perspective, accountability, responsibility, self-esteem, and leadership.

The service-learning process
- Identify opportunities to meet actual community needs.
- Plan a service opportunity with school and community representatives.
- Interact with an interested adult to implement the project.
- Keep records of problem or needs.
- Learn to apply information to problem solving and to helping others.
- Demonstrate evidence of learning.
- Materials—recycling paper and plastic, allocating a supply to last a given length of time
- Space—efficient room arrangement, wise use of available facilities
- People—efficient use of people’s energy or expertise on a project
- Natural resources—conservation of resources available in the environment

Keeping records—recording selected useful information, usually focused for a specific purpose
- Determine the purpose of the record.
- Choose an appropriate method or plan for recording the information (narrative, list, chart, diagram, outline, video tape, enumeration, etc.).
- Select information to include.
- Enter the information for accounting and any explanation.
- Use the information to make a determination, decision, or judgment.

Resiliency—adaptability; the ability to recover after experiencing misfortune or distress; coping with change; overcoming problems and difficulties.

People with one or more of the following factors tend to be more resilient.
- Ability to see the difficulty as a problem that can be endured or resolved
- Good interpersonal relationships
- A variety of interests and goals
- Flexibility
- Attitudes of hope or persistence (keep trying)
- A sense of self-worth
- Seeing a purpose for one’s own life
### Theoretical Overview

#### Heart

**Relating** — a mutual or reciprocal connection established between two people that is wholesome and meaningful to both

Communication — exchange of thoughts, information, or messages between individuals; sending and receiving information using speech, writing, gestures, and artistic expression. Messages must be sent and received for communication to have taken place. Some examples

- Reading — considering ideas, thoughts, information, or messages that have been written
- Speaking — talking or verbal communication; conversation; planning, organizing, and presenting a speech
- Listening — hearing and interpreting verbal (spoken) communications
- Giving feedback — responding to communications from others
- Observing — being attentive to and interpreting nonverbal communications, such as body language and gestures
- Sensitive to thoughts and feelings of others

**Cooperation** — to work or act together for a common purpose or mutual benefit

**Some skills that aid cooperative effort**

- Communicating effectively, Setting group goals, Using social skills, Interacting effectively with others, Building and maintaining trust
- Providing leadership, Engaging in discussion and controversy that produces results, Managing conflict, Accepting responsibility

**Social skills** — skills people use when interacting with others and to behave in the accepted manner or customs of the society in which they live;

#### Heart

**Caring** — showing understanding, kindness, concern, and affection for others

Concern for others — to worry about, give attention to, the well being of others

- Sensitivity to others’ situations and their well being
- Sympathy — capacity for sharing or understanding the feelings of another; compassion
- Involving oneself in helping others — demonstrating concern
- Being able to accept expressions of concern from others

**Empathy**

Empathy is a complex emotional state that is difficult to describe and is not observable. It is usually determined by indirect evidence.

**Empathy includes**

- Emotionally significant experiences that are shared by two or more people
- Identification with and understanding of another’s situation, feelings, and motives
- Experiencing another’s emotional state without pity or judgment; “feeling with” another person
- In response to a shared understanding, one person loses feelings of a separate self and becomes joined in feelings, and perhaps behaviors, with another for a time

**Sharing** — to have, use, or do together with another or others

- To use an object together at the same time, trading off
- To divide into parts and distribute evenly
### Theoretical Overview

**Social skills include**
- Greeting others; making introductions,
- Engaging in conversation; Following instructions,
- Accepting “no” answers; Expressing feelings appropriately; Disagreeing appropriately; seeking to resolve conflict non-violently; Showing respect and consideration for others; having empathy, sensitivity, and friendship skills
- Using good manners; Cultural competence—having knowledge of and comfort with, people of different cultural, racial, or ethnic backgrounds
- Resistance skills—able to resist negative peer pressure and dangerous situations,
- Conflict resolution—finding and applying creative and non-destructive ways to resolve differences between two or more persons; getting along with others

**Hands**

**Giving** —to provide, supply, or cause to happen (social responsibility)

- Community service/volunteering— to donate one’s time and/or effort of one’s own free will for the benefit of the group without guarantee of reward
  - Contributing to the common good, something bigger than self
  - Participating in community affairs
  - Gaining internal, not external, reward
  - Making a difference in one’s own life or the lives of others
  - Realizing personal growth and understanding
  - Making use of personal talents and skills
  - Creating a caring environment
  - Enjoying relationships with others

**Leadership** —to assist the group in meeting its goals by showing or directing along the way; using personal influence to guide the group in reaching its goal

The qualities desired in a leader depend upon the situation in which leadership is needed. The ability to lead can be learned. **Some qualities/competencies**

**Hands**

**Working** —the physical or mental effort that is required to accomplish something; using skill, effort, or ability to accomplish something that earns pay to support oneself

- Useful/marketable skills—to have the abilities wanted by employers and needed to hold a job

**Effective workers can**
- Make wise use of resources
- Work well with people from culturally diverse backgrounds
- Acquire, communicate, organize, use, and evaluate information; use computers to process information
- Understand social, organizational, and...
demonstrated by leaders include the following. (The related competencies are grouped together.)

- Has a vision; has a motivation to lead; motivates others (inspires others to action)
- Communicates effectively; is a good listener; gives and receives feedback; speaks clearly and effectively in group settings
- Works well with people and groups; understands group process/ functioning; facilitates group interaction; able to help group set and achieve goals; has wide knowledge of institutions and people; presides over meetings that are productive; is self-confident
- Involves other people in meaningful ways; delegates responsibilities; empowers others; shares leadership
- Is able to plan/organize/assess
- Is able to define issues; is able to lead group problem solving:
  - gets involved in the decision making process; gathers relevant information for decision-making; builds consensus
- Accepts differences in people and in their opinions; is tolerant of disagreements; manages conflict positively; sees perspectives of others and their value; is flexible; is able to negotiate
- Has personal values and traits of good character; is trustworthy; assumes responsibility; is self-motivated; understands self
- Generates resources; manages resources, including time, money, and human capital

Responsible citizenship—an individual demonstrating love and devotion in response to duties, rights, and privileges as a member of a community or country
- Loyalty to one’s place of residence (city, state, country)
- Entitlements and privileges of citizenship including voting, protection, participation in government, etc.
- Obligations of citizenship

Contribution to group efforts—to give or supply along with others for a common purpose
Similar to “cooperation” or “teamwork” except that cooperation implies relationship

Effective workers have

- Basic reading, writing, arithmetic, and mathematics skills
- Ability to learn, to reason, to think creatively, to make decisions, and to solve problems
- Personal qualities of responsibility, discipline, honesty, sociability, and self-esteem
- Personal work ethic
- Ability to evaluate career opportunities
- Self-understanding in relation to career choices

Teamwork—work done by two or more people, each doing parts of the whole task

Teamwork involves

- Communicating effectively
- Identifying and agreeing on a common task
- Dividing a task by identifying contributions by each person (roles)
- Accepting responsibility for one’s part of the task
- Coordinating the interaction (working together) to complete the task
- Sharing accomplishment

Self-motivation—able to make the needed technological systems; design or improve systems
- Make appropriate use of equipment, tools, and technology, including maintenance and repair of equipment
- Communicate effectively
Theoretical Overview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>between those involved, and teamwork is a more structured situation, such as in the workplace. Contribution to group efforts implies a volunteer component and less structure than teamwork.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying a mutual goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sharing responsibility for accomplishing the goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Usually implies giving without monetary reward (voluntary participation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sharing accomplishment and achievement if goal is achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effort to carry out a task or a plan; personal will to take action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Inspiring oneself to make the necessary effort—to stimulate to action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Taking initiative—taking the steps necessary to begin or follow through with a plan or task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self-starting—working independently of supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Perseverance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Living —the manner or style of daily life; one’s actions or behaviour Healthy lifestyle choices—selecting a way of living that is in accord with sound condition of body and mind, prevention of disease and injury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May include</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Nutritional diet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Weight control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Regular exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Resisting harmful activity (alcohol, drugs, smoking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reduction of mental and emotional stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Adequate rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Practicing safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stress management</strong>—to direct or have control over physical or mental strain and pressure, or one’s reaction to it; coping with change (It is important to note that the stress comes from the individual’s perception, or how an event is interpreted. The same event may be stressful to one person and not another.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Understanding the meaning of stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Recognizing signs of stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying personal stressors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Learning causes of good and bad stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Learning consequences of stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being —a person’s basic or essential nature; personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem—pride in oneself; proper regard for oneself as a human being; valuing oneself; a feeling of ability to cope; learning to accept and like oneself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Understanding one’s abilities, strengths, and limitations; realistic assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Learning about oneself from relationships with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Gaining acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Gaining control over one’s life or situation; belief that one can succeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The ability to experience success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Having courage; open to new life experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Having self-confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Valuing oneself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-responsibility</strong>—taking care of oneself; being accountable for one’s behavior and obligations; choosing for oneself between right and wrong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Personally accountable without supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Answering for own actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Capable of making moral and rational decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reliable; can be depended on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Uses good judgment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Character</strong>—a person’s moral strength; integrity, fortitude, reputation; a person’s usual qualities or traits; adherence to a code of values or ethical principles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Theoretical Overview

- Learning ways to manage stress positively
- Identifying support persons to help with stressful situations
- Setting goals to reduce, and actually reducing, stress in one’s life

**Disease prevention**—to anticipate and ward off conditions that keep the body from functioning normally, such as infection or stress that impairs normal physiological functioning
- Knowing how the human body functions
- Understanding how disease spreads
- Practicing cleanliness and self protection measures, such as Universal Precautions and hand washing
- Using tested medications and recommendations of physician
- Avoiding risky situations
- Having tests and examinations as recommended by physician

**Personal safety**—taking care to avoid danger, risk, or harm; self protection; being cautious, careful; physically and emotionally safe
- Physical safety
- Emotional safety
- Handling emergencies
- Avoiding unhealthy attachments—gangs, bullying
- Avoiding situations that might put one at risk—weapons, walking alone at night, etc.
  - If a driver, practicing safe driving skills; avoiding riding with unsafe drivers
  - Refusal skills

**Some characteristics of good character**
- accepting • modesty
- accountable • obedience
- altruistic • patience
- autonomous • promise-keeping
- caring • protective of
- compassionate environment
- citizenship • punctuality
- courage • pursuit of
- courtesy • excellence
- dependability • respect
- dignity • responsibility
- fairness; justice • restraint
- generosity • self-discipline
- honesty • self-respect
- humility • social justice
- industriousness • temperance
- integrity • tolerance
- kindness • trustworthiness
- loyalty

**Managing feelings**—expressing one’s feelings appropriately and in proportion to circumstance
- Recognizing a feeling as it happens to oneself; aware of both one’s mood and one’s thoughts about that mood
- Handling one’s own feelings so they are expressed appropriately
- Using emotions to support a goal
- Recognizing emotions in others; sensitive to what others need or want
- Skill in managing one’s own emotions and those of others when interacting

**Self-discipline**—control of self and one’s conduct in line with moral character (what is right and wrong), personal values (what one considers important), and societal expectations; control before acting in a hurtful or harmful way

---

### 2.4 Theories of Personality Development

The study of personality has a broad and varied history in psychology, with an abundance of theoretical traditions. The major theories include dispositional (trait) perspective, psychodynamic, humanistic, biological, behaviorist and social...
learning perspective. There have been a number of theories how personality develops.

2.4.1 Psychoanalytic Theories of Personality

Psycho-Analytical Approach

Psycho-analytical (psycho-dynamic) theories are based on the assumption that personality is to be understood in terms of interactions and conflicts among needs and impulses found in an individual, some of which at least operate at an unconscious level.

1. Freud’s Psycho-Analytical Theory

The psycho-analytical theory of personality was advocated by Sigmund Freud. This theory has three major parts:

1. Theory of personality dynamics
2. Theory of personality structure
3. Theory of psycho-sexual development
4. Psycho-Analytic Therapy

1. Theory of Personality Dynamics

Freud postulated a dynamic concept of personality by exploring the unconscious part of human mind. According to Freud, the human mind has three levels of consciousness - the conscious, the preconscious and the unconscious.

1. **The Conscious mind**: It is that layer of mind which contains thoughts and perceptions of which we are aware at a given moment.

2. **The pre-conscious mind**: This layer stands between conscious and unconscious part of the mind and refers to those experiences of which the individual is not fully aware but can be recalled easily. It contains memories and stored knowledge.
3. **The Unconscious mind**: This is the deeper layer of mind which contains repressed wishes, fears, selfish needs, unacceptable sexual desires, immoral urges, shameful experiences and violent motives of which the individual is unaware and is not able to recall when he wants them.

Freud believed that the most important part of psychic activity is the unconsciousness. The unsatisfied desires and painful experiences of the individual are forced down to the unconscious layer of the mind (repression). According to Freud, the behaviour pattern and hence the personality of an individual is determined by the repressed desires and experiences in the unconscious mind. Repression of feelings and desires result in blocking up of the libido (the psychic energy that powers all mental activity) which give birth to severe anxiety and conflicts leading to mental illness and abnormal personality development.

2. **Theory of Personality Structure**

According to Freud, the personality structure is made up of three interlocking systems - *id*, *ego* and *super-ego*. Each of these systems has its own properties and mechanisms. But they interact with one another closely and human personality is the outcome of such an interaction.

**Id**: The following are the important features of id: Id is the original source of personality and it is the reservoir of psychic energy (libido). It is the primitive biogenic impulses in man consisting of everything that is inherited, psychologically, including instinctual drives - sex and aggression. It is unconscious in nature and is guided by pleasure principle (the principle of avoiding pain and obtaining pleasure).
b) Ego: The following are the important features of ego: Ego is largely conscious and it follows reality principle. It acts intelligently and determines what demands of id could be satisfied. Hence ego is regarded as the police force in man. The ego keeps balance between the demands of id and super-ego. It checks the flow of id in those directions which are considered undesirable. c) Super-ego: Super-ego is called conscience in the ordinary sense. It is the direct antithesis of id and represents the ethical and moral force in man. The super-ego represents the sense of right and wrong, good and bad for the society. It judges whether an action is right or wrong according to the standards of the society.

Freud put forward a dynamic concept of personality by conceptualizing the continuous conflict among the id, ego and super-ego. Since the id and super ego are two opposing elements, guided by two opposing principles, a war like situation is created between the id and super-ego with the ego attempting to mediates. The extent to which the ego is able to discharge its responsibilities decides the personality make-up of the individual. If the ego is strong enough to maintain a balance between the needs of id and super-ego, the individual develops a balanced personality. In case the individual possesses a weak ego, he is bound to have a maladjusted personality.

3. Theory of psycho-sexual Development

According to Freud, all human being move through a series of psychosexual stages, during which the libidinal energy is focused on different regions of the body (erogenous zones). If a child's needs at any of the psychosexual stages were either unsatisfied or over satisfied, fixation (a sort of arrested development)
would take place. Adult personality of an individual depends upon the extend of fixation taken place at different stages of psychosexual development

The different stages of psycho-sexual development are:

1. **Oral Stage (Birth to 2 Years):** At this stage mouth is the erogenous zone. The infant achieves gratification through oral activities such as feeding, sucking, biting etc.

2. **Anal stage (2 to 3 years):** At this stage sensual pleasure is focused on the anal zone. The child achieves gratification through retention and expulsion of faces and also through anal manipulation.

3. **Phallic Stage (3 to 5 years):** During this period, pleasure is focused on the genital region. At this stage pleasure is derived through fondling the genital organs.

4. **Latency stage (6 through puberty):** It is a dormant period which is marked by a temporary repression of sexual interests and pleasure is derived from external world.

5. **Genital Stage (Adolescence and beyond):** Here, the pleasure is derived from mature sexual relations with a partner of opposite sex.

Progression to the genital stage is possible only if serious fixation has not occurred at the earlier stages of development. If such fixation has occurred, then the normal pattern of personality development is blocked, and various forms of personality disorders result. According to Freud, the key to a healthy personality is a balance between the id, the ego, and the superego.

### 2.4.2 Erickson

According to this theory personality develops in a series of stages. This theory also describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan. One of the main elements of this theory is the development of **ego identity**. Ego identity
Theoretical Overview

is the conscious sense of self that one develops through social interaction. According to Erikson, ego identity is constantly changing due to new experience and information acquired in daily interactions with others. In addition to ego identity, a sense of competence also motivates behaviors and actions. Each stage is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as ego strength or ego quality. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

Erikson’s Psychosocial Stages Summary Chart Erikson’s Stages of Psychosocial Development

Table: 2.1 Stages of Development in Erickson’s theory of Personality development

| Erikson’s Stage Theory in its Final Version |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Age             | Conflict         | Resolution or "Virtue" | Culmination in old age |
| Infancy (0-1 year) | Basic trust vs. mistrust | Hope | Appreciation of interdependence and relatedness |
| Early childhood (1-3 years) | Autonomy vs. shame | Will | Acceptance of the cycle of life, from integration to disintegration |
| Play age (3-6 years) | Initiative vs. guilt | Purpose | Humor; empathy; resilience |
| School age (6-12 years) | Industry vs. inferiority | Competence | Humility; acceptance of the course of one's life and unfulfilled hopes |
| Adolescence (12-19 years) | Identity vs. Confusion | Fidelity | Sense of complexity of life; merging of sensory, logical and aesthetic perception |
| Early adulthood (20-25 years) | Intimacy vs. Isolation | Love | Sense of the complexity of relationships; value of tenderness and loving freely |
| Adulthood (26-64 years) | Generativity vs. stagnation | Care | Caritas, caring for others, and agape, empathy and concern |
| Old age (65-death) | Integrity vs. Despair | Wisdom | Existential identity; a sense of integrity strong enough to withstand physical disintegration |

In each stage, people experience a conflict that serves as a turning point in development. In Erikson’s view, these conflicts are centered on either developing a
Theoretical Overview

psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. During these times, the potential for personal growth is high, but so is the potential for failure.

2.4.3 THE TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

The trait theory suggests that individual personalities are composed broad dispositions. A trait can be thought of as a relatively stable characteristic that causes individuals to behave in certain ways. The trait approach to personality is focused on differences between individuals. The combination and interaction of various traits forms a personality that is unique to each individual. Trait theory is focused on identifying and measuring these individual personality characteristics.

2.4.3 Gordon Allport

In 1936, psychologist Gordon Allport found that one English-language dictionary alone contained more than 4,000 words describing different personality traits. He categorized these traits into three levels:

- **Cardinal Traits**: Traits that dominate an individual’s whole life, often to the point that the person becomes known specifically for these traits. People with such personalities often become so known for these traits that their names are often synonymous with these qualities. Allport suggested that cardinal traits are rare and tend to develop later in life.

- **Central Traits**: These are the general characteristics that form the basic foundations of personality. These central traits, while not as dominating as cardinal traits, are the major characteristics you might use to describe another person. Terms such as intelligent, honest, shy and anxious are considered central traits.

- **Secondary Traits**: These are the traits that are sometimes related to attitudes or preferences and often appear only in certain situations or under specific
circumstances. Some examples would be getting anxious when speaking to a group or impatient while waiting in line.

1.4.4. Raymond Cattell’s Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire

Raymond Cattell reduced the number of main personality traits from Allport’s initial list of over 4,000 down to 171, mostly by eliminating uncommon traits and combining common characteristics. According to Cattell, these 16 traits are the source of all human personality. He also developed one of the most widely used personality assessments known as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF).

2.4.5 Eysenck’s Three Dimensions of Personality

British psychologist Hans Eysenck developed a model of personality based upon just three universal trails:

1. Introversion/Extraversion:

Introversion involves directing attention on inner experiences, while extraversion relates to focusing attention outward on other people and the environment. So, a person high in introversion might be quiet and reserved, while an individual high in extraversion might be sociable and outgoing.

2. Neuroticism/Emotional stability:

This dimension of Eysenck’s trait theory is related to moodiness versus even-temperedness. Neuroticism refers to an individual’s tendency to become upset or emotional, while stability refers to the tendency to remain emotionally constant.

3. Psychoticism:

Later, after studying individuals suffering from mental illness, Eysenck added a personality dimension he called psychoticism to his trait theory. Individuals who
are high on this trait tend to have difficulty dealing with reality and may be antisocial, hostile, non-empathetic and manipulative.

The Five-Factor Theory of Personality

Unlike Cattell, Eysenck focused on few traits. As a result, a new trait theory often referred to as the “Big Five” theory emerged. This five-factor model of personality represents five core traits that interact to form human personality. Personality researchers have proposed that there are five basic dimensions of personality.

1. Extraversion
2. Agreeableness
3. Conscientiousness
4. Neuroticism
5. Openness

The “big five” are broad categories of personality traits. These five categories are usually described as follows:

Table : 2.2

Big five personality traits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>Being curious, original, intellectual, creative, and open to new ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>Being organized, systematic, punctual, achievement oriented, and dependable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>Being outgoing, talkative, sociable, and enjoying social situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>Being affable, tolerant, sensitive, trusting, kind, and warm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>Being anxious, irritable, temperament, and moody.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These dimensions represent broad areas of personality. Research has demonstrated that these groupings of characteristics tend to occur together in many people. For example, individuals who are sociable tend to be talkative. However, these traits do not always occur together. Personality is a complex and varied and each person may display behaviors across several of these dimensions.

2.4.6 Kohlberg theory of moral development

Kohlberg was, for many years, a professor at Harvard University. He became famous for his work there beginning in the early 1970s. He was particularly well-known for his theory of moral development which he popularized through research studies conducted at Harvard's Center for Moral Education. Kohlberg believed and was able to demonstrate through studies that people progressed in their moral reasoning (i.e., in their bases for ethical behavior) through a series of stages. He believed that there were six identifiable stages which could be more generally classified into three levels. Kohlberg's classification can be outlined in the following manner:

Figure: 2.17: Moral development theory of Kohlberg
The first level of moral thinking is that generally found at the elementary school level. In the first stage of this level, people behave according to socially acceptable norms because they are told to do so by some authority figure (e.g., parent or teacher). This obedience is compelled by the threat or application of punishment.

The second stage of this level is characterized by a view that right behavior means acting in one's own best interests. The second level of moral thinking is that generally found in society, hence the name "conventional." The first stage of this level (stage 3) is characterized by an attitude which seeks to do what will gain the approval of others. The second stage is one oriented to abiding by the law and responding to the obligations of duty.

The third level of moral thinking is one that Kohlberg felt is not reached by the majority of adults. Its first stage (stage 5) is an understanding of social mutuality and a genuine interest in the welfare of others. The last stage (stage 6) is based on respect for universal principle and the demands of individual conscience. While Kohlberg always believed in the existence of Stage 6 and had some nominees for it, he could never get enough subjects to define it, much less observe their longitudinal movement to it.

Kohlberg believed that individuals could only progress through these stages one stage at a time. That is, they could not "jump" stages. Thus, according to Kohlberg, it was important to present them with moral dilemmas for discussion which would help them to see the reasonableness of a "higher stage" morality and encourage their development in that direction. The last comment refers to Kohlberg's moral discussion approach. He saw this as one of the ways in which moral
development can be promoted through formal education. Note that Kohlberg believed, as did Piaget, that most moral development occurs through social interaction.

2.4.7 Carl Rogers' Self Theory

Carl Rogers was an American psychologist who propounded the self theory in 1947 based on his client centred therapy]. According to Rogers, dynamics of personality is the power for self-actualization (Self-fulfillment or desire to become all that one is capable of). He stressed the importance of an individual's self for determining the process of his growth, development and appropriate adjustment to his environment.

Structure of Personality

The self theory holds that personality is a function of the interaction between two systems - the organism and the self. They are forces operating in the world of an individual's subjective experience called the phenomenal field personal and (the separate reality of each individual).

1. *The organism:* It represents the totality of one's experience - both conscious and unconscious. It is the centre of all experiences which are taking place within the individual at a particular time.

2. *The self (Real self):* It refers to the composite of ideas, feelings and attitudes the individual has about himself [self-concept]. It is the accepted of conscious part of experience. The concept of self may differ from person to person as they are based purely on one's own personal experience.

3. *Ideal self:* which represents what one would like to be.
Dynamics of Personality

According to Rogers, the organism continually strive to develop and expand the self. The basic force motivating the organism is self-actualization. Self-actualization is a state of personal development in which the individual reach his maximum potential. Development and expansion of self takes place through the interaction between the person's inner world (natural impulses) and his total range of experiences. For Rogers, the normal personality development depends on the congruence among different components of personality - organism, real self, ideal self and the external reality. An individual's personality development depends upon the union and harmony between the image of his self and the organism (experience). The larger the gap between an individual's self concept and reality the poorer his psychological adjustment.

Figure 2.18 diagrammatic representation of the components of personality development of self-theory

2.4.8 Jean Piaget

According to psychologist Jean Piaget, children progress through a series of four key stages of cognitive development marked by shifts in how they understand
the world. Piaget believed that children are like "little scientists" and that they actively try to explore and make sense of the world around them. Through his observations of his own children, Piaget developed a stage theory of intellectual development that included four distinct stages: the sensorimotor stage, from birth to age 2; the preoperational stage, from age 2 to about age 7; the concrete operational stage, from age 7 to 11; and the formal operational stage, which begins in adolescence and spans into adulthood. Piaget's stage theory describes the cognitive development of children. Cognitive development involves changes in cognitive process and abilities. In Piaget's view, early cognitive development involves processes based upon actions and later progresses into changes in mental operations.

Table 2.3

A Quick Summary of Cognitive Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGE</th>
<th>EVENTS IN THE DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The sensory motor stage</td>
<td>During this stage, infants and toddlers acquire knowledge through sensory experiences and manipulating objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pre-operational stage</td>
<td>At this stage, kids learn through pretend play but still struggle with logic and taking the point of view of other people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The concrete operational stage</td>
<td>Kids at this point of development begin to think more logically, but their thinking can also be very rigid. They tend to struggle with abstract and hypothetical concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The formal Operational Stage</td>
<td>The final stage of Piaget's theory involves an increase in logic, the ability to use deductive reasoning, and an understanding of abstract ideas.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Key Concepts

Schemas: A schema describes both the mental and physical actions involved in understanding and knowing. Schemas are categories of knowledge that help us to interpret and understand the world. In Piaget's view, a schema includes both a category of knowledge and the process of obtaining that knowledge.

Assimilation: The process of taking in new information into our previously existing schemas is known as assimilation. The process is somewhat subjective, because we tend to modify experience or information somewhat to fit in with our preexisting beliefs.

Accommodation: Another part of adaptation involves changing or altering our existing schemas in light of new information, a process known as accommodation. Accommodation involves altering existing schemas, or ideas, as a result of new information or new experiences. New schemas may also be developed during this process.

Equilibration - Piaget believed that all children try to strike a balance between assimilation and accommodation, which is achieved through a mechanism Piaget called equilibration. As children progress through the stages of cognitive development, it is important to maintain a balance between applying previous knowledge (assimilation) and changing behavior to account for new knowledge (accommodation). Equilibration helps explain how children are able to move from one stage of thought into the next.
2.4.9 Vygotsky

The major theme of Vygotsky's theoretical framework is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. Vygotsky (1978) states: "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals." (p57).

A second aspect of Vygotsky's theory is the idea that the potential for cognitive development depends upon the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD): a level of development attained when children engage in social behavior. Full development of the ZPD depends upon full social interaction. The range of skill that can be developed with adult guidance or peer collaboration exceeds what can be attained alone.
Theoretical Overview

2.20 Theory of Vygotsky-Zones of development

Vygotsky's theory was an attempt to explain consciousness as the end product of socialization. For example, in the learning of language, our first utterances with peers or adults are for the purpose of communication but once mastered they become internalized and allow "inner speech".

2.5 Theory on Vocational Choices

According to the wide variety of research available, most theorists agreed that there were many factors that enter into the selection of a career. The choices a person makes, the values a person holds, the successes and failures a person experiences, the social class in which a person has developed, and the interests, strengths, and capacities of the person all enter into this decision. The choice of a career is, therefore, not merely a decision of a moment: it is a complex and difficult process that spans a number of years.

The study is based on five-category approaches - Trait-and-Factor; Personality; Developmental; Decision; and Sociological. Each of these approaches show the organized and systematic provision of information needed to help an
individual evaluate his personal experiences and aspirations and make an intelligent career choice.

2.5.1 Trait-and-Factor Approach

The basic purpose of the trait-and-factor approach to career counseling was to "match" the characteristics of a client to jobs which required those characteristics, and in so doing identify the jobs which were, theoretically, the most appropriate for that client. Herr and Cramer (1984) identified 10 major types of "matching" information usually sought by professional counselors. The matching types were abilities, needs and interests, stereotypes and expectations, significant others, values, residence, family, adjustment, risk-taking, and aspirations. The "trait" portion of the trait-and-factor approach referred to client characteristics. Counselors must have extensive and valid information about their clients. The "factor" portion referred to characteristics of various jobs. In order to use this approach effectively, counselors must also have extensive knowledge of the world of work and the requirements for specific jobs. Accordingly, trait-and-factor career counseling has been referred to colloquially as the "know the client, know the job" approach.

2.5.2 Personality Approaches

Personality approaches are related to the trait-and-factor approach in that they focused on individual characteristics. They acknowledge that sociological and situational factors are strong influences in the development of an individual's characteristics, but give very little attention to them. These theories attempt to relate personality to occupational behavior.

Holland's (1966) approach to career development and counseling has become so popular that all other personality approaches to career counseling have been overshadowed. His basic premise was that an individual's early genetic endowments
Theoretical Overview

determine methods for coping and dealing with social and environmental tasks. The most typical way a person responds to his or her environment is known as the person's modal personal orientation. Holland's personality/environment types are usually referred to by the first letter of each word; or the "RIASEC" model. This model is usually configured as a hexagon. Adjacent types are presumed to have more in common than opposite types. The Realistic type is more similar to either the Investigative or Conventional types than it is to the Social, Enterprising, or Artistic types. Therefore, "effective" career development is the result of an effective matching of personality and environmental characteristics.

Because Holland described personality characteristics and work environments in the same terms, he emphasized a perspective that has a long history in society in general and in the counseling profession in particular; specifically, that "work is a way of life" (Holland, 1973, p. 131). Holland's approach has found great favor among counseling researchers, and hundreds of studies have been completed on various aspects of Holland's theory. Numerous assessment instruments and approaches have been developed in the context of Holland's theoretical propositions and more recently, other existing instruments have been modified so that their results can be interpreted within the context of those propositions.
Holland developed the *Vocational Preference Inventory* and the *Self-Directed Search*, two vocational interest inventories, based on his theory. He and his associates also developed a set of three-letter codes for over four hundred occupations. This effort in particular has made his approach popular because of the ease with which the system can be used by both counselors and clients (Holland, 1990).

### 2.5.3 Developmental Approaches

These approaches maintain that career choice is a function of the total personality within a developmental framework and are viewed as a process instead of an act. Occupational choice is not restricted to a certain period in life, but as a set of reoccurring events throughout the life cycle. Therefore, career development may
be viewed as an evolutionary process which is flexible and in which individuals could adapt their occupational choices to the changing conditions in their lives.

Super's theory was multifaceted and borrowed from a number of areas of psychology. He described it as a differential-developmental-social-phenomenological psychology (Super, 1969). Three components of Super's work have received the most attention: Life Stages and their associate developmental tasks; Self-concept as related to occupational choice; and, Career Maturity.

The first stage in Life Stages is Growth that lasts from birth to age 14. This stage includes the sub-stages of fantasy, interest and capacity and the important developmental tasks of creating a self-concept and establishing an orientation toward the world of work. Exploration, the second stage, covers approximately ages 14 to 24, with the sub-stage, tentative, existing approximately from ages 15 to 17. The primary developmental tasks in the Exploration stage crystallizes a vocational preference, specifies the preference, and implements the preference. The third stage, Establishment, lasts from approximately ages 24 to 44 and includes the sub-stages of stabilization and advancement. The major developmental tasks in this stage are stabilizing the vocational preference and advancing in occupations. Maintenance, the fourth stage, lasts from approximately ages 44 to 64. The major developmental task in this stage is preserving achieved status and gains. In the final stage, Decline, from approximately age 64 on, there are two sub-stages: deceleration (64-70) and retirement (70-on). The major developmental tasks in this stage are slowing down occupational activities, and disengaging, and retiring from the world of work.

The second major component in Super's approach is the development and implementation of the "vocational self-concept." This vocational self-concept is presumed to be a substantial and integral part of the individual's total self-concept.
Theoretical Overview

The theory assumes that individuals chose occupations that will allow expression of their vocational self-concepts. The *concept of career maturity* plays an important role in Super's approach. This concept implies that specific behaviors are indicative of an individual's mastery of various developmental tasks. The basic assumption in Super's developmental stage approach is that the individual must master the tasks at one life stage before moving into the next life stage. Therefore, measurement of career maturity is important because it allows inference about an individual's vocational development stage (Super, 1969).

2.5.4 Decision Approaches

Decision approaches to career development focus on the process of how work related decisions are made. The major supposition in these approaches is that people would have effective career development if they were able to make decisions effectively. Two fundamental assumptions underlined this supposition. The first is that people strive to maximize gains and minimize losses through the work-related decisions they make. "Gains and losses" are not necessarily monetary; they could be in terms of life-style, success, prestige, happiness, security, or any of a variety of other psychosocial and environmental factors or conditions. The second assumption was that at any choice-point, people have several alternatives available to them. Therefore, this approach helps people identify choice-points and options and enhances people's decision-making skills and abilities. This theory is comprehensive because it encompasses wide-spread information gathering and extensive analysis of information obtained.

2.5.5 Sociological Approaches

Sociological or situational approaches to career development are significant because they identify many factors not usually considered in other approaches.
Culture and social class boundaries have been identified as major factors in career development (Fredrickson, 1982). Although career progression is generally viewed as a primary means to "rise above one's station in life," such progression is not easily achieved, particularly for those in the lower socioeconomic strata (Osipow, 1983). The conditions in these strata often inhibit and obstruct career upward mobility because of limited economic and other resources, the lack of education and training, conflicting values, and a paucity of role models. Bandura (1982) described two major classifications of chance encounters as significant factors in career development. The first included an individual's chance encounters with people who directly or indirectly exert strong influence on the individual's career-related decision. The second was chance encounters with events; those happenings to which an individual was "accidentally" exposed which also subsequently influences the individual's career-related decisions. Chance encounters were viewed as significant components of career development because of the roles they may play in changing, either positively or negatively, an individual's career motivations and aspirations (Bandura, 1982).

Herr (1986) noted that three major personal factors were relative to an individual's decision-making behaviors. The first is risk-taking style, the second is investment, and the third is personal values. Each of these factors needs to be considered individually and collectively in order for individuals to make work-related decisions effectively.

The theories of career counselling approaches was relevant to this study because it gave a varied framework of how and why people made choices in careers. Knowledge of these approaches enable school and career counselors, in collaboration with their counselees, to develop appropriate goals, use effective
strategies, and achieve desirable and measurable outcomes for the highest career aspirations. Each career counseling approach has merit and limitations.

**Conclusion**

Thus the theoretical overview empowered the investigator with a strong theoretical support. After analyzing the above mentioned theories and models, the investigator incorporate various aspects for the development of the guidance and counseling package. She has understood the depth of the necessity to integrate all the approaches to develop a comprehensive strategically aligned guidance and counseling package for students at higher secondary level. The theoretical constructs enabled her to understand the roots of the concept of guidance and counseling in a scientific way.

Several related literature and studies in support of the theoretical constructs underlying the concepts highlighted have been presented in the succeeding chapter.