AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF A SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMME ON THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF A GROUP OF SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

ARNOLD KHETANI MSIMEKI

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

in the

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE NORTH

SUPERVISOR : Prof A. Vermeulen

February 1988
Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted for a degree at another university.

[Signature]

A K MSIMEKI
DEDICATION

N'wina va ka Ntsemi hinkwenu, this work is dedicated to you.
I would like to express my appreciation and thanks to Prof. Dr. A. Vermeulen, my supervisor, for his interest, encouragement and guidance throughout the course of this study.

Thanks are also due to Mr M.P. Makgamatha ad Mrs T. Mashego, the then principal and Vice-principal of Mothimako Senior Secondary School and Mr M.P. Mamabolo, principal of Bjaladladi Senior Secondary, for their co-operation and assistance with regard to the carrying out of this study.

A special word of thanks and appreciation goes to all the pupils who took part in the testing sessions and/or participated in the Guidance Programme. Their enthusiastic participation in this project and thus their sharing a part of themselves with me, is highly appreciated.

I would also like to thank Mr M E Nthangeni for having helped with the statistical computations.

A special word of appreciation also goes to Thandi Mojapelo and Sophie Mpe for typing the manuscript.

The writer also wishes to thank friends and colleagues at the University of the North who helped in one way or another to make this study a success.

Financial support from the Human Sciences Research Council (Pretoria) and the Research Committee of
the University of the North is acknowledged with gratitude. The views expressed in this study are, however, those of the writer and do not necessarily reflect those of the said financial sponsors.

Lastly, with love and gratitude, I would like to thank my wife, children and parents, all of whom gave me much support and encouragement and accepted with such good grace the times I was unavailable to them.
ABSTRACT

AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF A SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMME ON THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF A GROUP OF SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

BY

ARNOLD KHETANI MSIMEKI

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of a broadly-based guidance programme on the career development of a group of senior secondary school pupils.

The literature research that was conducted led to the following conclusions:

- that school guidance is an essential aspect of education
- that since the major task of school guidance is the promotion of identity formation in pupils and students, it should occupy a central position in the educational activity.

The literature survey also revealed that there are several factors which have a negative effect on the development of children and youth. These factors include the adverse educational, socio-cultural and political conditions that impinge on the growing youth. This unwholesome situation in which young people must grow up makes the introduction of guidance services in all schools an urgent necessity. It was indicated that the school guidance teacher, with his
specialised training, has a crucial role to play in promoting the self-actualization of children and youth in these adverse conditions. The guidance teacher, both as an educator and as a change agent, is specially needed in the crisis-ridden school system for Blacks in South Africa.

The faith in the educational value of school guidance is based on the assumption that effective guidance programmes, implemented by proficient personnel, will yield valuable educational results. The writer shares in this faith. This belief in the value of school guidance has been validated by empirical research.

However, since guidance is a novelty in African schools it was decided to put the hypothesized efficacy of the guidance function to an empirical test in the African school context.

Intact classroom groups of standard nine pupils from two schools situated in a rural area of the Transvaal Province of the Republic of South Africa were used in the study.

A combination of the Pretest-Posttest and the Posttest Only group design was used in the study. The experimental group participated in a ten-week guidance programme which served as the treatment. Both the treatment and control groups did the pre-test and the post-test, but the control group received no treatment.

Change in the career development status of the two groups was measured by the Assessment of Career Development Test (ACD), developed by the American College
Testing Programme. Two versions of the t-test, one for correlated data and the other for uncorrelated data as well as the chi-square test were used in the processing and analysis of the data.

The experimental and control groups performed significantly differently on the various aspects of the ACD. The treatment group made significant pre- to post-test gains on the knowledge scales of the ACD. The treatment group also obtained significantly higher post-test scores on these knowledge scales than did the control group.

The treatment group did not show any significant pre- to post-test gains on the Occupational Exploratory Experiences Scale and the Career Planning Involvement Scales of the ACD. There was no significant difference in the performance of the treatment and control groups on these scales.

The treatment group also displayed significant pre- to post-test attitudinal shifts in the hypothesized direction. The control group did not display such attitudinal shifts.

Based on the findings of the study it was concluded that the guidance programme that was presented to the target group enhanced the career development of the pupils who were exposed to it. It led to a significant increase in the pupils's occupational awareness, to a heightened sense of self awareness, and to an enhanced career planning and decision-making ability.
The study clearly demonstrated the efficacy of pragmatic intervention in enhancing the career development of African school pupils. Consequently, it was recommended that a comprehensive guidance programme be introduced in all African schools in the country.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## CHAPTER 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>THE CONCEPT EDUCATION</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.1</td>
<td>Moulding</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.3</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.4</td>
<td>An Operational Definition of Education</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>SCHOOL GUIDANCE</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.1</td>
<td>Preview</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.2</td>
<td>The Trait-Factor Model of Guidance</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.3</td>
<td>Guidance as a Distributive and Adjustment</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or Remedial Service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.4</td>
<td>Guidance as an Auxiliary Service in</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.5</td>
<td>A Broader view of School Guidance</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.6</td>
<td>Guidance as Identical with Education</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.7</td>
<td>The Role of School Guidance in Education</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.8</td>
<td>The Role of the School Guidance Teacher</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.9</td>
<td>School Guidance as Curriculum</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.10</td>
<td>The Time Dimension of a School Guidance</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Programme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.11</td>
<td>The Principles of School Guidance and</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>an Operational Definition of this Function</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.11.1</td>
<td>Principles of school guidance</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.11.2</td>
<td>An operation definition of School</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guidance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>SUMMARY</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>PROGRAMME OF THE STUDY</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## CHAPTER 2

THE NEED FOR SCHOOL GUIDANCE IN THE PRESENT-DAY SCHOOL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>THE EDUCATIONAL FACTOR - A GENERAL CONSIDERATION</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1</td>
<td>Education as just Intellectual Development</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2</td>
<td>Pupil-Teacher Roles and Relationships</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.1</td>
<td>Pupil-teacher roles</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.2</td>
<td>Pupil-teacher relationships</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.3</td>
<td>Genuineness</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.4</td>
<td>Respect</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.5</td>
<td>Empathic understanding</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.6</td>
<td>Teacher as facilitator</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.7</td>
<td>The teacher as a self-actualizing individual</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3</td>
<td>Order and Discipline</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.4</td>
<td>Distrust</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.5</td>
<td>Fear as a Motivating Factor</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.6</td>
<td>Constant and Hypercritical Evaluation</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.7</td>
<td>Competition in Education</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.8</td>
<td>Learning Separate from Living</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.9</td>
<td>The Effects of the Traditional School on both the Teachers and the children</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.9.1</td>
<td>On the teachers</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.9.2</td>
<td>On the pupils and students</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>THE EDUCATIONAL FACTOR AS IT MANIFESTS ITSELF IN THE EDUCATION FOR AFRICANS IN SOUTH AFRICA</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1</td>
<td>Preamble</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2</td>
<td>Expenditure on Education</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3</td>
<td>Educational Wastage</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 3

PROBLEM AND AIM OF THE INVESTIGATION

3.1 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM
   3.1.1 School Guidance in the United States of America
   3.1.2 School Guidance in other Countries
       3.1.2.1 School guidance in Great Britain
       3.1.2.2 Guidance and counselling in some European countries
           3.1.2.2.1 School guidance services in the Netherlands
           3.1.2.2.2 Guidance in the Federal Republic of Germany
           3.1.2.2.3 Guidance and counselling of France
       3.1.2.3 Guidance services in the Commonwealth
   3.1.3 Education in Africa
   3.1.4 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.5 Education in other Countries
   3.1.6 Education in the UK
   3.1.7 Education in the European Community
   3.1.8 Education in Africa
   3.1.9 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.10 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.11 Education in other Countries
   3.1.12 Education in the UK
   3.1.13 Education in the European Community
   3.1.14 Education in Africa
   3.1.15 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.16 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.17 Education in other Countries
   3.1.18 Education in the UK
   3.1.19 Education in the European Community
   3.1.20 Education in Africa
   3.1.21 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.22 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.23 Education in other Countries
   3.1.24 Education in the UK
   3.1.25 Education in the European Community
   3.1.26 Education in Africa
   3.1.27 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.28 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.29 Education in other Countries
   3.1.30 Education in the UK
   3.1.31 Education in the European Community
   3.1.32 Education in Africa
   3.1.33 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.34 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.35 Education in other Countries
   3.1.36 Education in the UK
   3.1.37 Education in the European Community
   3.1.38 Education in Africa
   3.1.39 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.40 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.41 Education in other Countries
   3.1.42 Education in the UK
   3.1.43 Education in the European Community
   3.1.44 Education in Africa
   3.1.45 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.46 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.47 Education in other Countries
   3.1.48 Education in the UK
   3.1.49 Education in the European Community
   3.1.50 Education in Africa
   3.1.51 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.52 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.53 Education in other Countries
   3.1.54 Education in the UK
   3.1.55 Education in the European Community
   3.1.56 Education in Africa
   3.1.57 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.58 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.59 Education in other Countries
   3.1.60 Education in the UK
   3.1.61 Education in the European Community
   3.1.62 Education in Africa
   3.1.63 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.64 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.65 Education in other Countries
   3.1.66 Education in the UK
   3.1.67 Education in the European Community
   3.1.68 Education in Africa
   3.1.69 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.70 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.71 Education in other Countries
   3.1.72 Education in the UK
   3.1.73 Education in the European Community
   3.1.74 Education in Africa
   3.1.75 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.76 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.77 Education in other Countries
   3.1.78 Education in the UK
   3.1.79 Education in the European Community
   3.1.80 Education in Africa
   3.1.81 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.82 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.83 Education in other Countries
   3.1.84 Education in the UK
   3.1.85 Education in the European Community
   3.1.86 Education in Africa
   3.1.87 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.88 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.89 Education in other Countries
   3.1.90 Education in the UK
   3.1.91 Education in the European Community
   3.1.92 Education in Africa
   3.1.93 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.94 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.95 Education in other Countries
   3.1.96 Education in the UK
   3.1.97 Education in the European Community
   3.1.98 Education in Africa
   3.1.99 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.100 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.101 Education in other Countries
   3.1.102 Education in the UK
   3.1.103 Education in the European Community
   3.1.104 Education in Africa
   3.1.105 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.106 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.107 Education in other Countries
   3.1.108 Education in the UK
   3.1.109 Education in the European Community
   3.1.110 Education in Africa
   3.1.111 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.112 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.113 Education in other Countries
   3.1.114 Education in the UK
   3.1.115 Education in the European Community
   3.1.116 Education in Africa
   3.1.117 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.118 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.119 Education in other Countries
   3.1.120 Education in the UK
   3.1.121 Education in the European Community
   3.1.122 Education in Africa
   3.1.123 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.124 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.125 Education in other Countries
   3.1.126 Education in the UK
   3.1.127 Education in the European Community
   3.1.128 Education in Africa
   3.1.129 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.130 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.131 Education in other Countries
   3.1.132 Education in the UK
   3.1.133 Education in the European Community
   3.1.134 Education in Africa
   3.1.135 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.136 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.137 Education in other Countries
   3.1.138 Education in the UK
   3.1.139 Education in the European Community
   3.1.140 Education in Africa
   3.1.141 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.142 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.143 Education in other Countries
   3.1.144 Education in the UK
   3.1.145 Education in the European Community
   3.1.146 Education in Africa
   3.1.147 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.148 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.149 Education in other Countries
   3.1.150 Education in the UK
   3.1.151 Education in the European Community
   3.1.152 Education in Africa
   3.1.153 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.154 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.155 Education in other Countries
   3.1.156 Education in the UK
   3.1.157 Education in the European Community
   3.1.158 Education in Africa
   3.1.159 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.160 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.161 Education in other Countries
   3.1.162 Education in the UK
   3.1.163 Education in the European Community
   3.1.164 Education in Africa
   3.1.165 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.166 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.167 Education in other Countries
   3.1.168 Education in the UK
   3.1.169 Education in the European Community
   3.1.170 Education in Africa
   3.1.171 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.172 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.173 Education in other Countries
   3.1.174 Education in the UK
   3.1.175 Education in the European Community
   3.1.176 Education in Africa
   3.1.177 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.178 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.179 Education in other Countries
   3.1.180 Education in the UK
   3.1.181 Education in the European Community
   3.1.182 Education in Africa
   3.1.183 Education in the Commonwealth
   3.1.184 Education in the United States of America
   3.1.185 Education in other Countries
3.1.2.2.4 Guidance and counselling in Africa 132
3.1.2.2.4.1 School guidance in Nigeria 133
3.1.2.2.4.2 Guidance services in South African schools 134
3.1.2.2.4.2.1 School guidance in White school 134
3.1.2.2.4.2.2 Guidance services in the schools for Africans 136

3.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM 139
3.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY 140
3.3.1 Delimitation of the Scope of the Evaluation and Restatement of the Aim of the Study 143
3.3.1.1 Delimitation of the scope of the evaluation 143
3.3.1.2 Restatement of the aim of the study 145

3.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES 146
3.4.1 QUESTION 1 : OCCUPATIONAL AWARENESS 147
3.4.1.1 Occupational Knowledge 147
3.4.1.2 Exploratory Occupational Experiences 147
3.4.2 QUESTION 2 : SELF AWARENESS 148
3.4.2.1 Work Value Preferences 148
3.4.2.2 Working Condition Preferences 149
3.4.2.3 Education Plans 150
3.4.2.4 Certainty of Occupational Preferences 151
3.4.2.5 Perceived Needs for Help 151
3.4.2.5.1 Help with solution of "educational problems" 151
3.4.2.5.2 Help with solution of "career problems" 152
3.4.2.5.3 Help with solution of "personal problems" 152
3.4.3 QUESTION 3 : CAREER PLANNING AND DECISION-MAKING 153
3.4.3.1 Career Planning Knowledge 153
3.4.3.2 Career Planning Involvement 154
3.4.3.3 Self Evaluation of Career Planning 154
C H A P T E R  4

CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

4.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

4.1.1 Introduction

4.1.2 The Structural Approaches to Career Choice

4.1.2.1 Sociological factors

4.1.2.1.1 Socialization

4.1.2.1.2 Opportunity structure

4.1.2.2 Psychological factors

4.1.2.2.1 Motivation

4.1.2.2.2 The nature of jobs

4.1.2.2.3 Ambition and vocational behaviour

4.1.3 Matching Theories

4.1.4 Personality Theories of Career Development

4.1.4.1 Roe's personality theory of career choice

4.1.4.2 John Holland's congruence theory

4.1.4.2.1 Preamble

4.1.4.2.2 The theory

4.1.5 Developmental Theories of Career Choice

4.1.5.1 The career development theory of Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Exelrad, and Herma

4.1.5.2 Super's Developmental self-concept theory
CHAPTER 5

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.2 PROGRAMMATIC INTERVENTION

5.2.1 The Content of the Guidance Programme for Senior Secondary School Pupils (The Independent Variable)

5.3 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

5.4 PUPIL GROUPS INVOLVED IN THE INTERVENTION

5.4.1 Selection of the Schools for the Study

5.4.1.1 Mothimako Senior Secondary School

5.4.1.2 Bjaladi Senior Secondary School

5.4.2 Selection of the Pupil Groups for the Study

5.4.2.1 The experimental group

5.4.2.2 The control group

5.4.3 Matching of the Experimental and Control Groups

5.4.3.1 Intellectual ability and aptitude

5.4.3.4 Sex

5.4.3.5 Age

5.4.3.6 Educational level

5.4.4 The Career Development Status of the Pupils involved in this Study
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>OPERATIONALIZATION OF VARIABLES</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.1</td>
<td>Selection of the Instrument</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2</td>
<td>Description of the Assessment of Career Development Test (ACD)</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.1</td>
<td>ACD content outline</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.1.1</td>
<td>Detailed breakdown of ACD contents</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.1.1.1</td>
<td>Occupational awareness (162 items)</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.1.1.2</td>
<td>Self awareness (20 items)</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.1.1.3</td>
<td>Career planning and decision making</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(78 items)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.1.4</td>
<td>Reaction to career guidance experience</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(7 items)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.2</td>
<td>Compilation of the test and construction of the scales</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.3</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.4</td>
<td>Content validity</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.5</td>
<td>Construct validity</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.6</td>
<td>Predictive and concurrent validity</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.7</td>
<td>ACD floor and ceiling</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.8</td>
<td>Degree of speededness</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.9</td>
<td>Reading level of the ACD</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.3</td>
<td>Adaptation of the ACD for Local Usage</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.4</td>
<td>Pilot-testing</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.5</td>
<td>Codification and Scoring</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA</td>
<td>266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7.1</td>
<td>Organizational Arrangements</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7.2</td>
<td>Time Tabling</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7.3</td>
<td>Programme Presenters</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7.4</td>
<td>Pretesting</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7.5</td>
<td>Programme Presentation</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION 279
6.2 OCCUPATIONAL AWARENESS 280
6.2.1 Occupational Knowledge 280
6.2.2 Exploratory Occupational Experiences 283
6.3 SELF AWARENESS 286
6.3.1 Work Value Preferences 286
6.3.2 Working Condition Preferences 294
6.3.3 Educational Plans 304
6.3.4 Certainty of Occupational Preferences 311
6.3.5 Perceived Needs for Help 314
6.3.4.1 Help with solution of Educational problems 314
6.3.5.2 Help with solution of career problems 318
6.3.6.3 Help with Solution of Personal Problems 327
6.4 CAREER PLANNING AND DECISION MAKING 325
6.4.1 Career Planning Knowledge 325
6.4.2 Career Planning Involvement 328
6.4.3 Self Evaluation of Career Planning 330
6.5 REACTIONS TO CAREER GUIDANCE EXPERIENCES 351
6.6 DISCUSSION 375
6.6.1 Preamble 375
6.6.2 Group comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Rejected 382
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.1</td>
<td>Occupation awareness</td>
<td>383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.1.1</td>
<td>Occupational knowledge</td>
<td>383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.2</td>
<td>Self awareness</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.2.1</td>
<td>Work value preferences</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.2.2</td>
<td>Working condition preferences</td>
<td>385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.2.3</td>
<td>Educational plans</td>
<td>386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.3</td>
<td>Career planning and decision making</td>
<td>387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.3.1</td>
<td>Career planning knowledge</td>
<td>387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.3.2</td>
<td>Self evaluation of career planning</td>
<td>388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2.3.3</td>
<td>Comment on the career guidance provided by the school</td>
<td>388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.3</td>
<td>Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Accepted as a Result of Statistically Significant Differences that were not in the Hypothesized Direction</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.3.1</td>
<td>Self awareness</td>
<td>391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.3.1.1</td>
<td>Certainty of occupational preference</td>
<td>392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.3.1.2</td>
<td>Perceived needs for help</td>
<td>395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.3.1.3</td>
<td>Self evaluation of career planning</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.3.1.4</td>
<td>Evaluation of the career guidance role of the normal school subject teacher</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.4</td>
<td>Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Accepted because of an Absence of Statistically Significant Differences</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.4.1</td>
<td>Occupational awareness</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.4.1.1</td>
<td>Exploratory occupational experiences</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.4.2</td>
<td>Self awareness</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.4.2.1</td>
<td>Working condition preferences</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.4.2.2</td>
<td>Educational plans</td>
<td>401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.4.3</td>
<td>Career planning</td>
<td>404</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(xviii)

6.6.4.3.1 Career planning involvement 404
6.6.4.3.2 Self evaluation of career planning 404
6.6.4.3.2.1 - have carefully thought about chosen jobs 405
6.6.4.3.2.2 - have knowledge of job preparation requirements 405
6.6.4.3.2.3 - have an optimistic view of occupational future 406
6.6.4.4 Comment on the school guidance service 406
6.6.4.4.1 Comment on career guidance help received from the school 408
6.6.4.4.2 Comment on the availability and accessibility of a school counsellor 408
6.7 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS 409
6.8 SUMMARY 415

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION 416

7.1 INTRODUCTION 416
7.2 SUMMARY 416
7.3 CONCLUSIONS 419
7.4 EDUCATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY 421
7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY 423
7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS 425
7.6.1 Research Recommendations 425
7.7 EDUCATIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS 426
7.8 CONCLUSION 429
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APPENDICES</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A GUIDANCE NOTES</td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B GUIDANCE LESSONS</td>
<td>603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C ASSESSMENT OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>668</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>The Mean Aptitude Scores of the Treatment and Control Groups</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Distribution of Groups by Sex</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>The Mean Age in Months of the Treatment and Control Groups</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Post-Test and Pre-Test Means, Difference in Means, T-value, and Probability for Treatment Group on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD (Females, Males, Total Group)</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Means, Difference in Means, T-value, and Probability for Post-Tests of Treatment and Control Groups on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD (Females, Males, and Total Group)</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Post-Test and Pre-Test Means, Difference in Means, T-value, and Probability for Treatment Group on the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale of the ACD (Females, Males, Total Group)</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Means, Difference in Means, T-value and Probability for Post-Tests of Treatment and Control Groups on the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale of the ACD (Females, Males, Total Group)</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>Most Important Post-Test and Pre-Test Work Value Elements for Treatment Group</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>Second Most Important Post-Test and Pre-Test Work Value Element for Treatment Group</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>Least Important Post-Test and Pre-Test Work Value Element for Treatment Groups</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>Most Important Post-Test Work Value Element for Treatment and Control Groups</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>Second Most Important Post-Test Work Value Element for Treatment and Control Groups</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>Least Important Post-Test Work Value Element for Treatment and Control Groups</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>The Post-Test and Pre-Test Preferences of the Treatment Group in respect of the Indoor versus the Outdoor Working Condition</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>The Post-Test Preferences of the Treatment and Control Groups regarding Indoor and Outdoor Work</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>The Post-Test and Pre-Test Preferences of the Treatment Group regarding Solitary Work versus Working with Other People</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>The Post-Test Preferences of the Treatment and Control Groups with regard to Working Alone as against Working with People</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>The Post-Test and Pre-Test Preferences of the Treatment Group with regard to Working at a Variety of Tasks as against Working at the Same Task</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>The Post-Test Preferences of the Treatment and Control Groups with regard to Working at a Variety of Tasks as against Working at the Same Task</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>The Post-Test and Pre-Test Preferences of the Treatment Group regarding Working with One's Hands or Doing Physical Labour as against Working in an Office with Little Physical Activity</td>
<td>304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>The Post-Test Preferences of the Treatment and Control Groups with regard to Working with One's Hands or Doing Physical Labour as against Working in an Office with Little Physical Activity</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>The Pre-Test and Post-Test Educational Plans of the Treatment Groups</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>The Post-Test Educational Plans of the Treatment and Control Groups</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>The Pre-Test and Post-Test Levels of Occupational Certainty for the Treatment Group</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>The Post-Test Levels of Occupational Certainty of the Treatment and Control Groups</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>The Treatment Groups Perceived Need for Help regarding the Solution of Educational Problems (Post-Test and Pre-Test)</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Perceived Need for Help with the solution of Educational Problems (Post-Test)</td>
<td>317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Perceived Need for Help regarding the Solution of Career Problems (Post-Test and Pre-Test)</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLES</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Treatment and Control Groups' Perceived Need for Help with the Solution of Career Problems 320

The Treatment and Control Groups' Perceived Need for Help with the Solution of Personal Problems (Post-Test and Pre-Test) 322

The Treatment and Control Groups' Perceived Need for Help regarding the Solution of Personal Problems 324

Post-Test and Pre-Test Means, Difference in Means, T.Value, and Probability for Treatment Group (Females, Males, Total Group) on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD 327

Means, Difference in Means, T-Value and Probability for Post-Tests of Treatment and Control Groups (Females, Males, and Total Group) on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD 327

Post-Test and Pre-Test Means, Difference in Means, T-Value and Probability for Treatment Group (Females, Males and Total Group) on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD 328

Post-Test Means, Difference in Means, T-Value and Probability for Treatment and Control Groups (Females, Males, and Total Group) on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD 330
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Level of Contemplation of a Future Career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Level of Contemplation of a Future Career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Level of Certainty regarding the Appropriateness of their Educational Plans in Relation to their Career Plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Level of Certainty regarding the Appropriateness of their Educational Plans in Relation to their Career Plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Level of Certainty regarding the Appropriateness of their Career Plans in Relation to their Life Goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Level of Certainty regarding the Appropriateness of their Career Plans in Relation to their Life Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Level of Certainty regarding the Steps to be Taken in Preparation for Entry into Each of the Chosen Jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Level of Certainty regarding the Steps to be Taken in Preparation for Entry into Each of the Chosen Jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Level of Certainty concerning the Completion of All the Necessary Steps for Entry into at least One of the Chosen Jobs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Certainty Level regarding the Ability to Complete All the Necessary Steps for Entry into at least One of the Chosen Jobs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Conception of their Occupational Future</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Conception of their Occupational Future</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Evaluation of the Career Guidance Resources that were provided them</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups Post-Test Evaluation of the Career Guidance Resources which were made available to them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Evaluation of the Career Guidance Activities at their school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Evaluation of the Career Guidance Activities at their school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Evaluation of the Role of the Ordinary Subject Teacher with regard to Career Guidance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Evaluation of the Role of the Ordinary Subject Teacher in respect of Career Guidance 360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the School Counsellor in respect of Career Guidance 361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the School Counsellor with regard to Career Guidance 363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Evaluation of Small Group Discussion Among the Pupils Themselves 365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Evaluation of Small Group Discussion Among the Pupils Themselves 367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Evaluation of the Help with Career Planning which the Pupils Received from their school 368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Evaluation of the Help with Career Planning which the Pupils Received from their School 371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>The Treatment Group's Post-Test and Pre-Test Comments regarding the Availability and Accessibility of a School Counsellor at their School 372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>The Treatment and Control Groups' Post-Test Comments on the Availability and Accessibility of a School Counsellor at their School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>Summary Listing of the Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>Summary Listing of the Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Accepted as a Result of Statistically Significant Differences that are Not in the Hypothesized Direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>Summary Listing of the Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Accepted Because of a Lack of Statistically Significant Differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIGURE</td>
<td>PAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yeoman's Tripartite Scheme Illustrating the Various Levels of Self-Actualization
CHAPTER 1

SCHOOL GUIDANCE AS AN EDUCATIONAL PHENOMENON

1.1 INTRODUCTION

"School Guidance has for many years been the stepchild of the school system" (HSRC 1981(b) : 15). One can safely say that this situation is still prevalent today. There are several reasons for this state of affairs. The main reason that one can give to explain the current position of School Guidance in education is an attitudinal one. It is the attitude which most school authorities, school guidance teachers themselves as well as other educators have in respect of School Guidance. These various educators have, with a very few exceptions, always thought of School Guidance as a non-essential aspect of education; and they still regard it in this manner. At best, School Guidance is regarded as an auxiliary service in the general education activity. This is an erroneous conception of School Guidance and is based on a faulty understanding of this educational function.

In this chapter an attempt will be made to highlight the educational nature of School Guidance. The central position that School Guidance should assume in the education activity will also be portrayed. To be able to accomplish these objectives the nature and scope of education as well as that of School Guidance will be examined very closely. We shall start off with an exposition of the term education.
1.2 THE CONCEPT EDUCATION

The term education is defined in a variety of ways by different authorities. These differing approaches to the phenomenon education are sometimes the source of heated debate. We shall commence our analysis of this concept with an examination of the broadest and most fundamental conception of education, namely, moulding.

1.2.1 Moulding

Moulding is, according to Gunter (1974 : 15) "the influence that the entire environment exercises on the individual and the consequent change that takes place in him". Gunter goes on to explain that moulding entails "the total influence of the entire environment on the individual" (1974 : 15). This environment may consist of "the material world of nature as well as the social-cultural world of man" (Gunter, 1974 : 15). The formative influence of the environment on man may be beneficial or harmful and occurs continuously from birth to death. In addition, this process may take place consciously or unconsciously, deliberately and purposefully or inadvertently and unintentionally. It must, however, be indicated that this is not an automatic process because the individual, as a free and active subject, plays an important part in his own moulding, a part which increases as he progresses in his self-actualization.
1.2.2 Education

The next term we seek to examine in our analysis of the concept Education is the term education itself. We shall firstly analyse this concept in terms of the conventional approach to its definition by South African educationists and then an attempt will be made to define the term operationally. Van Rensburg, Kilian and Landman define education as "a conscious, purposive intervention by an adult in the life of a nonadult to bring him to intellectual independence" (1979 : 251).

Differences exist between the terms moulding and education. Firstly, the term moulding refers to a broader agogical process than does education. In education the change agent is clearly identified. This change agent is the educator. This is not the case with regard to moulding where the change agent can be anything in the changee's environment. In education the changee is defined in terms of his maturity status. The person who undergoes change in education is a "non-adult" who is on his way to adulthood. In moulding the individual undergoing change can be any person. Such a person may be a few hours old or he may be in his old age. The goal for education is clearly stated, namely, adulthood. While this goal is difficult to define, it entails a higher level of "être-humaine" for the individual than the level he was at before the onset of education. Education is therefore always progressive. There is no identifiable goal that is achieved in moulding. The environmental influence on the individual can lead to various types
of changes. These changes may be positive or negative. Therefore the process of moulding can either be progressive or retrogressive. The means or method whereby education takes place involve the deliberate purposive intervention by an adult in the life of a non-adult in order to lead him to adulthood, (Van Rensburg et al, 1979, Gunter 1974, Du Plooy and Kilian, 1984). In moulding any method is applicable and such means or methods are often indeterminable.

What is definitely common to both moulding and education is that the changee takes an active part in his own change.

1.2.3 Teaching

Teaching is the third term that we seek to examine. Teaching concerns itself with the imparting of knowledge (including values and norms) and skills by a person possessing such knowledge and skill. This knowledge and skill is necessary for human and communal existence. The person who is being taught learns. The act of learning takes place through the acquisition of understanding and knowledge. (Duminy and Söhnge, 1980; Van Rensburg et al, 1979; Gunter, 1974).

The meaning of the term teaching should not be restricted to those activities that take place in the classroom. Moreover not all teaching is educative. It must, however, be indicated that basically teaching is an essential aspect of education; that teachers are educators par excellence. Their teaching is, on the whole, educative in nature. This type of teaching is
referred to as "educative teaching" by Duminy and Sohinge (1980), amongst others. While this is the case there exist some differences between education and teaching as a comparison of the two activities which now follows will show.

In teaching, like in education, the change agent is clearly identified. He is the teacher or educator who teaches or educates. However, unlike in education where the educand is defined in terms of the level of maturity he has attained, in teaching and learning the learner can be any person who is being taught something.

The methods and goals of teaching and education are identical most of the time. There are however, occasions when different nuances can be attached to the goals of these two activities. This occurs when teaching is restricted to the development of "the intellect and the hand", (Gunter, 1974 : 11). Education seeks to achieve a broader goal than that sought by the type of teaching that is too narrowly defined. Education is concerned with "the development of the whole child or the child in his totality", (Gunter, 1974 : 11). Education therefore focusses attention not only on the development of the head and the hand, but also on the will and emotions, on the whole individual as an indivisible physical-psychical, socio-cultural, spiritual being, (Gunter, 1974 : 11).

The terms moulding, education and teaching have been discussed at some length in an attempt, firstly, to point out the similarities and differences amongst
them, and secondly, to clearly delineate the nature and scope of the concept education. This analysis is especially necessary as a result of the confusion attendant to the usage of these terms. Various educationists and educators use these terms synonymously and interchangeably—this being particularly the case in respect of teaching and education. As will be shown later on in this chapter, the conception of education and teaching as always identical has led to serious misconceptions regarding the nature and place of school guidance in education.

Despite the differences that exist amongst these three agogical activities, one characteristic weaves through all of them like a golden thread; namely, that the individual who is "moulded" "taught", or "educated" takes an active part in his own moulding, teaching and education. He is not a passive spectator of his development as things and events happen or are done to him. The individual is to varying extents his own teacher and educator. As it will be shown later on, this fact is of profound significance for school guidance.

We have attempted to give an exposition of the concept education in terms of the generally held view of this human activity, (at least this is the view of education held by a number of authorities in this area). We shall now proceed to define education operationally in terms of the aims and objectives of the present study.
1.2.4 An Operational Definition of Education

Our operational definition of education will be expressed in terms of the formulation propounded by Frankena (cited in Chamberlain 1977 : 12). Frankena has provided a scheme according to which differing definitions of education can be analysed. According to him every educational activity involves a situation where X fosters or seeks to foster in Y some disposition D by method M. A look at the phenomenon education in terms of what happens in everyday education situations enables us to make certain specific substitutions of education variables. Our definition of education can be analysed into the following components in terms of Frankena’s formulation:

\[ X = \text{A person who is actualising himself at a higher level than another person, usually a child.}\]

\[ Y = \text{An individual who can and is moving to a higher level of self-actualisation. Such a person also wants to move to a higher level of self-actualization.}\]

\[ D = \text{To become a fully self-actualising individual so as to approximate the optimum realization of his potentialities.}\]

\[ M = \text{Educative guidance or assistance.}\]

A synthesis of the components of the education situation given above enables us to define education as:

"The activity in which one individual seeks to promote in another the desire and capacity to actualise himself so as to realize his potentialities to an optimum level."
There are three issues that are particularly noteworthy in the definition of education given above. The first one is the role of the self-actualising individual in the education activity. Frankena's formulation given above might suggest some passivity on the part of the self-actualising individual in the total education situation. However the reality of the education situation is that the self-actualising individual takes an active part in his education. The individual who is engaged in an experiential movement towards self-realization is actually actualising himself throughout this journey.

The fact of the matter is that the individual as a person cannot but be involved in his education. As a person the self-actualising individual does not only find himself in the education situation, he also plays a significant role in creating such a situation. In any given situation in which man finds himself, he has a "share in the choice of what will address him, speak to him from the entirety of his circumstances and from his situatedness, (Oberholzer 1979 : 14). Of particular significance in this regard is the fact that the individual also chooses the nature and quality of his response. In the education situation it is actually the self-actualising person who initiates the dialogue with his educator. Oberholzer (1979) maintains that in the education situation the self-actualising individual is placed by the world within the educator's field of attention as an appeal to him. Thus the educator is the person who is prompted and called upon to answer or respond to the child's call in an educative way. Of course the educator
readily responds to this call on him by the self-actualising individual by offering the necessary educative assistance. The self-actualising individual on his part responds by accepting the education offered to him and taking part in his own education, (Oberholzer, 1979: 17). The education activity therefore does not entail the fostering of a particular disposition in an impassive, inactive, or uninvolved individual. On the contrary, the self-actualising individual calls upon the educator to assist him in his own self-actualization.

Another matter to be noted in our definition of education is that the educator also benefits from the education activity. While the educator is possessed of greater insight and ability than the person he is helping in his self-realization, he also actualizes himself in the education situation. As Van Rensburg, Kilian and Landman state, "in education the educator and educand on account of interdependence should together actualize their human potentialities", (1979: 244). It means that in the education situation the two individuals are involved not only in a dialogical situation but also in a diagonalogical one.

The third point in our definition that is noteworthy relates to the goal of education. The goal or education is generally described as maturity. Sometimes attempts are made to qualify this maturity like when we talk of intellectual maturity. However, more and more workers in the field of education are seeing the goal of education as the promotion in the self-actualising
individual of the need or desire and increasing ability to carry out life-tasks in such a way as to realize his potentialities. In other words education does not aim at attaining a fixed goal towards which the educator and the individual who is being educated are moving. As Oosthuizen (1984) succinctly states, self-realization is not a goal but a direction.

Both the educator and the person being educated are trying to see to it that the individual who, from the earliest moment possible in his life, is busy actualizing himself physically, psychically, socio-culturally and spiritually, does in fact actualize himself optimally and in a way that will enable him to approximate the optimum realization of his potentialities.

The self-realization activity of the individual is never completed. It is really an on-going activity that lasts the individual his whole life-time.

1.3 SCHOOL GUIDANCE

1.3.1 Preview

We shall now turn our attention to an examination of the concept School Guidance. An attempt will also be made to show that Guidance is an essential aspect of the education activity. But before we attempt to give an exposition of School Guidance we shall determine the place that School Guidance has occupied in education from the time of its formal inception in the United
States of America. We shall then proceed to examine the place of School Guidance in terms of present day models of the guidance function.

1.3.2 The Trait-Factor Model of Guidance

The Guidance Movement did not originate in the school. Even the basic motives or factors that led to the introduction of Guidance services were outside the immediate school situation. These factors were more in keeping with and reflected the general *Zeitgeist* in the United States of America at the turn of the 20th century. These factors included philanthropy, religion, the mental hygiene movement, social change and mobility.

More specifically guidance grew out of a need that was mainly vocational to help youth adapt to a society that was becoming more and more industrialized. In this regard Brewer (in Herr, 1979) identified some conditions which directly gave rise to the guidance movement, namely, the division of labour, the growth of technology, the extension of vocational education. These conditions, which created a highly problematic choice situation to the youth, led a number of public spirited individuals to do something to help these young people. Frank Parsons, a philanthropist working at State House in the city of Boston, founded the Vocational Bureau of Boston in 1905. The aim of the Bureau was to provide assistance to the young persons with regard to vocational choice and to train teachers to serve as vocational counsellors. Parson's book, *On Choosing a Vocation*, in which he discusses the role of the counsellor as well as the technique that might
be used in vocational counselling was published posthumously in 1909. According to Gibson and Mitchel (1981) Parsons book makes interesting reading even today. They go on to say that very few people would find fault with Parson's suggestions that the three factors necessary for one to make a wise choice of vocation are as follows:

(a) Individual analysis: In this regard the Counsellor and the client together analyze the client's capacities, interests and temperament.

(b) Job analysis: Here the client studies occupational opportunities, requirements, and employment prospects in various lines of work.

(c) Cooperative comparison of these two sets of analyses: The counsellor and the client together reason out and determine the relationship between these two sets of data. (Gibson Mitchel, 1981; Shertzer and Stone, 1981).

This is the trait-factor approach to guidance that has had a fundamental and lasting influence on this function. Parsons is justifiably regarded as the father of the guidance movement in American education. The guidance movement developed phenomenally and spread rapidly in American schools.

As can be seen from Parson's work, and in later developments, the early years of the movement had a vocational orientation that was primarily concerned with those aspects of youth guidance dealing with vocational
choice, preparation, and placement. In this regard Gibson and Mitchel add that "Sixty years later, many of the same characteristics (as those refered to above) would again be reasserted in the career education and guidance movements" (1981 : 10). One can add without fear of contradiction that the influence of this "vocational orientation" on School Guidance is still very strong in the United States of America where formal Guidance services were first introduced as well as in other countries where these services saw the light of day at a later stage. For a very long time the educational nature of Guidance did not come to the fore as a result of this narrow definition of guidance and the focus on matters vocational as well as the absence of a developmental orientation to career decision-making.

1.3.3 Guidance as a Distributive and Adjustment or Remedial Service

The Parsonian model of guidance directly led to the development of a point of view that regard this service as a distribution and an adjustment service. As far as the distribution function is concerned, pupils and students are assisted in the most effective manner possible to find suitable educational and vocational opportunities. Regarding the adjustment approach the counsellor helps pupils and students to integrate knowledge about themselves and their environment so as to arrive at a coherent and meaningful choice.
Closely allied to the adjustment conception of guidance is a view of this function as a remedial or a "clinical process" (Shertzer and Stone 1981: 66). As a treatment function, guidance is seen as problem oriented, or as needed primarily at decision points and thus restricted in time. In this sense guidance is seen as responding to taxonomies of vocational and other problems or to difficulties in choice by applying certain techniques or knowledge to resolve them. Such taxonomies have been drawn up by authorities in this field such as Williamson, Bordin, Byrne, and Robinson, (in Shertzer and Stone, 1981). Williamson for instance, has drawn up a list of problems with which pupils and youth are confronted. These problems are the following:

(a)  No choice  
(b) Uncertain choice  
(c)  Unwise choice  
(d) Discrepancy between interests and aptitudes.

Robinson, on the other hand suggests that these problems can be described as:

(a) personal maladjustment  
(b) conflict with significant others  
(c) discussing plans  
(d) lack of information about environment  
(e) immaturity and  
(f) skill deficiency.

What is noteworthy about these diagnostic constructs is that the problem in any of these categories, will only emerge at a decision point. Thus guidance is
utilized only as a post-hoc response to a problem that is already present and which hinders the individual from progressing to some new phase of life, e.g. entry into an occupation and selection of a particular academic direction. In the remedial approach to guidance the educational nature of this function is played down or is completely non-existent. The problems of the individual are seen as unrelated. At best guidance can only be regarded as an ancillary service aimed at enabling the individual to make wise educational and vocational choices or help him solve specific adjustment problems that confront him at a given point in time.

1.3.4 Guidance as an Auxiliary Service in Education

This conception of the guidance function is closely related to the distribution-adjustment view discussed above. In terms of this view guidance is provided in the school to support the work of teachers. This means that guidance services are needed in the school because pupils and students encounter learning difficulties arising from emotional and environmental factors that must be remedied if intellectual learning activities are to take place smoothly. Guidance is thus regarded as a supporting service. The aims of education and consequently those of guidance are limited to the attainment of teaching-learning objectives. The broader goals of education, to which guidance not only subscribes, but the attainment of which it plays a central role, are completely left out of reckoning. This view of guidance considers subject teachers to be the primary professionals in the school.
It relegates guidance teachers to the level of technicians who are subservient to the "subject teachers". It also robs guidance in the school situation of its essentially pedagogic nature. However, the evolution of the view of guidance that has taken place since the epoch-making contribution of Frank Parsons has moved in one direction, namely, that of taking the guidance function into the education activity.

1.3.5  A Broader view of School Guidance

As early as the mid 1920's and 30's persons such as William Proctor and John Brewer (in Shertzer and Stone, 1981) postulated a broader model of school guidance than the one that had been propounded by Parsons and those who immediately followed in his footsteps. Herr 1979 maintains that since the 1950's this broader view of school guidance has come to the fore more strongly.

In 1950, Hoppock, as president of the Vocational Guidance Association (of the United States of America) declared that the traditional view of Vocational Guidance was changing, (Herr 1979). However, a dividing line between the old vocational adjustment and time-limited view of guidance and the new comprehensive and developmental view of this function was drawn by Super. Super's contribution can be regarded as a watershed point between these two major views of school guidance. In 1951, Super recommended a revision of the official National Vocational Guidance Association definition of Vocational Guidance that had stood since 1937. As Herr 1979 indicates the earlier definition
had represented Vocational Guidance as "the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon it, and progress in it", (Herr 1979 : 119). As indicated above, such a definition suggested that immediate choice was the time frame of concern and the unit of attention was occupation. According to Herr, the 1951 definition by Super changed this perspective by defining vocational guidance as

"the process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of himself and of his role in the world of work, to test this concept against reality, and to convert it into a reality, with satisfaction to himself and to society", (in Herr 1979 : 119).

This is a fundamental departure from the old view of this function. This is clearly conveyed by Herr's assessment of this historical development which is given below.

Herr (1979) indicates that the 1951 definition of vocational guidance laid a base for going beyond the traditional provision of vocational guidance on a reactive basis, principally at that point in time when the individual must make an initial or re-entry occupation choice, predicated principally on a simple matching of personal characteristics with those of job(s) available in an effort to maximize the degree of fit. This was the occupational model. Instead, the new definition emphasized the psychological nature of vocational choice, effectively blending
into a unified whole the personal, educational, and vocational dimensions of guidance and counselling that previously had been arbitrarily separated. The resulting perspective focused on self-understanding and self-acceptance to which can be related the occupational and educational alternatives available to the individual within the context of planned purposeful behaviour (1979: 120).

A direct consequence of Super's redefinition of vocational guidance was a gradual move from an occupational model to a career model (what we would prefer to call an educational model) as the basis of guidance that takes place in the school situation. The new definition introduced several perspectives into guidance that are not found in the trait-factor model.

The developments in the guidance field that have been sketched above have moved this function into the education arena. However, as a result of the influence of a number of factors, guidance has not moved to the center of the education activity where we think it rightfully belongs. We shall now try to determine the exact role and place of guidance in the education situation, thereafter a definition of this function as it manifests itself within the education context will be attempted.

1.3.6 Guidance as Identical with Education

This view of Guidance as education can historically be traced back to Brewer whose book Education as Guidance appeared in 1932. Brewer used the terms
education and guidance interchangeably, with both words meaning assisting young people in living. Brewer offered the following definition of Guidance which is quoted in Shertzer and Stone (1981: 64)

"Guidance is frequently misconceived; it is best understood through the concept of self guidance, its ultimate aim.... Guidance is neither conditioning nor controlling, nor directing nor taking responsibility for anybody.... the work we do in school may be described as helping children to understand, organize, extend and improve their individual and cooperative activities."

According to Brewer education is the conscious effort of society to guide the individual so that he will be able to live a life that will be socially effective and individually satisfying. The principles which apply in guidance are the same as those that apply in education. According to Brewer (in Shertzer and Stone, 1981) in guidance the person is assisted in solving a problem, performing a task, or moving toward an object. The person being guided usually takes the initiative and asks for guidance. This call for guidance by the self-actualising person may not always be overt and openly expressed.

Brewer's foresight in transcending the "vocational" concept of school guidance was very striking. He was in 1932 describing the guidance function in a manner in which it is increasingly being conceived in the 1980's. Of course this view of school guidance has not yet gained universal acceptance in the guidance field. However, the work of persons such as Hoyt,
Kehas, Miller-Tiedeman, Ojeman, Mosher and Sprinthall, Weinstein, Matthewson, Peters and Farewell, Alschuler, Goldman, Cottingham and many others have contributed greatly to bringing the educational nature of this function to the fore. Kehas (1970) maintains that the development of substantive theory in guidance is constrained by the existing concepts and structures in education. For those concepts and structures to accommodate the modern conceptions of guidance is not easily accomplished. To some extent "accommodation" requires, indeed demands a redefinition of the present assumptive structure of education which essentially postulates that

- education is teaching
- the primary concern in education is with the teaching-learning situation, and
- the primary relationship is that of teacher-student. If this analysis is accurate the centrality of the teacher and teaching is readily apparent. Implicit is a fourth premise: there is only one type of educator in the schools - the teacher. Within this framework, the establishment of a counsellor role with primary and systemic concern with the personal development of each student is precluded by definition (Kehas, 1970).

As a direct consequence of defining education as teaching individuals who now serve as guidance teachers can, as
indicated above, provide only auxilliary services of which the primary purpose is to make the teaching function more effective. Kehas comes to the conclusion that the traditional definition of education restricts the meaningful exposition and definition of guidance. The solution to this problem, Kehas (1970) maintains, entails a redefinition of education as involving the personal development of the individual, that is, the development of the whole person towards the optimum realization of all his potentialities. Various types of "educators" could become involved with different aspects of the individual's self-realization, using different modes of intervention. As we shall see presently this new model of guidance is gradually taking root in the education sphere.

An acceptance of guidance as an educational function raises a number of questions. These questions include the following:

(a) What is the role or task of guidance in the education activity? What does it seek to achieve?
(b) How is the aim of guidance to be achieved?
(c) Who should be involved in the implementation of the guidance programme in the school situation? An answer to these questions, amongst others, will most probably highlight the educational nature of guidance. An attempt will now be made to address these questions.
1.3.7 The Role of School Guidance in Education

An examination of Super's definition of Guidance cited above gives us an indication of what school guidance seeks to achieve in the education situation. According to Super (Herr 1979) School Guidance seeks to help the individual to develop and accept a concept of himself and of his role in the world of work which he evaluates in terms of reality and then proceed to actualize it in such a way as to bring about satisfaction both to himself and to society. School Guidance therefore has as its task the development of an "integrated and adequate" self-concept by the individual.

Kehas sees the role of School Guidance as the promotion of "personal development". According to Kehas personal development means

"the continuing development of intelligence about self.... It is concerned with that aspect of human experiencing which has been variously characterized as self-concept system, personal construct system, ego-identity, self-evaluation, self-attitudes. This concept of personal development assumes that it is desirable for individuals to have an opportunity both to think about the kind of self they are building and have built and to confront themselves with the meanings they attribute to their experiencing and the consequences such attributions will have on their future self." (1970 : 61)

Kehas goes on to state that the assumptions indicated in the personal development construct "imply a need for an expansion of the current concept of basic education and for the development of counselling (we would say school guidance) as an essentially educative
function", (in Shertzer and Stone 1970 : 612). Closely allied to Kehas's conception of guidance as "personal education" is the concept of guidance as psychological or "affective" education. This movement in education received a big boost as a result of an upsurge of criticism of traditional education practices and proposals for change. This criticism of American education reached a crescendo in the late 1960s. The contributions of such persons as Mosher and Sprinthall, Gerald Weinstein, Alfred Aschuler, Harold Cottingham and Leo Goldman gave direction to this movement within the education sphere, (Shertzer and Stone, 1981). All those persons believed that personal development, which was the goal of psychological education, was the primary aim of education. Weinstein (1973) called psychological or affective education "self-science" education.

According to Weinstein (1973) "self-science" is concerned with the promotion of self-knowledge on the part of the individual so as to enable him to actualize himself more effectively.

Oosthuizen (1982) has in an inaugural address enunciated in very clear terms the task of School Guidance within the education activity. He has also addressed this question, that is, the real task of school guidance, in a book he has co-authored with Niels Lindhard, (Lindhard and Oosthuizen, 1984). Oosthuizen has sought not only to portray the educational nature of this function, but also to pinpoint its actual role in the education situation. According to him the task of School Guidance is completely interwoven with that of the total education event.
Oosthuizen (1982) maintains that an individual is able to actualize himself in respect of any aspect of his being only if he has formed a realistic self-identity in that terrein. He states in this regard that

"wanneer 'n identiteit op 'n besondere terrein nie gevestig is nie, is selfaktualisering op daardie terrein nie moontlik nie en waar die jongmens die lewensterrein binne met groot onsekerheid en diffuusheid rondom hom of haar". (1982 : 12)

In other words the child has to arrive at a realistic self definition before self-actualization can take place effectively. It is from this defined self that self-actualization can and will occur because

"daar vir die kind duidelike grense van die essensiële self bestaan waarëssun die ontdekte en gedefiniëerde self kan voortbeweeg op sy weg na selfaktualisering. Binne hierdie duidelike grense van die essensiële self kan hy aangepas, onderhandel en zelfs 'n kompromis aangaan maar buite hierdie grense van die essensiële self kan hy nie beweeg of self onderhandel nie, omdat dit strydig sou wees met sy gevestigde identiteit." (Oosthuizen 1982 : 12)

The child, pupil or student who has established his identity can take realistic positions such as I am or I am not, I can or I cannot, I want to or I don't want to, I will or I will not, I should or I should not; and then act accordingly. Such a person has become aware of the essentials of being a human in
respect of the various aspects of personhood, he has examined them and understood them and most importantly, they have assumed a personal meaning and value for him, (Lindhard and Oosthuizen 1985 : 4). In this instance the individual has arrived at a realistic self-definition from which the defined self can be actualized. In this connection, Oosthuizen gives an example of a young person who has in terms of his aptitude, interest, ability, future-directedness, etc, established his own identity in respect of a particular study course. The pupil or student who has established a clear and realistic self identity of a mathematics-higher-grade-pupil/student will be engaged in actualizing this identity when he does higher grade mathematics.

"Daar bestaan vir hom in sy wiskundesituasie grense, uitdagings, verantwoordelikhede en prestasievlakke wat deur sy duidelike en realistiese wiskundelandetiteit bepaal word. Hy doen sy wiskunde daarvolgens en is met self-actualisering besig sonder dat hy verward raak. Hy word die wiskundemens wat hy kan, wil en behoort te word," (Oosthuizen, 1982 : 11)

If the child has not established a realistic Mathematics-higher-grade identity, he will be confused, uncertain and unrealistic as a Mathematics pupil or student. "Van selfaktualisering is daar hier nie sprake nie, want vir hom is self óf afwesig óf onrealisties," (Oosthuizen, 1982 : 11). The example of the Mathematics self-identity as a prerequisite for effective self-actualization in this terrein can be extended to cover
every aspect of the individual's personhood. We can have a learner identity, a career identity, a marital identity, etc. and self-actualization takes place on the basis of these identities. The importance of identity-formation for self-actualization applies to all areas of life.

When, however, an unrealistic or an incomplete identity is established, the individual is as indicated above, confused, uncertain and unrealistic about what he can become wants to become and should become. There can as a result be no possibility of self-actualization as "the self which is the mainstay of identity formation and consequent self-actualization, is either unrealistic or vague", (Lindhard and Oosthuizen, 1985 : 4). Identity formation is therefore a prerequisite for self-actualization. In actual fact identity formation and self-actualization are two aspects of a single activity. Emphasis should be placed on the dialogical relationship of identity formation and self-actualization. A clear and realistic identity makes it possible for effective self-actualization to take place. On the other hand, meaningful self-actualization leads to the establishment of new identities. In fact self-actualization only occurs when the self-actualising individual evaluates his progress through the establishment of various self-images at various life phases and at different times, en route, to optimum self-realization. Time and again the individual pauses to determine "the way he is" on his way to optimum self-realization. Identity formation therefore goes hand in hand with self-actualization. In reality it can be stated that the formation of identities is the aim of self-actualization.
An acceptance of identity formation as a prerequisite for self-actualization raises the question of whether identity formation is an educational phenomenon. "Hierop is die antwoord 'n onomwonde ja," (Oosthuizen 1982:12). In this regard Oosthuizen (1982) quotes Kilpatrick (1975:32) who has spoken of the adolescent "whose main development task is identity formation" and Holland (1977:43) who has said of career indecision that "this disposition is seen as the outcome of a life history in which a person has failed to acquire the necessary ... sense of identity". Another educational value of self-identity is that it confers futurity to self-actualization. Self-identity is according to Belkin (in Oosthuizen 1982) the indispensable boat of life. It does not only serve to keep the individual afloat and dry, but more significantly, it is there to take him to his destination through unknown seas. It lends to the person "the sense of continuity - the life line (that) both secures us to our roots and allows us to strike boldly into the future" (p, 12).

For the individual to actualize himself he must establish for himself an ideal self-identity; that self-identity or goal towards which he wants to move in his journey towards the optimum realization of his potentialities. Oosthuizen (1981:13) again quotes the following profound statement of Kilpatrick in this connection "I can't commit myself if I don't know who I will be tomorrow. It wouldn't be fair to me or you." The individual can only know who he wants to or should be in the future if he knows who he is today. "Die kind weet
dikwels nie wie hy môre sal wees nie, omdat hy nie weet nie wie hy vandag is nie." (Oosthuizen, 1982: 13).

A clear and realistic self-identity facilitates the establishment of an ideal self-identity. School guidance plays a crucial role in the individual's attempt to establish an ideal self-identity. To expect the individual on his own not only to know who he is today and who he is going to be tomorrow, but also to bind himself to these identities is not only unfair but also uncaring towards the young person. The individual should therefore be assisted not only in the formation of different kinds of identities, but especially in the establishment of "one totally integrated dominant personal identity which may be called a self-identity", (Oosthuizen and Lindhard, 1985: 5).

Following the postulations of such existentialists as Victor Frankl, Rollo May, and Erikson, Oosthuizen describes identity as

"n soliede bewuswees van die kontinuiteit, die stabiliteit, die onvervangbaarheid en die onruilbaarheid van die self. Keuse en verantwoordelijkheidsgereedheid asook 'n toekomsgerigheid en 'n gevolglike sin tot lewe is komponente daarvan." (1982: 14)

Of all the education functions that comprise the education even, School Guidance seems to be particularly suited to carry out this task of identity formation. This seems to answer the perennial question regarding the role of School Guidance in the education activity.
Oosthuizen makes the assertion that while identity formation and self-actualization are in reality aspects of the same activity, a distinction can be made between them.


The specific task that Oosthuizen assigns to school guidance is the establishment of a self-identity by the individual pupil or student.

Yeoman, cited in Gluckman (1982), has also distinguished identity-formation from the total self-actualization process. He has developed a three level scheme according to which the educution activity and its goals are conceptualized. This scheme takes the form of three concentric circles, each of which represents a "realm" of experience (figure 1, p 31). The first and innermost area represents the intrapersonal realm, the second surrounding, the interpersonal and, the third surrounding, the impersonal realm.

The first realm, the intrapersonal, contains all experiences that go on inside of the individual, whether they originate from the individual or from outside. These include the experiences of the body, e.g. hunger, pain, warmth; of the emotions, e.g. anger, grief, fear, joy; of the mind, e.g. thoughts, images, intuition; and of the soul; an experience of the sublime, revelation, mystical union. The intrapersonal realm is
identified as the "I". What is within my skin is "me", what is outside, "other" (Gluckman 1982:122).

The second realm, the interperson, is closely related and integrated with the first, but it represents a step away from self towards others. In it reside what occurs between persons. It is the realm of relationships and communication, of conflict, response, sharing, action. The dividing line between it and the intrapersonal lies in the senses, which act as the prime intermediaries between the two. It is the realm in which other persons exist as the real "I" experiences them.

The third realm, the impersonal, is the realm of "things". In it reside all that which is not personal, which includes not only the physical environment, but also the cultural, societal and historical environments.

The three realms are closely interwoven as aspects of one whole. A phenomenon that is initially experienced as "impersonal" may, in time, enter the interpersonal realm as well as the intrapersonal one. The reverse may also occur. This whole constitutes inner experience taken in its broadest sense and includes all three realms, since ultimately everything that the individual experiences is experienced as "inside" (Gluckman:1982). Thus the three realms are intimately related and form one whole. Self-actualization entails the development of this whole.
Fig. 1.1 Yeoman's Tripartite Scheme Illustrating the Various Levels of Self-Actualization

What are the educational implications of Yeoman's postulations? As indicated above, the central circle represents in reality the individual's self-identity and the question asked here is "who am I"? If a person's education enables him to answer this question effectively, a strong personal identity is secured. If not, a weak, diffuse personal identity will develop as Oosthuizen (1982), has indicated. Self identity is central and crucial to healthy personal development for without it no stability or balance is possible. The teacher, especially the guidance teacher, has the enormous responsibility of helping the pupil develop a healthy self-identity.

Increasingly, from the point of this identity, relationships are worked out with others (parents, siblings,
peers, strangers). The fundamental question here is "with whom am I?" Faulty development in this realm will lead to either an overaccentuated consciousness of self or a loss of identity through exaggerated consciousness of the world. As was indicated earlier on, the third circle represents the world. This is also a very important segment in the individual's development. The question to be considered here is "What can I". This is the realm of experience and resultant power or potency in respect of the world. If a person develops effectively in this realm a sense of potency is achieved; if not, he remains impotent. Traditionally, this is the only realm which received any attention from school educators and it was left to the family to provide learning experiences in the other two realms. The goal of education, however, is the provision of learning experiences in all three realms. School guidance concerns itself with the three realms in Yoeman's schematic portrayal of the learner's world. However, of all the components of the education activity, it is especially suited to effectively address the intrapersonal and the interpersonal realms.

We have attempted to answer the question relating to task of School Guidance in education. But what is the exact place of this function in the total education occurrence? School Guidance occupies or should occupy a central position in education because in promoting the development of a realistic self-identity regarding all aspects of the individual's personhood, it is involved in the self-actualization by the individual
of all his potentialities; in other words it is directly involved in all aspects of the individual's education. School Guidance is also centrally situated when we consider its structural relationship with the other key components of the education activity. School Guidance plays a mediating role between the following components of the education situation: the pupil/student and the teacher; the pupil/student and the school administrator; the student/pupil and the school curriculum; the pupil/student and his educational goal as well as between the pupil/student and his fellow pupils or students and the larger community outside the school. School Guidance therefore occupies a central position among all these major components of the education situation.

1.3.8 The Role of the School Guidance Teacher

Regarding the role of the School Guidance teacher in education Oosthuizen makes the observation that

"Die een publikasie na die ander en tale kongresse oor die wêreld heen poog nog steeds om die taak van die Skoolvoorsigter te identifiseer en te omskryf." (1982 : 16)

Historically there have been fundamental questions about the role and place of guidance teachers in the school. When guidance services were first introduced in the United States of America, guidance teachers were placed in the schools and the question regarding their role was addressed afterwards. As Lombana (in Herr 1979 : 62) puts it, many school administrators
had school counsellors thrust on them as a result of governmental decision. The school administrators frequently did not welcome school counsellors and they were not knowledgeable of the field of guidance and the counsellor's role. The situation that obtains in the guidance scene in black education today is exactly the same as the one described above. The relationship between the guidance teacher and the school principal is still not clearly defined. Some authorities like Lombana (in Herr 1979 : 62) feel that the guidance teacher should report to and be under the supervision of a district guidance officer, while others like Costar (in Herr 1979 : 62) think that the guidance teacher should be under the control and supervision of the school principal.

In countries with sophisticated school guidance systems, such as the United States, the guidance teacher himself has contributed greatly to the ambiguous nature of his role in education. The question in this connection is whether school counsellors or guidance teachers are true educators who in addition to their ordinary training as teachers, have been provided with training in guidance and counselling, or whether this training causes them to have little allegiance to education and makes them to regard themselves as "specialists operating from within and outside the school to deal with its rejects, misfits and malcontents". Herr, 1979 : 60).

Herr goes on to say that the teacher counsellors, whether intentionally or otherwise, have regarded
themselves not only as different from, but also superior to the other teachers "by virtue of their training, private offices, confidential relationships with students, and other such perquisites". (1979 : 61).

The new perspective in School Guidance has, however, drastically altered the traditional conception of the Guidance teacher's role. The role of the counsellor has shifted from a reactive, remedial one to a proactive, outreaching one that has as its purpose systematically educating students to the knowledge, attitudes and skills that the individual needs to actualize himself effectively regarding all aspects of his life. School Guidance teachers should consider themselves as educators rather than non-educational professionals who work within the school context.

Hoyt (1961) maintains that School Guidance teachers should have teaching certificates since this would confirm their commitment to education as well as gain them acceptance by teachers and administrators. The guidance teacher is first and foremost and educator. Of course the guidance teacher carries out a number of activities that a teacher who offers a conventional school subject may not carry out. Such activities may include, inter alia, the administration and interpretation of psychological tests and the conducting of counselling interviews on a one to one basis. However the guidance teacher performs these tasks as an educator who aims at accomplishing an educational goal. Of particular significance is the view expressed by several workers in this area that every member of staff in the school has guidance responsibilities,
(Chuenyane, 1981; Hoyt, 1961). According to this view the school guidance programme is implemented by classroom teachers, counselling specialists, school administrators and other members of staff in the school.

1.3.9 School Guidance as Curriculum

We have stated above that the aim of School Guidance is to promote the self-actualization of the individual. However, to simply say that self-actualization is the aim of School Guidance does not solve the teacher's practical problems as to what he should do to promote this self-actualization. When we talk of the "aim" of School Guidance we are talking about something that is different from an "ideal". Hirst and Peters (in Golby, Greenwald and West 1975: 55) indicate that one can pontificate about one's ideals as a teacher without having to address awkward questions about practicalities. If on the other hand, a person attempts to formulate his aims, he has to pay attention to practicalities. An educational ideal, for instance, might be that every child should learn out of the joy of discovery. A teacher's aim in the same context, might be that every child in his class should be brought to see some point in learning what had to be learnt. The teacher's aim is more specific and attainable than the educational "ideal" expressed above. Such an aim is of course preceded by objectives which are still more specific. In the same way the School Guidance teacher analyses his educative task into specific aims and objectives in terms of the "identities" with which the self-actualising individual has
to be helped to establish. The teacher then engages in specific activities in order to realize these aims and objectives. The activities in which the School Guidance teacher engages in his attempt at promoting the self-actualisation of individual pupils and students comprise a School Guidance curriculum.

The view of School Guidance as curriculum has many proponents. The most prominent among these is Kehas (1978) who makes the assertion that the emerging models in Guidance give credence to a body of content that can be construed as a Guidance curriculum. According to Kehas (1978) such content would include material geared at promoting self-understanding, decision making and planning on the part of the individual as well as enhance his knowledge of alternatives. Another proponent of guidance as curriculum is Aubrey (1978). He maintains that guidance and counselling program takes at least two forms. One form involves content quite similar to offerings in other curricular areas. The other form consists of the typical counselling plus the attendant supportive activities like psychological testing. Both these curricular approaches seek either the prevention of previously anticipated student problems or the enhancement of normal development processes, and "organized with a group or classroom focus and not a one-on-one point of entry", (1978 : 118). All in all, Aubrey (1978) considers guidance to be a comprehensive system of programmes and services in the school designed to affect the personal development of students.

Miller-Tiedeman (1978) holds a similar perspective as Aubrey, Kehas, Hoyt and others regarding guidance as
curriculum. To Miller-Tiedeman (1978) the guidance function assumes a programmatic or a curricular form. Even the traditional counselling activity forms a part of this programme.

Mosher and Spinhall (1970) are also of the opinion that a guidance curriculum should be fashioned that would consist of a series of courses designed to affect the personal, ethical, aesthetic and philosophical development of adolescents and young adults.

As has been implied in the previous sections, a School Guidance programme covers a very wide area. How does one go about compiling such a programme? Oosthuizen (1982) and Lindhard and Oosthuizen (1985) suggest the following manner of determining the contents of a School Guidance programme. Firstly the various identities that the individual must form or actualise so as to be able to establish an overall self-identity have to be determined. Such identities include a personal-identity, a trainee or learner identity, a decision-making identity, a job identity, an employee identity, an economic identity, and attitude and value identity. As a second step, a number of themes relating to each of these identities are selected. Typical themes relating to a personal-identity would include such matters as ability, aptitude, personality, maturity, permanence, values, amongst others; while such themes as the value of school education, achievement and underachievement, subject choice, study methods and study habits, the taking of tests an examinations, and so forth, would be related
to a trainee or learner identity. In so far as a job identity is concerned, such themes as the world of work, job classification, entrance requirements and benefits connected with specific jobs, job satisfaction and frustration, women and the world of work, are applicable. Regarding a decision-making identity themes such as the decision-making process, the use of information in decision-making, the responsibilities of decision-making, leadership and decision-making, are included. The same way of theme selection is applicable that all the identities that the individual has to establish in his self-actualisation. The point that is being made is that the concept of identity formation is the anchor in the compilation of a School Guidance programme and that the contents of the programme can be systematically and purposefully developed out of selected identities (Lindhard and Oosthuizen, 1985). For the purposes of this study the identities that the individual pupil or student has to form or realize so as to be in a position to actualise himself can be given as the following: the personal-social identity, the scholastic-educational identity, as well as the vocational-career identity. The extent to which an individual will form realistic identities in these areas of personhood will determine the self-identity that he will form and consequently the manner in which he will actualize his potentialities. The effective handling of these themse by both the young-sters and their educators will enable each individual pupil or student to form realistic and effective identities in the various aspects of his personhood.
1.3.10 The Time Dimension of a School Guidance Programme

Regarding the time perspective of School Guidance, Lindhard and Oosthuizen (1985) state that the self stretches over the past, the present and the future. Identity formation requires, result, continuity and growth over a period of time. Kilpatrick's (1975) assertion in this connection is also very pertinent. He, Kilpatrick, is quoted by Lindhard and Oosthuizen (1985:10) as saying that "Identity demands time. And the capacities and relationships that flow from identity - trust, commitment, friendship, love, generativity - also demand time". School Guidance, which concerns itself with identity formation, is a continuous education activity that carries on from kindergarten through the adult level. The basic assumption here is that individuals need guidance throughout their lives, that the guidance experiences should be cumulative, and that these experiences should be directed towards the individual's ability to see themselves accurately so that they can develop their capacities to the fullest extent for personal and societal benefit. (Shertzer and Stone, 1981:72)

Mosher and Sprinthall (1970) have suggested that the guidance programme should consist of a series of courses focused on various stages of the human life cycle from infancy to adolescence to adulthood. Lindhard and Oosthuizen (1985) also subscribe to this view. They believe that School Guidance should be offered in terms of the phases or stages that already exist. In
the school situation these phases are normally expressed as academic standards or levels through which the individual pupil and student must pass. The development of the different identities would take place right from school entry and would continue until the identities were formed more or less at the end of the individual's schooling.

It is possible to identify various developmental stages or phases in identity formation. Oosthuizen identifies three such stages, namely, the awareness phase, the exploration phase and the adoption phase (Lindhard and Oosthuizen, 1985).

During the awareness phase the pupil, gradually becomes aware of his environment and of himself within that environment. As regards a worker identity, the young person becomes aware of the fact that people work for a living, that they have different jobs, that these jobs seem to offer different salaries and statuses. For the young person to develop beyond that of which he is aware, he must explore his environment and himself. Consequently an exploration phase follows in which the individual gathers more information on specific issues and on himself. This enables him to gain knowledge and insight which enable him to react and to act more effectively. Again using the development of a worker identity as an example, the individual acquires knowledge about various jobs, he seeks and gets information about the rewards one can obtain from different jobs, what requirements exist for job entry etc. The knowledge about his environment and about the self that the individual acquires in the
first two phases of identity formation remains virtually meaningless to him until he has adopted it as his own. It has no personal significance for him. By adopting this knowledge as his own and personalizing it he makes it meaningful and realistic to him. Regarding the pupil or student's worker identity, such a young person no longer speculates about a job situation, he now sees himself in a job situation, he is able to make realistic decisions about it and act accordingly.

The recognition of these various stages in identity formation makes it possible to relate these stages to the different educational standards or levels in an individual's school career. Oosthuizen (1982) does precisely this. According to him the awareness phase occurs during the primary grade through standard five. The exploration phase takes place during the junior secondary school level, namely standard six through standard eight, while the adoption phase is seen to be operational during the senior secondary level, that is, in standard eight through ten.

1.3.11 The Principles of School Guidance and an Operational Definition of this Function

It seems appropriate at this stage that the assertions about School Guidance that have been made in the preceding paragraphs be summarised in a few principles. Such a statement of principles will lead us to an operational definition of School Guidance which will be used in this study. As Gibson and Mitchel indicate, principles form a philosophical framework within which programmes are organized and activities developed. As such, they become fundamental assumptions or
a system of beliefs regarding a profession and its role, function and activities" (1981: 24). Incidentally, these principles will also serve to throw light on the educational nature of School Guidance. Given below are some of the salient principles of School Guidance that have been propounded by workers in this area such as Traxler, Humphrey and North (1960), Herr and Cramer (1972), Miller (1968), Gibson and Mitchell (1981) Mortensen and Schmuller (1976) Shertzer and Stone (1981), as well as the committee: Guidance, of the HSRC Investigation into Education, (1981).

1.3.11.1 Principles of school guidance

(i) School Guidance concerns itself with the development of the total individual. This principle clearly reflects the educational character of the guidance function.

(ii) School Guidance is continuous from the time the pupil enters the school and goes on throughout the individual's formal schooling.

(iii) School Guidance is meant to serve the developmental needs of all youth.

(iv) The guidance services that are provided to pupils and students in the education situation are organized into a programme. Although this programme is an integral part of the total school programme, it is to some extent unique and definable. Certain specialized guidance activities from part of the guidance programme and these must be specially planned and developed if the programme is to be effective.
(v) The School Guidance programme caters for the needs of the pupils and the students it serves. To this end a regular and systematic assessment of the clientelle and of the characteristics of the environment in which this clientelle finds itself is carried out.

(vi) School Guidance, just as the total education event does, respect the worth and dignity of the individual - every individual irrespective of sex, colour or creed.

(vii) School Guidance recognises the uniqueness of the individual and the individual's right to that uniqueness.

(viii) The fact that the School Guidance programme focusses on the peculiar needs of the school clientelle makes it possible for the programme to "reflect the uniqueness of the population it serves and the environment in which it seeks to render this service," (Gibson and Mitchell, 1981 : 24). As a result one guidance programme will be different from other programmes.

(ix) One other important characteristic of a guidance programme is its accountability. Objective evidence of worth-while accomplishments of the programme must be provided. This is ensured by ongoing evaluation and research.

(x) School Guidance recognizes the right and capacity of the individual pupils and their parents to make decisions and plans.

(xi) The understanding, acceptance and support of School Guidance by the whole staff is of crucial importance to the success of the
School Guidance programme. The school guidance teacher is thus only a member of a team. He shares a concern for the optimum development of youth with psychologists, social workers, teachers, administrators and other educational and professional staff. While all this is true, there is a need for specialist guidance teachers. Trained guidance teachers are essential to give leadership and direction regarding programme design and implementation, thus ensuring programme success.

1.3.11.2 An operation definition of School Guidance

School Guidance means many things to many people. As early as 1925 Payne (cited in Miller, 1968) recorded as many as 103 definitions of "vocational guidance". Dietz (also reported in Miller, 1968 : 5), commenting on the differing approaches to the concept guidance, stated that "The Tower of Babel had nothing on the guidance and personnel field when it comes to a need for a common language."

Smith (1951) maintains that the confusion that exists regarding the definition of guidance was typical of a new science. He states in this regard that since guidance services are among the more recent developed in education, the difficulties inherent in changing concepts and semantics plague many guidance workers and other person. He goes on to say that

"this fact is not one about which we should be apologetic. Similar difficulties are common to other
professional fields during their early developmental periods."
(1951: 2)

However, thirty years on, a universally acceptable definition of School Guidance still eludes us. A way of going around this seemingly insurmountable problem is to opt for an operational definition of this educational function. Operational definitions have the advantage that besides attempting to prescribe standard procedures on tackling an issue, they ensure agreement about concepts between different observers, and eliminate those that are too ambiguous or hazy. As Butcher (1968) indicates, operational definitions are not explanation of the simple dictionary type because they name features of the world that can be discussed only under certain conditions. And these conditions, like the education event in our own case, form part of the meaning of the concept. School Guidance occurs within the total education situation. Now, as education concerns itself with assisting the individual toward optimum self-actualization, School Guidance must be seen from the point of view of individual self-actualization. In terms of this approach School Guidance can be defined as

that activity or process within the broader educational activity in which a person intervenes in a purposeful and educative manner in the life of an individual pupil or student with the aim of promoting in the pupil or student a desire and ability to be self-actualizing, thus enabling such a pupil or student to optimally realize
his potentialities in the personal-social, scholastic-educational as well as the vocational-career spheres of personhood.

The operational definition of School Guidance given by the Committee: Guidance, of the Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into Education is very much akin to the one given above. This Committee has defined School Guidance as:

"a practice, a process of bringing the pupil into contact with the world of reality in such a way that he acquires life skills and techniques which allow him to direct himself competently (i.e. to become self-actualizing) within the educational, personal and social spheres and the world of work, in order to progress and survive effectively." (1981 (b): 5).

1.4 SUMMARY

The nature of education as well as that of School Guidance were discussed. Traditional and current models of both education and guidance were analysed.

The traditional view of education had very little room, if any, for school guidance. In terms of this view guidance was regarded as an auxiliary service that sought to make the teaching function of the school more effective. This view is still held by several educators and educationists. However, with the emergence of new conceptions of education, this view of school guidance is changing. Current education models such
as humanistic education, have made it possible for school guidance to take its rightful place within the education activity.

A very brief sketch of the development of the guidance movement was also presented. Now, it must be indicated that the aim here was not to write a history of the guidance movement. This has been done, and done well, by various workers in this field. The aim of this brief review was to show that the antecedents or roots of the guidance movement had been outside the educational sphere. From these antecedents a tradition had evolved which for a long time underplayed the educational nature of school guidance. It was only as the guidance function evolved and new models of school guidance came to the fore that the educational nature of this function came to be appreciated.

With the emergence of new conceptions of both the education activity and the guidance function, the latter service has gradually moved into the sphere of the education event. The two agogic activities have merged into one with guidance becoming a part of education. What has been postulated in this chapter is that school guidance should not only be seen as an essential aspect of education, it should also occupy a central place in the education activity.

1.5 PROGRAMME OF THE STUDY

Chapter one concerned itself with establishing and underlying the educational nature of school guidance.
Chapter two makes an analysis of the factors that make school guidance urgently necessary in the education of modern youth in general and of the present-day African school pupil in particular.

In chapter three the problem of the investigation and the purpose of the study are stated.

Chapter four makes a critical survey of the existing literature on career development and vocational maturity.

Chapter five discusses the methods and procedures employed in the study.

Chapter six concerns itself with the analysis and interpretation of the results.

In chapter seven the whole study is summarised and conclusions and recommendations are presented.
CHAPTER 2

THE NEED FOR SCHOOL GUIDANCE IN THE PRESENT-DAY SCHOOL

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The fundamental need for school guidance is best explained in terms of the pedagogica perennis. The expression denotes the ontic, essential, perennial, ever-abiding, and ever-recurring nature of the co-existential dependency and mutual accompaniment of "adults and non-adults" or "educands" and "educators" towards optimum self-realization. This "aner-agein" situation of addressing - responding, encountering - being encountered relatedness in a dialogical occurrence, is universally human, inevitable and apodictic, (Oberholzer, 1979). The mutual accompaniment referred to above arises from one person's readiness to assist another person in fulfilling his most fundamental need, namely, the need to actualize himself.

As was indicated earlier on, the behavior of the individual at all times seems to be determined by one drive, that is, the drive for complete self-realization. This drive goes on relentlessly to achieve consummation, but it needs good "growing ground" to develop a well balanced structure, (Virginia Axline, in Gluckman, 1982). Education conceived in the broadest terms possible should provide this "good ground" for individual self-realization. School guidance as part of education should play a central role in this regard. However, as presently conceived and practised, education
does not always fulfil this requirement. As we shall see presently there are a number of reasons for this. These include, *inter alia*, ideological, political, socio-cultural, and religious factors. We argue in this chapter that school guidance has an ameliorative and a revolutionizing role to play in this regard. We also argue that because of the debilitating effect these factors have on education, an effective school guidance service is an urgent necessity. We shall now take a brief look at some of these factors.

2.2 THE EDUCATIONAL FACTOR – A GENERAL CONSIDERATION

As we have already indicated education should seek to assist the individual to actualize himself optimally. The question here is whether education does help the individual to accomplish this. The answer here cannot be an unequivocal yes. Education has, in many respects, failed to fulfil its obligations.

There is universal criticism of current education. Reflecting on the irrelevance of contemporary education Pucinski and Hirach indicate that a "Deeper consideration of the issues seems to indicate a need to turn around the entire educational system - with its insensitivities, bureaucracies, professional inbreeding, outdated standards, hesitant leadership, and lack of meaning for life and work in a complex adult world", (in Tolbert 1980 : 5). Rogers (1976) describes the (American) education system as the most traditional, conservative, rigid, bureaucratic institution of our times. The criticism of the school is therefore universal. This
shows that despite profound differences in cultures, technologies, languages, geographical setting, etc, there are basic uniformities in the way schools are organized and run. Phillip and Jackson (cited in Gluckman, 1982) state that "In a fundamental sense, school is school, no matter where it happens", p.31). This is so because of certain characteristics virtually all schools have in common. Some of the factors that make schools look so similar are summarized by Gluckman (1982) in the following manner.

According to her, the traditional approach to education seems to assume that the teacher's role in education is to prescribe what is to be learned and that the students' job is to learn it; that knowledge taken on authority is education in itself; that the task of education can be accomplished through disconnected subjects; that the subject matter is the same to the learner as it is to the teacher; that education prepares the student for later life or for a profession, rather than that it is a living experience; that the teacher is responsible for the pupil's acquiring of knowledge; that pupils and students must be coerced into doing their work; that the acquisition of facts is more important than the acquisition of learning skills; that education is primarily an intellectual process. We shall now briefly examine some of the misconceptions of the education activity given above.

2.2.1 Education as just Intellectual Development

One of the major problems of the present-day traditional school system is over-emphasis of the cognitive at
the expense of affect and other aspects of the individual. This is a parochial and one-sided view of education. According to Gluckman (1982) there are two reasons for this, namely, an attituducial and a practical one. The reason for this one-sided approach to the education of the individual is based on the attitude that students' attitudes, beliefs, values, feelings, needs, aspirations, etc. are not only the private concerns of the individual pupil but are also irrelevant to his learning activity.

Traditional educators even believe that these intimate concerns of the individual hamper his ability to learn and must therefore be bracketed or ignored in the learning act.

From a practical point of view it is less difficult to teach in terms of cognitive than affective objectives. It is also less problematic to evaluate and grade student achievement in the cognitive domain. The entire machinery of the school system is geared toward the development of the individual's cognitive aspect. The school's reward system, including school marks, promotions, recognition, and so on, is based on the degree of mastery of cognitive content. The indissoluble unity of the cognitive, affective, conative, social and other domains of the individual is thus violated.

The unity of, say, the cognitive and the affective has repeatedly been postulated by various psychological and educational workers. Brown (in Gluckman 1982 : 73) makes the following assertion in this regard: "The cold, hard, stubborn reality is that whenever one learns intellectually, there is an inseparable
accompanying emotional dimension. And instead of trying to deny this it is time we made good use of the relationship". Piaget (1954) stresses that affect and cognition are two indissoluble aspects of behaviour. He has always maintained that the relationship that exists between cognitive and emotional development is three-fold, namely, indissociability, functional parallelism, and interaction. To Piaget cognition and affectivity are inseparable from one another and the distinction between them is merely analytic and not descriptive of reality. In this connection Piaget and Inhelder (1966) state that affect is the energy source on which the effective functioning of the intellect depends.

Thus both feeling and cognition inform the learning process. The cognitive-affective learning paradigm represents a continuous interplay between feelings and cognitions in a confluent process.

It is necessary that there is a link to the affective or emotional world of the learner for, unless knowledge is related to an affective state in the learner, the likelihood that it will influence behaviour is limited. It has been reported that when teachers talk about the real problems students are facing, there is a marked change in attentiveness. The reason for this is that the students relate what they are learning cognitively to their own concerns. This clearly demonstrates the power of emotion to generate interest and involvement in subject matter which would otherwise be uninteresting to children and leave them feeling uninvolved. It is essential that conditions are created which stimulate
the expression of appropriate emotions for purposes of imbuing curricular issues with personal significance. Relevance, then, becomes a matter of functionally linking extrinsic curricula to basic intrinsic concerns and feelings. Effective teachers are those who show interest in the feelings and attitudes of their students. Such teachers have also come to realize that the whole person is involved in the learning activity and that learning must involve interest and activity on the part of the learner not passive submission to the teacher.

2.2.2 Pupil-Teacher Roles and Relationships

2.2.2.1 Pupil-teacher roles

The roles of the teacher and pupils in the education situation are characterized by one predominant feature; namely, that the teacher is the repository of knowledge and the student the passive recipient of such knowledge. In the traditional model of education the child quickly comes to realize that learning is a passive process, something that someone else does to you instead of something you do for yourself. Gluckman portrays this situation in the following manner:

"The teacher's behaviour ... says to the child that his experiences, his concerns, curiosities, needs, what he knows, what he wants, what he wonders about, what he hopes for, what he fears, what he likes and dislikes, and what he is good at or not so good at, is not important and do not count at all. What counts at school is what the teacher knows, what he thinks is important, and what he thinks the student should do, think, and be." (1982 : 52)
All the student needs to do is to listen to the teacher. Learning consists of one long series of verbalizations in the form of monotonous lectures. There is very little scope for pupil participation in the learning activity. Weighed down by the use of incomprehensible words, formulae and ideas, the child has only one means of complying: namely, learning by heart, (Pauli and Brumer 1971). This goes on inspite of the fact that research evidence clearly shows that pupil participation and experiential learning is necessary for effective education to take place.

2.2.2.2 Pupil-teacher relationships

As has been indicated above the purpose of education is to develop all the potentialities of man as a whole. The essential method to achieve this is the providing of a good human relationship between the teacher and the student. Pestallozi (in Patterson, 1973) calls it a love relationship. Some of the major principles of education that have been postulated by various educators at various times include those of love and respect for the child. The show of love and respect for children by their teachers is, however, something that is not common practice in the schools. The teachers remain oblivious of the educational significance of the nature of the relationships they establish with their students or of the attitudes they display towards them. Otherwise they just pay lip service to these principles.

Studies by the National Consortium for Humanizing Education (Aspy 1977) show that teachers, principals, and supervisors have a very low order of interpersonal
skills in interaction with their students. Sound interpersonal relations are very essential in education because benefits accrue to the students in terms of increase on both mental health and cognitive indices and because it results in a higher attendance rate by students.

The personality of the teacher is therefore very crucial in the development of the individual pupil or students. The teacher can make a child's life joyous or unhappy; he can cause the child to feel humiliated or inspired. The teacher's response to the child or his attitude toward him determines whether the child's self-esteem remains intact or damaged, whether the child is "humanized or dehumanized".

When students have unmet physiological and psychological needs, when they experience feelings of distress because their security is threatened or when they are lonely or think they are unworthy or unloved, their ability to learn will be hampered. On the other hand, when a person feels that he is truly accepted by another he is able to actualize his potential.

The teacher also plays a very important role in the socialization of the child. Actually, after the parents, he is the most important person in this respect. Everything that the teacher says and does is observed by the students and most of these things are internalized by them into their own belief systems and response hierarchies. The teacher therefore directly influences who and what the child can and will become. It is not the "factual matter" the teacher "imparts" to pupils or students which have such a lasting influence on their personalities.
Rather it is the attitudes and values that the teacher consciously or unconsciously communicates to the students that have a profound influence on them. As Julius Nyerere has observed:

"Those of us who left school many years ago have forgotten many of the facts we learned there. But we are what we are now in large part because of the attitudes and ideas we absorbed from our teachers. It does not matter what the teacher says in Civic classes or elsewhere; his students will learn from he does. If a teacher fawns on visiting officials, and then treats a poor farmer as though he were dirty, the lesson will not be lost on his pupils". (in Williamson, 1979: 169)

It is for this reason that contributions of Rogers, Weinstein, Fantini, Maslow, Jourard and many other humanistic psychologists and educators have become very pertinent in the school situation. The key principles of humanistic education have proved to be the timely catalyst needed to turn the school situation around, thus making it more human, more relevant and more effective in carrying out its task. A very brief examination or some of these principles follow below:

2.2.2.3 Genuineness

One of the characteristics of an effective teacher is genuineness or realness. This teacher characteristic is essential in facilitating learning and self-actualization in the student. Gluckman (1982) maintains that many teachers play a role which they assume when they enter the teaching field. These teachers are afraid of the students they face and they retreat behind a facade of their conception of their role.
This fear leads the teacher to develop a routine and a class structure; the major purpose of which is to maintain control. As a result teachers present a typical teacher stereotype - authoritarian, immobile, insensitive, cold and impersonal. The influence such a teacher has on pupils and students is highly negative.

2.2.2.4 Respect

This principle refers to respect for the child as a unique human being, a person of worth in his own right. It involves an unconditional acceptance of each child as he is, for what he is (Rogers, 1969). This attitude entails a basic trust, a belief that this student is somehow fundamentally trustworthy. The most important result of this attitude is that respect for students engenders self-respect in the students, as confidence in them breeds self-confidence. This respect also entails the teacher's recognition of the student's "right to be wrong". In this connection the student realizes that the teacher regards him as a worthwhile individual with a contribution to make to the learning activity and that his participation will be respected even though it may not be "correct". Such a learning environment would tend to lower the "risk" to the student in going beyond memory and recognition to the less certain levels of critical and creative or productive cognitive functioning.

2.2.2.5 Empathic understanding

Yet another characteristic of the effective teacher is empathic understanding. This is also an essential
condition for effective learning. This type of understanding is not an evaluative or diagnostic understanding. Empathic understanding requires that the teacher puts himself in the student's place and becomes sensitive to his perceptions and feelings in a given situation.

It is, as Moustakas expresses it, "an attempt to know attitudes and concepts, beliefs and values of the child as they are perceived by him alone," (in Gluckman 1982: 134). In the learning situation such an understanding ensures that effective learning will take place. For instance Christensen (1960) investigated the relationship between classroom learning achievement and degree of teacher warmth. The findings showed significant relationships between the teacher's warmth and the student's achievement on measures of vocabulary and arithmetic scores when taught by teachers who showed high levels of warmth than by those with relatively little warmth.

Schmuck (1966) found that in an understanding classroom climate where the teacher is highly empathic every student tends to feel liked by all the others, has a more positive attitude towards himself and towards school. His high involvement with his peer group tends to enable the student to utilize his abilities more fully in his school work.

An empathic and understanding attitude on the part of the teacher seems to be particularly important in his dealings with the less able student or one with emotional problems. Webb (1971) carried out a study
on the effects of sensitive and insensitive teachers on students.

A sensitive teacher was defined as one who is understanding, helpful, and concerned with individual differences amongst students, one who would not slightly embarrass or humiliate a student. Webb (1971) found that the less sensitive type of teacher had the greatest educationally negative impact on the students with lower academic aptitude and those identified as insecure or as having school problems. He came to the conclusion that lower-ability, problem-prone, students are more dependent upon a patient, nurturing, and understanding teacher for a successful school experience than are the more able and problem-free students. The insensitive teacher tends to treat lower-ability and problem-prone students with less patience, interacting with them in harsher, more sarcastic and cutting ways than they do with abler and better adjusted students. By comparison the more able and better adjusted student seems to be more immune to the negative impact of the insensitive teacher than the less able student.

Empathic understanding is according to Rogers (1969) almost unheard of in the classroom. One could listen to thousands of ordinary classroom interactions without coming across one instance of clearly communicated, sensitively accurate, empathic understanding.

2.2.2.6 Teacher as facilitator

One of the main characteristics of the developing child which tends to be disregarded by the traditional
educational approach is the child's potential and natural desire to learn. Human beings have an inborn desire to learn and are always curious about themselves and their world. Instead of building on this curiosity and desire to know educators go out of their way to blunt these features.

The teacher should serve as a facilitator to the pupil or student who has to do the learning. The teacher should regard himself as a flexible resource to be utilized by the students in any way which seems meaningful to them, such as counsellor, teacher, advisor, a person with experience in the field, etc. (Gluckman 1982)

2.2.2.7 The teacher as a self-actualizing individual

Teachers and educators, like all other people, are imperfect. They are therefore people who are also actualizing themselves. It is crucial for educators to be self-actualizing because only self-actualizing persons are capable of fostering self-actualization in others. In this manner the teacher grows and develops as he tries to guide the self-actualization of those that have been placed in his care.

To tie up what we have said about the role of the teacher in the education situation, we would like to cite seven questions that Rogers (1974) has suggested teachers ask themselves with regard to their calling. These questions are as follows:
(a) Can I let myself inside the inner world of a growing, learning person? Can I without being judgemental, come to see and appreciate this world?

(b) Can I let myself be a real person with these young people and take the risk of building an open, expressive, mutual relationship in which we both can learn? Do I dare be myself in an intensive group relationship with these young people?

(c) Can I discover the interests of each individual and commit him or her to follow those interests wherever they may lead?

(d) Can I help young persons preserve one of their most precious possessions—their wide-eyed, persistent, driving curiosity about themselves and the world around them?

(e) Can I be creative in putting them in touch with people, experiences, books—resources of all kinds—which stimulate their curiosity and feed their interests?

(f) Can I accept and nurture the strange and imperfect thoughts and wild impulses—expressions which are the forerunner of creative learning and activity? Can I accept the sometimes different and unusual personalities who may produce these creative thoughts?

(g) Can I help young learners to be all of one—integrated—with feeling pervading their ideas and ideas pervading their feelings, and their expression being that of a whole person? (p. 139).
In summary, Gluckman (1982) indicate that humanistic educators (we would regard them as ideal school guidance teachers) are spontaneous, creative, supportive, and physically fit. (Several investigations reveal that fatigue, poor nutrition, and lack of physical exercise are deterrents to positive interpersonal relationships over long periods of time). Such teachers look for meaning rather than just facts; they have high self-esteem and see their task as liberating rather than as controlling. They are more interested in the process of learning than in the solution of specific problems. They accept their own mistakes, entertain different and radical ideas of their students, discuss feelings and foster co-operation among the students. The humanistic teacher also learns as he teaches his students.

2.2.3 Order and Discipline

Another characteristics of the present - day school is an obsession with order and control. This attitude finds expression in a preoccupation with discipline. Gluckman (1982) gives an example of how a demand for discipline can reach absurd proportions when made without much though. She describes a class of young children where discipline is defined in simple but rigid terms: the absence of noise and movement. This firmly rooted school tradition holds that children must sit still in their desks without conversing at all both during periods of waiting, when they have nothing to do and during activities that almost demand conversation.
Goodman (in Gluckman 1982) captures this supposedly educational scene in the following words:

"silence is demanded despite the fact that school children work in very close quarters. The students are required to ignore those around them. They must try to behave as though they were alone even though they are not. They must keep their eyes on their paper rather than make eye contact with any other student. It is not uncommon to find students facing each other around a table while at the same time being required not to communicate with each other in any way at all."

(p. 34)

In the situation described above the amount of interpersonal and interpersonal awareness and growth is drastically curtailed. There is no effective interaction between the individual and his environment and as a result the individual fails to get the valuable educative feedback from his environment. In other words the child is implicitly required to cut himself off from his inner world since this is not important and nobody is interested in it. He must also reduce his contact with the outer world to a minimum, while he absorbs the information which is being provided by the teacher. As Leonard (in Gluckman 1982) puts it, discipline and mastery of information takes precedence over freedom, self-expression and what he calls "the ecstatic moment".

All the factors lead to the stunting of the pupil's creativity. As teachers confine learning to narrow intellectual objectives or demand that children sit and
be quiet, it becomes difficult for children to be playful, to explore or experiment.

As the conditions for creative living are denied, children violate their own growth impulses and fail to develop a personal identity, (Gluckman, 1982). The young person who is searching for identity and self-affirmation finds the school environment unhelpful to him in his search and gradually becomes estranged from his real self. He substitutes an artificial, calculating self, dominated by the rules and do's and don'ts of the school for the spontaneous self that he started out with. This results in an absence of a growing identity and a replacement of self-awareness by self-deception. Thus the traditional school which promotes reproduction, conformity, etc, denies children the opportunity to grow as unique healthy human beings.

This obsession with discipline seems to serve the purpose of helping teachers deal with their fear of loss of control. The myriad of rules governing pupils and students are often maintained, enforced or accompanied with corporal punishment, psychological harassment and social humiliation. Through these avenues of discipline teachers and children lose their dignity as human beings.

2.2.4 Distrust

The petty rules and regulations that obtain in education are strictly adhered to not only because they enable the teacher to feel that he has control over the classroom situation, but more importantly, also because
schools and school systems operate on the basis of distrust.

Christopher Jencks (in Gluckman, 1982) has the following to say in this regard:

"The School Board has no faith in the Central Administration, the central administration has no faith in the principals, the principals have no faith in the teachers, and the teachers have no faith in the students." (p. 36)

The teachers' distrust of students manifest itself in several ways. One of the best examples of the teacher's lack of trust of the students is seen in the fact that the teacher does not seem to believe that the students are capable of doing their work without constant supervision and checking. On the other hand students' distrust of the teacher may manifest itself in the questioning of his motives, his honesty, fairness and competence.

### 2.2.5 Fear as a Motivating Factor

The use of fear in the classroom is based on the erroneous belief that students are best motivated by being kept in an intermittent or constant state of fear. Corporal punishment is often used to reinforce this state of fear or the threat of its deployment is dangled over the heads of the students like the proverbial sword of democles. Such corporal punishment often takes the form of brutal assault. Where corporal punishment is no longer applied (several countries
have done away with this practice), even more powerful forms of punishment exist such as public censure, ridicule, suspension and even expulsion.

The assumption underlying this educationally unsound practice is the belief that students will be motivated to learn effectively if enough pressure is exerted upon them. Although many students do make the adjustment to this untenable situation, they do so at a great cost to their healthy personal growth.

2.2.6 Constant and Hypercritical Evaluation

Allied to the assertions that have just been made about the school system is the system of evaluation that is currently being applied in the schools. These evaluation techniques are out of touch with the current knowledge of the learning act as well as recent findings relating to the function of the brain. The current approaches to evaluation are solely based on examinations and marks. The dubious character of examinations have been demonstrated by many investigators over a period of time (Brimer and Pauli, 1971). Some of the problems associated with examinations and marks are the following: The mark depends on the person marking the examination script. This mark varies with time, the same person rarely giving the same mark for the same test a few weeks or even a few days later. The scale against which the pupil is judged is usually subjective, being closely related to the teacher's personality and to his frame of mind. Correctors have but limited time at their disposal. In this erratic way the teacher arrives at a mark or figure which now
becomes an absolute value; it now becomes an infallible index of one or other of the pupil's characteristics.

This emphasis on figures has come to obscure the real purpose of education: namely, the optimum self-realization of the individual pupil or student. However, it is no longer the individual who is central, but the ability to learn, things measurable. And subjects are designed with this requirement in mind. What should have, in a sense, been incidental has become essential; marks have become an end in themselves.

The subordination of the pupil to the marking system engenders in him a series of mechanisms which impede his development of a healthy personality.

Marks make the pupil concentrate on passing at all costs and in adopting dubious strategies to accomplish this: dodges, guesework, cheating, any means will do... This situation forces the individual to develop habits which contradict all educational ideals. It is not surprising therefore, that there is a great increase in all kinds of cheating, not only among unsuccessful students, but also among superior students whose marks would have been high even if they did not cheat.

The manner of evaluating student's performance that is employed creates a power-play situation between the teacher and the student, with the teacher wielding the power over the student. This system of evaluation leads teachers to lay veritable traps for the unwary. As Charles Caleb Colton has stated, "Examinations are formidable even to the best prepared, for the greatest fool may ask more than the wisest man can answer". (Hunt (ed) 1979 : 52).
But how practical and useful is this attempt to make pupils "absorb" facts? Is it possible at all?; will it be of use to the pupils? Many writers attest to the existence of a knowledge explosion, (Basson 1979 : 9). In the face of this knowledge explosion, it is clearly ridiculous to expect any pupil or student to "master the facts". In any case most of these facts are in the process of being discovered or have not been discovered yet. So even the teacher himself cannot possibly have "mastered" them. It seems as though the emphasis in education should be to teach the pupil or student "to learn how to learn".

Another problem in this regard is, as Brimer and Pauli (1971) indicate, that nobody knows what knowledge will be useful in 20 or 30 years time. They, therefore, believe that emphasis in schooling should be laid on working methods, the ability to examine critically, select and use to advantage all the information in the books and the various media. Commenting on the response of the school to these developments Brimer and Pauli state that "strange as it may seem, the school refuses to envisage this future". (1971 : 70)

2.2.7 Competition in Education

The approach to school work in general and the methods of evaluation that are applied in particular engender a spirit of intense competition in the pupils. Through this emphasis on competition, the teacher deliberately or unwittingly motivates the students to concentrate on winning and loosing, not learning. The pupils or students are pitted against each other. If the child
wins others hate him, if he loses, he gets angry with himself. Co-operative activities and group efforts as well as a sense of mutual responsibility are underplayed. It must be indicated here that the values educators choose to emphasize, such as competition, have a lasting influence on the pupils and once internalized will guide their conduct for the rest of their lives.

2.2.8 Learning Separate from Living

One other attitude that is communicated by the teachers is that learning is separate from living.

The child is often told that he has come to school to learn. This implies that the child had not been learning before he went to school. The child is made to understand that learning is in here in the school. Living is out there and there is no connection between the two. Children are also taught that childhood, especially the school years, is a preparation for later life, that the child must suspend living until he has acquired a trade or a profession. The children are told that they have no business interesting themselves in matters outside their "education". This attitude denies the fact that childhood is precious in itself, not just a preparation for later life.

2.2.9 The Effects of the Traditional School on both School Teachers and the Children

2.2.9.1 On the teachers

As was indicated above, teachers wield a great deal of influence over the pupils and students. Ferguson
(Gluckman 1982) makes the following assertions regarding the power that teachers have over their students:

"Even doctors, in their heyday as godlike paragons, have never wielded the authority of a single classroom teacher who can purvey prizes, failure, love, humiliation, and information to great numbers of relatively powerless, vulnerable young people." (p. 129)

However, they too function within a lot of constraints. These constraints are imposed on them by the school systems within which they operate.

Most education systems are so conservative that they allow for very little creativity and non-conformity. As Williams (1958) indicate, close autocratic supervision with little freedom for teachers to experiment and innovate, is the rule rather than the exception. School administrators, and sometimes even parents, pressurize the teacher to act in terms of the conventional stereotype of the teacher. Over the years, the teacher's stereotype has become so thoroughly entrenched in the minds of school administrators, teachers themselves, parents, and even students that no other conceptualization of the teacher's role outside the conventional stereotype, is possible. For instance, many students, consciously or unconsciously are inclined to demand that the teacher play the role assigned to him by custom and tradition and that he establishes for them what is right or wrong, good or bad.

A complicating factor in this regard is that there is very little democracy in the way the education system
operates. The teachers are usually not consulted about things that concern them most, such as the content of the curriculum or the selection of textbooks.

Gluckman (1982) thus, justifiably asserts that teachers are victims of society in general and of the education system in particular and that they are trying to do their best under the most difficult circumstances.

If they, in their work, behave in an uncaring, insensitive, and educationally unsound manner, it is often because the education system demands it of them. Were they to be placed in an educational environment characterized by freedom and trust and were they to be treated as professionals and given more latitude to practice their profession, they would be more likely to act in a more caring, concerned and educationally sound manner.

2.2.9.2 On the pupils and students

The pupil or student has very little to say in his education as it occurs in the school. This is so inspite of research findings that show the educational value of pupil or student participation in the affairs of the school. A study by Richter and Tjosvold (in Gluckman, 1982) clearly indicated that students who participated in classroom decisions developed more favourable attitudes towards learning, interacted more positively with peers, worked more consistently without supervision and learned more than students whose
teachers made decisions for them. For instance, students who participated in classroom decision-making obtained higher scores on achievement tests than did students in the group in which the teacher made the decisions.

As the teacher goes on with his work in an uncaring and insensitive manner, demanding that the child disregards his own needs, interests and concerns, he in fact, transmits a number of messages to the child which the child reads very clearly. One of the messages that the child easily picks up is that he is regarded by the teacher as a person who is worthless, untrustworthy and not particularly lovable. This attitude of rejection by the teacher leads the child to experience a sense of isolation and alienation, with the whole school experience becoming a meaningless exercise for him.

Such problems as apathy, boredom, truancy and dropping out of school, as well as various forms of mental disturbance in the youth are an expression of this sense of alienation and meaninglessness that they experience in the school. The youth even resort to violence in their frustration and disillusionment with the school situation.

2.3 THE EDUCATIONAL FACTOR AS IT MANIFESTS ITSELF IN THE EDUCATION FOR AFRICANS IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.3.1 Preamble

The education problems that have been outlined above, are very much prevalent in the education for all the
population registration groups in the country. However, these problems are more pronounced in the education of the black groups in the country, especially in the education for the African group.

Over and above these problems; the education for the African population group and to some extent that for the Indian and Coloured population registration groups are beset with very intractable and highly damaging problems which are mainly of a socio-political nature. These problems are briefly reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Our aim here is not to give a detailed discussion of the education system for Africans in this country. This is definitely outside the scope of this dissertation. What we shall try to do here is to briefly refer to the key problem areas in the system and to indicate the negative effects these have on the education of the African child. An attempt will then be made to indicate the crucial role of the school guidance teacher in cushioning the impact of the negative aspects of this education system on the pupils and students as well as making his humble contribution to the efforts geared at the introduction of an equitable education system in South Africa.

The fundamental problem with the education for blacks in South Africa is that education in this country has been made the hand maiden of a political ideology namely, that of separate development or apartheid. As recently as 1980 Dr Hartzenburg, who was the then Minister of Education Department for Africans) made the assertion that "Education was dictated by the Apartheid Philosophy" (in Christie, 1985 : 13).
Now the underlying aim of the apartheid ideology is not only to separate the various population registration groups in the country but also to dispossess, to discriminate against and to exploit members of those population registration groups who are not white, viz. the africans, the indians and coloureds.

Whatever may be said to deny this assertion the ordering of the South African society bears this out. This can be seen in the distribution of the land in respect of the various population registration groups; in the educational provision for the youth of the country; in the provision of occupational opportunities; in the exercise of political power, and so on. The policy and practices of dispossession had been employed by white governing powers in South Africa long before the National Party came into power in 1984. For instance the Act of Union of 1910 and numerous laws prior to and after Union perpetuated this dispossession, discrimination, exploitation, and oppression. This went on in spite of the vehement protest by the population registration groups affected. What the Nationalist Party did when they came into power was to refine all the instruments of this process of dispossession.

It is for these reasons that the apartheid ideology is universally rejected both inside and outside the country. Even the present government, which did much to systematize and advance this ideology, asserts that apartheid is wrong and that it intends to do away with it. However, much of the apartheid legislation still stands in the statute book.
The most unfortunate thing as far as the youth of this country is concerned, is that the government decided to make use of education as one of the major tools to advance the ideology. In this regard the Nationalist government introduced Bantu Education for the African people and "Indian" and "Coloured" education for the Indian and Coloured population registration groups. Let us take a brief look at Bantu Education.

With Bantu Education the government sought to provide an inferior type of education to the African group in South Africa. The people who introduced this system were very clear about the aim of this education and they did not leave anyone in doubt regarding the purpose of this education system. Mr J N le Roux, a National Party politician stated in 1945 that "We should not give the Natives any academic education. If we do, who is going to do the manual labour in the community?" (Christie 1985: 12). The often quoted words of Dr Verwoerd also clearly show the aim the Nationalists had with Bantu Education.

The recipients of Bantu Education and others were also perfectly aware of the intentions which the creators of this education system had with the system. Their response to this system of schooling was total rejection. Pupils, students, parents, church bodies and other instances saw the introduction of Bantu Education as an attempt by the government to keep Africans in an inferior and powerless position in the country by providing them with an inferior education. The inferiority
of Bantu Education to, say, "White Education", is born out by facts and figures that have been documented over the years. We shall just give a few examples of these here. It must, however, be indicated that the basic reason for the total rejection of Bantu Education is the unacceptability of the very idea of separate education systems for the various population registration groups. This rejection of separate education systems for the various groups echoes the position taken by the United States Supreme Court regarding separate education systems for different groups in the United States of America, namely, that separate school systems could not (at the same time) be equal. It is only when this problem of separate education systems in the country has been addressed and one education department for all the people of the country established that the education crisis in this country will come to an end. Nothing short of this is likely to bring about resolution of this crisis.

The second reason for the rejection of separate education systems in the country flows from and reinforces the first one. This reason is the demonstrable inferiority of the education systems for Blacks in South Africa as compared to that for the white population registration group. The various problems that beset the education for africans in particular and, to a lesser extent, those for coloureds and indians, serve to confirm this fact.

There are facts and figures that bear testimony to the inferiority of this system. We shall give a few examples of these here.
2.3.2 Expenditure on Education

Regarding educational expenditure, more money is spent on white children than on idian, coloured and african children. For example in the 1982 - 83 financial year R146 was spent on the education of the african child while R1 211 was spent on that of the white child, Christie (1985).

2.3.3 Educational Wastage

We find a high drop-out rate for african children and a very low one for white children. For example a large number of african pupils drop out at the standard two level. In other words many african children do not have more than four years of schooling. Nearly all white children who go to school pass standard eight. There is actually a very low drop out rate for whites, even after standard eight. This shows the effects of free compulsory schooling for whites. Even now free and compulsory education is not available for the african children. Very few african children get to standard ten, while most white children do. And of this small number of african pupils who get to standard ten, only a small percentage of these get matriculation exemption. For example in 1981 of the 53 percent of african pupils who passed matric 13 percent of them obtained matric exemption. In the same year 94 percent of white candidates passed standard 10, and 49 percent of them obtained matric exemption, (Christie 1985).

2.3.4 Pupil-Teacher Ratios

African schools are characterized by shortages of teachers and classrooms. Facilities like libraries and laboratories
are inadequate or completely non-existent. These problems are particularly acute in the rural areas.

One index which clearly reflects the level of overcrowding in schools is the pupil-teacher ratio. In 1983 there was one teacher for every 43 pupils in African schools. In the same year there was one teacher for every 18 children in white schools, (Christie 1985 : 117). These figures exclude Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei. Inclusion of figures from these predominantly rural areas would certainly raise the pupil-teacher ratios for African schools.

2.3.5 Teacher Qualifications

The figures for 1979 show that while there was no white teacher without a matric level qualification, most African teachers (82.2%) had no matric. Only 15.5 percent of African teachers had standard ten compared to 68.0 percent of white teachers. While 32.0 percent of the white teachers had university degrees only 2.3 percent of the African teachers had, (Christie, 1985).

The Human Sciences Research Council investigation into Education had the following to say regarding the provision of teachers in African schools:

"The position with regard to Black teachers gives most cause for concern. To reduce the teacher-pupil ratio from the present 1:48 to 1:30, the number of teachers will have to increase from 95 501 in 1980 to 239 943 in the year 2000. These figures also include the needs of the Independent Black states. (1981 : 63)"
In view of the above, the present rate which teachers are being trained for primary and secondary schools is totally inadequate. The quality of the teachers in the Black educational system in particular is also a problem."
(1981):

(In the above quotation, for Black, read African).

Many other problems that beset the education system for the African group can be cited. These inequalities in educational provision for the various population registration groups serve to confirm the contention that separate school systems for various groups of people in the same country are inherently unequal. Government spokesmen as well as some persons and organizations indicate that there is nothing wrong or sinister in having the education of the country's youth divided along racial lines as it is. They deny that the government is deliberately providing inferior education to the Black groups in the country. They go on to argue that the problems and inequalities that exist are historical; that these problems pre-date the present ruling government. They indicate that there is a conscious effort to address these problems and redress the inequalities and imbalances that exist.

The government spokesmen referred to above give statistics to show that there has been a great deal of improvement and betterment in the education of the Black groups. With regard to the education of the African group, for instance, they maintain that there are far better facilities now than before the introduction of Bantu Education; much more money is being
spent on the education of African children than ever before and that before the introduction of Bantu Education, very few blacks went to school while there has been a huge increase in school attendance after the advent of this system. Many other positive developments are mentioned in support of this system.

However, the arguments in support of separate education systems for the various population registration groups in the country, and the real progress that has occurred in the education for Blacks, have not reduced the level of rejection of the system. This is so because despite all these improvements glaring inequalities still remain. This can be seen from the statement by Robert MacNamara (in Christie, 1983), president of the World Bank, which was made quite recently. Commenting on the educational provision for Blacks, MacNamara expresses himself as follows:

"I have seen very few countries in the world that have such inadequate educational conditions. I was shocked at what I saw in some of the rural areas and homelands. Education is of fundamental importance. There is no social, political, or economic problem you can solve without adequate education." (p. 13)

However, the basic reason for the rejection of this system is, as was pointed out above, the condition that the education for Africans, as well as that for coloured and Indians, is an inferior one meant to keep the Black groups in an inferior position. The resistance to this system of education, which started with the inception of the system, has
increased in direct proportion to the improvements that have been brought about, so much so that the schools, especially the African ones, have become battle grounds between pupils and students on the one hand and the police and other members of the security forces on the other. As stated above, indications are that resistance to the separate education systems will not end until a single education system for the whole country is introduced. Commenting on the education crisis in African education, the South Africa Foundation states in its 1988 Information Digest, that

"vital as increased funding and improved facilities are, the present crisis in education in South Africa, which is one of legitimacy, credibility and trust, will not be solved primarily by increased expenditure. The resistance to segregated education in an apartheid society continues: the fact that pupils are back at school (after the endemic class boycotts of the last few years) does not mean acceptance of 'the system' and the learning environment of black pupils, especially in the urban areas, continues to deteriorate. Until political solutions leading to a non-racial, democratic and just society are found, the fundamental transformations of education will not be possible." (p. 62)

To summarize what has been said about the educational factor, we would like to submit that the education for Blacks in this country is beset with the problems that characterize schooling in the education systems of most countries of the world. These have been discussed at some length in the preceding paragraphs. Added to these are the problems that are unique to the education
for Blacks in South Africa. These problems emanate from an inferior and inadequate educational provision for the Black groups in South Africa.

The school system for blacks is characterized by poor funding, by a shortage of teachers, by the preponderence of teachers with low qualifications; by a lack of the most basic of facilities, and so on. The education system for Blacks in South Africa is a system in which the teachers and the school managements are insensitive to the needs, aspirations and goals of their pupils; in which the school situation is characterized by cut-throat competition, negative evaluation, and coercion (pupils and students have, for instance, been sjambokked, teargassed, imprisoned and even shot for refusing to go to school); in which both the pupils and the educators have become dehumanized as death and destruction become the order of the day in the schools.

The guidance teacher has a key role to play in this educational turmoil and crisis. In this situation the Activist Guidance model easily suggests itself to the school guidance teacher. This guidance model was proposed by Menacker (1976), Smith (1978), Gunnings (1978). This model emerged as a reaction to the turbulence in the schools of the United States of America in the post-Vietnam years. Shertzer and Stone (1981) describe the school situation referred to above in the following way:

"Many schools, particularly those in the inner cities, became angry places in which every rule was questioned and conflict was the norm. Students committed acts of
defiance that were astonishing in
their destructive effect, leading
authorities to react with stern
punishment, armed hallway guards,
and other forms of repression."
(p, 82)

The point of departure for the activist guidance model
is that man is always a "situated being" in the world
and that behaviour is best viewed as a function of the
self in the situation. Activist guidance therefore
emphasizes environment manipulation and intervention,
counsellor-client participation as well as student
advocacy.

Menacker (1976) formulated three principles of activist
guidance. The first principle is that the counsellor
should engage in direct action meant to promote the
welfare and development of his charges such as inter-
vening with school officials on behalf of students. The second
principle involves the counsellor and the client
together identifying negative and positive environmental
conditions affecting client self-actualization. Under this
principle action is taken to strengthen positive elements and to weaken
or remove negative ones. The third principle requires the counsellor to
recognize the distinction between client goals and
values and those of the educational institution. He
must also consider the possibility that client values
and goals might be more appropriate than those of the
institution, (Menacker, 1976). Activist guidance
assumes that it is sometimes the school rather than
the pupil that is pathological; therefore, it is the
school rather than the pupil or student that might
have to be "adjusted". In South Africa today everybody
recognizes the fact that the school system, like so
many other things, is not as it should be and must be changed.

As far as the guidance teacher is concerned he must facilitate change in the individual pupil as well as in the pupil's environment in such a way as to help develop a fully self-actualizing individual. He must also contribute to the creation of an open education system and by extension an open and democratic society, a new South Africa, in which self-actualizing persons will seek to live in harmony with others as people engaged in co-operative self-actualization. As Mortensen and Schmuller aver,

"It is clear that guidance must be concerned with the larger issues that affect the school and society as well as those problems that (traditionally) are its immediate concern." (1976 : 140)

In the South African education scene the school guidance teacher has not even begun to play this role. In the school systems for the Black groups this situation can be explained by the fact that the guidance service in each of these systems is very rudimentary. As far as white education is concerned, the philosophy and goals of that system have made it difficult if not impossible for the guidance teacher to carry out his task in the manner that has just been suggested. This matter is of such crucial significance to the education of the youth of this country that it warrants some closer examination. The next few paragraphs will be devoted to such an analysis.
2.4 THE GUIDANCE SERVICE IN WHITE EDUCATION

As was indicated above, the South African society, including its education, is demarcated along racial lines. This has resulted in a highly undemocratic social order. We have also seen that education as it is presently organized seeks to perpetuate this undemocratic social order. The school guidance system in the white education system is conceived and presented in such a way as to ensure the preservation of the status quo. A brief examination of the guidance scene in South Africa will clearly illustrate this point.

The education for whites in South Africa was from 1910 up till 1967 under the control of the four provinces, (Cape, Natal, Orange Free State and the Transvaal). Each province had full control over all educational institutions within its boundary. However Act 39 of 1967 gave the Central Government total control over all primary and secondary education in South Africa. This act also legislated a national guidance service for white schools.

Owing to the fact that the Central government has assumed total control of white schools relatively recently, there are still some variations in the implementation of the legislated guidance service for white schools, (Dovey 1983). The Transvaal and the Orange Free State follow the legislated national guidance policy for white schools. This guidance policy, like the national education policy itself, is based on Christian Nationalism. The national education
policy has the following major components: namely, the Christian and the National components.

The National component is meant to provide "an education with a national stamp and based on national values and norms, which should inculcate the aspiration in the white population to guard its identity". (Dovey, 1980: 2) But the definition of "nation" is very limited. It refers only to white South Africans, and not to Blacks. In fact it is actually narrower than this. It refers to a specific form of nationalism: namely, afrikaner nationalism, with its specific history, its particular "national symbols" and its "national heroes". The Christian component seeks to make sure that "ultimately the education of each child in the Republic of South Africa should be such that he will acknowledge the authority of God who has placed us (the whites) here". (Dovey, 1980)

As an offshoot of the 1967 Education Act an education guidance program (Opvoedkundige Leidingsprogram) was introduced in 1968. From 1972 onwards the Transvaal Education Department brought about highly significant additions to the guidance programme. These additions include the Tutorship Programme and the highly controversial "Youth Preparedness Programme". We shall examine three of the key aspects of the guidance programme, namely, the Youth Preparedness Programme, the School Cadets and the veldskool Programme.

The Youth Preparedness Programme is, in the words of Dovey (1980) a military programme which has the following as some of its compulsory components:
Emergency planning
Fire fighting
Drilling and Marching
Drilling, shooting and orchestra
Shooting and self defence
Vocational guidance
Moral preparedness.

The contents of this programme clearly reveal its military nature. The first five components emphasize military kinds of activities. As Christie (1985) points out, "children are taught to march and drill and shoot and defend themselves. And they are also mentally 'prepared' for 'emergency situations'". (p, 168).

In spite of the provisions of Act 39 of 1967 which legislated on guidance services for all white schools in South Africa, Natal and the Cape Province continued to pursue a different guidance tradition to that of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. Guidance services in Natal have been based on traditional counselling while those in the Cape have always had a psychological technological orientation, (Dovey, 1980).

Dovey (1980), however, maintains that there has been increasing government pressure upon the two provinces to comply with the legislatively determined national guidance programme.

The introduction of a component referred to as the "Civic Responsibility" programme into the guidance
programme in Natal white schools, is a result of this pressure. The responsibility for implementing this programme falls on the shoulders of the teacher counsellors. This programme is offered during the time allocated for guidance on the time table and includes activities such as "first-aid, training in safety measures, map reading, orderly movement and assembly, fire fighting and prevention for both boys and girls, field exercises, musketry, guard of honour, bugle band, an elementary assault course for schools which elect to offer it, and home nursing", Dovey (1980 : 4). The Natal Education Department chose to use the name "Civic Responsibility" instead of Youth Preparedness because it felt the name had a negative and military connotation. The naming of this component of the guidance function by the Natal Education Department shows that the Department "recognized the paramilitary and nationalistic nature of the programme, but chose to implement it under a title which concealed its real aims". (Dovey, 1980 : 4).

The developments sketched above regarding the adaptation of the Natal school guidance service to suit the new national guidance policy are most probably also taking place in the Cape Education Department. These programmes, Dovey goes on to say, "demonstrate the degree to which the government is attempting to involve guidance personnel in a political policy aimed at preparation for war." (1980 : 4)

The Veld Schools and the cadet system in white education can also be seen in terms of this militarization process in South Africa. For instance, the purpose
of the Cadet system was expressed by Colonel Viljoen, director of school cadets in 1979, as the involvement of the youth in the total national strategy against the "total onslaught" that is directed against South Africa. He went on to say that cadet training prepared the youth for military training (in Christie, 1985). On marching days cadets are required to wear uniforms provided by the South African Defence Force. The South African Defence Force also provides the weaponry and co-ordinates cadet programmes and officer training. Camps for selected pupils, who are later given rank, include activities such as rifle shooting, guard duty, ambush practice and grenade training.

Veld Schools constitute another important part of the white education system in the Transvaal. Ostensibly the basic aim of these schools is to bring children, particularly urban youth, into contact with nature. Dr J Pasques expressed this aim in the following manner:

"the child who is brought into intimate contact with nature undergoes an exhilarating educational experience. The child sees the stars twinkle, he feels the wild fruit and hears the wind whistling through the mountain peaks. By focusing his attention on the wonders of nature - the beauty of the spider's web, the symmetry of the flower, the wonder of the cosmos - the child's attention is centred on the wonders of creation." (in Christie 1985 : 171)

However these schools seek to achieve many other goals than the one given by Dr Pasques. Buwalda (1979)
has in a recent study given the following as the major aims and objectives of a typical Veld School:

1. To lead the pupil on the road to maturity and adulthood.
2. To encourage the pupil to be a better South African.
3. To encourage pupils to become better Christians.
4. To provide an adventure.
5. To show that a threat to South African's existence and stability does exist, and what we can do about it.
6. To provide pupils with an opportunity to get to know and appreciate nature.
7. To prepare our young for emergencies which may take place.
8. To assess leadership qualities.
9. To impart knowledge.


A look at the aims of the Veld schools given above show that only aim no. 6 and perhaps 4 and 9 deal with nature. The rest of the aims seek to promote a particular world view. The Veld Schools seeks to impress on children the dangers which are facing them, their society and the South African way of life! (Christie, 1985). A lot of criticism has been directed at the activities that go on in the Veld Schools. Joel Mervis, a member of the now defunct Transvaal Provincial Council stated that although the teaching of party politics was forbidden in Transvaal Education Department schools, the dogma of the National Party was central to veld school teaching, (Christie, 1985).
The programmes reviewed above, comprise the Educational Guidance Program for White Schools. Some South African universities have adopted the guidance program as it has been legislated by the state. They have tailored their teacher-counsellor education programmes accordingly. Various academics or educationists in the area of school guidance and counselling have made significant inputs, not only to the conception but also to the development and implementation, of this programme. School guidance as currently understood accurately reflects the views of these academics. For example, Van der Walt maintains that the preservation of "national security" is one of the factors that necessitate the provision of guidance services in white schools. In this regards he writes as follows:

"Gedurende die afgelope paar dekades, en veral op die huidige tydstip, is die Afrikanervolk al hoe meer voor die ontwisbare keuse gestel van nasionale eenheid of ondergang. Ons is almal bewus van die posisie waarin die Republiek van Suid Afrika hom vandag bevind, nie net in verhouding tot sy interne probleme nie, maar veral tot die buite wêreld." (1979 : 12)

One of the tasks of school guidance in white education is apparently to promote afrikaner unity "om hierdie aanslae op ons eie die hoof te bied". (Van der Walt, 1979 : 12)

A series of studies were carried out at the Rand Afrikaans University with the aim of bringing about improvements to the Educational Guidance Programme (Opvoedkundige Leidingsprogram). In one of these
studies Du Plessis (1979) indicates that the Youth Preparedness Programme, which has been pinpointed above as the key component of the Educational Guidance Programme, is necessitated by, *inter alia*, the onslaughts from outside as well as those from inside the country that are directed at "die lewensopvatting wat deur die grootste gedeelte van die bevolking hulpig word" (1979 : 5). Du Plessis uses the phrase "die grootste gedeelte van die bevolking" in a very strange way indeed! Basson, 1979, Gravett, 1979, Pieterse, 1979 and several other workers in this area, hold the same view regarding the purpose of the guidance service in the schools.

The Youth Preparedness Programme did not seem to enjoy tremendous success in some of the schools where it was implemented. This was so, inspite of some of the positive and educationally valuable aspects of the programme. Resistance to this programme by some of the white schools has been attributed to a number of factors such as the lack of preparation on the part of the teachers to deliver the programme effectively. However, one tends to think that the fact that the programme seeks to preserve the status quo or as Du Plessis (1979) puts it, the system which is supported "deur die grootste gedeelte van die bevolking" has contributed to the problems encountered in the implementation of this programme.

Du Plessis herself indicates that one of the factors which have rendered the programme less effective is "die feit dat die program van die kant van bevooroordeeltes 'n kleurtjie gekry het en die naam 'indoktrinasie-program' deur hierdie persone aan die program gekoppel is." (1979 : 15)
School guidance as conceived and practised in White education has resulted in some educators becoming suspicious of the whole guidance activity in the schools, regarding the whole guidance function as a propaganda exercise. Some educators and psychologists try to handle the dilemma of delivering guidance services free from any 'propagandistic content' by regarding "careers guidance" or "careers education" as the only legitimate component of the guidance function. This situation might explain the attempt by some workers in this area to distinguish between "careers education" and "general school guidance" (HSRC Investigation into Education 1981).

The present writer regards this division of the guidance function into "general school guidance" and "careers education" as not only artificial but also unsustainable in terms of guidance theory and practice. The guidance function is, both as a concept or philosophy and as a practice, a unified function. There is no way in which anyone can offer "careers education" meaningfully while disregarding the other components of the guidance service such as personal, educational and social guidance. Careers education is an important component of school guidance, but it is just a component of the guidance function, nothing more nothing less.

The existence of several aspects of the guidance function does not justify the breaking up of this service into water-tight compartments.

As was indicated above the guidance function in the educational context seeks to assist the individual to
establish meaningful identities in respect of all aspects of his personhood so as to enable him to actualize himself effectively. The content of the guidance programme meant to stimulate and direct the development of some of the personal identities will be coloured by the values obtaining in specific societies and communities. This is as it should be. That is why guidance programmes will differ in terms of cultural and other factors prevailing at a given time and place. However such local and parochial values should not violate the universal values that mankind has painfully evolved over centuries. These universal values include, in terms of inter-human conduct, such injunctions as to love one's neighbour; an injunction which is found in all major religions of the world. In political terms such values are, for example, enshrined in the famous slogans of the French Revolution: namely, 'Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité. We can go on in this manner and give examples that will cover all aspects of a person's life. The United Nations Declaration of Human Rights is another good example of the universal values that we are talking about here. These values have been codified with a view to universal acceptability and usage.

A guidance program that violates these universal values in the name of accountability cannot possibly be an effective medium for stimulating and directing the optimum self-realization of pupils and students.

The point that is being made here is that the guidance function in the South African education system has dismally failed in its basic task: the
facilitation of optimum self-actualization of all the children of this country. It has also failed to fulfil its secondary task, namely, contributing to the creation of an optimum physical and socio-political environment in which individual self-actualization can take place. For instance the guidance syllabi in the schools include such themes as "civic responsibility", "patriotism", etc. These themes are, however, interpreted in such a way that the present inequitous ordering of society remains intact. The guidance function in the South African education systems has not made any meaningful contribution to the democratization of the South African society. A school guidance service which will seek to achieve the goals indicated above is an urgent necessity.

School guidance is not only needed in crisis-ridden societies, but is also greatly needed in societies characterised by peace and tranquility. And this will also be the case in respect of South Africa as our society becomes more and more democratized.

As "equality of opportunity" becomes a reality, full educational opportunities will be available to all the youth of our country, the doors of commerce and industry as well as those of the civil service will be open to everybody; and each individual will be expected to participate fully in the affairs of our state. A fully fledged guidance service will therefore be necessary to assist each person to prepare himself or herself to play a meaningful role as a citizen of an open society.
2.5 THE SOCIAL FACTOR

The South African community is undergoing rapid social change. This social transformation is highly pronounced among members of the african community. The urbanization of the african population registration group is taking place at an unprecedented rate. The population is shifting to the more productive areas of the country, to the mining and industrial centres. This process has been going on for a long time but it is accelerating all the time.

The shift of the african community from an agrarian lifestyle to an industrial one, has not occurred naturally as in other societies in the world or as has happened with the white community in South Africa. The 1913 Land Act set up reserves, later called 'bantustans' and then 'homelands' or 'natural states'. This act set aside 13 percent of the land area of South Africa for africans. Africans were prevented from owning land outside these areas. Property sizes inside the 'national states' were also restricted. All these things have led to the development of huge and densely populated rural settlements.

These virtually landless peasants cannot carry out any agricultural activity worthy of its name. For all intents and purposes, agricultural activity in these areas has collapsed. These areas are characterized by extreme poverty and deprivation. As has already been stated, educational provision for the africans living in these areas is far lower than that for those living
the so-called white areas. This is also true in respect of guidance services. A vigorous guidance service for the schools in these areas is highly needed. This will hopefully serve to cushion the effects of the environmental and other conditions on the children growing up in these areas.

The developments sketched above have created strong economic pressures that have forced big numbers of people in these settlements to move to urban centres in search of employment. The majority of rural blacks could no longer live as subsistence farmers as there was not enough land for everyone. These people have thus been forced to work for wages on white farms or in the mines or factories. However, the Influx Control Laws were instituted in an attempt to prevent this movement of africans to the urban centres. The upshot of these controls was that the breadwinners in these communities, who were mostly men, would go to the urban centres to seek for employment and only return home once or twice a year for a very short period of time each time. The socio-economic, educational and other problems caused by the migratory labour system have been well-documented by many research workers in this area.

Inspite of the legal hurdles that hamper the movement of africans to the urban centres, the urbanization of the african community has, as already indicated, taken place rapidly. However, these african urban settlements have not developed into normal urban towns. This has basically been the result of discriminatory legal, economic and social provisions and practices. Such legal enactments as the Natives (Urban Areas) Act of
1923, the Group Areas Act, which acts have their life blood in the Population Registration Act, have had a scorching effect on the African satellite settlements of the white towns and cities. These satellite towns are overcrowded, poverty-ridden and squalid in the extreme. The degrading circumstances in which the inhabitants of these settlements must survive have to be seen to be believed. Children and youth growing up in communities are at risk with regard to all aspects of their development. These children are disadvantaged in every respect. An effective school guidance service, while it would only have an ameliorative effect on this situation, would be a highly welcome development. Only very recently has a guidance service of some sort been introduced in African schools; and this service is very rudimentary indeed!

At the time of writing some of the socially disruptive legal enactments referred to above are being repealed. The infamous "Pass Laws" and related legislation that sought to control the movement of Africans in the country, are a case in point. These development will most probably speed up the urbanization of the African population especially if the Land Acts referred to above remain in place.

The whole range of social services which include housing, health services, social welfare, education, amongst others, will have to gear themselves up for this development. The need for school guidance, as an essential aspect of education, will be felt more acutely in these circumstances.
2.6 THE DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

As a direct result of the social factors discussed above, most African as well as some coloured and Indian children are what we call disadvantaged children. The problem of disadvantaged children is so widespread in the black community that it seems proper that we take a closer look at it. The term "disadvantaged children" is used to refer to those pupils and students "who have failed for one reason or another to have access to those artifacts - material and cultural - that make for school achievement", (Mortensen and Schmuller, 1976: 110). In terms of school work disadvantaged children in general fail to learn as effectively as they would had they been provided with the proper opportunities to do so. These children tend to fall farther and farther behind and as a result of this failure to advance they lose interest in school. This lack of success in school also negatively affects the self-concept of these children.

As was indicated above the majority of African children and a great number of coloured and Indian children grow up either in urban slums or in desperately poor rural environments. The home environment of these children is characterized by grinding poverty, squalor and deprivation which negatively affect their work at school. Most of these children therefore make little headway at school and ultimately drop out. Some of these underachieving children may become juvenile delinquents. Delinquency is as Mortensen and Schmuller put it, "a prima facie evidence that somewhere along
the line socializing institutions of society, and this includes the school, have at least in part, failed in their responsibility. (1976 : 113)

It must be indicated that some of the children who grow up in these circumstances do overcome them. As Mortensen and Schmuller (1976) point out, there are in fact notable examples of those individuals who have achieved fame and/or fortune despite their early deprivations. However, by and large, the disadvantaged children start with handicaps too large for most of them to overcome. To help these children, the guidance teacher, together with the other members of staff, must not only seek to understand these children as individuals but must also try to come to terms with their environmental circumstances. As we stated above, the activist guidance model may prove to be the most appropriate in these circumstances.

2.7 THE PERSONAL FACTOR

The traumatic socio-economic and political changes that have taken place in the african community have had a shattering effect on the value system as well as the moral and religious code that had prevailed in this community before these changes. These changes have had such a profound influence on the value and belief systems of africans that an identity crisis is discernible in members of this group, especially the youth. Ad Dlamini (1982) indicates, the african social and religious ethos has been destroyed by such socio-pathological phenomena as the migratory labour system and the development of the horrendous single
sex hostels in the urban areas. The social situation in the overcrowded and poverty stricken black urban ghettos has had the same corrosive effect on the African's social and moral values. The time-honoured norms and mores of the society have been thrown overboard as a result of this traumatic transformation of the African society. The following paragraphs are devoted to a brief review of some of values that have been negatively affected by this rapid rate of modernization.

2.7.1 Religious Values

The African community has to a very large extent, been Christianized. One must also indicate that, on the whole, the Africans embraced this new religion wholeheartedly. However, there are a number of factors relating to the Christianization process which have been problematic and have even caused doubts in the religious beliefs of Africans. We look at two of these factors here.

The first relates to the attitude of the Christian missionaries towards the religious beliefs and values of the people they converted to Christianity. The harbingers of the Christian religion completely disregarded the fact that Africans were by nature a highly religious people. The African people have always had a respectable and evolved theological system. As Senghor asserts, Africans have always believed that "There is only one God who created everything, who is all-powerful and has supreme Will. All the powers and the will of the spirits and the ancestors are only emanations of Him", (in Dlamini, 1982 : 8). A realization by the
africans that there is a great deal that is valid in their pre-christian religious beliefs and practices, and that these beliefs and practices are not totally irreconcilable with the Christian religion, have made them wonder at the attitude assumed by the christian missionaries in this regard. A crisis of conscience is also observable in many african christians who continue to perform their pre-christian religious practices such as "remembering their ancestors" while at the same time remaining staunch Christians. An interpretation of the Bible from the african religious perspective does not only seem possible but also highly necessary. This would go a long way towards addressing this problem.

The second problem regarding the introduction of Christianity to the african community by the early missionaries is that this missionary effort was tied up with the colonization and Westernization of the african people. There is no denying the fact that the church has done a lot of good amongst the african people.

On the whole missionaries were humane people who spread the Christian faith among the black groups. And at the same time they brought education and western medicine. But often, they worked hand in hand with colonial governments. And often they thought and acted in racialistic terms, and practised exploitation themselves. They actually helped in the conquest of the african people. The Bible and the gun went together in the defeat of the african powers and opened the african countries for colonization and exploitation. As Christie (1985) expresses it, missionaries, merchants, and magistrates worked hand in glove in the subjugation and exploitation of the african people.
The missionaries also helped to break down African culture and replace it with western culture. In so far as westernization is concerned all aspects of african culture were regarded as barbaric, heathen and thus to be discarded. Western culture, even the more objectionable features of capitalism, were equated with christianity.

In view of the foregoing analysis it is not surprising that the "White man's religion" has received a rather harsh and perhaps unfair judgement: namely, a religion which, in Sengho's words, is "completely lacking in charity" (in Dlamini, 1982 : 8). Resistance to colonial subjugation and exploitation by the african people has sometimes been accompanied by a rejection of the christian religion with the resultant crisis of conscience in this regard.

The emergence and phenomenal growth of the african independent churches may partly be explained in terms of the growing disenchantment with westernized christianity. The emergence of liberation theology, also serves to illustrate this point.

Another matter to be taken into consideration with regard to religious values is the religious development of children. The problems of the christian church outlined above, as well as the rapid socio-economic and cultural changes that are taking place in the african community, have led to a reduction of the influence of religious values on the african youth.
Young people are thinking for themselves and questioning religious dogma. Yet many of these young people have been unable to find effective values to replace the ones which they reject. However, it remains a fact that the individual's religious development or the development of a 'Meaning-in-Life' constitutes an important aspect of a person's evolving self-identity. This aspect of the individual's self-identity, an aspect which has the power to affect him emotionally in a very profound way, is closely linked to his values and moral code. As well as an appreciation of the sanctity of human life, school guidance should assist pupils and students to explore and establish "structures of meaning for their lives".

This can be approached from any religious perspective, depending on the situation of each child.

2.7.2 Western Social and Moral Values as against Traditional African Values.

The profound disruption that has occurred in the African society has resulted not only in drastic changes in the religious life of the community, but has also led to a tremendous destabilization of the moral fabric of the community. The postulation "a sense of community" captures the values that have been held dearly by the African community.

The sense of community in African society has been destroyed by, inter alia, uncritical westernization
2.7.2.1 "Western" values

Modernization in our circumstances to a large extent also means westernization. Now this brand of modernization, with its heavy emphasis upon western values such as competitiveness and individualism, is destroying the African sense of community. This is particularly so in the African urban townships where fewer and fewer people have contact with family members other than the immediate nuclear family, where fewer and fewer people know their neighbours well and where, as a consequence, fewer and fewer people have any real support structures. Alienated in their suburban boxes, loneliness and despair are fast becoming the norm. An aggravating factor in this situation is the physical segregation of South African along racial lines.

We have stated that the major task of school guidance is to assist the individual to establish his self-identity. The development by an individual of a self-identity does not occur in a vacuum. It takes place in the contact of a community. In this Dovey (1982) asserts that in traditional societies a person's sense of identity was firmly tied to the person's affiliations to many groups and things, for example, tribal, family, ancestral, religious, geographical and/or language affiliations. "The creation of a sense of community is an urgent task of guidance in urban environments which are psychologically and spiritually under-developed through having become dehumanized". (Dovey, 1982: 20) In this connection Dovey maintains that school guidance must seek to do the following:
"to create a context where the 'sacred' values of modernization, such as competition, individualism, ruthless ambition, and materialism, need to be questioned. The link between extreme competitiveness and the failure of relationships must be made explicit. If the modernized school grooms us for competition, what are the consequences for collaborative, co-operative activities such as relationships?... Pupils need to explore these values in such a way that they become able to see all the consequences of the acquisition of 'modern values'. The material goods may arrive, but one's personal existence may become an alienated and unhappy experience". (Dovey, 1982 : 21)

2.7.2.2 Segregationist values

One another task of school guidance as regards the development of a 'sense of community', is to help develop in pupils the will and the capacity to cut through the artificial barriers created by the apartheid dogma "between all of us Africans in this sub-continent". (Dovey, 1982 : 21). School guidance should see as one of its tasks the exploration of commonalities of our traditions, of our communities, of our southern african culture, in order to assist pupils to understand that the differences created, especially, by the many years of 'group areas', etc. are superficial, relative to the vast similarity of experience and culture that have resulted from centuries of freer interaction between all the people of Southern Africa. (Dovey, 1982 : 29)

The current school guidance service does not make for the development of this 'sense of community' in the
individual in respect of the greater Southern African community. The guidance in White education seems to be doing a great disservice to the youth of this country. Instead of preparing the white youth of our country for a shared future with their compatriots, it is teaching them to the 'prepared' to 'maintain' what is 'theirs' at all costs. It does not seem to teach them to understand, accept, and love their fellow compatriots of the other racial groups. They are taught to see not only the present but also the future of our country as 'white' and 'white-dominated'. The youth of the other racial groups have the dubious advantage of having no guidance service of any consequence in their schools. This unfortunate South African school situation notwithstanding, the school guidance service should start preparing the youth of our country to realize that they have a common destiny; that they have a shared future. Writing about South Africa, Frederick van Zyl Slabbert expressed this idea in the following way: "there is a future, but only one for all of us, not separate ones. There never has been" (in Sunday Star, May 11th 1986). The school guidance service in South African schools could certainly benefit from an infusion of the long-cherished African values amongst which is African humanism which we briefly review below.

2.7.2.3 African humanism

This is a philosophical attitude which recognizes the worth and dignity of man. This attitude does not attached a value to man in terms of his wealth, education or status. This attitude maintains that only inanimate
things as well as plants and animals can be assessed in terms of their value; a precious stone or an item of live stock can fetch a particular price at the market; in other words, can be of a particular value. Man, on the other hand, is not seen in terms of value but rather as a being with dignity. As a being with dignity his value is inestimable. Julius Nyerere has expressed this idea in the following:

"There are professional men who say, 'My market value is higher than the salary I am receiving in Tanzania'. But no human being has a market value - except a slave. There are educated people in positions of leadership in government, in parastatals, and still seeking jobs, who say, 'I am an educated person but I am not being treated according to my qualifications - I must have a better house, or a better salary, or a better status, than some other man'. But the value of a human being cannot depend on his salary, his house or his car; nor on the uniform of his chauffeur.

When such things are said, the individuals saying them believe that they are arguing for their 'rights', as educated people. They believe that they are asserting the value of their education - and of themselves.

In reality they are doing the opposite. For in effect they are saying, 'This education I have been given has turned me into a marketable commodity, like cotton or sisal or coffee'.

And they are showing that instead of liberating their humanity by giving it a greater chance to express itself, the education they
have received has degraded their humanity. For they are arguing that as superior commodities they must be exchanged with commodities of equal value in an open market. They are not claiming - or not usually claiming - that they are superior human beings, only that they are superior commodities. Thus their education has converted them into objects - into repositories of knowledge like rather special computers. It is as objects, or commodities, that they have been taught to regard themselves and others.

With such an attitude a person will inevitably spend his life sucking from the community to the maximum contributing the minimum he is able to contribute and live as he desires to live. He sucks from the local community as he is fed, clothed, housed and trained. He sucks from the world community when he moves like a parcel of cotton to where the price is highest for his acquired skill.

Such a person is not a liberated human being. He is a marketable commodity.

We condemn such a person, or feel sorry for him as one of society's failures. But it would be much more appropriate to condemn the system which produces such people, and then to change that system." (cited in Christie, 1985 : 199)

2.7.2.4  Communalism

Directly emanating from african humanism is the communalism that characterizes the african community. This value orientation accurately reflects the african social and religious ethos.
It is a state of togetherness, of concern for each other, of mutual assistance to individuals and communal self-fulfilment, a building up of a united whole out of fragmented piece. This attitude encourages persons to work for the common good.

2.8 THE EXTENDED FAMILY SYSTEM

As Leopold Senghor asserts, "The family in Africa is the clan and not, as in Europe 'mum, dad and the baby'. It is not the household, but the sum total of all persons, living and dead, who acknowledge a common ancestry - the ancestral lineage continues back to God." (in Dlamini, 1982: 7). The extended family relationships provide excellent support systems. The lineage and clan relationships too have the same positive effect. For example, the horrendous effects of the migrant labour system have to some extent been cushioned by the extended nature of the African family. The extended family has also been of great supportive value in the urban ghettos. Such support systems play a very valuable role in promoting individual and social integration. As Nondumiso Dlamini has put it, these relationships "have made us resilient, these have made men continue to sing in the height of heat with pick and shovel, digging concrete". (1982: 14)

2.9 THE VOCATIONAL FACTOR

School guidance is needed in the present-day school to promote the vocational development and career maturity of pupils and students. The importance of effective career development for the individual's well being has
been accepted for a long time now. As was indicated in the foregoing chapter, career education was, for a considerable period of time, regarded as the only legitimate business of the guidance function. The one-sided nature of this view of school guidance is now recognized. Career education however, remains a very important aspect of school guidance. The individual pupil or student must be assisted in developing a realistic career identity.

Career education is especially necessary in the present-day school as a result of the technological developments that are taking place in the world of work. The developments that have taken place in science and technology, in the economy, in social organization, have resulted in society becoming more complicated. Radical changes have taken place in 'developed societies' within the last half century or so. As a result of these changes the employment market has become so complicated that the ordinary child and his parents are lost without specialized information and guidance. Phenomenal developments in pure and applied science and the mechanization and electronization of industry have led to minute vocational specialization and to an infinite number of vocational choices, (Ndaba, 1975). Many of these areas of specialization are new and require a higher degree of education and training. The advent of automation, especially the electrical computer, is a case in point.

South Africa has also undergone rapid industrialization. Up till the late 19th century the main forms of occupation were farming. However, the discovery of gold and
diamonds brought an abrupt change to this. The erstwhile agrarian society was transformed into an industrial one. The growth of huge industrial complexes led to a concentration of the population in towns which sprang up in what had been open veld. The developments in science and technology that have taken place in other countries are also occurring in South Africa. Education authorities have become aware of the demands these developments would make on the education service. Adjustments and innovations were brought about to meet these demands. For instance, since industrialization lays a premium on literacy, numeracy and the acquisition of appropriate skills, free, compulsory education has been introduced for whites to meet the economic needs of the day. Differentiated education has also been introduced (Human Sciences Research Council, 1972). A guidance service was another innovation which was meant to help guide the individual pupils or student to the appropriate educational directions offered by a differentiated education system as well as to appropriate occupations.

For a number of reasons, some of which have been reviewed above, the Black groups in South Africa, especially the africans, have encountered a lot of barriers in their career development. Legal enactments as well as conventional attitude are the main components of these barriers.

In sum one can say that the undemocratic nature of the South African society places the most pervasive barriers to the career development of Blacks.
School guidance teachers are therefore needed to try to bring about an amelioration to this state of affairs and to help change the situation for the better.

As indicated above school guidance will become more necessary with the progressive democratization of the South African society. As the process of democratization goes on space, more and more career opportunities will become available to blacks. This process has actually begun. Increasing occupational opportunities have gradually become open to Blacks in South Africa, including the African group (Cloete, 1980; Msimeki, 1973; Department of Labour 1977; 1979; Erwee, 1981). The relaxation of job reservation measures have helped a great deal in this regard. These developments constitute a big improvement to a situation in which until very recently, blacks in general and African in particular, provided mainly cheap unskilled labour (Spence, 1982). The manpower needs of the country, which cannot be met by the use of whites only, have also contributed to the opening up of the labour market to the black groups (Spence, 1982).

Thus, an effective guidance service is urgently needed to assist young blacks to address the career choice situation which confronts them now as well as in the future. (Cloete, 1980; Msimeki, 1973).

Black youth, especially African pupils and students, display certain characteristics in respect of their career development which clearly point to a need for career education. Such characteristics include unrealistic career aspirations (Cloete, 1980; Erwee, 1981; Mojalefa, 1980; Visser, 1978); One-sided preference for social service professions (Cloete; 1981; Erwee, 1981; Mojalefa, 1980).
Black youth also display a pronounced lack of self-knowledge (Cloete 1981), lack of direct experience of the world of work (Cloete, 1980; Erwee, 1981; Mojalefa, 1980) as well as a lack of knowledge regarding such key issues as entrance requirements to educational institutions, available and possible openings in the job market (Mojalefa, 1980; Cloete, 1980; Erwee, 1981). All these things point to a dire need for career education among these youngsters. Such an effective guidance service does not exist either in the black schools or in the black community at large (Spence, 1982; Cloete, 1982; Lähti, et al, 1980; Cloete and Le Roux, 1979). The need for an effective guidance service to stimulate and direct the career development of the youth of this country will be much more greater when this country will have been fully democratized because then all the jobs that are done in the air, at sea, and on land will be accessible to everybody in the country, contingent only to his assets and liabilities.

2.10 RESUMÉ

In this chapter the urgent need for an effective and relevant school guidance service was discussed.

Conventional educational theory and practice in the schools of the country neglect both the intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects of the individual's personhood. All types of educators go on with their work in an impersonal, insensitive and unsympathetic manner, with their attention revetted on the imparting of facts to their "classes". This neglect of the intrapersonal and the interpersonal of the individual's
personhood negatively affects his ability to master the impersonal facts directed at him by the teacher. It was suggested that the education activity has become so snarled up by the educators' attitudes towards their pupils and students as well as their general approach to their task, that not as much learning as could otherwise have occurred takes place. It was indicated that a comprehensive and effective school guidance service was urgently needed to humanize the entire educational activity so that the children could learn and be educated in a more wholesome physical and human environment characterized by love, sympathy and empathic understanding. Consequently it was implied in this chapter and it will be expressly stated in a later chapter, that every teacher must have some training in guidance and counselling so as to be able to carry out their educative task effectively.

In this chapter we also saw how the universal problems characteristic of conventional school systems have been compounded by the separate and discriminatory educational provision, characteristic of the South African educational system. Education for blacks in South Africa, especially that for Africans, is in the throes of a crisis of almost catastrophic proportions. The educator as well as the pupil and student in this situation is being progressively brutalized and dehumanized.

The total education situation does not promote the optimum self-realization of the individual pupil or student. A comprehensive and effective guidance programme is urgently needed not to perpetuate a situation
that should be changed, but to minimize the effects of the negative aspects of the education system on the children as well as to harness the positive aspects so that children can, in spite of the existing adverse conditions, realize as much of their potentialities as they possibly can. It was postulated that the guidance teacher, as a change agent, should bring about a state of mind in the children, in fellow teachers, in school managements as well as persons in government, which will cause them to work for such change as will produce an equitable education system capable of promoting optimum self-realization in children.

Socio-pathological phenomena besetting the African community and their negative influence on the optimum self-realization of the youth of this community were briefly referred to. It was pointed out that an effective school guidance service is needed to offset the effects of these social conditions on the children and youth of these communities.

It was also postulated that the rapid changes that are taking place in the South African society, especially within the African group, has led to the development of an identity crisis among the youth of the community. The changes that have occurred in the African community include christianization, urbanization, modernization and westernization. All these developments have led to the questioning of the values that have been cherished for ages. This is especially the case with the youth.

As effective school guidance service is required to assist the individual pupil and student develop a
personal value system that will promote and direct his self-actualization as co-operative self-realization.

Lastly, the need for the individual to develop a career-identity as an important aspect of identity formation was also referred to. Scientific and technical developments in the world of work, as well as the progressive opening up of the job market to Blacks including africans, call for the urgent introduction of an effective school guidance service to stimulate the career development and vocational maturity of the youth of our country.

Now that we have examined some of the major factors that necessitate the introduction of an effective guidance service in the schools, we shall now turn our attention to an empirical investigation of the effects that such a programme can have the development of school pupils. Specifically, we shall in the next chapter discuss the purpose that this study seeks to achieve.
CHAPTER 3

PROBLEM AND AIM OF THE INVESTIGATION

3.1 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

We have seen that school guidance is an essential aspect of the education activity. We have also concluded that due to a number of crucial educational factors, school guidance is an urgent necessity in the present day school. Consequently several countries have taken steps to see to it that this need is met. We shall take a cursory look at what a number of countries have done to meet the guidance needs of their children and youth. It is not our intention here to attempt to give a historical account of the guidance movement in various countries. Our intention is to briefly highlight what is being done in the field of guidance by some countries so as to determine the status of the guidance function in the education systems of such countries. We shall also take a very brief look at what has been done by the South African education system to provide an effective and relevant school guidance service for the children and youth of this country. This will serve as a launch pad for our own study, namely, the determination of the efficacy of a school guidance programme for the afrcian youth of our country. This study will hopefully contribute to the introduction of an effective guidance service in african schools.

3.1.1 School Guidance in the United States of America

As was indicated earlier on, american educators recognized the educational value of guidance immediately
after it had been introduced by Frank Parsons and others.

In fact it is not an overstatement to say that guidance as it is currently conceived (in many countries) is a peculiarly American phenomenon, (Mortensen and Schmuller, 1976 : 3). Admittedly, school guidance was at first narrowly conceived. But even then its educational role was appreciated to some extent. Now with the evolution that has occurred with regard to both the theory and practice of school guidance, the educational nature of school guidance is now greatly appreciated by American educators.

Guidance has therefore become firmly entrenched in the United States education system. A major project to assess the current status of guidance and counselling in American education was launched in 1977. This national project resulted from Part D of the Education Amendments of 1976 Act (PL94-482) (Herr, 1979). Among other things (PL94-482) called for the assessment of the status of guidance and counselling in American education. In August 1977, a comprehensive national project was conceived and implemented, (Herr, 1979). This project was in three phases. The first phase comprised the development of issue papers dealing with a variety of topics related to the status of guidance and counselling in American education. The second phase consisted of the staging of ten (10) regional conferences where workers in guidance and counselling as well as those in related professions, school administrators and managers, parents, students and the public at large could react to these issue papers and provide additional comment.
These conferences were to result in 10 regional reports regarding the status of guidance and the calling of a national conference which gave a detailed study of the regional reports. This phase included the preparation of a comprehensive national report on the status of guidance and counselling in American education for the Office of Education and the Commissioner as well as for eventual dissemination throughout the profession and related educational sectors. Herr published this report in book form in 1979. This book is entitled Guidance and Counselling in the schools. This publication gives a very accurate and up-to-date picture of guidance services in American schools.

Herr (1979) gives a detailed discussion of the historical, social and legal antecedents and contexts of the guidance function in America. These factors, some of which were mentioned earlier on, include the democratization of opportunity, the development of the "identity society", changes in the "economic climate" amongst others. The testing movement and the two World Wars as well as the Cold War between East and West have also had a salutary effect on the guidance function.

One other key factor that has stimulated the development of guidance education are the legal enactments concerning guidance and counselling that have been made over the years.

One of the most important of these is the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (The NDEA). While there had been several guidance-related legislation prior to the NDEA, the 1958 Act gave a phenomenal boost to the guidance function. The act itself has some colourful
history based as it was on the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. The Russians had launched Sputnik into space. This historical event caused some consternation in the United States. This development resulted in widespread debates about the effectiveness of American education (Herr, 1979).

Deeply suspicious that the Soviet Union was ahead in the space race, political leaders charged educational institutions with the responsibility for identifying talent and directing them toward certain academic directions (Shertzer and Stone, 1981). Herr, 1979). Titles VA and VB of the NDEA required states to submit plans to test secondary school students so that those with talent could be identified and encouraged to take the hard sciences. Funds were made available for extensive training of secondary school counsellors. Guidance institutes were also to be set up for the purpose of upgrading the qualifications of secondary school counsellors. Funds were also provided for support and development of local school guidance and counselling programmes.

Mortensen and Schmuller (1976) rightly asserts that thanks to the NDEA several thousand counsellors are now serving in high schools throughout the United States. In addition, hundreds of universities and colleges have been able through the Act to improve the counselling capabilities of their guidance personnel. More significantly, the Act has made it possible for millions of students in both public and private schools to be tested and be given guidance and counselling of various types.
Further legislation such as the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1963 and the Vocational Education Act of the same year brought about further developments to the guidance services in the United States. The 1964 amendments to the NDEA emphasized guidance and counselling for all students. And in addition to previous commitments, included authorization for counsellor preparation for the elementary school counsellors as well as for colleges. However the legal enactment that gave a boost to guidance in the elementary school is the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965. The ESEA did to guidance in the elementary and secondary school what the NDEA did to guidance in the high school. Guidance and counselling in the elementary school, a more recent development than is guidance in the secondary schools, has progressed steadily over the years. The decade of the 1960 was particularly productive in this respect.

The ESEA III and the relevant provisions in the NDEA were combined into one appropriation for guidance in terms of the 1969 amendments. The Educational Amendments of 1974 made career education a law of the land and initiated the office of Career Education in the U S Office of Education. The Career Guidance and Counselling Act was passed in 1975. The Educational Amendments of 1976 included major support for guidance.

American guidance workers hold the position that school guidance is a sequential, educational activity which is accountable to the general goals of education (Shertzer and Stone, 1981; Herr 1979; Mortensen and Schmuller 1976). Comprehensive, developmental guidance
programmes have been compiled. These programmes form an integral part of the education activity. The systems approach utilized in the development of these programmes ensures their accountability. Actually, the upsurge of the American concern for accountability has led to strenuous efforts to evaluate the effects of guidance and counselling on the recipients of these services.

Herr (1979) maintains that much of the development that has taken place regarding guidance and counselling in the school, and what developments will take place in the future, are directly related to the character of the workers in the field and the quality of the professional standards and ethics within which the guidance workers do their work.

The preparation and development of guidance teachers or teacher counsellors takes place on a very wide scale throughout the United States. Specific legal and financial provisions have been made for the training of teacher counsellors at all levels of the school system in America. While school counsellor certification differs from state to state, the general level of certification does not only seem to be adequate but also to be rising. There is also a general move towards the accreditation of counsellor education programmes.

Professional bodies and organizations, which incidentally came into existence right from the early days of the guidance movement, are going from strength to strength and are playing a major role in the development of guidance and counselling.
The American Personnel and Guidance Association is a case in point. Last but not least is the realization by guidance teachers and teacher counsellors that students are affected in various ways by the significant others in their lives. It is for this reason that guidance teachers maintain a network of relationships with a variety of other persons, such as workers in related professions, parents and the community at large.

In sum the guidance function in American education has developed phenomenally during the 1960 - 1980 period. This progress came about because guidance workers and other professionals as well as the education authorities recognized the place and value of guidance in education and proceeded to systematically introduce this function in the schools.

3.1.2 School Guidance in other Countries

While school guidance as it is presently conceived is said to be an American phenomenon, it does not mean that guidance services were non-existent in other countries. As a matter of fact "Vocational Guidance", conceived as a service meant to channel youth into jobs or to provide for the manpower needs of the various sectors of the economy, started in England and other European countries almost at the same time that it was introduced in the United States.

3.1.2.1 School guidance in Great Britain

The first guidance clinic in England was established around 1919 (Tyerman, cited by Shertzer and Stone (1981)). However it was only from 1950 that this
service was made available to pupils on a wide scale throughout the country. Child guidance was viewed as partly medical and partly educational, that is why most of these clinics were situated in large hospitals. However, educational psychologists now work not only in the child guidance centres, but also in the schools.

According to Gilbert Wren (1961), in Shertzer and Stone, (1981) guidance and counselling as it is known in America did not exist in the English education system until very recently.

In fact it was only since the early 1960s that programmes to prepare teacher counsellors after the American model were instituted in English universities. Government funding was made available for these programmes. Some universities have made use of the services of American counsellor educators in their counsellor education programmes. American academics who have had appointments at English universities include Gilbert Wrenn, Gilbert Moore, Bruce Shertzer, Lawrence Stewart, Donald Blacker, Lee Isaacson, Edwin Herr, Frank Robinson, Donald Super, (Shertzer and Stone, 1981).

The guidance service has thus received a tremendous boost in Great Britain with the future prospects of guidance in British schools looking rather bright.

3.1.2.2 Guidance and counselling in some European countries

Guidance and counselling has a long history in continental Europe. A look at the guidance services of a few European countries will clearly show this. But before
we do this we need to indicate a few dilemmas that confront guidance services in most European countries. A resolution of some of these dilemmas would most likely increase the effectiveness of school guidance services in these countries. European countries are attempting to resolve four basic conflicts regarding the nature of the guidance service. These conflicts are:

(a) whether guidance seeks to satisfy the manpower needs of the economy or to facilitate individual human development;
(b) whether focus in guidance should be on occupational choice or on career development;
(c) whether counsellors should concern themselves primarily with the dissemination of information or with counselling;
(d) whether guidance should be the province of professional counsellors or should be offered by ordinary teachers.

These dilemmas will be discernible in the brief review of guidance services of European countries which is given below:

3.1.2.2.1 School guidance services in the Netherlands

Helbing (in Shertzer and Stone, 1981) indicates that "Vocational guidance" in Holland was first introduced in the 1920s. Guidance was given in special centres where youngsters were assisted in the choice of secondary schools. In 1984 the Ministry of Labour became involved in vocational guidance and regional employment bureaus
were established. Guidance in the schools took root in the 1950s when one teacher in a school was designated a Schooldekaan (guidance teacher). However, the guidance centres continued to do their work.

Career counselling in Holland has historically been made more remedial than developmental, with the client population generally restricted to those who are about to enter secondary schools at ages twelve to fifteen. However, new trends are emerging in the Dutch guidance service. These include an increase in guidance activities in the schools; greater emphasis on developmental career guidance, and client-population changes, with more counselling for younger and older pupils and students.

3.1.2.2.2 Guidance in the Federal Republic of Germany

In the Federal Republic of Germany psychologists and teacher counsellors (Beratungslehrer) are located in regional centres situated throughout the Federal republic. These centres are under the control of the Ministry of Education, (Shertzer and Stone, 1981). These professionals conduct psychological tests and guide pupils and students to various types and levels of schools in terms of the scholar's individual characteristics. This channeling of children and youth in various academic directions has both advantages and disadvantages. One major criticism of this system is that it tends to create an elite and a rigid class structure.

Career guidance and placement is provided by the Federal Employment Institute. This guidance takes place at the regional and local employment offices of the Institute.
3.1.2.2.3  Guidance and counselling in France

In 1912 Chantreau opened a bureau for the guidance of adolescents, (Shertzer and Stone 1981). However it was only in 1922 that the guidance service was placed administratively under the director of technical instruction. In 1928 an institute responsible for providing a nationwide counselling service was established named Institut National d'Etude du Travail à d'Oriented Professionelle (INETOP). With the many educational reforms that have taken place in France, especially those of 1969, a division of guidance was established in the ministry of education and named Division d'Information et de l'Oriention. The service was also named Service d'Information et d'Oriention (SIO).

In France guidance is provided in guidance centres spread throughout the country. Each school district has a Centre d'Information et d'Oriention. Guidance, counselling and consultation at the centre are provided to school pupils, their parents, teachers as well as employers, Union members and the general adult populace (Délegation Regionale de L'O.N.I.S.E.P., 1980).

The Counsellors also work in the schools where they serve as school psychologists to help pupils solve problems of adjustment. They also serve as career information specialists where they disseminate information on job opportunities to pupils.

The counsellors are also attached to universities where they give guidance and counselling to university students. These counsellors operate from guidance
centres established on university campuses. These centres are called Cellules d’Information et d’Orientation Universitaire and are controlled by the secretariat for universities.

Universities are not involved in counsellor preparation in France. Prospective counsellors are recruited after two years or more at a recognized college or five years teaching experience. They are then given two years of intensive specialist training before taking an examination for a certification of aptitude for the position of counsellor. The candidates have to do an internship for a year before the certificate is granted. This training is provided at special institutes located at various parts of the country. Originally there were eight of these institutes but by 1980 they had been reduced to five. The following are the names of the five institutions:

Centre de Formation des Conseillers d'Orientation which is situated in the town of Lille; Institute de Formation aux Pratiques Psychologique, Sociologique et Educative de Lyon; Institute de Biométrie Humaine et d'Orientation Professionelle which is in Marseille; Institute Nationale d'Etude du Travail et d'Orientation Professionelle (I.N.E.T.O.P.) in Paris; and the Institute de Formation de Conseillers d'Orientaton of the Louis Pasteur University in Strasbourg.

Guidance and counselling in France is greatly influenced and directed by yet another organization. This organization was set up to collect, prepare, and document, educational and career information for dissemination
to the children and youth of the entire country. This organization is known as 'Office National d'Information sur les Enseignements et les Professions (O.N.I.S.E.P.). This organization was established by a decree of 19 March 1970 which charged ONISEP with a specific task namely,

"d'élaborer et de mettre à la disposition des utilisateur la documentation nécessaire à l'information et à l'orientation par une meilleure connaissance des moyens d'éducation et des activités professionnelles" (ONISEP, 1980 : 1)

The ONISEP has, through its national and regional offices amply fulfilled its task. The ONISEP works in very close collaboration with the Service d'Information et d'Orientation.

Guidance and counselling have also been introduced and are evolving in other European countries such as Belgium, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Cyprus, etc. Guidance services are available to children of the Soviet Union and other eastern European countries; to those in Asian countries such as India, Japan and Australia, as well as to children in the near and Middle-East countries. Guidance and counselling are provided to children in Canada as well as those in South American countries.

3.1.2.2.4 Guidance and counselling in Africa

The guidance movement is gradually taking root in several african countries.
3.1.2.2.4.1 School guidance in Nigeria

To illustrate our point we shall briefly examine the guidance services of one African country, namely, Nigeria. According to Makinde (1984) guidance in Nigeria was introduced around 1959. A group of Catholic sisters at St Theresa's College, Ibadan, organized a formal careers guidance service for their upper-class students. This effort proved such a rousing success that other schools in Ibadan, Lagos, Enugu, Kano and Kaduna started a similar service. This led to the establishment of the Ibadan Careers Council in 1962, and other careers councils in the cities mentioned. These councils merged and became the Nigerian Careers Council in 1967. A larger association which would cater not only for careers teachers but also for counsellors in varying fields was formed in 1976. This was the Counselling Association of Nigeria (CAN). The association has launched its own journal called The Counsellor.

As was the case in its early history in the United States, guidance in Nigeria initially emphasized vocational information awareness regarding the world of work and location of employment. However, the activities of the guidance workers rapidly broadened out to include a variety of issues.

Nigerian universities have also made a tremendous contribution to the development of guidance in the schools.

"Quite remarkable has been the effort most universities in Nigeria have made since 1971 to establish guidance
and counselling departments to train potential counsellors for our high schools and colleges" (Makinde, 1984: 83).

While the University of Ibadan concentrates on offering guidance courses at undergraduate level, the universities of Ife, Lagos, Nsukka and Ahmadu Bello in Zaria concentrate largely on producing counsellors at the masters and doctoral level. Most colleges of education offer courses in guidance and counselling.

3.1.2.2.4.2 Guidance services in South African schools

3.1.2.2.4.2.1 School guidance in White schools

According to Prins (in Shertzer & Stone, 1981) school guidance for white children in South Africa was introduced in 1930 with the founding of the National Institute of Career Guidance. We have already made a brief examination of the guidance services in white education. What we still need to say in this regard is to highlight the dual nature of the structure of this service. This structure is characteristic of the guidance services in the four provinces of the Republic of South Africa. The guidance service in white education is thus made up of two separate branches, namely, a psychological service branch and a school guidance service branch, (Cloete and Le Roux, in Shertzer and Stone, 1981).

The psychological services section performs a clinical remedial function. Individual help is given to pupils and students with more serious psychological-educational
problems. As part of the provision of Act No. 39 of 1967, an elaborate system of child guidance clinics was established for each of the inspectorial circuits. Each clinic serves a group of schools. The staff of the clinic, which operates as a multidisciplinary team, is responsible for the intellectual, scholastic and emotional assessment of pupils, and provides help in the form of psychotherapy, pedotherapy, speech therapy, guidance and counselling. Every clinic is staffed by a team of specialists such as clinical and counselling psychologists, orthodidacticians sosio-pedagogicians and occupational therapists.

The guidance service in white schools is provided by guidance teachers based in the schools. Each school is entitled to a number of guidance teachers depending on the enrolment in the school. For instance, schools with enrolments of a 1,000 pupils and more could have as many as four guidance teachers on the staff, (Du Toit, 1982). These teachers are supposed to implement the prescribed guidance programme which we briefly reviewed in chapter two.

In general guidance teachers are also expected to devote some of their time at school to subject teaching. The major activity of the guidance teacher is to do group work with the various classes although they also engage in individual interviews.

The usual minimum qualifications needed for guidance teachers is a first degree with psychology or education as major subject and a postgraduate teacher's diploma. The problems encountered in respect of the guidance
service include a lack of appreciation of the value of the guidance function by various school administrators, especially some school principals, as well as by the guidance teachers themselves. As a consequence of this situation the time allotted for guidance is sometimes used for other purposes. Another problem is a shortage of qualified staff. This has resulted in teachers without the necessary qualifications being designated guidance teachers. These problems notwithstanding, the guidance service for white children in South Africa is highly developed.

The guidance of youth who have left school is undertaken by the then Department of Labour, now named the Department of Manpower Utilization, which has offices throughout the country. These offices provide a vocational guidance and placement service to mainly blue-collar workers. Those young persons who graduate from school to go to tertiary education institutions are given guidance at student counselling centres that are found at these institutions.

3.1.2.2.4.2.2 Guidance services in the schools for Africans

Guidance Services for African children and youth is a very recent development. Mr Manthata, a psychology inspector in the Department of Education and Training, has indicated, in a personal communication to the writer, that the then Department of Bantu Education instituted a Psychological Services Section in the Department in 1960. Mr A Clark was appointed the first Inspector Psychologist. He started the section
with two African Test Officers. He was succeeded by Mr A B Fourie in 1964. When he started, Mr Fourie had 19 school counsellors under him who were distributed in the various educational regions of the Department. These officers were elevated to the level of assistant inspector in 1968.

Some expansion has occurred in the Psychological Services Section of the Department since that time. Today there are psychology inspectors in all the regional offices of the Department of Education and Training, as well as in all the education departments of the "National States". Besides the psychology inspectors there are assistant psychology inspectors in each inspectiveal circuit.

The main task of these psychology inspectors is to visit schools to administer aptitude and interest tests to pupils in standards five, eight, and ten. The usefulness of this exercise is doubtful since the psychology inspectors do not have the time to communicate the results meaningfully to the students. As Ndaba (1978) indicates, pupils do not seem to benefit from the results of these tests. Ndaba found that school principals held the same view regarding the Education Department's testing programme. Commenting on this matter, one school principal stated that "the results of these tests remain exclusively in the hands of the principal and they are used when filling in the application forms of students who are leaving that school" (in Ndaba, 1978: 22). This point is well illustrated by the fact that in 1976 there were 29 school counsellors or psychology inspectors serving four million pupils in 12,574 schools managed by
69 000 teachers. In such circumstances the said counsellors were chiefly testers. Moreover very few of these school counsellors had received any academic training in guidance and counselling, with most of these counsellors only having matric as their academic background. As indicated above, the number of psychology inspectors has increased but so has the number of pupils and schools. And the work activities of the psychology inspectors have not changed much either.

In an attempt to bring about an improvement in the guidance services in African schools, the Department of Education and Training introduced guidance as a non-examination school subject in all African schools. In 1981 guidance was introduced as a subject in both the junior and senior secondary school, i.e. from standard six through standard ten. In 1982 guidance was introduced in the primary school and was to be taught as a non-examination subject in standard five.

However there were no trained guidance teachers to offer the new subject. School principals had the responsibility of designating any teacher on the staff as a guidance teacher. Given the nature of the school as was portrayed in chapter two: it is highly unlikely that a school principal will take his "good" teachers off from offering examination subjects to teach a non-examination subject like guidance. As a result of this situation together with the influence of other factors which we mention below, the introduction of guidance as a subject in African schools has not brought about any meaningful change to the guidance services delivered to the African school population.
in this country (Spence, 1982). The factors that militate against the delivery of an effective guidance service to African children and youth include the following:

- A negative attitude towards guidance by the school authorities and the teaching staff.
- A possible negative attitude on the part of pupils and students towards the new subject (Watts, 1980)
- Possible doubts regarding the value of guidance in the life and work of pupils and students.
- Lack of motivation on the part of pupils and students to exert themselves in a non-examination subject.
- Unwillingness on the part of teachers to devote time, energy and various types of resources to a non-examination subject. However, if we had had different educational values than the ones that are now prevalent, the fact that guidance is a non-examination subject would not have been a problem as this would have enabled both the pupils and teachers to innovate, improvise and experiment.
- Lack of relevant and comprehensive guidance programmes that would grip the attention and interest of both teachers and pupils.
- Lack of facilities and equipment for the effective presentation of a comprehensive guidance programme.

3.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A critical examination of the guidance scene in African education has led Ndaba to assert that "at present
there is no guidance service in African schools" (Ndaba, 1978: 61). However, as was postulated in the first chapter of this dissertation, guidance is an essential aspect of education. Certain critical factors reviewed in chapter two have made an effective guidance service an urgent necessity in African schools.

All that has been said up to now point to a need for the introduction of a comprehensive guidance program in all the schools in South Africa. To be effective, such a programme should be truly comprehensive, that is, it should include all the key aspects of the guidance function. Such aspects of the guidance function as personal, educational, social, and career guidance should be covered. To be truly educational, the whole guidance programme should have a developmental emphasis. The programme should contain goals, objectives and activities. Specific measures for the determination of programme effects on the participants should be identified and employed. Of particular significance, such a programme should be based on student needs.

As was indicated above, such a comprehensive guidance programme for African schools does not exist. As a result of the absence of an effective guidance service in African schools, pupils in these schools are educationally disadvantaged.

3.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The primary purpose of this study is to determine the effects of a systematically presented broadly-based guidance programme on the development of a group of African senior secondary school pupils. The accomplishment of the main of the study will entail the accomplishment of the following subsidiary aims.
the compilation of the guidance programme.
- the presentation of this programme to the target group of secondary school pupils.
- the evaluation of the effects of the programme on the programme participants.

As was stated above, guidance services are a completely new phenomenon within African education. It was also indicated that the service is so fraught with problems that it has hardly got off the ground. A number of activities will have to be carried out to bring about a radical improvement to the service. These activities will include, *inter alia*, the training or preparation of guidance teachers and school psychologists to deliver an effective guidance service to pupils and students, the provision of adequate resources and facilities to ensure the effective delivery of the service. As was indicated earlier, one of the key components of the guidance service that must be provided is a comprehensive guidance programme. The compilation of a relevant guidance programme to meet the guidance needs of the youth of this country is a matter that deserves urgent attention. This component of the guidance service is the subject of this study.

It has always been assumed that the implementation of an effective comprehensive guidance programme by skilled personnel in an educationally sound environment will lead to expected desirable outcomes in pupils. The possible effects of guidance on pupils and students have thus generally been taken for granted.
The confidence shown by counsellors and other educators regarding the educational value of guidance is most probably justified. However, it is still important to find out for sure if guidance does indeed have the effects on pupils and students that it is supposed to have. While guidance teachers and other workers in related professions cannot be expected to work like professionals in the medical field who cannot release a drug for public consumption until they are very certain of the effects it will have on the potential users, it is nevertheless important for guidance teachers and others to seek to know what the outcomes of guidance and counselling are on the recipients of the service and what contribution guidance and counselling will make to the attainment of broad educational goals.

Herr (1979), cite several american studies that show the beneficial effects of guidance and counselling in areas such as those of self-esteem, self-concept, interpersonal relations, school achievement, decision-making, career development, work adjustment. Guidance and counselling have also been found to be of great benefit to disadvantaged youth, to juvenile delinquents as well as to the educably mentally retarded.

An effective guidance programme has never been presented to african pupils or students in South Africa and its effects systematically evaluated. Our aim in this study is therefore to determine the effects of a systematically presented, broadly based programme on the development of a group of african pupil.
3.3.1 Delimitation of the Scope of the Evaluation and Restatement of the Aim of the Study

3.3.1.1 Delimitation of the scope of the evaluation

Like education itself, school guidance comprises a number of identifiable intervention strategies which are supposed to yield certain outcomes. The programme that is to be implemented and evaluated in this study is a broadly based one covering all the key elements of the guidance function. This fact notwithstanding, it was deemed necessary to confine the actual evaluation of the programme to specific outcomes based on clearly defined criteria. These criteria fall under the broad category of Career Development. This delimitation of the scope of the evaluation of the programme was based upon the considerations that are presented below:

1. The first consideration in our delimitation of our scope is that career guidance is very closely related to other aspects of guidance. Burtnett ed., (1980) indicates in this regard that the total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic, and cultural factors combine to shape the career development of any given individual. So a focus on career development makes it possible to examine many other aspects of the guidance function.

2. For the foreseeable future career guidance will remain the major direction of the guidance function. As we have indicated above, school guidance is a
very broad constellation of functions and services: It is as broad as education itself. However, career guidance seems to lend character to the guidance function in the same way that map-drawing does to geography, or psychometrics, to psychology. Of the various goals of the guidance function the establishment of a career identity and the development thereof seems to be the activity that is especially characteristic of the guidance function. This assertion does not seek to convey the idea that the other aspects of the guidance function are of less importance. What it does indicate is that the career guidance aspect of the guidance function seems to be central to this function.

3. The phenomenal development in theory building in respect of the career development of individuals has made a number of fundamental contributions to guidance and counselling. Firstly, the development of career development theory has provided the conceptual tools for the definition of guidance and counselling. Secondly this development has led to the determination of a major component of the content of the guidance function, thus facilitating programme development. Thirdly, career development theory has greatly facilitated the determination of the goals that the guidance function should seek to achieve. The phenomenal development in career development theory has helped in determining the nature, content and goals of career guidance within the broad guidance function. This has facilitated the planning,
implementation and evaluation of career guidance programmes. This fact has had a significant influence regarding the delimitation of the scope of the evaluation in this study.

4. The existence of clear and succinct definitions of career development and to some extent of the construct of career maturity, of a fairly clear conception of the content of a career guidance programme as well as a taxonomy of goals to be attained by career guidance, has led to the development along scientific lines of fairly effective evaluation tools of career development and vocational maturity. This has been another major consideration in the determination of the scope of the evaluative analysis.

5. The difficulty of assessing various other variables of the guidance function such as civic responsibility, moral development, social identity, as well as a lack of usable instruments to measure these variables, has contributed to the way the scope of the evaluative analysis has been delimited.

3.3.1.2 Restatement of the aim of the study

In terms of the way the scope of this investigation has been delimitated, the study seeks to assess the effects of a classroom guidance programme on the career development of a group of secondary school pupils.
3.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The dimensions of career development which comprise the major career development tasks facing today's youth and which are assessed in this study can be summarized in the following three broad categories, namely, occupational awareness, self-awareness, and career planning and decision making.

The Occupational Awareness career development index can be subdivided into the following elements: occupational knowledge and exploratory occupational experiences.

The Self Awareness career development index can also be subdivided into a number of elements, namely,
- work value preferences
- working condition preferences
- educational plans
- certainty of occupational preferences
- perceived needs for help.

The Career Planning and Decision Making career development index can be subdivided into the following subcategories:
- career planning knowledge
- career planning involvement
- self-evaluation of career planning.

Reaction to Career Guidance Experience. In this study the pupils are given an opportunity to evaluate the guidance services in their schools. A number of hypotheses that fall under this category were generated.
The three indices of career development referred to above yielded the three research questions which this study attempted to answer. These questions and the hypotheses generated therefrom are listed below:

3.4.1  **QUESTION 1 : OCCUPATIONAL AWARENESS**

Will the Guidance Programme enhance the Occupational Awareness of those pupils who will be exposed to it? The hypotheses generated from question one that were tested in this study were:

3.4.1.1  **Occupational Knowledge**

**Hypothesis 1(a)**

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD.

**Hypothesis 1(b)**

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD.

3.4.1.2  **Exploratory Occupational Experiences**

**Hypothesis 2(a)**

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score
of the same group on the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale of the ACD.

**Hypothesis 2(b)**

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group of the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale of the ACD.

**3.4.2 QUESTION 2: SELF AWARENESS**

Will the Guidance Programme increase the level of Self-Awareness of the pupils who will be exposed to it?

The following hypotheses, which were generated from question two, were tested in this study.

**3.4.2.1 Work Value Preferences**

**Hypothesis 3(a)**

There will be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the work value preferences of the treatment group away from the independent/managerial/materialistic orientation towards the self-fulfilling and person-centered orientation.

**Hypothesis 3(b)**

There will be a significant difference in the post-test work value preferences of the treatment and control groups with regard to the independent/managerial/materialistic orientation as against the self-fulfilling and person-centered orientation.
3.4.2.2 Working Condition Preferences

Hypothesis 4(a)

There will be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group from the indoor to the outdoor working condition option.

Hypothesis 4(b)

There will be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups with regard to the indoor as against the outdoor working condition option.

Hypothesis 5(a)

There will be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group away from solitary work to working with others.

Hypothesis 5(b)

There will be a significant difference between the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups in terms of working alone as against working with others.

Hypothesis 6(a)

There will be a pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group away from working at the same task toward working at a variety of tasks.
Hypothesis 6(b)

There will be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups with regard to working at a variety of tasks as against working at the same task.

Hypothesis 7(a)

There will be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group away from working in an office with little physical activity as against working with one's hands or doing physical work.

Hypothesis 7(b)

There will be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups regarding working with one's hands or doing physical labour as against working in an office with little physical activity.

3.4.2.3 Education Plans

Hypothesis 8(a)

There will be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the educational plans of the treatment group from the academic/professional to the vocational/technical options.
Hypothesis 8(b)

There will be a significant difference in the post-test educational plans of the treatment and control groups with reference to the academic/professional as against the vocationa/technical options.

3.4.2.4 Certainty of Occupational Preferences

Hypothesis 9(a)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will be more certain of their occupational preferences than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.

Hypothesis 9(b)

After the programmatic intervention a larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will express a greater degree of certainty regarding their occupational preferences.

3.4.2.5 Perceived Needs for Help

3.4.2.5.1 Help with solution of "educational problems"

Hypothesis 10(a)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will express a lesser need for help with the solution of "educational problems", than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.
Hypothesis 10(b)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will express a lesser need for help with the solution of "educational problems, than will the control group at post-testing.

3.4.2.5.2 Help with solution of "CAREER PROBLEMS"

Hypothesis 11(a)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will express a lesser need for help with the solution of career problems than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.

Hypothesis 11(b)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will express a lesser need for help with the solution of career problems than will the control group when post-tested.

3.4.2.5.3 Help with solution of "personal problems"

Hypothesis 12(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme the treatment group will express a lesser need for help with the solution of "personal problems" than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.
Hypothesis 12(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme the treatment group will express a lesser need for help with the solution of "personal problems" than will the control group in the post-test.

3.4.3 QUESTION 3: CAREER PLANNING AND DECISION-MAKING

Will the Guidance Programme enhance the Career Planning and Decision Making Ability of the pupils who will be exposed to it?

The hypotheses generated from question three which were tested in this study are listed below:

3.4.3.1 Career Planning Knowledge

Hypothesis 13(a)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD.

Hypothesis 13(b)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD.
3.4.3.2 Career Planning Involvement

Hypothesis 14(a)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD.

Hypothesis 14(b)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD.

3.4.3.3 Self Evaluation of Career Planning

Hypothesis 15(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group will have given careful thought to the appropriateness of their first two job choices than will have been the case with the same group before the programmatic intervention.

Hypothesis 15(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group will have carefully thought about the appropriateness of their first two jobs than will have been the case with the control group when post-tested.
Hypothesis 16(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will have planned their education in line with what is needed for their chosen jobs.

Hypothesis 16(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when it is post-tested, will have planned their education in line with what is required for their chosen jobs.

Hypothesis 17(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will have selected jobs that will enable them to achieve their goals in life.

Hypothesis 17(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will have selected jobs which will enable them to realize their life-goals.
Hypothesis 18(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group prior to the programmatic intervention, will be more certain of the steps that must be taken to prepare for and enter the selected jobs.

Hypothesis 18(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, when compared to the control group at post-testing, will be more certain of the steps that must be taken to prepare for and enter their chosen jobs.

Hypothesis 19(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will be in a position to feel that they will be able to complete the necessary steps for entry into at least one of the jobs.

Hypothesis 19(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group at post-testing, will be in a position to feel that they will be able to complete the necessary steps for entry into at least one of the jobs.
Hypothesis 20(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will view their occupational future as bright.

Hypothesis 20(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group at post-testing, will regard their occupational future as bright.

3.4 REACTION TO CAREER GUIDANCE EXPERIENCES

Hypothesis 21(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will have benefitted much from the use of job description files, pamphlets and books on careers.

Hypothesis 21(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group at post-testing, will have benefitted a lot from job description files, pamphlets and books on careers.
Hypothesis 22(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will have benefitted much from viewing films, listening to talks on various jobs by actual practitioners, and participating in career days and tours to plants.

Hypothesis 22(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will have benefitted a lot from viewing films, listening to talks on various jobs by actual practitioners, and participating in career days and tours to plants.

Hypothesis 23(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will have benefitted from a discussion by the various subject teachers of jobs that are related to their subjects.

Hypothesis 23(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, when compared to the control
group at post-testing, will have benefitted a lot from a discussion by the various subject teachers of jobs that are related to the subjects they teach.

**Hypothesis 24(a)**

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group prior to the programmatic intervention, will have benefitted a lot from discussions with the school counsellor about the pupils' post high school education and job plans.

**Hypothesis 24(b)**

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the treatment group, when compared to the control group at post-testing, will have benefitted a lot from a discussion with their school counsellor about the pupils' post high school educational and occupational plans.

**Hypothesis 25(a)**

As a result of their exposure to the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will have benefitted considerably from group discussions amongst themselves about, *inter alia*, their educational and occupational plans as well as what they want from a job.
Hypothesis 25(b)

As a result of their exposure to the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group in the post-test, will have benefitted greatly from group discussions amongst themselves about their educational and occupational plans as well as what they want from a job.

Hypothesis 26(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will have received a lot of help from their school with the planning of their future careers.

Hypothesis 26(b)

As a result of their participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will have received a lot of help from their school concerning the planning of their future careers.

Hypothesis 27(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will
indicate that they are in a position to see a counsellor when they want to or need to.

Hypothesis 27(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will indicate that they are in a position to see a school counsellor when they want to or need to.

3.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Given the novelty of the guidance function in African schools as well as the paucity of resources relating to the delivery of an effective guidance service, a reasonable strategy would seem to include the demonstration of the efficacy of guidance and counselling even as we explore, in depth, the processes underlying its efficacy.

The answering of questions regarding the outcomes of guidance and counselling in the lives of children and youth would enable us to, inter alia, determine some taxonomy of the objectives towards which our guidance and counselling effects could be more fruitfully directed. Of particular significance, such evaluative analysis of the outcomes of the guidance activity could serve as a basis for programme development and programme improvement.

A demonstration of the efficacy of guidance and counselling services would most likely have a positive
influence on the attitudes of school administrators, school principals, parents, pupils and students towards the guidance function as a whole and make them more appreciative of the educational value of guidance and counselling.

3.6 BASIC ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING THE STUDY

For the study to achieve its aim, it is assumed that the key elements relating to the envisaged programmatic intervention will be in place. The following are some of the assumptions which are regarded as crucial in this regard.

It was assumed that the co-operation and collaboration of the school management and staff would be secured.

It was assumed that the pupils who were to be exposed to the Guidance Programme would actively participate in all the activities of the programme.

It was assumed that relevant guidance programme predicated on a particular set of values would be compiled and successfully implemented.

It was assumed that an effective system of programme delivery would be put together. Setting up of such a system would include the accomplishment of such tasks as the selection of effective programme delivery strategies; the provision of competent
programme presenters; the assignment of programme components in terms of staff, time, and place.

It was assumed that effective programme evaluation techniques would be procured.

3.7 DELIMITATION OF THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study was limited to African male and female senior secondary school pupils who were in standard nine.

Since intact classroom groups were to be used in the study, the pupils in the sample came from two schools; one an experimental school and the other, a control school.

Both schools are located in a rural setting in the Transvaal Province of the Republic of South Africa.

3.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS

To promote clarity and meaningful communication the main concepts used in this dissertation shall be briefly defined. The term "school guidance" has been treated fully in chapter one, while the concept "programme" will be fully explained in chapter five. The terms that warrant some definition here are the following:

investigation, in this study, is used to mean assessment and appraisal.

The term empirical implies a concern with the perceptible, descriptive, and measurable aspects of reality.
Effects are results or consequences of some action.

Career

A career is a sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his professional, occupational, and post-occupational life; it includes work related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner, together with complementary avocational, familial, and civic roles, (Super, 1976).

Career development

Career development is a continuous process whereby individuals develop realistic occupational and personal goals for their future. It entails the development of strategies for movement toward these goals. It involves investigating the options which are appropriate and available as determined by an assessment of one's personal needs, resources, interests, values, aptitudes and the influence of the social environment.

Career education

It is a person-centered process of deliberate and collaborative effort by many persons to systematically promote an individual's career development. Career education entails the creation of experiences to help individuals acquire academic, vocational and basic skills while achieving a sense of self as they make informed career decisions and master the developmental tasks facing them at various stages.

Career Maturity refers to the repertoire of behaviours that the individual employs in coping with the vocational
developmental tasks of one's life stage when compared to other individuals coping with similar tasks at the same life stage.

Guidance Services include a variety of services which have the common objective of helping pupils develop a high degree of self-understanding and make maximum use of their talents and opportunities in their self-actualization.

Pupil. This term, used in free variation with the term student, refers to a young person studying at a non-tertiary institution of learning.

Secondary School refers to a post-primary institution providing education up to a standard higher than the fifth standard but not higher than standard ten.

Senior Secondary School is a post-primary institution offering education from standard eight through ten.

African, for purposes of this study refers only to a South African citizen of African descent.

Black for the purposes of this study refers to all the members of the population registration groups that are regarded in South Africa as not White. These include members of the African, coloured and Indian population registration groups.

3.9 SUMMARY

The purpose, research questions, rationale, assumptions and scope of this study, as well as a definition of the terms used in the study are all presented in this
chapter. The theoretical underpinnings of the study are explored in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 4

CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

4.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

4.1.1 Introduction

We have determined the dimensions of career development that we seek to assess in this study. We have also attempted to define some aspects of these dimensions. It seems appropriate at this point to attempt a systematic explanation of the dynamics of career development and career choice; that is, to try and describe what happens when an individual develops certain work preferences, selects a job, enters it and establishes himself in it. In other words we need some theory or theories which attempt to integrate and systematize the various behavioral phenomena with respect to a specific problem, namely, that of career choice.

Such theories will serve to organize and systematize what is known about the phenomenon of career development, thus enabling us to know what to look for, what to expect and where to go regarding this key aspect of human development. Counsellors need to seek constantly for insight into the motivation of students for making certain career choices. Only by doing so will counsellors be able to understand and help them. We also seek to find out what literature has been generated in this area and what research has been carried out.

Some of the major theories of career development and choice will be identified and discussed below. These
theories will be discussed in the following manner: namely, structural theories, matching theories, personality theories, and developmental theories.

4.1.2 The Structural Approaches to Career Choice

Workers in career guidance in such countries as the United States of America and various European countries have noted that the occupations of parents are often indicative of the level and the type of occupation which the child will enter at the end of his schooling. The parents' occupations generally reflect their status and their access to the opportunity structure. This situation has led career and social theorists to recognize the significance of social structure in the determination of a young person's career choice. One contribution that is highly representative of the structural approach to career choice is that of Roberts (1971; 1977; 1981). Of course several other persons have studied the effects of social status on career choice. People such as Hollingshead, 1949; Coleman, 1966; Sewell and Houser, 1975; (cited in Watts, Supper and Kidd, 1981), have carried out research in this area and have found that the social structure plays an important role in determining a person's career choice.

As was stated above, Roberts is the principal proponent of the social structure theory of career choice. His Opportunity-Structure theory will be considered in some detail here. We can distinguish both a "sociological" and a "psychological" component to Robert's theory.
4.1.2.1 Sociological factors

The sociological postulations can briefly be reviewed under the following headings:

4.1.2.1.1 Socialization

According to the Opportunity-Structure theory, career development is not the unfolding of a personality or a process of self-actualization; it is rather a matter of socialization along predetermined lines. The fact of being born to a particular pair of parents, constituting a significant part of a particular family, in a particular community, places an individual on a specific social rung from which it is most unlikely that he will move up or down. The theory postulates that social class determines the type and amount of education, and thus the occupational level, the individual will attain. Social class also determines the peer values and peer pressures during the individual's formative years.

Social processes, particularly within the family, thus determine the educational aspirations and occupational expectations of children. Early socialization experiences determine initial rates of educational progress, which then determine subsequent educational opportunity and ultimate occupation opportunity. Consequently, socialization experiences in the home and in the school fashion children's occupational ambitions and expectations "appropriately" to their social origins and destinations.

The social setting described here seems to reflect the one that obtains in the black community in South
Africa, with the class stratification taking on a racial dimension.

However, Robert's postulations regarding the role of the socialization process in career choice can be faulted in a number of ways. The fact that the family is a powerful determinant of children's life chances is now impressively supported by research (Goslin, 1969, cited by Daws, 1981). However, not all socialization is conservative and the process operates with varying degrees of consistency and effectiveness upon different children. In extreme cases the socialization process may to a large extent fail to have the desired effects on the recipients, with almost the entire young generation rejecting the value system and norms of the adult generation.

Furthermore, the various socializing agents do not exert the same influence on the young generation. Some children, for example, experience conflict between the value systems and goals of their home and those of their school, and it is not necessarily the home that has the greater long-term influence, (Daws, 1981).

Another factor that Roberts does not seem to take into consideration in his theorising is the fact that the world in which the children have to find their way, the educational, occupational and social worlds, have changed considerably from those that were familiar to their parents at an equivalent age. As a result of these changes parents tend to be ill-equipped to offer appropriate guidance to their children, either because their own socialization experience was very different from that which is appropriate for their children, or
because the rate of social change has made their own attitudes, ambitions and beliefs obsolete. These changes are particularly pronounced with regard to the social status and self-concept of women as well as those of disadvantaged groups. These changes have been accompanied by a dramatic extensions of social opportunity and expectation with which parents have still to cope sufficiently.

Robert's pessimism notwithstanding, the rapidity of social, political, and economic change provides a strong case for the implementation of comprehensive guidance programmes in schools.

4.1.2.1.2 Opportunity structure

The opportunity structure plays a vital role in the career development of the individual. As a consequence, Roberts takes issue with the assumption that underlies career guidance in the United States of America. This assumption mainly comprises the notion that any American, however humble his origins, can rise to the highest level depending on his ability; he can even become President of the country. This notion has led to the conviction that the individual controls his own destiny: that if he has the appropriate abilities which are appropriately developed his fate is in his hands. Even in the United States this notion can be seen to be a false consciousness which prevents such groups as Blacks and other ethnic minorities, women, and industrial workers from perceiving their true structural positions in society. Roberts (1977) attacked such notions of career development as unrealistic and based on concepts
of "choice" which were irrelevant to most people. Occupational destinies, Roberts argued, were determined not by individual choices but by opportunity structures. Daws (1981) captures Roberts' views of career development in the following words:

"If a child wishes to optimise his life chances, he had better choose his parents carefully." (p. 255)

In today's South Africa, that child would need to make sure that his parents were White.

The opportunity structure theory asserts that if a child suffers through a defective intrauterine environment he will commence his life with an already severely diminished capacity to make use of available social opportunity, however limited that may be. If his preschool and school years impoverish his overall development or equip him with an educationally limited range of linguistic, scientific and other skills, his intellectual growth will be impeded. If as a result he reaches school-leaving age with but modest scholastic accomplishments, he will find only menial occupations accessible to him (Daws, 1981).

The opportunity structure clearly makes for differential accessibility to educational and occupational opportunities for the different social classes. Normally this class differentiation in terms of opportunity may have developed "normally" and may even have become an acceptable way of life.
However in many instances the restriction of opportunity is effected by various means of overt discrimination in terms of race, sex, creed or some other categorizing factor.

Roberts (1977) believes that the socialization process and the opportunity structure renders career guidance ineffectual in influencing the vocational thinking and behaviour of children and youth. According to him career guidance should concentrate on not raising unrealistic expectations in youth, but on helping people to adjust successfully within the opportunity structures open to them.

Roberts' view of career guidance seems to be wrong on two counts. In the first place, while the opportunity structure does play a significant role in determining the occupational choices made by an individual, some of the crucial career decisions are individually made rather than structurally imposed. Secondly, the structural constraints operating in the social, educational, occupational and other spheres are man-made and can thus be dismantled. As change agents, guidance teachers have a crucial role to play in initiating, promoting and expediting the necessary changes in the opportunity structure.

2.1.3 Social Mobility: Educational and Occupational

Roberts (1977) also maintains that the conservative nature of the socialization process coupled with the restrictive opportunity structure prevents meaningful social mobility. As a consequence children are destined to repeat the equivalent educational and occupational
experiences of their parents. There is thus no inter-generational change of social-class membership.

However (Daws 1981) avers that due to changes in the socio-political and cultural situation a great deal of upward mobility is taking place even in countries with a rather rigid social stratification such as Great Britain. Daws (1981) cites the findings of Banks (1976) and Neave, (1975), who have found evidence of substantial absolute gains by English working class children in educational achievement, notably in the expanding field of higher education. More significant data in respect of both education and socio-economic indices of mobility have been produced by the Social Mobility Group at Nuffield College, Oxford (Goldthorpe, 1980). Both educational and socio-economic mobility criteria indicated that there were then proportionately many more persons moving from their class of origin. Children made educational attainments significantly higher than those of their parents and entered into employment levels significantly different from those experienced by their forebears. This finding is not consistent with the rigid and static picture of social classes in Britain portrayed by Roberts.

There are however, divided views regarding the adequacy and genuineness of this inter-class mobility. As far as the adequacy or meaningfulness of this mobility is concerned, Roberts (1981) and others indicate that the upward movement of the persons in the working classes is completely inadequate. For each percentage of persons in the lower classes that moves upwards, say into the service job level, a bigger proportion from the middle and upper classes moves upwards.
At best this results in the situation remaining the same.

As regards the genuineness of these changes practically all the detectable upward mobility can be accounted to structural changes in the labour market. The volume of demand in the service sector has been growing, especially with the advent of automation. This growth in the demand for high level personnel has been accompanied by reductions in demand for the lower skilled and manual labour sectors. The increase in social mobility has therefore been due very largely to changes in the occupational structure; that is to the expansion of the white collar and professional occupations and the contraction of manual occupations. On the other hand, the decline of opportunities in the labouring sector has resulted in fewer work opportunities for persons in the working classes. The same situation has been developing in South Africa for some time. (Spence, 1982; Cloete, 1980; Msimeki, 1973)

As in the case of occupational mobility, the increasing educational "room at the top" has in fact been occupied more by persons from the upper classes than those from the working classes. In South Africa this would mean that the increase in the "room at top" has been more beneficial to the Whites than to the Black groups so much so that virtually no significant changes in the relative chances of access have occurred. In this regard Halsey (1980) notes that the increase in educational attainment among the working classes, though large in absolute numbers, has not overtaken, as a proportionate measure, the increase that has taken place in the higher classes.
Roberts, (1977; 1981) asserts that the perpetuation of class stratification shows the ineffectiveness and futility of current career education practices. He in fact maintains that the current career guidance practices perpetuate this social stratification, claiming that they merely lubricate the existing discriminatory processes of occupational selection. However, contrary to Robert's assertions regarding the value of career guidance, the facts about social stratification and the consequent restricted nature of the opportunity structure briefly reviewed above point to the need and value of career guidance in particular and school guidance in general. As the chances of people change significantly, the possibilities and opportunities that become available are likely not to be well communicated to these recipients, and this constitutes a justification for the provision of guidance services. Important questions for teacher counsellors are, in the short term, how does one identify the children with mobility potential. On the long term and more significant basis the guidance teacher must seek to know how to identify and help to change the structural differentiating process within education and the labour market that constitute indefensible "opportunity structure".

In this manner the teacher counsellor will assume his rightful role as a change agent.

4.1.2.2 Psychological factors

Roberts (1977) does not confine himself to providing a sociological theory of the occupational choices of young people. There is a psychological component to his thesis. We shall take a very brief look at this aspect of Roberts' theory.
4.1.2.2.1 Motivation

Roberts offers a rather over-simplified picture of career motivation. He asserts that ....

"The choices that are available to individuals are rarely difficult to make. Job preferences are not mere matters of individual taste but are determined by a system of stratification.... We live in a society in which occupations are arranged in a hierarchy, the main structure of which is well-known and agreed among the public at large, including adolescents (in Daws, 1981: 264).

According to Roberts (1977) the individual strives to get a job in the hierarchical niche determined by his social status, paying little attention to jobs above his social level.

These assertions by Roberts concerning the nature of career motivation of youth ignores the nature of individual career preferences.

These preferences reveal that individuals differ regarding the importance they attach to social desirability in the formulation of their preferences, and that many other features of occupations have motivational significance for them, either in increasing or detracting from a job's attractiveness. There are, for instance, satisfactions that are intrinsic to the performance of job tasks, often related to abilities, aptitudes and values, which are matters that vary
markedly from one child to another, (Daws, 1981). Daws (1981) goes on to assert that there are satisfactions that are located extrinsically in the social and economic context of the job, such as the companionship of congenial workmates, interaction with customers, clients, patients and so forth. And even in respect of these variables what suits one individual may repel another. Besides class position, several factors play an important role in the motivational complex underlying the occupational preference of youth. It can therefore be concluded that Roberts' assertion that "choices ... are rarely difficult to make" and that "job preferences are not merely matters of individual taste" are, as Daws (1981 : 265) maintains "a false and unsafe basis for denying the value of careers guidance in schools".

4.1.2.2.2 The nature of jobs

Robert's (1977) job content argument is closely related to the position he assumes regarding career motivation.

Roberts suggests that the jobs available to the majority of school leavers require no talents or skills, have no prestige, offer no satisfaction, and promise no career development. These jobs, therefore, offer no meaningful choice, and consequently cannot be said to have been chosen in any significant sense by those who enter them. As Maizels (in Roberts, 1977) expresses it, the individual comes to terms with his occupation by modifying his career preferences and by functioning with many of his known and unknown talents dormant. As a consequence, Roberts (1977) argues that the individual hardly makes any meaningful choice of his career.
Daws (1981) maintains, however, that the mistake made by Roberts and all those who think like him is that they regard intrinsic satisfaction in the performance of the tasks that define their jobs as the only reason why young workers are contented with their jobs. The mistake arises from the supposition that job satisfaction can be derived only from the exercise of ability and talent on intrinsically satisfying job tasks. The same mistake was made by the early pioneers of vocational guidance; the talent-matchers who assumed that occupational contentment lay in involving one's abilities and aptitudes as fully as possible in one's work. Daws asserts that this mistake "arises from the middle-class intellectual bias of those who never experienced, or have rejected, working class values" (1981, 266).

Besides this intrinsic job satisfaction, there are powerful sources of job satisfaction which lie outside job performance, (Herzberg et al. 1959, Samler, 1961). Congenial Workmates and modes of social interaction, managerial style, the ethos of the organization, the social "image" of the work or the institution, the values implicit in the purposes of the work, are some of the psycho-social characteristics which play a role in the career choice of the individuals. An effective school guidance programme will help individual youth explore these various aspects of career choice. It is often the case that young people must choose between conflicting pre-choice motives, for instance, between extrinsic and intrinsic forms of satisfaction. It is a key function of careers education programmes to enable young people to become fully aware of the complexity and contradiction among their hopes and
wishes and to enable them to resolve them in formulating preferences before they enter into employment.

4.1.2.2.3 Ambition and vocational behaviour

The third psychological argument in Roberts (1968, 1977, 1981) theory states that the vocational behaviour of school leavers is not consistent with the view that they have a clearly established occupational ambition which has firm roots in their conception of themselves.

Their behaviour, he argues, suggests that ambition is born out of occupational experience; it is not a significant determinant of it. Roberts (1968) asserts that:

"the idea that individuals choose jobs and then enter them is a proposition that requires supporting empirical evidence before it can be accepted. When the evidence on the interaction between the ambitions and the occupational behaviour of young people in Britain is carefully examined, the typical pattern of interaction seems not to be for jobs to be entered on the basis of ambitions, but for ambitions to be adapted to the occupations that young people find themselves able to enter" (cited by Dawns, 1981: 269).

Roberts (1968) goes on to state the following amongst other things:
School leavers' awareness of different jobs and their capacity to appreciate what working at them entails is rudimentary. Moreover, they have not shown, and continue not to show, any strong inclination to find out.

The school leavers tend to engage in a haphazard form of job-seeking and job-taking activity which is in a large measure determined by chance factors.

Though approximately two-thirds of early school leavers fail to obtain the kind of job for which they have expressed a preference, few are dissatisfied with the employment they do obtain.

Changes of employment, when they do occur, are often against the direction of expressed ambition as in line with it; and, in either case, young workers are inclined to express satisfaction rather than disappointment with the change.

As a consequence of all this, amongst other things, Roberts concluded that the ambitions and the career progressions of young workers reflect, not their pre-entry assertions of ambition, but the immediate possibilities and constraints of their working life.

Daws (1981) critically reviews the research literature by Roberts 1969, 1977; Veness 1962; Carter 1962, 1966; Maizels 1970 on which these workers base their conclusions regarding the role of ambition in career choice. In sum, Daws (1981) concludes that the school
leaver evidence relating to the role of ambition in career choice is inconclusive. As Daws (1977) has noted, it is of the some do and some don't type. Daws (1981) therefore endorses the view that ambition plays a significant part in the vocational thinking and behaviour of school leavers. However, ambition is only one factor among a number of others in career choice. What seems to be apparent in this regard is that the influence of socialization experiences as well as the individual's awareness of the opportunity structures to which he has access will be evident in the formulation of ambitions and aspirations.

What also seems clear is that a strong and soundly rooted personal ambition, and all that this implies in terms of a single-minded pursuit of a specific vocational orientation, is rarely achieved by the age of 15. It is precisely because the vocational immaturity of 15-year-olds was exposed by the research of Super and Overstreet (1960) and several others that the developmentalist approach in guidance was seen as necessary for purposes of promoting the career development of youth. Workers in this area have become convinced that careers education programmes are essential in promoting the career maturity of youth. For this reason comprehensive school guidance programmes should be introduced in schools long before school leaving as a structural influence that would seek to counter the effects of other structural processes that constitute negative opportunity structure. Such intervention would enable young persons to take a more prominent part in deciding the directions their lives should take. This is a far cry
from Robert's pessimistic and fatalistic view which he expresses in the following words:

"In the final analysis, therefore, guidance must be a matter of assisting individuals within the opportunity structures to which they have access." (in Daws, 1981: 255)

A general evaluation of the structural theory of career development and choice can be expressed in the following manner:

In respect of the sociological postulations it can be stated that, notwithstanding the significance of socialization and opportunity structures as powerful determinants of the educational progress and career development of youth and of their entry into the labour market, evidence suggests that their *modi operandi* on the lives of children today are more complex and variable, and in certain respects weaker, than Roberts would have us believe. Regarding the psychological arguments, Robert's views on the career motivations of youth and workers and on the satisfactions that jobs have to offer are contradicted by a large body of research in career psychology and do not therefore, constitute a valid basis for arguing that careers education and vocational guidance are ineffectual.

4.1.3 Matching Theories

The matching theories have as their basis the assumption that the person makes only one choice of an occupation which is in some way appropriate to his
personal or social characteristics. The characteristics taken into consideration in this regard depend on the academic discipline, personal interests and biases of the theorists and researchers. Occupational psychologists have typically been interested in the role of aptitudes, interests, or personality or a combination of these abilities and traits in occupational choice. Sociologists working in the area of occupational behaviour have tended to concern themselves with social class and social mobility while economists have dealt with financial determinants.

The classical trait and factor theory espoused by pioneers such as Parsons, Hull, Kitson (Osipow 1973) and later workers in this area such as Thompson, Stuit, Gustaf and Wolfe amongst others (Bachrach, 1957) has, as was indicated earlier on, emphasized the importance of individual differences in occupational choice, success, and satisfaction. This approach assumes that a straight-forward matching of an individual's abilities and interests with available vocational opportunities can be accomplished, thus solving the problem of vocational choice for that individual (Osipow, 1973). In it the aptitudes, interests and personality profile of an individual is compared with those of persons in the occupations that are being or might be considered.

The early workers in this area however, lacked the psychological techniques necessary for matching people and jobs. However, following Binet's pioneering work in this area, psychologists developed objective tests and standardized inventories. As a result the tools
for matching people to occupations became available during and after the First World War (Super, 1981). The vocational testing movement has developed from the trait-factor point of view. Thus interests inventories such as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) and the Kuder Preference Record (KPR) as well as aptitude tests like the Differential Aptitude Test and the Guilford-Zimmerman Aptitude Survey are based on this approach to career choice. It must be indicated that the matching or trait-factor model has been incorporated into other approaches such as the developmental approach. It is realized that the matching activity does occur when the individual makes a career choice.

However, this matching is not a one-time occurrence. A person makes an innumerable number of matchings and choices as his career development takes place.

4.1.4 Personality Theories of Career Development

Two major personality theories of career development will be briefly reviewed. The theories in question are those of Anne Roe and John Holland. In essence these approaches might be considered matching theories. Actually, Super (1981) treats them as such. However, they differ from the classical trait-and-factor approaches which concentrated almost exclusively on abilities and interests. It was realized quite early that ability and interest tests left unmeasured other characteristics considered important. Moreover, psychoanalysts had been pointing out that aptitudes alone do not explain occupational choice, success, and satisfaction, and that interests must have a
basis in more fundamental personality traits (Super, 1981). The personality theories, therefore, are matching approaches that take a deeper look at the process of career choice than the classical trait-factor theories. These theories are to some extent developmental in nature. However, these approaches cannot be regarded as proper developmental theories since they regard the process of development to have been completed very early in the individual's life. They do, however, serve as a link between the classical trait-factor theories and the developmental approaches.

4.1.4.1 Roe's personality theory of career choice

Three major components are discernible in Roe's theory. The first component related to the use of the concept of canalization of psychic energy and the assumption that early childhood experiences have an influence on the individual's vocational choice. The influence of Gardener Murphy is very evident in this regard (Osipow, 1973). The second major component of Roe's theory is her application of need theory, especially Maslow's theory of needs. The third major aspect of her formulations is the notion of genetic influences on vocational decisions as well as in the development of need hierarchies.

Roe's theory postulates that every individual inherits a tendency to expend his energies in some particular way. This innate predisposition toward a particular manner of expending psychic energy combined with various childhood experiences determines the general
style an individual develops to satisfy his needs throughout his entire life. The resulting style has specific and far-reaching implications for career choice (Osipow, 1973).

Two levels of Roe's theory are distinguishable. The first level assumes the form of general statements that are rather difficult to test empirically. This part of the theory asserts that each individual's genetic background underlies his abilities and interests which in turn are related to vocational choice. Added to this is the statement that each individual expends his psychic energy in a manner not entirely under his control, and this involuntary expenditure of psychic energy, is influential in the development of the individual's abilities.

Closely related to the expenditure of psychic energy is the development of need primacies based partly on early frustrations and satisfactions and partly on genetic factors.

The second level of Roe's theory pertains to the manner in which the development patterns and strengths of the basic needs are affected by childhood experiences. The assertions she makes in this part of her theory are more open to empirical validation. Regarding the development of the individual's need patterns in terms of the Maslowian theory, Roe posited seven hypotheses, the most relevant of which to our study are the following:

(a) Needs satisfied routinely as they appear do not develop into unconscious motivators.
Higher-order needs, in terms of Maslow's theory, will disappear entirely if they are only rarely satisfied. Lower-order needs will, on the other hand, become dominant motivators if they are only rarely satisfied. When these needs become dominant motivators, they block the appearance of higher-order needs.

Those needs the satisfaction of which is delayed but eventually accomplished will become unconscious motivators, depending to a large extent on the degree of satisfaction felt, (Osipow, 1973; Shertzer and Stone, 1981).

Roe indicated that these needs are greatly influenced by the attitudes of the parents toward the child's early formative experiences; especially those that have to do with the individual's need satisfaction. Parental attitudes toward the child can be classified into three possible categories.

(a) Emotional concentration on the child
   (i) Overprotection
   (ii) Overdemanding

(b) Avoidance of the child
   (i) Emotional rejection of the child
   (ii) Neglect of the child

(c) Acceptance of the child
   (i) Casual acceptance of the child
   (ii) Loving acceptance.
In terms of the potential attitudes indicated above, one type of parent will tend to be overprotecting to the child or to be making excessive demands upon him. The overprotective parent will satisfy the child's physiological needs, but he will be less prompt in gratifying the child's demands for love and esteem and where the child's demands are met, will reward behaviour that is socially desirable. Furthermore the child in this situation comes to expect instant gratification of his needs.

Indeed, the child is fully and instantly gratified at the lower-need levels, but higher-order needs, such as love, esteem and a sense of belonging, are linked up with dependency on others and conformity. Similarly, the overdemanding parent satisfies the child's physical needs promptly and adequately. However, in the case of overdemanding parents, satisfaction of the needs for love and esteem is made conditional on conformity and achievement, which is frequently oriented to status.

A second type of parent tends to avoid the child, either neglecting his physical requirements or, more significantly, rejecting the child emotionally. Rejecting parents provide gratification of physiological and safety needs, but refrain from love and esteem gratification. Those parents who ignore the physical well-being of their children, but not beyond necessary minimal gratification, probably do not injure their children as much as parents who withhold love and esteem under all conditions.
A third parental style is one of acceptance, either of a casual, unconcerned nature or of a loving nature. Both the loving and casual types offer satisfactory gratification of their children's needs at most levels. While the two types of parent will differ somewhat in the way in which they will satisfy their children's needs, a reasonable degree of satisfaction of all needs is provided by accepting parents.

Roe went on to portray the relationship between the various parental attitudes or child-rearing practices, the resulting needs hierarchies, and vocational choice. These needs hierarchies that basically result from child-rearing practices cause an individual to be oriented toward or not toward persons. Either of these orientations significantly determines the individual's career choice. Roe developed an occupational classification scheme in terms of groups and levels of occupations. Thus Roe postulated eight groups into which occupations can be classified, namely, service, business contact, organization, technology, outdoor, science, general cultural and arts and entertainment. The seven levels according to which various jobs can be divided are unskilled, semiskilled, skilled, semiprofessional and small business, professional and managerial (medium level), professional and managerial (independent responsibility). Thus according to Roe's (1972) occupational classification, people in service occupations are primarily oriented toward persons and probably come from a home which generated a loving, overprotecting environment, while scientists tend not to be oriented toward persons and come from a cold home atmosphere where rejection and avoidance of the child predominated. The home atmosphere and
the type of child-rearing practices adopted by the parents influences the type of vocational choice the individual will make, while such factors as the genetic structure and the involuntary pattern of expenditure of psychic energy influence the occupational level the individual attains.

Roe (in Osipow, 1973) went on to assert that the intensity of needs, influenced by the individual's home environment may raise the occupational level as a result of an increase in motivation, but that such an increase can only be within the limits set by the genetic factors influencing intelligence, combined with the individual's socio-economic background.

There are a number of weaknesses in Roe's theory. However, as far as this study is concerned, the main problem is that it drastically confines the career development of the individual to a very short period in his life span. Super expresses this point in the following way:

"Although this landmark theory of occupational choice was to some extent developmental, it made the psychoanalytic error of assuming that the foundations of personality are so solidly laid by parental handling up to the age of five that the occupational field chosen later is actually determined by development during the early formative years." (1981: 12)

Roe's theory therefore leaves little room for counsellor intervention in the career development of children and youth.
4.1.4.2 John Holland's congruence theory

4.1.4.2.1 Preamble

Holland's theory of career choice is sometimes referred to as the congruence theory.

The reason for this is that in his theory Holland is basically stating that an individual seeks to find congruence between his interests and personality on the one hand and the world of work on the other. This assertion was spelled out by Holland in his formulations that are discussed below (Holland, 1973; Osipow, 1973; Shertzer and Stone, 1981; Super, 1981).

4.1.4.2.2 The theory

Holland's theory can be summed up in the following postulations:

(a) People can be categorized into six personality types or rather six traits in terms of their coded interest inventory scores. These personality types Holland has named the realistic, intellectual, (now called investigative), social, conventional, enterprising, and artistic. Six environments with similar names were also proposed, (Holland, 1966). Each of these personality types is characterized by certain vocational preferences some of which are indicated below:
(i) The Realistic Orientation

This orientation is characterized by aggressive and unsociable behaviour. The person has good motor skills and physical strength but lacks effective verbal and interpersonal skills, prefers concrete rather than abstract situations; which he tends to act out rather than think through. He has a high degree of concreteness, masculinity and tends to be conservative in his economic and political values. Occupations that are supposed to reflect this orientation include those of construction worker, plumber, locomotive driver, power shovel operator.

(ii) The Intellectual Orientation

The intellectual person's main characteristics are that he is introspective, asocial and tends to think through rather than act out his problems. He seeks to understand rather than to dominate or to persuade. Such a person tends to be unconventional in his values and attitudes. Typical occupations related to this orientation include those of engineer, chemist, biologist, independent researcher.

(iii) The Social Orientation

The socially orientated person prefers to engage in activities that involve feelings and the emotional support or assistance of
others. He is sociable, responsive feminine, caring, humanistic, attention-seeking. His verbal and interpersonal skills are good. However he tends to avoid intellectual problem solving, physical activity and highly regimented activities. Vocational preferences here could be the following: clinical psychologist, teacher, marriage counsellor, minister of religion, vocational counsellor, social worker.

(iv) The Conventional Orientation

This model type displays particular concern for rules and regulations and a strong identification with power and status. He shows a strong preference for structure and order that tends to be conforming. He tends to avoid ambiguous situations or problems which require interpersonal relationships. The occupations likely to be chosen by the conventional type of person are amongst others, bank teller, bookkeeper, cost accountant, financial analyst, stores clerk, and tax consultant.

(v) The Enterprising Orientation

Such persons possess considerable verbal skills. These persons use these verbal skills to manipulate and dominate people instead of supporting others as the social types do. The enterprising people place much importance in power, status and wealth just like the conventional people, but they aspire to the power
and status while the conventional person honours others for it. These people are verbally aggressive. The following are some of the jobs that are usually chosen by these people: business executive, real estate agent, insurance salesperson.

(vi) **Artistic Orientation**

A person of this orientation manifests an individualistic self-expression and is more emotional than the other types. Such persons dislike structure and tend to be intrapercptive and asocial like the intellectual, but differ in that they are more feminine than masculine and show relatively little self-control. The likely occupational preference for artistic people are author, journalist, cartoonist, play wright, singer, musician, poet, painter, stage actor.

These personality types, or more precisely, developmental hierarchies, impel individuals toward one of the six occupational environments. In this regard the individual's career choice is determined by person-environment interaction. A method of coding the individual's responses in respect of the six categories was developed so that people and environments are not simplistically classified in one of six types, but according to a three-digit code representing the three dominant traits. Using this coding, it is possible to describe the congruence between person and environment. A Conventional-Realistic-Enterprising person (CRE) in a conventional environment has found congruence. On
the other hand, this same person in an Intellectual-Artistic-Social environment is ill-sorted.

People also have a level hierarchy that impels them to a particular level of vocational choice. A person's level hierarchy is determined by both his intelligence and his self-evaluation. The personality type or model orientation determines the particular occupational environment an individual chooses. The question of the level within an occupational environment that the individual chooses is basically a function of that individual's level hierarchy. The level hierarchy comprises the individual's intelligence and his self-evaluation.

Both the model orientation and the level hierarchy are determined by the adequacy of self-knowledge and occupational knowledge. The greater the amount and accuracy of information the individual has about each, the more adequate is his choice.

Holland has consistency tested his theoretical formulations and refined and amplified his theory over the years. He has also developed a classification scheme of occupations base on his "work environments". He has compiled a Vocational Preference Inventory to assess a student's attitude toward work, the Self Directed Search, a guidance programme that has found wide use in the schools, as well as a Guidance Profile that is used to organize information for vocational-educational programmes. These practical tools have proved to be of great value to counsellors in their work with students. As Super (1981) indicates, Holland's theory has not only dominated the career development
research literature of the 1970s in America, but has also been widely accepted by practitioners in guidance and counselling.

If we consider the research that has sought to test the theory as well as its usefulness in guidance and counselling in American schools, Holland's theory is extremely good. The theory seems, however, to suffer from the problems that are inherent in the trait-factor approaches to vocational choice. The environment and personal traits that the trait-factor approach tries to match are quite variable. Over and above this consideration a more serious problem with Holland's theory is, as Super points out, that the theory identifies determinants of choice but not the process or evolution of choices" (1981: 20). The theory explains little of the process of personality development and its role in vocational selection. As Osipow, (1973: 78) indicates, this is a serious deficiency since an understanding of personality development is crucial to understanding career development in this theory. It is one thing to assert that people with Intellectual Orientations are looking for an environment in which they can express their major personality orientation, but it is quite another thing to explain how or why they develop their intellectual orientation in the first place. While Holland's theory does logically and parsimoniously account for a great deal of vocational behaviour, it falls down somewhat in respect of explaining why people develop the various personality types that are postulated by the theory.
4.1.5 Developmental Theories of Career Choice

4.1.5.1 The career development theory of Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Exelrad, and Herma Ginzberg et al, 1951)

Dissatisfaction with matching theories and their emphasis on a single factor or set of factors in career choice, led some theorists to ask how choices evolve during the pre-occupational and occupational years. Ginzberg and his associates disagreed, for instance, with the "accident" and "impulse" theories of occupational choice. As we have seen (structural theory of career choice) the accident theory (accident of birth, that establishes family, race, nationality, social class) holds that individuals are impelled into certain occupations by factors that are beyond their control. These factors that determine the individual's occupational choice arise solely from the fact that the individual finds himself in the circumstances into which she is born; circumstances she can do very little to alter. The impulse theory explains the individual's behaviour and occupational choice in terms of unconscious motives.

Ginzberg and his associates were concerned with the developmental process related to the making of career choice. They believed that the individual chooses a particular occupation not through chance but through developing a pattern of activities that are largely irreversible and take place throughout the formative years of his life. Ginzberg and his associates thus advocated a developmental approach to the question of occupational choice.
In this career development the individual goes through three distinct stages. These stages are briefly reviewed below:

The Fantasy Stage: (0-12)

During this stage occupational preferences are basically determined by the pleasure principle. However, as the child seeks to please parents and teachers the pure pleasure principle turns into a function-pleasure principle. The child begins to emulate adults in their work roles in his play; thus assuming these roles in fantasy.

The Tentative Stage

The tentative stage is divided into four sub-stages. These stages are:

(a) The interest sub-stage in which preadolescents express preferences primarily in relation to their interests.

(b) The capacity stage

At about age 12 - 14 capacity begins to play a more important role in the occupational aspirations of boys and girls. Interest is evaluated in terms of capacity, and more freedom develops not to emulate the same-sexed parent but rather to model oneself after a respected adult.
(c) The value substage

At about 15 to 16, values are said to begin to play an important part in the thinking and choosing of youth.

Altruism becomes more important, and the differing life-styles that accompany occupations are given more thought.

(d) The transition substage

The transition substage brings the tentative stage to a close at age 17 to 18. The young person has more freedom than formerly, senses the nearness of entry into the world of occupational training and work, and seeks appropriate outlets for his interests, capacities and values.

(e) The realistic stage

This stage seems to begin at about age 18 and continues until 22, or in some instances to 24, depending on training and entry patterns. The stage comprises three sub-stages.

(i) The exploration substage involves the seeking and trying of opportunities in education, training and work. The individuals try to acquire the experience they need to effect their occupational choice.
(ii) The crystallization substage occurs as the individual's studies become more specialised and as his work becomes differentiated. The individual begins to commit himself to an occupation.

(iii) The specification substage. This is the stage of actual choice. The individual reviews the various alternatives with regard to a field of specialization and to particular career objectives. This substage is viewed as the final point in career development, although Ginzberg and his associates recognized the fact that some men and women never really achieve genuine crystallization of interests or, if they do, may fail to specify a genuine occupational choice even though they may find and accept jobs.

Three key positions characterized Ginzberg's original postulations. First, occupational choice was regarded as a process that takes place over a minimum period of about ten years. Secondly, because each decision during adolescence relates to one's experience up to that point, and in turn has an influence on the future, the process of decision making is basically irreversible. Thirdly, since occupational choice involves the balancing of a series of subjective elements with the opportunities and limitations of reality, the crystallization of occupational choice inevitably constitutes a compromise situation.
However, the criticism of other workers in this area and personal observation has led Ginzberg to realize that career development continues throughout the life-span, that decisions are often reversible if one is willing and able to pay the price in time, money, and pride, and that for many people in some societies, such as disadvantaged communities, the process of comprise is actually a process of optimization, with job changes occurring throughout the life-span.

4.1.5.2 Super's (Developmental) self-concept theory

In formulating his theory Super seems to have been influenced by two major theoretical postulations about personality and its development (Osipow, 1973). The first major influence on Super's theory is Charlotte Bühler's assertions regarding human development. Buhler had suggested that a person goes through distinct stages of development. She postulated that from birth to old age a person went through four stages; namely, the growth stage (0 - 14 yrs), the exploratory stage (15 - 25), the maintenance stage (25 - 65), and the stage of decline coming up last. The assertions of Ginzberg and his associates (1951) regarding career development as well as those of Havighurst (1953) also had an impact on the work of Super and his collaborators.

The self-concept theory is the second major influence that has determined the nature of Super's formulations. This theory has been propounded in the writings of Carl Rogers (1942, 1951; Carter (1940); and Bordin (1943), all cited in Osipow, 1973).
Super has written extensively on career development. His initial formulations were contained in an address to the American Psychological Association (Super, 1953). The theory was systematically elaborated in a book (Super, 1957), a monograph (1957), and several journal articles, 1963a, 1963b, 1963c).

The theory has undergone refinements over the years. Super's current position on career development; namely, the life-span, life space approach to career development has been enunciated in a recent contribution, (1981)

The Theory

From the antecedents indicated above Super and his associates have sought to develop and test a theory of career development. The basic formulation in their theory lies in the following statement:

"In expressing a vocational preference, a person puts into occupational terminology his idea of the kind of person he is; that in entering an occupation he seeks to implement a concept of himself; that in getting established in an occupation he achieves self actualization. The occupation thus makes possible the playing on a role appropriate to the self concept." (Super: 1963b)

Super's theory postulates that career development is a continuous process and occupational choice a synthesizing of an individual's personal resources and needs on the one hand and the economic and social demands of
the culture on the other. This synthesis involves a
great deal of compromise on the part of the individual.

This synthesizing process is actually a learning
process. This learning takes place in the role-playing
and role-taking which may be vicarious or real. What
the individual learns is a function of the interests,
values, attitudes, and behaviour patterns that are
valued and rewarded by significant others in the
community. The resultant individual career patterns
are determined by parental socio-economic level,
mental ability, and personality characteristics, as
well as the opportunities to which he is exposed.
Super's theory can be summarized in twelf propositions,
ten of which were stated in the original postulation
and two added at a later stage. The twelf propositions

Proposition 1

People differ in their abilities, interests, and
personalities.

Proposition 2

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

Proposition 3

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

Proposition 4

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

Proposition 5

This process may be summed up in a series of life stages described as those of Growth, Exploration, Establishment, Maintenance and Decline. These stages can briefly be elaborated upon in the following way:

(a) The Growth Stage (Birth - 14)

This stage entails self-concept development through identification with key figures at home and at school. Early in this stage needs and fantasies are dominant. Interest and capacity become more important in this stage with increasing participation and reality testing. Three sub-stages are distinguishable in this stage:

(i) The fantasy substage: (4 - 10)

Needs are dominant and role-playing in fantasy is particularly significant.
(ii) The interest substage: (11 - 12)

The individual's aspirations and activities are determined by the individual's interests.

(iii) The capacity substage: (13 - 14)

In this substage abilities are given more weight and job requirements including training, are considered.

(b) The Exploration Stage (15 - 24)

(i) The tentative substage (15 - 17)

Needs, interests, capacities, values, and opportunities are all operational here. Tentative vocational choices are made and tried out in, inter alia, discussion, school subjects, work.

(ii) The transition substage (18 - 21)

Here the individual gives more weight to reality considerations. This occurs as the youth enters he labour market or professional training and attempts to implement a self-concept.

(iii) The trial substage (22 - 24)

The individual finds and tries out a job in a seemingly appropriate occupational field.
(c) **The Establishment Stage**

The individual has found an appropriate field. He now makes an effort to find a permanent place in it. He may engage in some trial early in this stage with consequent shifting, but establishment may begin without trial, especially in the professions. Substages of the establishment stage are:

(i) **The trial substage (25 - 30)**

The field of work presumed suitable may prove unsatisfactory, resulting in one or two changes before the life work is found or before it becomes clear that the life work will be a succession of related jobs.

(ii) **The stabilization substage (31 - 44)**

As the career pattern becomes clear effort is now made to find a secure place in the world of work. For most persons these are the years of great creativity.

(d) **The Maintenance stage (45 - 64)**

Having secured a place in the world of work, the concern now is to hold it. Little new ground is broken, but there is continuity along established lines.
(e) **The Decline Stage**

As physical and mental powers decline, work activity changes and in due course ceases. New roles must be developed; first that of selective participant and or observer rather than participant. The substages of this stage are:

(i) **The deceleration substage (65 - 70)**

In this substage the pace of work slackens, duties are shifted or the nature of work is changed to suit declining capacities. This may occur late in the maintenance stage, at the time of official retirement, or even after. Many persons find part-time jobs to replace their full-time occupations.

(ii) **The retirement substage (71 - on)**

While we may have variations from person to person with regard to the actual age of exiting formal employment, complete cessation of occupation does come for all in due course. To some this comes easily and pleasantly, to others, with difficulty and disappointment and still others only with death. (Super, 1957).
Proposition 6

The nature of the career pattern (that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs), is determined by the individual's parental socio-economic level, mental ability, and personality characteristics, and by the opportunities to which he is exposed.

Proposition 7

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

Proposition 8

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

Proposition 9

The process of compromises between individual and social factors, between self-concept and reality, is one of role playing, whether the role is played in fantasy, in the counselling interview, or in real life activities such as school classes, clubs, part-time work and entry jobs.
Proposition 10

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

Proposition 11

The degree of satisfaction the individual attains from his or her work is proportionate to the degree to which he or she has been able to implement self-concepts.

Proposition 12

Work and occupation provide a focus for personality organization for most men and many women, although for some people this focus is peripheral, incidental or even non-existent, and other foci such as social activities and the home are central.

The Life-stage Life-space Approach to Career Development

In the latest editions to this theory, Super (1981) still maintains that an individual goes through the five life stages in his career development. However, in his latest formulations, Super emphasizes the fact that people play a variety of roles as they mature in their career development. Some of these roles begin early in life, for instance that of a child, while
others emerge at a later stage, for example, that of pensioner.

In some life stages, a person assumes only one role, e.g. that of a child when still a neonate, at others, the person plays a number of roles such as those of spouse, parent, homemaker and worker, roles which supplement, complement, or sometimes conflict with each other. Super identified nine major roles that an individual invariably assumes at some point or other in his life career and the four theatres in which these roles are played. The major roles are that of

(i) child,
(ii) student,
(iii) leisurite,
(iv) citizen,
(v) worker
(vi) spouse
(vii) homemaker,
(viii) parent,
(ix) pensioner.

Other less common roles can be identified, e.g., that of worshipper, criminal, lover, patient. Not everyone plays all these roles.

The principal theatres in which these roles are played are the

(i) the home,
(ii) the community
(iii) the school, and
(iv) the workplace.
Theatres and roles tend to be linked, for each role is typically played in one theatre, but each may be played in one or more other theatres. The role of parent, for example, is played primarily in the home, but may also be played in the school, the church, and the courtroom as the occasion arises.

Super's additions to his theory include assertions regarding career decision points. These decision points occur in each of the roles that the individual plays and take place at key points (stages) in the individual's development. Each decision point is preceded by innumerable decisions and the effectiveness of the decision taken at a decision point is determined by these prior decisions. Examples of decision points are the time of graduation from high school or the point when the individual enters the world of work or when he ties the matrimonial knot. The personal and situational determinants that affect decision-making and career development are highlighted in Super's new formulations.

**Evaluation of Super's Theory**

Super's contribution to career development theory and to the practice of career education, is a very significant one indeed. This study also benefits substantially from Super's formulations regarding career development.

A few salient points extracted from his theory will clearly show the validity of this statement.

(a) Super hypothesized that the self concept was likely to be the function of genetic influences
in the form of glandular structure, physiological factors, abilities, aptitudes, and so forth. He also believed that the genetic factors operated in combination with environmental variables, such as social and economic conditions. Consequently a certain portion of the self-concept is open to outside educative intervention. Such intervention is likely to be most effective in shaping the self-concept during early adolescence, since the concept grows more stable during later adolescence and early adulthood. School guidance teachers, thus, have access to the youngsters during the years of greatest development of the self-concept.

(b) With regard to the developmental component of the theory, the construct relating to "developmental stages" is of critical importance.

Super's idea of "developmental stages", underlines the developmental nature of career choice. Both the "self-concept" and the "developmental stages" postulations seem especially compatible with the creation of a school guidance curriculum. And this is what school guidance should seek to do.

(c) Super's theory emphasized self-awareness and occupational exploration continuously, and these seem to be the cardinal elements in career education. The task of the career education component of school guidance would seem to include, inter alia, the provision to students of information about themselves and
the educational-vocational world continuously so that it may become an integral part of them. This would ensure that at the time that decisions have to be made such as a choice of a high school curricular programme, the student has personal resources with which to make an intelligent choice.

(d) Another concept that logically flows from the developmental component of Super's theory is that of vocational maturity. The concept has been used to denote the extent to which the individual meets the developmental tasks of a particular vocational life stage. People have even toyed with the idea that since an individual's "vocational age" may not correspond with his chronological age, that a vocational maturity quotient could be computed, (Severinson, 1973). This idea has of course, not come to fruition. This may happen in the future when more clarity is obtained about the concept vocational maturity. What is important is the fundamental educational idea that an individual may be assisted to move from a lower career developmental status to a higher one and that the career developmental level attained can be assessed through the use of a variety of instruments. This can be regarded as an educational break through in the field of career education.

(e) Another construct in Super's theory which is of particular significance to school guidance is that of exploratory behaviour.
Super and his associates, especially Jordaan, have given some exposition of this construct. Jordaan explains vocational exploration as the process of clarifying the self-concept and translating it into occupational terms, of acquiring the understanding of occupations necessary for the translation, and of trying out the the vocational self-concept in vocationally relevant activities, (in Super et al. 1963).

4.2 RESEARCH ON THE EFFICACY OF PROGRAMMATIC INTERVENTION IN PROMOTING CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Some of the theories of career development reviewed above, particularly the developmental theories, make the claim that career development and the resultant career maturity are amendable processes. But is there empirical evidence to support this claim?

In a review of literature on career development Schenk et al. (1979) concluded that career education programmes enhanced the career maturity of youth. These authors stated that "in virtually every case where significant positive results are not achieved, positive trends in the predicted direction are noted. It seems that the question is not whether we can, in fact, increase vocational maturity in individuals, but rather, what is the most effective way to go about doing so", (p. 285). Harmon, in Clawson (1980) maintains that the career development process is amenable to intervention by the counsellor and other concerned persons. That is, if a class of individuals
is less mature vocationally than the norm for their age group, one can apply treatment to help them mature.

Several studies have indeed come up with evidence pointing to the efficacy of programmatic intervention in promoting the career development of youth. A few of these studies are mentioned below:

Bovee (1967), after conducting individual counselling with a group of students, found that they showed positive gains in their career maturity levels.

Asbury (1967), also using individual counselling, was successful in promoting the vocational maturity of disadvantaged grade eight students.

Gilliland (1966) presented thirty-six (36) hour-long group counselling sessions to a sample of Black American youth in Grades 10, 11 and 12. The students achieved higher scores on the Attitude Scale of the Career Maturity Inventory (CMI).

Goodson (1969) used three different treatments on a group of college freshmen. He provided only career information to one group. Another group received career information as well as results from a test they had done. The third group was broken down into smaller units for self-exploration activities. Goodman found that all groups showed significant gains in vocational maturity.

Vriend (1969) presented a career development programme to high school seniors in Detroit over a period of two
years. The programme was successful in changing the career maturity of the programme participants.

Pappas (1972) presented a programme of counselling modules to college freshmen. The programme also lasted two years. The group showed significant gains in vocational maturity especially in career choices and information seeking behaviour.

Jackson (1972), in a short-term counselling experiment with college freshmen, failed to detect significant gains in career maturity.

Harris (1972) using a computer based self-exploration career information programme, increased the career development of 184 10th graders.

The computer based Educational and Career Exploration System (ECES) was used by Myers (1975) who successfully enhanced the career maturity of 10th grade students.

Using a broad-based career development programme, Christen (1973) found that female members of his sample gained in vocational maturity while the males did not.

Hamdani (1974), presented a year long career education course to a group of 112 disadvantaged youth in New York City. The youngsters were in their 10th grade. Hamdani found that these students made significant gains on all 3 scales of the Career Development Inventory (Form I).

Hammer (1974) presented a career education course plus group counselling to one group of disadvantaged youth. To another group of disadvantaged youngsters he only
presented the career education course. Both groups of disadvantaged youth made significant gains on the C Scale of the Career Development Inventory. The two groups also made gains on the Career Maturity Inventory. However, the group that received group counselling in addition to the Career Educational Course did not gain any more than the one that received only the career education course.

A career education course was used by Graff and Beggs (1974) to promote positive vocational attitudes in a group of Grade 11 students. The students did gain in vocational maturity as measured by the Attitude Scale of the Career Maturity Inventory.

Healy (1974) succeeded in increasing the career development of a group of college freshmen through the use of a group career counselling programme.

The influence of a short-term individual counselling programme on the career development of Grade 10 students was determined by Fluke, Roach and Stenning (1975). The researchers reported improvement in career maturity attitudes and in self-appraisal in programme participants.

Carey and Weber (1979) used an experience-based career education programme to enhance the career maturity of a group of students. The authors did not find any significant gains in programme participants. Haig (1981), used the Korah Collegiate Group Career Counselling Programme to enhance the vocational maturity of a group of grade 12 students from a vocational
school. Haig found that the programme did enhance the vocational maturity of the treatment group.

Rathburn (1981) studied the effects of a career development workshop on the career maturity of undecided female college students. She found that the workshop was successful in promoting the development of the career choice attitudes of the students who took part in the workshop.

In South Africa, Spence (1982) presented a guidance programme to a group of prospective guidance teachers. The teachers who participated in the programme made significant gains in their knowledge of the various aspects of the guidance function.

Finlay (1981) used a guidance programme in his attempt to enhance the study habits, study attitudes, and the academic achievement of a group of male secondary school pupils. The boys did not make any gains on any of the three variables.

Laubscher (1977) employed a career education programme to promote the vocational maturity of a group of high school pupils. The programme was successful in enhancing the career maturity of the programme participants. A large number of studies therefore provides evidence which point to the efficacy of programmatic intervention in promoting the career development of youth while a few seem to indicate that such intervention is a fruitless exercise.
4.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter different theories of career development were examined. The Opportunity-Structure theories emphasize the unimportance of career guidance interventions of any kind, except as a means of promoting the adjustment of youth to their stations in life.

The differentialist theories seek to describe differences in individuals and to demonstrate how they relate to occupational choices and occupational performance. They therefore suggest guidance theories based on matching the individual's attributes to "appropriate" occupations. Such theories have served as the dominant traditional basis for guidance practice.

The personality theories serve as a bridge between the matching theories and the developmental theories.

The developmentalist conception of career choice has provided new insights to career guidance practice. Developmental theories suggest new kinds of intervention in the career development of youth. By directing attention to the stages through which an individual's ideas or concepts about himself and about the world around him develop, they point to interventions designed to facilitate and perhaps accelerate this developmental process.

The developmental notions have led to the concept of careers education as a systematic attempt, over a period of time, to help individuals develop the knowledge, skills, concepts and attitudes they need in order to
make wise career choices. The developmentalist conception of career choice serves as the basis for this study.

A number of studies have been carried out to determine the effectiveness of career education programmes in promoting the career development of young people. These educational programmes are informed by the developmental theories of career choice.

In most of the studies cited above, subjects exposed to career development experience (be it a career guidance or career counselling experience) demonstrated increases in their career development status over that which would be expected in the course of untreated natural development. Rathburn (1982) correctly states that

"the value of facilitating and accelerating the processes underlying career maturation by appropriate intervention is well-established empirically" (p, 8).
CHAPTER 5

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter addresses the various methodological issues relevant to this study. All the research techniques employed in this study to promote the career development of the target group are discussed.

5.2 PROGRAMMATIC INTERVENTION

The aim of this study has been stated as the promotion of career development in a group of senior secondary school pupils. As a means of attaining this goal, a guidance programme would be presented to the target group. This programme will be examined in some detail in this chapter.

A guidance programme consists of the formalized actions the school takes to make guidance operational and available to students. The word programme is therefore synonymous with the educational concepts of curriculum and syllabus. The curriculum is regarded by Herrick and Tyler as "all the learning which is planned and guided, whether it is carried out in groups or individually, (1950 : 24).

Duminy (1980) also takes a comprehensive view of this concept when he asserts that the curriculum comprises all the content taught the child at school. Viewed from this perspective, a subject curriculum refers to
that content that is taught in a specific subject. A further distinction is sometimes made between a subject curriculum and a syllabus. The latter refers to the subject content for a certain standard or level. In this study the concept programme assumes the meaning of both the "subject curriculum" and "the syllabus". However, a guidance programme in sophisticated education systems can be far more elaborate than the ordinary school syllabus. A guidance programme in such education systems will provide a full range of educational, psychological, social and medical services to all pupils, and in some cases, to their families as well.

The fundamental values that circumscribe this programme is that each individual pupil is a person of worth and dignity who is primarily responsible for his self-actualization. The assumptions that determine the actual nature of the programme include the following:

(i) The programme is student centred, based on what the writer regards to be basic student needs and desired outcomes.

(ii) The programme places emphasis on enabling students to participate in their own education.

(iii) The programmatic intervention is development oriented rather than problem oriented.

5.2.1 The Content of the Guidance Programme for Senior Secondary School Pupils (The Independent Variable)

The contents of the programme have, for the sake of convinience, been divided into various units in terms of the conventional "types" of guidance much in the
same way that a school subject is divided into sections, sub-sections, chapters and so on. The "splintering" of the guidance function should not be construed as a negation of its unity and its uniqueness. The various "types" of guidance are in reality parts of one whole. The information component of the guidance programme employed in this study comprises the units given below. The reason(s) for the inclusion of a unit in the programme are also indicated.

**UNIT 1: Personal Guidance**

This unit of the guidance programme seeks to help the pupil to explore himself and gain some understanding of himself and his situation. It is very important for a pupil to have some knowledge of himself. A reasonable degree of self-knowledge enables the pupil to actualize himself more effectively in the social, educational and career spheres. Consequently all the units of this programme, but especially this very one on self-knowledge, seek to enable the pupil to explore and develop a realistic and meaningful self-image and self-concept. Without such a self-concept the pupil will not be able to actualise himself effectively.

Aspects of self-knowledge that are treated under "personal guidance" are the following:

- personality and character
- the mature personality
- abilities, aptitudes, interests
- values
- aims and goals
various ways of obtaining information about self
- Decision-making.

UNIT 2: Social Guidance

This unit aims at promoting social awareness in the individual pupil. One of the fundamental characteristics of personhood is being "Dahrsein", which implies being "Mitsein".

Consequently a person is a social being. Without the company and accompaniment of fellow human beings a person cannot actualize himself optimally. In fact if a person can be totally deprived of human company at a very tender age, say before he is five years old, he will not develop into a normal human being. The wolf-children of China illustrated this point very well. The individual must therefore develop an awareness of his social infra-structure and how he can utilize it to promote his own self-actualization as well as that of other people with whom he comes into contact.

The elements of social awareness that are treated in this programme are:

- social relationships
- communication
- leadership
- leisure-time activities
- the use and abuse of stimulants (alcohol, tobacco and drugs)
- pre-marital guidance.
UNIT 3: Educational Guidance

This unit seeks to arouse in the pupil an appreciation of the value of education. The early and continuous development of positive pupil attitudes towards education is critical. The failure to maintain the pupil's continuing interest in his optimum "educational development" is nothing short of disastrous.

For objective evidence, one need only turn to the various dropout studies (cf chapter 2 of this dissertation) and to the equally countless studies concerning the lack of pupil motivation and achievement commensurate with ability. This aspect of the programme also seeks to make the pupil a better learner and worker.

The human being needs education to actualise himself fully. Without educational intervention the individual cannot realise his potentialities. The offspring of an animal needs very little care from its parents or from the adult of the species. Within a very short period of time the young of the animal is instinctively able to do nearly all the things that the adult of the species do. Except for suckling, the young of the animal becomes independent of the adult of the species and leads an autonomous life within a very short space of time.

On the other hand, the human child needs the support and guidance of his parents and other adults before he can become independent of these and begin to lead an autonomous life. Even then his dependence on others
continues until his death. The human child needs support and guidance with regard to his physical, psychical, socio-cultural and spiritual development. Without such support and guidance he can't realize his potentialities. To give one example, the child is not born with any knowledge of right or wrong. The relevant norms will have to be transmitted to him by the adult world.

At first the norms are "imposed" on him and he obeys them because they are the ordained ways of doing things in his society. He is "dependent" on external agents, his parents and others, for the interpretation and observance of these norms. But gradually he internalises them until they form part of his social conscience. At this juncture he becomes "independent" of the "external agents" regarding the interpretation and observance of the norms. He can interpret the norms in the way he wants and he can choose to obey or to disobey them provided that as an "independent adult" he is prepared to take the consequences of his choices and decisions. What we have said about "social norms" can be said about any aspect of the individual's life from one's feeding habits, the choice of one's associates and friends right up to the selection of one's religious beliefs. In short, a person needs education to actualise himself. This education takes place in the child's home, in the larger society outside the home, in the pre-school classes, at the primary and the secondary school as well as in the various institutions of tertiary education. Some of the educational issues that are treated in this programme are:
- the value of education
- the school
- school rules and regulations, order and discipline
- how to study
- general conditions conducive to effective study
- an effective study method
- Tests and examinations
- the library and its usage
- levels of education:
  - primary
  - post primary and
  - tertiary level
- financial assistance for pupils and students
- part-time study.

UNIT 4: Career Education

A person's career is more than a means of earning a livelihood. It is a way of life. It is one of the most potent mediums by which a person realises his potentialities. The individual's career enables him to actualise himself in terms of his physical, psychical, socio-cultural and spiritual characteristics. His self-knowledge, his social prowess and his education are important for the person's self-actualization in his career. However this does not mean that meaningful self-actualization only takes place in the work situation or in a career. Hence the fallacy that the individual's early years and his life at school merely constitute a "preparation for his future life in his work". The individual is not supposed to lead a full and rich
life in his earlier years as he must restrict himself to "preparing" for later life. However, the fact of the matter is that the individual's early years are as important as his later working years. A great deal of self-actualization occurs in these years. Such self-actualization continues in the individual's career after he has taken up a job.

In other words an individual's career does not commence with his taking up a specific job; it starts far earlier in his life. The type of family he is born into, the type of social milieu in which he finds himself, the type of education he has - all these things constitute part of an individual's career. This attitude towards a person's career is based on the realization that "one's way of work is one's way of life", (Gibson and Mitchell, 1981 : 238). It is for this reason that Herr (1979) maintains that "Career guidance should be conceptualized as a process concerned with facilitating the career development of persons throughout their life span and as an attempt to have them view their choices of work, education, and family as interrelated" (1979 : 160). After getting into a job the individual continues to gain more insight into himself as a person thus acquiring more self-knowledge. He also continues to actualize himself socio-culturally and also continues to learn, thus actualizing himself educationally. It is for this reason that Gibson and Mitchell maintain that "any programme of pupil career guidance must have as a major objective the stimulation of the student's educational development" (1981 : 237).
For a person to choose a career that will promote his further self-actualization, a person must be guided in this regard by means of career education. The words "career education" carry a great deal of significance in this context. As was indicated in an earlier chapter of this work (chapter 1), the concept "career guidance" or "career education" is broader than the old concept of "vocational guidance" which was defined by the NVGA as "the process of assisting an individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon it, and progress in it". (Herr, 1979: 119)

This concept of career education constitutes a fundamental shift from the old idea of vocational guidance. It refers to a systematic effort to promote "career awareness" in the individual from as early in his life as possible.

One major aspect for all honest work. The second aspects consists in assisting the pupil to develop an adequate understanding of themselves and the ability to relate this understanding to both social-personal development and career-educational planning. Through pupil appraisal and career education realistically in terms of continuing educational opportunities, career requirements, and the demands and relationships of society - this isfull "career awareness". The third aspect of "career awareness" is the ability on the part of the pupil to select an occupation on as rational a basis as possible and turn it into a career. The programmatic intervention being undertaken in this study is an example of such educative efforts. The aspects of career awareness that are covered in this programme are:
- the meaning and value of career education
- the world of work
- the various sectors of the economy
- sources of occupational information
- classification of occupations in terms of interest
- classification of occupations in terms of ability/aptitude
- how to choose a career
- Requisite **knowledge** for an effective choice:

(a) **Self-knowledge**

- personality traits
- values
- intellectual ability
- aptitude
- interest
- physical abilities
- environment and opportunities

(b) **Knowledge of jobs**

- nature of jobs
- working conditions
- training and entrance requirements
- qualities necessary for success
- importance of work and the role it plays in society
- related occupations
- remuneration and other rewards
- opportunities for advancement
- the choice process
- job search skills
- locating job vacancies
applying for a job
- the employment interview
- success at work.

The guidance programme briefly reviewed above was offered to a target group of standard nine pupils with the aim of promoting their career development.

The guidance programme is set out in great detail in the form of Guidance Notes that were handed out to each pupil in the experimental group (Appendix A) as well as in the prepared Guidance Lessons which were used in the presentation of the programme (Appendix B). The procedures of the programmatic intervention are discussed below.

5.3 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Programs attempt to set in motion a sequence of events expected to achieve desired goals. In this study the programme that was presented to the target group was aimed at promoting the career development of the target group. The experimental design used in this study is geared to the achievement of this goal. As Weiss indicates, "Experimental design is an elegant way to find out how well a particular program achieves its goal" (1972 : 66). Campbell and Stanley (1963 : 13 - 16) identify three designs which can be called "true experimental designs". These are the PRE-TEST-POST-TEST CONTROL GROUP DESIGN, THE POST-TEST ONLY CONTROL GROUP DESIGN, AND THE SOLOMON FOUR-GROUP DESIGN. This study used a combination of the pre-test-post-test control group design and the Post-test only control group design.
The nature of this study has proceeded a random selection

5.4 PUPIL GROUPS INVOLVED IN THE INTERVENTION

The programme has not, the difference between them is attributable to the groups. Afterwards, when one group has been exposed and does not involve the pairing up of the members of the groups. The experimental and the control groups are made between the experimental and the control group on average measures. In this study the matching is used as a tool for matching procedures. As similarity is used to the experimental group as possible. As the major issue here is how to make the control group as equivalent to the non-equivalent control group is a design that is probably the non-equivalent control group is a design that is probably

The matching is used as experimental and control groups in classrooms, hospital wards, etc. with similar characteristics. Existing groups such as use of "comparison group". The non-equivalent group design entails the use of non-equivalent group design (Meisel 1972 : 69). In this study the matching procedure is used. The

Procedure

of two groups, usually by random assignment or matching. The approach used in this study is the constitution of group using the between-groups method, which is

between-groups types of analyses, (Critics 1977 : 28). By two different approaches: the between-groups and

The effect of programmatic intervention can be analyzed...
to participate in the study. The way the study was conceived also precluded random assignment of subjects to both the experimental and control groups.

The study was conceived not as "just another experiment" but as a serious educational effort which together with the other educative inputs at the experimental school was meant to promote the optimum self-realization of the pupils. This educative effort was meant to zero-in smoothly with all the other aspects of the teaching-education functions of the school. A school guidance programme can be effective only when it is part and parcel of the total educative function of the school and not an artificial appendage thereof. Ideally the guidance programme should be infused in the normal school curriculum. But even where it is offered as an independent educational input it should still form an integral part of the school's curricular activities.

As far as this study is concerned a deliberate decision was taken to cut down on the artificiality of experimentation and leave the education situation as natural as possible. Although the pupils were told that they were participating in a research project, an attempt was made to treat them more as pupils than as subjects of an experiment. To this effect the class selected to take part in the experiment was kept intact. It was felt that a group of pupils selected from different schools would not have formed a natural class. The programme presenters regarded themselves as staff members of the school. The school principal presented them as such to the school at the first assembly
that they attended. The programme presenters attended as many of the school's extra-mural activities as possible.

5.4.1 Selection of the Schools for the Study

As was indicated above a between-group design was used in this study.

It was therefore decided that the experimental group would be selected from one school and the control group from another school.

Firstly, it was decided that the two participating schools would be drawn from the same educational inspector-oral circuit. The Mankweng Circuit was chosen in this regard. The major consideration for the selection of this circuit was distance. The senior secondary schools in this circuit are situated within reasonable distance of the homes of the programme presenters.

The next step was to select two suitable schools from the many senior secondary in the circuit. The researcher had visited nearly all the schools in the circuit to go and help evaluate teacher-training students doing their practice teaching. The researcher then discussed the project with both the circuit inspector and his assistants. He also sought their advice regarding the two schools in the circuit that would be suitable for the project. The following schools were ultimately chosen for the project, namely Mothimako Senior Secondary School and Bjatladi Senior Secondary School.
5.4.1.1 Mothimako Senior Secondary School

Mothimako Senior Secondary School is situated halfway between the Mothiba and Makotopong villages in the Thabamoopo district of the Lebowa National State. The school was put up by the two communities of Mothiba and Makotopong.

The name of the school is actually an acronym of the names of the two villages. The first part of the name "Mothi" comes from the name Mothiba, and "Mako" from the name Makotopong.

The school was established in 1975. When the field work for this study was carried out the school was already a large institution with an enrolment of over 600 pupils. In terms of the system of classifying schools by their size used by the Department of Education and Training, the school was already an S1 schools. S1 schools are secondary schools with a roll of 600 and above, S2 schools, a roll of 300 and above, while S3 schools are those secondary schools with a roll below 300. The school was a day school with no boarding facilities. Only pupils who lived in nearby areas could thus enrol at the school.

The school gave classes up to standard ten. Instruction was given in a diversity of school subjects in the following academic streams: the general, the science and the commerce streams.
5.4.1.2 Bjatladi Senior Secondary School

The Bjatladi Senior Secondary School is situated in the Segopje village. This village is the seat of Kgoši Mamabolo who rules the Northern part of the Mamabolo area. The name Bjatladi is the real name of Ga-Mamabolo. Both the Southern and Northern parts of the Mamabolo area are known as Ga-Bjatladi.

The Bjatladi Senior Secondary School was established in 1975. At the time of this investigation it had already developed to an S1 school with a roll that was appreciably higher than that of Mothimako Senior Secondary School. It was a day school with no boarding facilities. The area of residence of the pupils was thus limited to the villages in the environs of the school.

The school offered tuition up to a standard ten. Pupils could structure their school curricula by selecting subjects from the general, science, or commerce academic streams which were on offer at the time.

The two schools were selected for this research project because of the similarity in their structure, composition and functioning.

5.4.2 Selection of the Pupil Groups for the Study

5.4.2.1 The experimental group

The experimental group comprised the standard nine classes of Mothimako Senior Secondary School. Since the study sought to address the guidance needs of
senior secondary school pupils, either the standard nine or standard ten classes or both could be involved. The standard ten classes were not used in this project. The reason for this is that at the end of the year pupils in standard ten sit for the national matriculation examination. Pupils at this level as well as their teachers are generally pre-occupied with the preparations for these examinations. The preparations become particularly intensive in the second half of the year; the very time when the guidance programme was scheduled to be presented to the experimental group.

The experimental group consisted of fifty-nine (59) pupils of whom thirty-six (36) were females and twenty-three (23) were males.

5.4.2.2 The control group

The control group was drawn from the standard nine classes of Bjaladi Senior Secondary School. The control group was made up of seventy-seven (77) pupils. Forty-eight (48) of these were females while twenty-nine (29) were males.

5.4.3 Matching of the Experimental and Control Groups

The experimental and control groups were matched for a number of variables which have been found to have some relationship with career development. These variables are briefly reviewed below. Both the pre-test and the post-test were conducted on all the standard nine pupils at the two schools. The guidance programme was also presented to all the standard nines at the experimental school. The matching of the two groups
which yielded the treatment and the control groups was done after the post-test had been conducted. Only the protocols of those pupils who were found suitable in terms of the matching variables were used.

5.4.2.1 Intellectual ability and aptitudes

Intellectual ability and aptitudes have been found to be somewhat related to career development. (Super, 1957; Super et al, 1957; Super and Crites, 1962; Crites, 1969, 1971; Jordan and Hyde, 1979). Intelligence seems to be particularly related to aspects of occupational knowledge such as occupational information, preparation and training requirements (Jordaan & Hyde, 1979; Griibbons and Lohmes, 1968; Westbrook and Mastie, 1974). The relationship between mental ability and career development is, however, not very strong. Consequently, Jordaan and Hyde indicate that "ability does not appear to be an important determinant of vocational maturity", (1979 : 156). Since some relationship between intellectual ability and career development has been demonstrated, it was decided to control for this factor in this study.

The Aptitude Test for Junior Secondary Bantu pupils (HSRC, 1972) was used to obtain a measure of the pupils' mental ability.

This test has been developed and standardized for African students in the junior secondary school classes. This test is annually administered countrywide to African standard eight pupils by the officers of the Psychological Services sections of the Department of
Education and Training and of the Education Departments of the various South African "national states".

The test battery consists of 5 subtests which seek to measure the following abilities:

Verbal and non-verbal reasoning, language proficiency, mechanical and mathematical ability. In brief, the test provides an indication of a pupil's

(a) general intellectual ability
(b) verbal ability and level; achieved in the official languages;
(c) mathematical ability and level; and
(d) special and mechanical abilities.

The scores of the pupils in this study were provided by the schools in stanine format. The average scores of the experimental and control groups on the Aptitude Test for Secondary Bantu Pupils are presented in table 5.1. below. They clearly show that regarding their mental ability the two groups of pupils constitute a homogenous group.

**TABLE 5.1: THE MEAN APTITUDE SCORES OF THE TREATMENT AND THE CONTROL GROUPS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>MEAN SCORES</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TREATMENT</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.4.3.4 Sex

Research has found that there is some mild relationship between a person's sex and his career development status. (Achebe, 1975; Marini and Greenberger, 1978 - all cited in Cloete, 1980). This is so inspite of the fact that considerable efforts have been made to eradicate sex role stereotypes in industrialised societies. Sex role stereotypes and prejudices are bound to be prevalent in societies that are undergoing industrialization as well as those that are typically rural. With regard to our study, this is complicated by the tradition in the African culture where the man was the principal breadwinner and the woman looked after the household. Even with modernization where the woman is more and more coming into reckoning as a breadwinner in her own right, sex stereotypes which tend to restrict the woman's vocational world still exist. Such stereotypes tend to confine the woman's vocational preferences to those "traditional female occupations" such as nursing, secretarial work which relate to her traditional work role as a home-tender. On the other hand, the "typical male occupations" would include such occupational fields as engineering, business administration and salesmanship, farming and so on, which accorded with the traditional stereotype of the male as the person who went to earn the bread for the household (Achebe, 1975; Marini and Greenberger, 1978; in Cloete, 1980).

An attempt has been made to exclude sex role stereotypes and biases from the programme that were presented to the experimental group in this study.
The instrument that is to be used to evaluate the career development status of the two groups is also free of any sex bias. However, it was decided to make the experimental and the control groups as homogeneous as possible in respect of this factor. The ratio of males and females in the treatment and control groups were made as equal as possible as can be seen in table 5.2. below.

**TABLE 5.2 : DISTRIBUTION OF GROUPS BY SEX**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TREATMENT</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>61.02</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>62.34</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>37.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4.3.5 Age

Theories of career development and vocational maturity presupposes an increase in the individual's ability to tackle relevant career development tasks at appropriate stages. More specifically, increasing age should be matched by an increase in scores on vocational maturity measures in the directions hypothesized by career development theories. Various studies have indeed shown that the students' scores increase from the lower grade levels to the higher grade levels but the increment is modest rather than large, (Gribbons and Lohnes, 1968; Crites, 1971; Westbrook, 1974; Forrest 1971). In this study an attempt was made to make
match the experimental and control groups on the basis of age. The data on the average ages of the experimental and control groups are given in the table 5.3 below.

**TABLE 5.3 : THE MEAN AGE IN MONTHS OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>MEAN AGE</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUES</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TREATMENT</td>
<td>205.36</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL</td>
<td>206.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4.3.6 **Educational level**

Educational level is one determinant of career development that is closely related to the age factor. Various studies have shown that pupils scores on measures of vocational maturity increase with a change in their grade levels, (Jordan and Hyde, 1979; Gribbons and Lohnes, 1968; Crites, 1971; Westbrook, 1974).

Educational level is actually a potent effective determinant of vocational maturity than age. This is so because instead of making decisions at certain ages, pupils make choices at times imposed by the structure of the educational system, (Kelso, 1977). Considerable support for this position has been provided by Hollander, 1967; Kelso, 1975, 1977 and Osipow, 1979. Educational level was thus controlled for in this study. In this
study the index of the pupil's academic level was taken as the standard eight examinations which, at the time of this study, were still run externally by the Department of Education and Training. So only those pupils who had passed the standard eight examinations and were thus in standard nine were included in both the experimental and control groups.

5.4.4 The Career Development Status of the Pupils Involved in this Study

Very few studies have been carried out on the career development or vocational maturity of the African youth of South Africa.

In a pioneering study of the occupational orientation and occupational knowledge of urban and rural African youth in South Africa, Cloete (1980) found that African youth display an unrealistically high occupational aspirations and expectations and that their occupational preferences are incongruous with the job market as it existed then. Cloete (1980) also found a very low level of occupational knowledge among African youth. Several other studies have come up with the same results (Beyer, 1976; Erwee, 1981; Hall, 1978, 1980; Mojalefa, 1980; Visser, 1978. Rooth (1984) found that Tsonga adolescents had problems of self-acknowledge accretion which manifested itself in, inter alia, a lack of knowledge of their own scholastic achievement, unrealistic scholastic expectations, unrealistic career choices, ill-defined and unrealistic career interests, and a serious lack of occupational knowledge. Rooth's findings with Tsonga adolescents confirm those of Cloete, 1980; Durojaiye, 1970; Smith, 1980 with other African
samples. Rooth suggested that "an intensive guidance programme based on self-knowledge enhancement be implemented" (1984: 166), Gama (1984) found that there was a dire need for guidance among the youth of the Johannesburg Metropolitan area.

There seems, therefore, to be a general consensus by several workers in this area that the career development or vocational maturity of African youth, both rural and urban, is very low and that appropriate programmatic intervention is urgently needed to stimulate and direct such development.

The researcher found that guidance as a conscious educational programme, running parallel to the other subjects in the school or infused in these, was not offered at both schools that were used in this study. Officers from the Psychological Services Section of the Lebowa Education Department visited the schools once a year to administer an aptitude test to pupils in standards eight and ten.

5.5 Operationalization of Variables

The dependent variables have been operationalized in terms of the Assessment of Career Development Test as the measuring instrument.

5.5.1 Selection of the Instrument

A number of career development tests and inventories have been compiled and are now available in the market. Westbrook (1974) made a content analysis of the six best known tests of Career Development and Vocational Maturity, some of which are:
Career Development Inventory (CDI)  
(Super and Forrest)

The Readiness for Vocational Planning (RVPS)  
(Gribbons and Lohnes)

The Career Maturity Inventory (CMI)  
(Crites)

Assessment of Career Development  
(American College Testing Program, 1974)

Westbrook found that of all the six tests, the Assessment of Career Development made a more comprehensive coverage of the relevant aspects of career development.

Westbrook's content analysis of the six tests, therefore, revealed that the Assessment of Career Development was superior to the other tests with regard to content validity. Since predictive validity has not been demonstrated for any of these tests, content validity consequently became the main criterion for selection.

Another factor that strongly recommended the ACD is the nature of the test. The five other tests evaluated by Westbrook seek to measure "Vocational Maturity". Now vocational maturity is a psychological quality involving mental traits or dimensions of personality. One other problem with the concept of vocational maturity is that it is a culture bound concept (Prediger et al, 1974; Locasio, 1967). The ACD seeks to assess the career development status of an individual. Career
development is seen as an educational process that is greatly promoted and determined by educative efforts. The ACD is very much like an achievement test with achievement defined in terms of amount of knowledge acquired. The educational efforts the effects of which the ACD tries to measure are similar to the programmatic intervention presented to the experimental group in this study. The ACD was therefore found to be very suitable to assess the effects of the guidance programme on the recipient group.

The occupational knowledge component of the ACD, which is the main part of the test, was found by Cloete (1980) to be very suitable for use with African pupils. Cloete has the following to say about this component of the test:

"(It) offers an excellent tool for the evaluation of guidance programmes, particularly those aimed at increasing knowledge of a wide range of occupations. Further evidence for the validity of the test is that it reflected the expected increase in knowledge over the high school years and that the correlation with mental ability was very moderate, implying that proficiency and not aptitude is measured." (p. 232)

Considering all the reasons given above, the ACD was found to be the most suitable instrument to use in this study.
5.5.2 Description of the Assessment of Career Development Test (ACD)

The Assessment of Career Development (ACD) is a broadband test that measures various aspects of career development. The test was designed for use with 8th through 11th grade students (standard 7 though standard 10 in South African terms).

The major purpose of the test as expressed by the compilers is to help school counsellors and other educators with the following functions:

(a) Collecting information needed in developing effective guidance programmes tailored to students' needs.

(b) Assessing the outcomes of career guidance programmes initiated in special projects and studies. (The American College Testing Programme, 1974).

The ACD focusses on certain aspects career development the assessment of which can be economically and objectively effected through the use of standardized group assessment procedures.

5.5.2.1 ACD content outline

The ACD consists of 267 items grouped in terms of the following components of career development:

(a) Occupational Awareness, including occupational knowledge and exploratory occupational experiences.
(b) Self Awareness, including job values and preferences, career plans, self-evaluation of career planning, and perceived needs for help with career planning.

(c) Career Planning and Decision Making, including career planning knowledge and involvement in career planning experiences.

(d) In addition, there are seven items which enable the students to react to the career guidances experiences which they have received from their school.

5.5.2.1.1 Detailed breakdown of ACD contents

The following is a more detailed breakdown of the contents of the ACD:

5.5.2.1.1.1 Occupational awareness (162 items)

The occupational awareness sub-test is divided into two major sections, namely, the occupational knowledge and the exploratory occupational experiences sections.

(a) Occupational knowledge

The occupational knowledge section of the Occupational Awareness subtest consists of 72 items. The test items cover more than 200 occupations selected from each of six comprehensive occupational clusters. These items are further divided into two groups, namely, those that cover occupational characteristics and those that express occupational preparation requirements.
(i) occupational characteristics (54 items) which reflect the following aspects of occupations:
- duties (25 items)
- psychological aspects such as working conditions, job values, work schedules or job descriptions (23 items)
- worker attributes associated with specific occupations, i.e., abilities, interests, skills, etc (15 items).

(ii) Occupational preparation requirements (18 items)

Preparation requirements refer to the amount and type of training required for a variety of occupations (e.g. apprenticeships, university education, vocational-technical training, on-the-job-training).

(b) Exploratory occupational experiences, (90 items): Involvement in experiences that are related to activities in specific occupations.

5.5.2.1.1.2 Self awareness (20 items)

This sub-test seeks to assess the individual's self-perception in relation to certain occupations. Included in this sub-test are:

(a) Preferred job characteristics (7 items). Under this heading we have items that cover the following:
(i) job values (3 items)
(ii) preferred working conditions (4 conditions)

(b) Career plans (4 items)

Here the individual expresses their plans in respect of the following:

(i) educational plans (1 item)
(ii) occupational preferences (2 items)
(iii) certainty of occupational preferences (1 item).

(c) Perceived needs for help (9 items)

Here the items enable the individual to indicate the type of assistance he needs in planning his career.

5.5.2.1.1.3 Career planning and decision making (78 items)

The sub-test is divided into the following sections:

(a) Career planning knowledge (40 items)

This section is further sub-divided into smaller sections in the following manner:

(i) Knowledge of basic career development principles (9 items).

Covered under his sub-section are:
continuous nature of career development and decision making (3 items)
- impact of work on one's life (3 items)
- multipotentiality of people for occupations (3 items).

(ii) Knowledge of reality factors (10 items).

This section covers the following aspects of career development:

- post-high school education and training (5 items)
- labour market functioning and trends (5 items).

(iii) Knowledge of the career planning process (21 items)

The following aspects are covered by this sub-section:

- When to start planning; the importance of early planning (3 items)
- how to proceed (18 items). These items cover the following aspects:

  - sources of help and information
  - career exploration: importance of self/career exploration
  - career decision making: role of goals, values, options, etc.
(b) Career planning involvement

This section covers student involvement in exploratory and planning experiences available in the school and community both on a formal and informal basis. The following aspects of career development are covered by this section:

(i) Seekign information (11 items)

The included here are the following activities:

- reading, viewing and consulting references (4 items)
- talking and discussing (7 items)

(ii) Doing and experiencing (11 items)

The following activities are covered:

- observing workers and work setting (2 items)
- engaging in self/career exploratory activities such as hobbies and clubs, school courses, part-time work experiences (6 items)
- practising employment seeking skills such as role-playing a job interview (3 items).

(c) Focusing information and experience resources on specific occupational preferences (7 items)
(i) **Making career plans (9 items)**

The items here cover the following aspects of career development:

- planning activities such as working out a plan to finance post-high school education (3 items)
- self-evaluation of career planning:
  knowledge of steps involved in carrying out career plans, consideration given to psychological factors (6 items).

5.5.2.1.4 **Reactions to career guidance experience (7 items)**

These items seek to determine the student's perception of the help received from various facets of the school career guidance programme.

The ACD as employed in this study is presented in this dissertation as appendix C.

5.5.2.2 **Compilation of the test and construction of the scales**

As was indicated earlier, career development, which the CD seeks to measure, is an educational construct. Consequently the assessment of career development is basically the assessment of achievement where achievement is defined in terms of knowledge and experiences acquired.
This type of measurement involves criterion-referenced assessment and interpretation. Criterion-referenced assessment and interpretation involves the comparison of the performance of pupils on a test with the performance one would expect them to achieve given what they have been taught, the experiences they have had, etc. Classroom teachers utilise criterion-based assessment and make criterion-referenced interpretation of test performance as part of their daily routine. They develop learning objectives for their students. They implement intervention strategies to accomplish these objectives. They develop measures to determine whether these objectives have been accomplished (e.g. classroom tests). They specify standard of performance on these measures (e.g. 50 percent as pass mark), and they initiate further action in terms of the students' performance. (The American College Testing Program, 1974).

In criterion-referenced measurement and interpretation professional judgement is brought to bear directly on the assessment situation. Criterion-referenced assessment and interpretation of the ACD can be easily illustrated by at some test items. The following true-false items will illustrate this point:

1. Most people do not need to begin career planning until their final year of high school.

2. Few women work outside of the home after marriage.

Schools with effective guidance programmes would expect a large percent, say 70% and above of their standard 10 pupils to answer "false" to the first question.
Hence 70 percent would be the expected level of performance on this professionally determined "appropriate" level. If, instead, only 30 percent of the standard 10 pupils at a particular school answered "false", the school's guidance department would have some useful information on which to base program revisions. Likewise, if more than half the girls at that high school believe that "few women work outside of the home after marriage", additional programme changes would be called for.

The ACD is a criterion-based instrument. A panel of experts selected the items according to what they thought a student in the eighth grade, who had attended a comprehensive career guidance programme, should know. Consultants and primary practitioners, assisted in the selection of items. These items were then tried out and revised a number of times after the test had been administered to 13 200 students in grades six to nine as well as to 20 000 college freshmen.

The ACD results are reported for a total of 11 scales. Separate responses to 42 individual items are also reported. Of the 11 scales, 3 cover career-related knowledge and 8 cover career-related experiences. Exploratory occupational experiences are reported in the form of a general score and separately for each of six occupational clusters.

5.5.2.3 Reliability

Reliability estimates for the longer ACD scales, namely, the Occupational Characteristics, the Career Planning Knowledge, the Career Planning Involvement, and the
Exploratory Occupational Experiences scales, ranged from 71 to 93 for grade 8, 75 to 93 for grade 9, and 75 to 92 for grade 11. Medium internal consistency reliability coefficients for the six experience cluster scales were about 71, and 79 for grades 8, 9 and 11, (ACTP, 1974 : 32).

The reliability coefficients for several of the shorter ACD scales border on the minimum values acceptable for the interpretation of scores to individuals. However, as Hannah indicates, the general level of reliability reported for the test is "more than sufficient for the norm and criterion referenced group interpretation for which the instrument is primarily intended. (1974 : 53 - 54).

5.5.2.4 Content validity

Evidence of ACD validity is basically provided by its content. In its reliance on content validity, the ACD is not different from most standardized achievement tests currently available. Constructors of these tests attempt to accurately describe the domain of behaviour that is sampled, how these samples of behaviour (tests) were developed, and how well samples cover the domain. The same procedures were applied in respect of the ACD.

The items selected for the ACD were drawn from a large item-pool in such a way that each of six occupational clusters was proportionally represented.

These clusters are actually a modification of the six types of personal orientation and occupational environments described in Holland's theory of career development.
These modifications on Holland's postulations were based on U S Department of Labour occupational classification as well as on the ratings of each of the 13 800 occupations identified as unique in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (U S Department of Labour, 1965). All these steps were taken to ensure that the ACD content was representative of the world of work.

Since the clusters are based on a horizontal (field) classification system they do not include a vertical or level dimension. To verify whether the various occupational levels on a vertical dimension are covered by the ACD, Maola and Cochran (1974) classified the list of occupations in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles and the 211 occupations represented in the ACD according to Roe's (1956) classification system. Using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles as criterion, they found that, except for the Technology category, the proportions of ACD occupational titles distributed in the different fields and levels as postulated by Roe were the same as those of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Maola and Cochran (1974) came to the conclusion that the ACD provides adequate content validity to assess a student's knowledge of the world of work. Cloete (1980) expressed a belief that the under-representation of the Technology cluster in the ACD is actually an advantage as far as South African black pupils are concerned because South African blacks have not yet gained access to these occupations in any significant way.
5.5.2.5 Construct validity

Hannah (1974) avers that the inter-correlations among certain of the ACD scales tend to provide supportive evidence of construct validity. However, more data in this regard is required before any definite conclusions can be drawn about the construct validity of this test.

5.5.2.6 Predictive and concurrent validity

Much work on the predictive and concurrent validity of the ACD still has to be done. One study was carried out by Westbrook and Parry-Hill (1973). They used items from the same item-pool from which the ACD was structured. They found that sixth grade students who had made occupational choices appropriate to their interests and general mental abilities, attained higher occupational knowledge scores than those whose choices were inappropriate.

5.5.2.7 ACD floor and ceiling

Evidence from the norm groups indicated that an insignificant percentage of 8th graders equivalent to our standard 7, score below the chance level. At the other end of the continuum less than 1 percent of the 11th graders reach the maximum score. These data indicate a satisfactory amount of balance in ACD score distributions across grades 8 - 11, (ACTP, 1974). In other words the test does not prove to be "too difficult or too easy" for any of the grades.
5.5.2.8 Degree of speededness

The scales on the ACD were constructed to provide sufficient time for most students to complete all items. Data obtained from the norm groups show that at least 95 percent of the sample completed 90 percent of the items on the scales, thus indicating that the ACD functions essentially as a power test, (ACTP, 1974).

5.5.2.9 Reading level of the ACD

As reported in the ACD manual (ACTP, 1974), special care was taken to determine the reading levels of the various ACD sections. The average ACD reading grade level was 7.2 (more or less our standard 6 level), well below the lower limit of the grade range for which the ACD was developed.

However, reading level calculated for written material cannot be thought of as an absolute value. At best, it is only a probability estimate (ACTP, 1974). There are a number of unmeasurable factors that must be taken into account when considering readability. Such factors include the reader's interest, motivation, amount of reading involved, previous experience with the topic or material, and so forth. For instance, effective understanding of occupational titles or activities typical of occupations implies some prior knowledge or experience with these. Students who have participated in career awareness activities as part of the school's guidance programme will be familiar with many occupational titles. Those students who have not
been exposed to such experiences will probably not recognize or understand many of these occupational titles; just as they will not understand "photosynthesis", "square root", "sentence analysis" unless they have had the appropriate educational experience.

The administration of ACD may be adjusted slightly to cope with the problems of readability. Alternative procedures for administering the test might be employed with poor readers, including students of different cultural and language backgrounds. For example, time limits could be waived so that ACD items could be read aloud by the test administrators, or help could be given to students having trouble with specific words, (ACTP, 1974).

5.5.3 Adaptation of the ACD for Local Usage

No significant changes were made to the test which could affect the content and the structure of the ACD. The test that was administered to the participating groups in this study was the complete and virtually unaltered 1974 version of Form C of the ACD. As was indicated earlier on, (cf 5.6.2.9) the use of the ACD with pupils and students of different language and cultural backgrounds was envisaged. While the test may not meet the requirements of a culture-free test, if such an instrument exists, it does approximate those of a culture-fair one, (Frijda and Jahoda, 1966). The problems that pupils and students may experience in tackling the ACD are of two types:
(a) The students may not have had the knowledge or educational experiences presumed by the test or they may have had an ineffective programme or limited experiences.

Problems of this nature point to deficiencies in the students' educational programmes.

(b) The students may fail to understand the test items because of reading problems. While the students' educational programmes may be faulty, the measuring instrument may also be the source of the problem. An attempt was made to minimize this problem in this study. Without changing the meaning and content of items, an attempt was made to replace certain words and phrases in the test. Two aspects of language did require attention in this regard; namely americanisms and meaningfulness of certain terms, i.e. language level.

Typical americanisms were replaced by more familiar English terms. The following are examples of such replacements: **Supermarket** for department store, **motor** for auto, **farmer** for rancher, **university** for college, **marks** for grades, **film** for movie, **high school subjects** for high school courses, **holiday work** for summer work. Names of American organizations and publications were replaced by more familiar international ones, or those that are typically South African. These include such organizations as the Peace Corps that was replaced by the Young Men Christian
Association and the American Occupational Outlook Handbook was replaced by My Career (a South African publication).

The study periods for certain American courses was adjusted to those for similar course offered in South Africa. For instance, the American educational system stipulates two years of study at a college (community or technical) and four years at a university, whereas the South African system stipulates three or four years for the completion of a first degree.

In so far as the level of the language is concerned, a few words that could be misunderstood were replaced by terminology more familiar to the sample. Such replacements were kept to a minimum. The substitutions in question are: goods for appliances, baby sitter for child care aide, primary school for elementary school, minister of religion for clergyman, post for mail, supermarket cashier for grocery checkout clerk, caretaker for buildings for janitor, short-hand writer for stenographer, aims for goals (to prevent students confusing these with football goals), factory for industry, housekeeping for homemaking, time-table for schedule.

5.5.4 Pilot-testing

As can be seen from the above, the changes which were made in respect of the ACD language were quite minimal.
However, it was felt that pilot-testing was necessary, notwithstanding the superficial nature of the changes that had been brought about. The pilot test was done with fifteen standard nine pupils from the local high school.

The pilot-test was carried out along the lines followed by Cloete who used the random probe technique suggested for cross-cultural research by Brislin et al, 1973 and by Schuman, 1966 (in Cloete, 1980). The researcher selected a random sample of items from the test and, directed probing questions at the testees about each item. In this way an assessment was made as to whether the respondents understood the meaning of the questions. The sample's comprehension level was found to be more than satisfactory.

5.5.5 Codification and Scoring

The biographical data of the students were coded according to the criteria that have been used to match the experimental and the control groups. The ACD test itself was scored by hand. This was possible because the ACD manual shows the items scored on each ACD scale. The scoring keys for all the scales are also included in the manual. The way the question and answer booklet was structured (cf appendix C) and the manner in which the pupils had to respond to the questions facilitated the hand-scoring of the test tremendously. The fact that the number of participating pupils was not that large was also helpful.
It must, however, be indicated that hand-scoring the ACD protocols was very cumbersome, tedious and time-consuming. Actually hand-scoring the ACD is not recommended by the test publishers because of the cumbersome nature of such a task. Scoring the test was particularly tedious and slow in those sections in which the pupils' responses to the items had to be converted to numerical codes.

The parts of the ACD in question are section 4 Part A (appendix C) and Section 6 (appendix C). Great care was taken in the scoring and codification of all the protocols.

5.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Programs from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) were used to analyse the data of this study. THE SPSS is a system of computer programmes designed especially for the analysis of data in the social sciences (Nie et al, 1975).

Since a two-group design was used in the study, it was decided to use the following statistics in the analysis of the data:
- the t-test for correlated data.
- the t-test for uncorrelated data.
- the chi-square.

The actual computations were carried out on an IBM 256 Personal Computer.
5.7 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

5.7.1 Organizational Arrangements

Permission was obtained from the Department of Education of the Lebowa Government Service and from the Circuit inspector of the Mankweng Education Inspectoral Circuit to carry out the research project in the selected schools. The principals of the two schools readily granted the researcher permission to conduct the research in their schools and also offered all the assistance that they could possibly give the researcher in connection with the project.

5.7.2 Time Tabling

A detailed explanation of the nature of the envisaged programmatic intervention to the school authorities at the experimental school responsible for scheduling the activities of the school resulted in two double periods per week being allocated to guidance. In other words four periods, each of which was 35 minutes long, were set aside for the implementation of this programme.

5.7.3 Programme Presenters

The programme was presented by the researcher who holds degrees in psychology and education. The researcher was assisted by a colleague who holds a senior degree in psychology and has had some experience in the teaching of secondary school pupils. The testing programme was carried out by both the researcher and the person who assisted him. In so far as the guidance
programme itself is concerned, the person who assisted the researcher presented about ten percent thereof. The rest of the programme was presented by the researcher.

5.7.4 Pretesting

The pretesting of both the experimental and control groups was conducted during the last week of August, 1983. Both groups were tested in the same week.

Both the experimental and control groups were told that they were participating in a project that had as its aim the development of guidance services in African schools. They were exhorted to give their full cooperation regarding the implementation of the project and to do their best in the tests. They were told that their participation in the project would be of great benefit to many secondary school pupils who would be coming after them. They were also told that they themselves might learn something from the project.

There are a few important points that need to be pointed out about the administration of the ACD to the participating pupils. The test rooms, the furniture, and other conditions at the two schools were appropriate for the type of testing that was being done. There were no distractions and interruptions throughout the testing programme. However, the pupils had to sit two to a desk. The monitoring of the testing sessions was such that the pupils could not discuss the questions and to help each other in finding the answers thereto. Both the researcher and the person who assisted him were always present in the test room during all the
testing sessions. The ratio of test administrator to testees was one to 40 for the experimental group and one to 60 for the control group.

After each pupil had been supplied with a test booklet and before the commencement of the test, the researcher gave both the experimental and control groups a brief lesson on job families which form part of Section 3 of the test.

This was a slight departure from the instructions in the administrators manual. These instructions stipulate that a list of the job families must be handed out to each pupil 2 to 5 days prior to the first test sitting. The students would therefore study and reflect on the various job families. In this study it was decided that the students would understand this section better if they were given a short lesson than if they studied it on their own.

The pupils were made aware of the time limits. However those who failed to finish the questions in the various sections at the stipulated times were allowed to complete such sections.

Pupils were told to answer all questions and were told to give their best guess where they were not sure of the answer.

5.7.5 Programme Presentation

The principal of the school had already informed the whole school as well as the standard nine classes of
the project. He again informed the school of the project when he introduced the programme presenters to the teachers and pupils at the first assembly they attended at the school.

The researcher devoted the first guidance lesson to a detailed explanation of the programme to the pupils in the experimental group. The researcher also gave an explanation of the methods which were going to be used in the guidance classes. While this was not overtly expressed as such, a mutually understood "contract" was entered into between the pupils and the programme presenters. The essence of the contract was that both "parties" would fulfil their obligations with a view to making the joint venture a success and a rewarding experience for all involved; both programme presenters and pupils.

Since there were no formal guidance lessons at the school, the pupils did not have the necessary equipment for the envisaged work. The researcher had to buy a hard-covered note-book for each of the pupils in the class. The pupils were invited to express their ideas, suggestions and feelings about the envisaged programme.

5.7.5.1 Method of presentation

The basic consideration in selecting the methods to be used in presenting the programme was the full participation of the pupil in his education. This full participation had to express itself in the following essential features of effective learning, namely: involvement, experience, significance attribution, and the structuring of a self-concept.
(a) Pupil-involvement

In so far as involvement is concerned, the aim was to get the pupil drawn into the material that was being presented to them. For a person to learn effectively, his whole being must get engaged in the learning activity; he must be involved in the learning act as a person - somatically, cognitively, affectively, and conatively.

(b) Experience

Another significant aspect of successful learning is the way in which the learner "experience" the learning. The learner's mind is not like a clean slate on which is inscribed the things that he learns. New material must be assimilated into the cognitive structure. This assimilation is not an exclusively cognitive act. It is also determined by factors such as aims, and values, attitudes, beliefs, various emotions such as fear, happiness, feelings of security, of awe, rejection and so on. In other words the new material is analysed in terms of the individual's existing cognitive structure and in terms of the other contents of the individual's consciousness. This act of analysing, interpreting, and assimilating new material is referred to as experiencing. The individual may thus experience the material he is learning and the whole learning activity as significant and worthwhile or as worthless, as enjoyable and interesting or as boring, as threatening to the learner or engendering feelings
of security in him, etc. The nature of the material to be learned and the way this is presented to the learner will determine whether the learner experiences the learning activity in a negative or positive way. Attempts were made to enable the pupil to have positive experiences in the course of learning the materials of the guidance programme.

(c) **Significance attribution**

In so far as significance attribution is concerned, learning can never be successful if the learner himself has not found significance in it. Learning is in effect significance attribution. The learner analyses, interprets and assimilates material that he is learning into his mental structure. In this way he gives meaning to what he is learning. This meaning is the ideosyncratic, cognitive-affective product which results when a particular learner relates or integrates potentially meaningful material with ideas in his mental structure. Tutorial matter can only be learnt in relation to the relevant concepts, ideas, principles, etc that have already been assimilated. The learner must find it possible to establish relationships between the tutorial material and the content of his cognitive structure; in other words the learning material must be meaningful. The material must be presented in such a way as to promote significance attribution on the part of the learner. The guidance material in this programme and the way it was presented sought to assist the individual in this regard.
Three basic measures were taken in this study to promote (in the pupils) the type of effective learning that has been described above. These measures were, first, the statement of the objectives and aims of the various elements of the programme, two, the creation of a climate conducive to effective learning, and three, the use of effective methods of programme presentation. These measures are briefly reviewed below:

(a) **Stating of aims and objectives**

The objectives of each of the elements of the programme were clearly stated. The attention of the pupils were focussed on these objectives. Of more significance, the pupils were encouraged to set their own objectives and develop their own positive aims. For instance, how many novels they were going to try to complete using the study method they had learned; what mark they would try to obtain in the on coming tests; how they would try to help finance their studies with bursaries and loans. Incidentally Guidance is a school subject in which it is very easy to set up ones own aims and objectives.

(b) **The atmosphere in the class**

The following factors were taken into consideration in an attempt to create an atmosphere conducive to effective learning:
(i) **Respect**

An attempt was made to treat the pupils with respect, as full human beings with dignity. "Whenever we treat a student with disrespect, and whenever we embarass or humiliate him, we are likely to build disrespect in him both for himself and for others." (Purkey, 1970 : 52)

(ii) **Freedom**

Freedom of choice was permitted in an atmosphere free from threats and anxiety. Self-respect can hardly develop in an atmosphere in which freedom of choice is lacking.

(iii) **Warmth**

An attempt was also made to create a learning situation in which the pupil felt he was fully accepted and held in esteem by the programme presenters. The pupil was made to experience psychological safety and security.

(iv) **Control and authority**

Clear educational boundaries were laid for both pupils and programme presenters. This was done because an atmosphere of
total permissiveness is not conducive to effective learning. Permissiveness leads to a lowering of self-respect (Coopersmith, 1967).

(v) Challenge

A situation of challenge spurs the learner to greater effort.

However, an attempt was made to make the challenge realistic and to enable the pupils to be successful. The material in this guidance programme were not difficult. The challenge for the pupil lay in applying what he was learning in his everybody life.

(vi) Success

The programme presenters helped the pupils to gain a firm grasp of the various aspects of the programme and explored with the pupils the various ways in which they could apply what they had learned.

5.7.5.1.1 Programme delivery strategies

The teaching methods used in this study included those which were in general use in the school. This was done in order to make the guidance course continuous with the other subjects in the school. Another reason for the use of these methods was to ensure that the
pupils had a thorough grasp of the contents of the guidance programme, especially at the beginning of the course when the pupils had not yet mastered the "group discussion method". The "traditional" teaching approaches used in this study includes the use of notes or guides. The giving of notes to pupils and students is used in nearly all school subjects in all schools in South Africa. In this course, very extensive notes were compiled on all aspects of the programme. These notes were based, inter alia, on the following publications:

**Guidance in the Classroom**, a school guidance textbook written by Lindhard, Dlamini and Barnard.

**Lifeskills Teaching Programmes: Programme One and Programme Two** by Hopson and Scally.

The **Active Guidance** series for secondary schools by Engelbrecht, Fourie and Mollendorf.

The guidance notes are presented in this dissertation as appendix A.

Other "traditional" teaching approaches employed in the study were the telling or lecture method, the question and answer method, the taking down of notes by the learners in the course of the lesson, the assignment of homework, and so on. These didactic approaches are reflected in the lesson plans that were used in the presentation of the programme. These lessons are presented in the study as appendix B.

What constituted a departure from the traditional teaching approaches in the presentation of this programme
was the extensive use of the group discussion method as well as the employment of games and activities for learning purposes. While these methods are used occasionally by some teachers, they certainly are not in general application in African schools.

The main reason for using group discussion, games and activities was that the pupils could help one another in their learning. Through immediate and caring confrontation, holding one another to concrete and specific language, and through modeling, the pupils' perspectives about ideas and solutions could be clarified and dealt with. Thus all group members assumed responsibility for helping each member confront his/her views. The programme presenters were always available and on the ready to help the pupils with their problems and concerns.

The use of the group discussion method was based on the assumption that many secondary school pupils had needs in Maslow's level 2. (Safety), level 3- (Belongingness) and level 4- (Self-esteem) areas which could be addressed by the group discussion method.

And indeed as soon as the pupils felt that they were being heard and accepted, they were more willing to express both positive and negative thoughts, feelings, opinion and judgements during the classroom discussions, because they found the classroom a safe environment.

Once students started to feel safe in the classroom environment, they began to work on their level 3 needs (belongingness needs) by sharing their deeper concerns, talking specifically about themselves and having their disclosures accepted and welcomed, and giving and receiving caring confrontation. As these things occurred, the group members seemed to find the kind of belonging that exists in a strong support group.
It was assumed that when the students began to feel safe and accepted they would begin to work at their level 4 needs (the self-esteem needs).

And indeed as the pupils in the experimental group recognized strengths and weaknesses and began to attain success in the discussions, activities and exercises, they seemed to gain in self-esteem and to receive esteem from others. The indications were that, once this had occurred, the groundwork had been laid for the pupils to begin to address level 5 needs (self-actualization needs). In fact the satisfaction of pupils' needs at various levels constitutes part of the self-actualization process.

The programme presenters closely monitored and guided the classroom discussions, group activities and games. The programme presenters were, on their part, informed in this regard by the elaborate pre-prepared lesson plans that were used in the presentation of this course. These lessons form appendix A of this study.

Individual counselling was given to pupils with specific personal problems by the programme presenters. It must be indicated that the counselling was hampered by lack of adequate facilities.

5.7.6 Post Testing

The post-testing was carried out at the end of the third week in November of 1983. The programme thus ran for a period of about ten weeks. The control group was tested first at the beginning of the week while the experimental group did their post-test at the end of the same week.
5.7.7 Summary

The methods which were used in this study were discussed in this chapter. Among the issues examined in the chapter are the setting of the study, the pupil groups that were involved in the study, the guidance programme that was implemented, the measuring instrument that was employed as well as the treatment process itself. The results which were obtained are analysed and interpreted in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a school guidance programme on the career development of a group of senior secondary school pupils.

More specifically, the intent of the study was to ascertain if there were going to be significant difference in the career development level of a group of pupils who were exposed to this guidance programme and pupils who were not.

The Assessment of Career Development test was administered to all the standard nin pupils in the Mothimako and Bjaladi Secondary Schools. The subjects at Bjaladi Senior Secondary comprised the control group and the Mothimako subjects made up the experimental group. To establish group equivalency, the t-test as well as a chi-square were used with the pre-test scores of the two groups on the Assessment of Career Development. No significant differences in means or variance of scores in the performance of the two groups were found for all the scales and the response distributions for specific items. Over and above this, the two groups were matched for age, aptitude, educational level, and home background and sex.

The guidance programme was presented to the experimental group for ten weeks from the beginning of September, 1983 through Mid November, 1983, and consisted of units on personal, social, educational and career guidance. After the treatment, both the experimental and control groups were post-tested on the Assessment of Career Development test. The statistical programmes used in the study were
obtained from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, and Bent, 1975). The statistical formulae employed in this study were programmed for use on the IBM 256 Personal Computer. Nominal level data were tested for statistical significance by means of the chi-square test. The t-tests for correlated and uncorrelated data were used to determine the significance or lack of it for interval level data. All hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

The results will be presented and discussed in three categories in terms of the indices of career development covered by the ACD. These indices of career development are OCCUPATIONAL AWARENESS, SELF AWARENESS, and CAREER PLANNING and DECISION MAKING.

The hypotheses presented in chapter three are restated in the null form and data relating to each is presented. These hypotheses are grouped under the three indices of career development referred to above.

6.2 OCCUPATIONAL AWARENESS

6.2.1 Occupational knowledge

H.1(a)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD.

To test hypotheses 1, the relevant data were subjected to a t-test for correlated data. Upon completion of this statistical test, the following t-values were obtained:
Post-test Versus Pre-test (Girls) \( t = 21.13; \)
Post-test Versus Pre-test (Boys) \( t = 16.22; \)
Post-test Versus Pre-test (total experimental group) \( t = 26.80; \)

The \( t \)-values for the two sub-groups as well as that for the total group are significant at the .05 level of significance.

The null hypothesis that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD was rejected for both sex sub-groups as well as for the total experimental group. Table 6.1 presents the data relating to the hypothesis under consideration.

**TABLE 6.1 POST- AND PRE-TEST MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, \( T \)-VALUE, AND PROBABILITY FOR TREATMENT GROUP ON THE OCCUPATIONAL KNOWLEDGE SCALE OF THE ACD (FEMALES, MALES, TOTAL GROUP)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>56.78</td>
<td>28.47</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>21.13</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>28.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>56.96</td>
<td>29.44</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>16.22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>27.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post Test</td>
<td>56.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL GROUP</td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28.85</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>26.80</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II.1(b)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD.

To test this hypothesis the post-test data of the two groups were analysed by means of the t-test for uncorrelated data. This statistical analysis produced the following t-values:

Post-test (treatment group) versus post-test (control group) girls, $t = 18.93$;
Post-test (treatment group) versus post-test (control group) boys, $t = 14.32$;
Post-test (total treatment group) versus post-test (total control group) $t = 23.81$.

The t-values for the two sub-groups and the total group are all significant at the .05 level of significance.

The null hypothesis that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD was rejected.

Table 6.2 presents the data pertaining to null hypothesis 1(b).
TABLE 6.2 MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, T-VALUE, AND TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY FOR POST-TESTS OF TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE OCCUPATIONAL KNOWLEDGE SCALE OF THE ACD (FEMALES, MALES, AND TOTAL GROUPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>56.78</td>
<td>29.53</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>18.93</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>27.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>56.96</td>
<td>27.89</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>14.32</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Control)</td>
<td>29.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>56.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>27.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>28.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUP</td>
<td>(Control)</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>134</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.2 Exploratory Occupational Experiences

H₀²(a)

Hypothesis 2(a) states that the mean post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Exploratory Occupation Experiences Scale of the ACD.

The test this hypothesis the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment group were subjected to the
t-test for correlated data. This statistical analysis produced the following t-values:

Post-test as against pre-test (females) \( t = .92; \)
Post-test versus pre-test (males) \( t = .05; \)
Post-test versus pre-test (total group) \( t = .88 \)

All these t-values did not reach the .05 level of significance.

The null hypothesis that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be significantly higher than mean pre-test score of the same group on the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale of the ACD was thus accepted and the research hypothesis in this regard rejected.

Data relating to hypothesis 2(a) are presented in table 6.3 below.

TABLE 6.3 POST- AND PRE-TEST MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, T-VALUE, AND PROBABILITY FOR TREATMENT GROUP ON THE EXPLORATORY OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCES SCALE OF THE ACD (FEMALES, MALES, TOTAL GROUP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test Pre-Test</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test Pre-Test</td>
<td>1.799565</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.796956</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>Post-Test Pre-Test</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL GROUP</td>
<td>Post-Test Pre-Test</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
H.2(b)

The mean-test post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale of the ACD.

The post-test scores of the two groups on the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale were analysed by means of the t-test for uncorrelated data. This analysis yielded the following t-values:

Post-test (treatment) versus post-test (control) (females)  
\[ t = .54; \]
Post-test (treatment) versus post-test (control) (males)  
\[ t = .33; \]
Post-test (total treatment group) versus post-test (total control group)  
\[ t = .55. \]

All these t-values were not significant at the .05 level.

The null hypothesis that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale of the ACD was accepted and the research hypothesis in this regard rejected. Table 6.4 presents the data relating to hypothesis 3(b).
TABLE 6.4: MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, STANDARD ERROR, T-VALUE, DEGREES OF FREEDOM, AND TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY FOR POST-TESTS OF TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE EXPLORATORY OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCES SCALE OF THE AQD (FEMALES, MALES AND TOTAL GROUP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL GROUP</td>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3 SELF AWARENESS

6.3.1 Work Value Preferences

H₃(a)

There will not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the work value preferences of the treatment group away from the independent-managerial-materialistic orientation toward the self-fulfilling and person-centered orientation.
These work value preferences are, in the ACD, assessed in terms of the following dimensions:

(i) the most important value element in a job
(ii) the second most important value element in a job
(iii) the least important value element in a job.

To test the sub-parts of this hypothesis the pre-test and post-test data of the treatment group, in respect of the three dimensions of work value preferences, were separately subjected to the chi-square test. Upon completion of this statistical test (for each subpart) the following $X^2$ values were obtained:

- "most important" post-test and pre-test work value element for treatment group: $X^2 = 68.42$
- "second most important" post-test and pre-test work value element for treatment group: $X^2 = 16.98$
- "least important" post-test and pre-test work value element for treatment group: $X^2 = 22.26$. The $X^2$ values for the three subparts were all significant at the .05 level of significance. A more intriguing question is whether the shift that has taken place is in the expected direction. An examination of tables 6.5 through 6.7 will supply the answer to this question.

**TABLE 6.5: MOST IMPORTANT POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST WORK VALUE ELEMENTS FOR TREATMENT GROUP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.03</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>34.48</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>15.87</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>47.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 68.42$

$df = 5$

$p < .05$
TABLE 6.6: SECOND MOST IMPORTANT POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST WORK VALUE ELEMENT FOR TREATMENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>13.79</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>27.59</td>
<td>10.34</td>
<td>24.14</td>
<td>22.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>41.27</td>
<td>14.29</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>23.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 16.96 \]
\[ df = 5 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

TABLE 6.7: LEAST IMPORTANT POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST WORK VALUE ELEMENT FOR TREATMENT GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>18.97</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>10.34</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>39.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17.45</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>22.22</td>
<td>17.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 21.26 \]
\[ df = 5 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

NOTE The letters heading the columns in tables 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7 represent the following work value elements:

A - Working with people I like (co-workers)
B - Being my own boss, doing the work as I want with nobody watching over me (independence)
C - Work that I enjoy doing, that is interesting to me (interest)
D - Having a steady job where I would not be fired (job security)
E - Being responsible for making decisions and for the work of other people (responsibility)
F - Being well paid for my work (pay or money).

The null hypothesis that there would not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the work value preferences of the treatment group away from the independent-managerial-materialistic orientation toward the self-fulfilling and people-centered orientation was rejected for all three work-value dimensions. When the (most-important, second most important, and least important work) on two grounds. Firstly, there was a significant shift in the pre- to post-test work value preferences of the treatment group as can be seen in the obtained $X^2$ values which are significant at the .05 level. Secondly the shift seems to have occurred in the hypothesised direction. An examination of tables 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7 clearly shows this. When assessed for the first time a very large proportion of the experimental group (57.14%) regarded "Being well paid for my work" as the most important work value element. Only 8.62 percent of the same group held the same view at post-testing. On the other hand, significantly larger proportions of the experimental group showed greater post-test preference for the person-centered work value element (31.03%) and the self-fulfilment and interest work value element (34.48%). We also note a substantial pre- to post-test increase in the preference for independence as the most important work value element (4.75% to 17.24%).

As regards the "second most important work value element", the results are not as clear-cut as all that. While there has been a significant pre- to post-test shift in the preferences of the treatment group regarding the "second most important work value element", this shift
is not in the hypothesised direction. For instance there has been a big pre- to post-test shift toward the responsibility/managerial orientation (category E) (pre-test = 7.9% and post-test = 24.14%).

The proportion of pupils in this group who considered "interest" as the "second most important" work value element was very large in the post-test (27.59%). However, the proportion of pupils in this group expressed a preference for this job value element had been larger at pre-testing (41.27%).

With regard to the "least important" work value element the pre-test to post-test preference shift was significant. In general, the shift also seems to have been in the expected direction. We say this in spite of the fact that at pre-testing, a large percentage of the treatment group found the "independence" work value element as the "least important", which preference was not in the hypothesised direction. Also at pre-testing an equal proportion of the treatment group considered as "least important" the "person-centered" and the "financial work value element (both 17.47%). These seem to have been contradictory preferences. However the shift that occurred when the group was post-tested was in the expected direction. At post-testing, a large percentage of this group (39.66%) considered financial reward as the least important work value element. A sizeable percentage of the group (15.52%) also considered independence as "least important".

H.3(b)

There will not be a significant difference in the post-test work value preferences of the treatment and control groups with regard to the independent-managerial-materialistic orientation as against the self-fulfilling and
person-centered orientation. In the ACD the students' work value preferences are assessed in terms of the following dimensions:

(i) The most important value element in a job.
(ii) The second most important value element in a job.
(iii) The least important value element in a job.

The post-test work preferences of both the treatment and control groups were analysed by means of the chi-square test. This statistical analysis yield the following $X^2$ values: "most important" post-test work value elements for treatment group as against those for control group $X^2 = 46.96$; "second most important" post-test work value elements for the treatment group as against those for the control group, $X^2 = 4.74$; "least important" work value elements for the treatment group versus those for the control group: $X^2 = 21.42$. The $X^2$ values for the post-test work value preferences of the two groups were significant at the .05 level in respect of the "most important" and the "least important" work value elements. The $X^2$ value for the post-test work value preferences of the two groups in respect of the "second important work value elements" was not significant. The direction of the shift that has occurred in the treatment group as compared to the control group can be determined from an examination of tables 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Treatment)</td>
<td>31.03</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>34.48</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>8.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>48.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 46.96$
$df = 5$
$P < .05$
TABLE 6.9: SECOND MOST IMPORTANT POST-TEST WORK VALUE ELEMENT FOR TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.79</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>27.59</td>
<td>10.34</td>
<td>24.14</td>
<td>22.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>25.56</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>25.56</td>
<td>21.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 4.74 \]
\[ \text{df} = 5 \]
\[ P > .05 \]

TABLE 6.10: LEAST IMPORTANT POST-TEST WORK VALUE ELEMENT FOR THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.97</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>10.34</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>39.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>28.89</td>
<td>12.22</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>17.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 21.42 \]
\[ \text{df} = 5 \]
\[ P < .05 \]

**NOTE**: The letters which head the columns in tables 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10 represent the following work value elements:
A - Working with people I like (co-workers)
B - Being my own boss, doing work as I want with nobody watching over me (independence)
C - Work that I enjoy doing, that is interesting to me (interest)
D - Having a steady job where I would not be fired (job security)
E - Being responsible for making decisions and for the work of other people (responsibility)
F - Being well paid for my work (pay or money).

Null hypothesis 3(b) stating that there would not be a significant difference in the post-test work value preferences of the treatment and control groups relating to the independent-managerial-materialistic orientation as against the self-fulfilling and person-centered orientation was rejected. The rejection of the null hypothesis was based on the fact that there was a significant difference in the post-test work value preferences of the treatment group as compared to those of the control group. The null hypothesis is rejected, in spite of the fact the work value preferences of the two groups in respect of the "second most important" job value were not significantly different. The reason for this result seems to be that the two groups focussed their attention on the most important and "least important" work value elements rather than on the "second most important" work value element. This work value elements seem merely to have played the role of an unimportant distractor. The work value preferences of the treatment group when compared to those of the control group were in the expected direction. Whereas 48.89 percent of the control group (post-test) considered "pay or money" as the most important element in a job only 8.62 percent of the treatment group (post-test) thought so. At the other end of the continuum,
31.03 percent of the treatment group (post-test) considered working with people one likes (co-workers) as the most important factor in a job. Only 13.33 percent of the control group (post-test) felt the same way. Nearly thirtyfive percent (34.48) of the treatment group (post-test) took doing the job that one enjoys (interest) as the most important element of a job. Only 13.33 percent of the control group (post-test) regarded interesting work as the most important element of a job.

As far as the least important work value elements are concerned only one or two things are worthy of note in the post-test preferences of the treatment and control groups. A sizeable percentage of the treatment group (39.66%) regarded "pay or money" as the "least important" element in a job while only 17.78 percent of the control group thought as much. This result is in terms of the change direction indicated in the hypothesis.

6.3.2 Working Condition Preferences

H₄(4a)

There will not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group from the indoor to the outdoor working condition option.

The data relating to null hypothesis 4(a) were subjected to the $X^2$ test. The obtained $X^2$ value of 10.93 was significant at the .05 level. Table 6.11 below presents the data regarding the null hypothesis under consideration.
TABLE 6.11: THE POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST PREFERENCES OF THE TREATMENT GROUP IN RESPECT OF THE INDOOR VERSUS THE OUTDOOR WORKING CONDITION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>INDOOR VERSUS OUTDOOR WORKING CONDITIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>57.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 10.03 \]
\[ df = 3 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

NOTE  The letters heading the columns in tables 6.11 and 6.12 represent the following working condition preferences:

A - I strongly prefer indoor work.
B - I prefer indoor work.
C - I prefer outdoor work.
D - I strongly prefer outdoor work.

The null hypothesis that there would be no significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group from the indoor to the outdoor working condition preference was rejected. There was indeed a shift in the pre- to post-test working condition preferences of the treatment group and the shift seems to have been in the hypothesized direction. While only 11.11 percent of the treatment group indicated a strong preference for outdoor work at pre-testing i.e. before
the programmatic intervention, 29.34 percent of the same group expressed a strong preference for outdoor work at post-testing. Over fifty seven percent (57.14%) of the treatment group expressed a strong pre-test preference for indoor work. This fell to 44.83 percent at post-testing. However, the fact remains that even after the programmatic intervention, a large percentage of the pupils preferred indoor work to outdoor work.

H.4(b)

There will not be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups with regard to the indoor as against the outdoor working condition option.

Data relating to this hypothesis was analysed by means of the $X^2$ test. This analysis yielded the following $X^2$ value: $X^2 = 10.24$. This $X2$ value reached the .05 level of significance. Data relating to the null hypothesis 4(a) is presented in table 6.12 below:

**TABLE 6.12: THE POST-TEST PREFERENCES OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS REGARDING INDOOR AND OUTDOOR WORK**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>INDOOR VERSUS OUTDOOR WORKING CONDITIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>44.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>57.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 10.24$

$df = 3$

$p < .05$
Null hypothesis 4(b) which stated that there would be no significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups regarding indoor as against the outdoor work value option was rejected and the working hypothesis accepted. As can be seen in table 6.12 above, there were significant differences in the preferences of the two groups in respect of indoor versus outdoor work. Over twenty nine percent (29.34%) of the treatment group indicated a strong post-test preference for outdoor work as against 12.22 percent of the control group. While 57.78 percent of the control group expressed a strong post-test preference for indoor work only 44.83% of the treatment group did so.

H₅(a)

There will not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group away from solitary work to working with others.

To test this hypothesis the pre-test and post-test working condition preferences of the treatment group were subjected to the $X^2$ test. This statistical test yielded the following result: $X^2 = 19.71$. This $X^2$ value is significant at the .05 level. Table 6.13 below presents the data related to hypothesis 5 (a).
TABLE 6.13: THE POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST PREFERENCES OF THE TREATMENT GROUP REGARDING SOLITARY WORK VERSUS WORKING WITH OTHER PEOPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>SOLITARY WORK VERSUS WORKING WITH OTHERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>55.17 &amp; 24.14 &amp; 10.34 &amp; 10.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>26.98 &amp; 33.33 &amp; 28.57 &amp; 11.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 19.71 \]

\[ df = 3 \]

\[ p < .05 \]

**NOTE** The letters heading the columns in tables 6.13 and 6.14 represent the following working condition preferences:

- **A** - I strongly prefer working with people.
- **B** - I prefer working with people.
- **C** - I prefer working alone.
- **D** - I strongly prefer working alone.

The null hypothesis which stated that there would not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group from solitary work to working with people was rejected. There was indeed a shift in the pre- to post-test working condition preferences of the treatment group on the solitary—other people continuum. This shift in working condition preferences seems to have been in the expected direction. The treatment group did not express a strong preference for working alone both at the pre-testing (11.11%) and at the post-testing (10.34%). However while 28.57 percent
of the (treatment) group expressed a pre-test preference for working alone, only 10.34 percent of the group expressed the same preference in the post-test. True enough, 26.98 percent of the treatment group expressed a strong pre-test preference for working with people. However this figure rose to 55.17 percent when the group was post-tested.

H.5(b)

There won't be a significant difference between the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups in terms of working alone as against working with others.

The $X^2$ test was used to analyses data relating to this hypothesis. The following $X^2$ value was obtained: $X^2 = 10.22$. Data relating to the hypothesis under consideration is presented in table 6.14 below:

**TABLE 6.14 : THE POST-TEST PREFERENCES OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS WITH REGARD TO WORKING ALONE AS AGAINST WORKING WITH PEOPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>SOLITARY VERSUS WORKING WITH PEOPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>55.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>41.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 10.22$

df = 3

p < .05
The obtained $X^2$ is significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis that there would not be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and the control groups in terms of working alone as against working with others was thus rejected. Over fifty five percent of the treatment group indicated a strong preference for working with people while only 41.11 percent of the control group did so.

On the whole large proportions of pupils in both groups expressed a liking for working with people. In fact a somewhat surprising finding is that a slightly bigger proportion of pupils in the control group (86.67%) expressed a liking for working with people when categories A and B were combined. When categories A and B of the work preference continuum were combined 79.31 percent of the pupils in the treatment group expressed a liking for working with people.

H.6(a)

There will not be a pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group away from working at the same task toward working at variety of tasks.

Data relating to this hypothesis was subjected to the $X^2$ test and the following $X^2$ value was obtained : $X^2 = 27.55$. Table 6.15 below presents the data on hypothesis 6(a).
expressed a strong preference for working at the same task. In the post-test only 10.34 percent of this group expressed a strong preference for working at the same task. At the other end of the continuum, while only 9.52 percent of the treatment group indicated a strong preference for working at a variety of tasks in the pre-test, the percentage of pupils who expressed a strong preference for working at a variety of tasks rose to 37.93 percent when the group was post-tested. Looked at globally (when categories A, B, C and D are combined) 58.72 percent of the treatment group expressed a pre-test preference for working at the same task. In the post-test only 32.75 percent of the same group expressed a preference for working at the same task. While 41.27 percent of the group indicated a preference for working at a variety of tasks when pre-tested, this figure rose to 67.24 percent in the post-test.

H.6(b)

There will not be a significant difference in the post-test work working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups with regard to working at a variety of tasks as against working at the same task.

The \( X^2 \) test was used to analyse the data concerning this hypothesis.

A \( X^2 \) value of 28.12 was obtained. Data relating to hypothesis 6(b) is presented in table 6.16 below.
### Table 6.15: The Post-Test and Pre-Test Preferences of the Treatment Group With Regard to Working at a Variety of Tasks As Against Working at the Same Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>VARIETY VERSUS REPETITIVE WORK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>37.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>9.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 27.55 \]
\[ df = 3 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

**Note**: The letters heading the columns in tables 6.15 and 6.16 represent the following working condition preferences:

- **A**: I strongly prefer working at a variety of tasks.
- **B**: I prefer working at a variety of tasks.
- **C**: I prefer working at the same task.
- **D**: I strongly prefer working at the same task.

The \( X^2 \) value of 27.55 was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis that there would not be a pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group from working at the same task to working at a variety of tasks was rejected. The shift in working condition preferences that occurred was in the expected direction. A significant proportion of the group (30.16%)
TABLE 6.16: THE POST-TEST PREFERENCES OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS WITH REGARD TO WORKING AT A VARIETY OF TASKS AS AGAINST WORKING AT THE SAME TASK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>VARIETY VERSUS REPEITIVE WORK</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.91</td>
<td>29.31</td>
<td>22.41</td>
<td>10.34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>24.44</td>
<td>32.22</td>
<td>32.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2 = 28.12\]
\[df = 3\]
\[P < .05\]

The \(X^2\) value of 28.12 reached the .05 level of significance. Consequently, the null hypothesis stating that there would not be a significant difference in the post-test work value preferences of the treatment and control groups with regard to working at a variety of tasks as against working at the same task was rejected. An examination of table 6.16 above reveals that 32.22 percent of the control group expressed a post-test preference for working at the same task. Only 10.34 percent of the treatment group expressed a post-test preference for working at the same task. In contrast to this finding, while only 11.11 percent of the control group indicated a post-test preference for working at a variety of tasks, nearly thirty eight percent (37.93%) of the treatment group expressed such a post-test preference. When categories A and B as well as C and D are combined, we
find that 64.44 percent of the control group expressed a post-test preference for working at the same task as against 32.75 percent of the treatment group. On the other hand 67.24 percent of the treatment group expressed a post-test preference for working at a variety of tasks as against 35.55 percent of the control group.

**Hₐ 7(a)**

There will not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group away from working in an office with little physical activity toward working with one's hands or doing physical work.

Data collected in connection with this hypothesis was subjected to a \( \chi^2 \) test.

The following result was obtained: \( \chi^2 = 8.16 \). Table 6.17 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 7(a).

**TABLE 6.17: THE POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST PREFERENCES OF THE TREATMENT GROUP REGARDING WORKING WITH ONE'S HANDS OR DOING PHYSICAL LABOUR AS AGAINST WORKING IN AN OFFICE WITH LITTLE PHYSICAL ACTIVITY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MANUAL OR PHYSICAL WORK VERSUS OFFICE WORK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre. Test</td>
<td>10.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 8.16 \]

\[ df = 3 \]

\[ P < .05 \]
NOTE The letters which head the columns in tables 6.17 and 6.18 represent the following working condition preferences:

A - I strongly prefer working with my hands or doing physical labour.
B - I prefer working with my hands or doing physical labour.
C - I prefer working in an office with little physical activity.
D - I strongly prefer working in an office with little physical activity.

The \( X^2 \) value of 8.16 just reached the .05 level of significance. What is noteworthy is that if we combine categories A and B as well as C and D of table 6.17 we find that a bigger proportion of the treatment group, both before and after the programmatic intervention, expressed a preference for office work than for manual or physical work. The proportions are: 68.49 percent for office work and 31.51 percent for manual work (pre-test) and 52.41 percent for office work and 47.58 percent for manual work (post-test). In view of this findings, null hypothesis 7(a) which stated that there would not be a pre-to post-test shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group away from working in an office with little physical activity toward working with one's hands or doing physical work was accepted. This was done inspite of the slightly significant \( X^2 \) value which was obtained.

H.7(b)

There will not be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and
control groups regarding working with one's hands or doing physical labour as against working in an office with little physical activity.

Data on this hypothesis was tested by means of the $X^2$ test. The test yielded the following result $X^2 = 4.77$. Table 6.18 presents the data on hypothesis 7(b):

**TABLE 6.18** THE POST-TEST PREFERENCES OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS WITH REGARD TO WORKING WITH ONE'S HANDS OR DOING PHYSICAL LABOUR AS AGAINST WORKING IN AN OFFICE WITH LITTLE PHYSICAL ACTIVITY.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MANUAL OR PHYSICAL WORK VERSUS OFFICE WORK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Treatment)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.34</td>
<td>23.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Control)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.78</td>
<td>21.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 4.77$

$df = 3$

$p > .05$

The $X^2$ value of 4.77 was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis stating that there would not be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups regarding working with one's hands or doing physical labour as against working in an office with little physical activity failed to be rejected or was accepted. Although there
was some difference between the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and the control groups, these differences were not significant. These differences were particularly observable at the extreme ends of the continuum. Close to thirty seven percent (36.67%) of the control group expressed a post-test preference for office work as against 26.55 percent of the treatment group. At the other end of the continuum only 13.78 percent of the control group expressed a preference for manual work. Slightly over twenty-four percent (24.34%) of the treatment group expressed a preference for manual work. However, higher proportions of pupils in both groups expressed an interest for office work as against manual work. To illustrate this point, 65.11 percent of the control group expressed a preference for office as against 34.89 percent of the same group who expressed a preference for manual work. Over fifty percent of the treatment group (52.41%) expressed a preference for office work as against 47.58 percent of the same group who indicated a preference for manual work.

Null hypothesis 7(b) stating that there would not be a significant difference in the post-test working condition preferences of the treatment and control groups regarding working with one's hands or doing physical work as against working in an office with little physical activity was accepted.

6.3.3 Educational Plans

H. 8(a)

There will not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the educational plans of the treatment group from the academic/professional to the vocational/technical options.
The pre-test and post-test work preferences of the treatment group were subjected to the $X^2$ test. A $X^2$ value of 8.47 was obtained. Table 6.19 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 8(a).

**TABLE 6.19: THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST EDUCATIONAL PLANS OF THE TREATMENT GROUP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EDUCATIONAL OPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>12.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>6.35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 8.47$

$df = 6$

$P > .05$

**NOTE** The letters heading the columns in tables 6.19 and 6.20 represent the following educational options:

A - leave school after passing matric.
B - complete an apprenticeship training course.
C - complete a job training course in the government.
D - complete up to two years in a technical college or technikon.
E - complete up to two years in a private trade or business school.
F - complete three or more years at university.
G - something else.
The $X^2$ value of 8.47 did not reach the .05 level of significance. Null hypothesis 8(a) which stated that there would not be a significant pre- to post-test shift in the educational plans of the treatment group from the academic/professional to the vocational/technical options was thus accepted. A very large proportion of the treatment group, both before and after the programmatic intervention, indicated an intention to go and study at University. Over fifty-five percent (55.56%) of the treatment group showed a pre-test preference for university education. This figure went down to 44.83 percent when the group was post-tested. There was also a slight pre- to post-test shift in favour of technical education. Prior to the programmatic intervention over fourteen percent (14.29%) of the treatment pupils planned to complete a course at a technical college or technikon. This figure went up to 22.41% when the group was post-tested. An aspect of the results that is surprising is the pre- to post-test increase in the number of pupils who planned to leave school after passing matric (from 6.35% to 12.07%). This result is surprising because the educational aspect of the guidance programme emphasized the importance of remaining at school for as long as possible.

**H.8(b)**

There will not be a significant difference in the post-test educational plans of the treatment and control groups with reference to the academic/professional as against the vocational/technical options. Data relating to this hypothesis was analysed by means of the $X^2$ test. A $X^2$ value of 17.72 was obtained. Table 6.20 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 8(b).
TABLE 6.20: THE POST-TEST EDUCATIONAL PLANS OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EDUCATIONAL OPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Treatment)</td>
<td>12.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>5.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Control)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 17.72 \]
\[ df = 6 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

The \( X^2 \) value obtained from the date in table 6.20 was significant at the .05 level.

The null hypothesis that there would not be a significant difference in the post-test educational plans of the treatment and control groups with reference to the academic/professional as against the vocational/technical options was rejected. There was indeed some differences in the educational plans of the two groups. A larger percentage of the control group (58.89%) indicated an intention to pursue university studies. Only 44.83 percent of the treatment group expressed such an intention. A bigger proportion of the students in the treatment group (22.41%) expressed an intention to go and study at a technikon. The number of pupils in the control group who expressed the same intention constituted only 7.78 percent of this group. A bigger percentage of the pupils in the treatment
group (12.07%) indicated their intention to leave school after passing matric. Only 5.56 percent of the pupils in the control group expressed an intention to do so.

6.3.4 Certainty of Occupational Preferences

H. 9(a)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will not be more certain of their occupational preferences than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.

The \( X^2 \) was used to analyse the data relating to this hypothesis. A \( X^2 \) value of 12.24 was obtained. This \( X^2 \) value reached the .05 level of significance. Table presents that data relating to this hypothesis.

**TABLE 6.12: THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST LEVELS OF OCCUPATIONAL CERTAINTY FOR THE TREATMENT GROUP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF OCCUPATIONAL CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>32.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>50.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
X^2 = 12.24 \\
df = 2 \\
P < .05
\]

**NOTE:** The letters heading the columns in tables 6.21 and 6.22 represent the following levels of occupational certainty:
A - I am very sure that my "First Job Choice" will be the same in the future.

B - I am fairly sure that my "First Job Choice" will be the same in the future.

C - I am not sure at all that my "First Job Choice" will be the same in the future.

While the $X^2$ value of 12.24 was significant at the .05 level, null hypothesis 9(a) which stated that after the programmatic intervention the treatment group would not be more certain of their occupational preferences than would the same group before the programmatic intervention was accepted and the working hypothesis rejected. The observed differences in the pre-test and post-test expression of occupational certainty were not in the hypothesized direction. While most of the pupils in the treatment group (50.79%) seemed very certain of their occupational preference before the programmatic intervention, not as many of them were still so certain after the programmatic intervention. Only 32.76 percent remained "very sure" of their occupational preference after the programmatic intervention. A sizeable proportion of the treatment group (46.55%) were only "fairly sure" of their occupational preference after the programmatic intervention. Before the programmatic intervention only 23.27% of the group of pupils had been merely "fairly sure" of their occupational choice.

H_9(b)

After the programmatic intervention a larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will not express a greater degree of certainty regarding their occupational preferences.
The \( X^2 \) test was used to analyse the data relating to this hypothesis. A \( X^2 \) value of 9.47 was obtained. This \( X^2 \) value reached the .05 level of significance. Data relating to hypothesis 9(b) is presented in table 6.22 below.

**TABLE 6.22: THE POST-TEST LEVELS OF OCCUPATIONAL CERTAINTY OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF OCCUPATIONAL CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>32.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
X^2 = 9.47 \\
df = 2 \\
P < .05
\]

There was a significant difference between the post-test levels of occupational certainty of the treatment and control groups. Nevertheless, the null hypothesis 9(b) which postulated that after the programmatic intervention a larger percentage of the treatment group, than would be found in the control group when post-tested, would not express a greater degree of certainty with their job choices was thus accepted. As was the case with the treatment group before the programmatic intervention, a large percentage of the control group (51.11%) indicated that they were "very sure" of their occupational choice. After the programmatic intervention, only 32.76 percent of the treatment group expressed the same degree certainty.
After their exposure to the Guidance Programme a large percentage of the treatment group (46.55%) were merely "fairly sure" of their future occupation. Only 26.67 percent of the control group expressed the same post-test degree of doubt about their future jobs.

6.3.5 Perceived Needs for Help

6.3.5.1 Help with solution of educational problems

H10(a)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will not express a lesser need for help with the solution of "educational problems" than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.

As assessed by the ACD these "educational problems" include the improvement of reading and study skills, the improvement of Mathematics skills, choosing school subjects as well as finding money for furthering one's education. The treatment group's pre- and post-test data on the various educational problems were analysed by means of the X² test. This statistical analysis yielded the following X² values: improving one's study skills: X² = 1.82; improving one's reading skills: X² = 4.42; improving one's Mathematics skills: X² = 6.26; choosing school subjects: X² = 17.00; obtaining money to continue one's education after high school: X² = 3.04. Table 6.23 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 10(a).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>96.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>90.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 1.82 \quad x^2 = 4.42 \quad x^2 = 6.26 \quad x^2 = 17.00 \quad x^2 = 3.04 \]
\[ df = 1 \quad df = 1 \quad df = 1 \quad df = 1 \quad df = 1 \]
\[ P > .05 \quad P < .05 \quad P < .05 \quad P < .05 \quad P > .05 \]

NOTE  The letters which head the columns in tables 6.23 and 6.24 represent the following guidance needs:

A - Improving my study skills
B - Improving my reading skills
C - Improving my mathematics skills
D - Choosing subjects
E - Obtaining money to continue my education after high school.

As can be seen in table 6.23 above, three of the \( x^2 \) values obtained from the statistical analysis were significant at the .05 level of significance while two of them did not reach this level. On the whole there was a difference in the treatment group’s perceived needs for help before and after the programmatic intervention. However the pre-to post-test shift in the treatment group’s need perceptions were not in the hypothesized direction. In fact the guidance programme seems to have achieved the
opposite of what it sought to achieve in this regard. Consequently null hypothesis 10(a) which indicated that after the programmatic intervention the treatment group would not express a lesser need for help concerning the solution of "educational problems" than would the same group before the programmatic intervention was accepted. A closer examination of table 6.23 will enable us to see why this null hypothesis failed to be rejected. After the programmatic intervention, the pupils seemed to perceive a greater need for help regarding the solution of all the "educational problems" assessed by the ACD. For instance, while 84.13 percent of the treatment group expressed a pre-test need for help with improving their study skills, this figure rose to 94.34 percent after the programmatic intervention. Before the programmatic intervention 66.67 percent of the treatment group expressed a need for help to improve their mathematical skills. After the programmatic intervention 83.02 percent of this group expressed the same need. The pre- to post-test shift regarding the need for help with the choice of school subjects was from 82.54 percent (pre-test) to 100 percent (post-test).

H₂₀(b)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will not express a lesser need for help with the solution of "educational problems" than will the control group at post-testing.

In terms of the ACD these education problems include the ones referred to in hypothesis 10(a) above. The data relating the hypothesis 10(b) was subjected to the X² test. The following results were obtained: Improving
one's study skills: \( X^2 = .83 \); improving one's reading skills: \( X^2 = 2.31 \); improving one's mathematics skills: \( X^2 = 11.48 \); choosing school subjects: \( X^2 = 20.06 \); obtaining money to continue one's education after high school: \( X^2 = 5.64 \). Data pertaining to hypothesis 10(b) are presented in table 6.24 below.

**TABLE 6.24 : THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' PERCEIVED NEED FOR HELP WITH THE SOLUTION OF EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS (POST-TEST)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>96.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>92.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( X^2 = .83 \) \( X^2 = 2.31 \) \( X^2 = 11.48 \) \( X^2 = 20.06 \) \( X^2 = 5.64 \)

\( df = 1 \) \( df = 1 \) \( df = 1 \) \( df = 1 \) \( df = 1 \)

\( P > .05 \) \( P > .05 \) \( P < .05 \) \( P < .05 \) \( P < .05 \)

The data in table 6.24 above show that two of the obtained \( X^2 \) values were not significant at the .05 level while three reached the .05 level of significance. On average there seems to have been a significant difference in the post-test guidance needs of the treatment and control groups. The programmatic intervention seems to have heightened the need for assistance in the treatment group. The need for help is high in the control group but not as high as it is in the treatment group after the programmatic intervention. For instance, while 60.44 percent
of the control group expressed a need for help with improving one's mathematics skills, 83.02 percent of the treatment group expressed the same need. A high proportion of the control group (80.00%) expressed a need for help with the choice of school subjects. However, after the programmatic intervention all the pupils in the treatment group (100%) indicated that they needed help with subject choice. Null hypothesis 10(b) that stated that after the programmatic intervention, the treatment group would not express a lesser need for help regarding the solution of "educational problems" than would the control group when post-tested was accepted and the research hypothesis rejected.

6.3.5.2 Help with solution of career problems.

H_{11(a)}

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will not express a lesser need for help with the solution of career problems than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.

As measured by the ACD these "career problems" include making career plans and finding after-school or holiday work. The \( X^2 \) test was used to analyse data relating to this hypothesis. The following \( X^2 \) values were obtained: making career plans: \( X^2 = 14.47 \); finding after-school or holiday work: \( X^2 = 31.22 \). Table 6.25 below present the date pertaining to hypothesis 11(a):
TABLE 6.25: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' PERCEIVED NEED FOR HELP REGARDING THE SOLUTION OF CAREER PROBLEMS (POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>CAREER PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>98.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>80.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 14.47 \quad x^2 = 31.22 \]
\[ df = 1 \quad df = 1 \]
\[ p < .05 \quad p < .05 \]

NOTE  The letters heading the columns in tables 6.25 and 6.26 represent the following guidance needs:

A - Making career plans
B - Finding after-school or holiday work.

The two \( x^2 \) values in table 6.25 above are significant at the .05 level. There seems therefore to have been a significant pre- to post-test shift in the career guidance needs of the treatment group. This fact notwithstanding we are compelled to accept null hypothesis 11(a). The reason for this is that the shift that seems to have taken place did not occur in the expected direction. The treatment group expressed a greater, not a lesser, need for help in the solution of career problems after their exposure to the Guidance Programme. Slightly over eighty percent (80.48\%) of the treatment group expressed a pre-test need for help with making
career plans. At post-testing the percentage of those pupils in the treatment group who needed assistance in this regard rose to 98.11 percent. While only 57.14 percent of this group indicated that they needed help with finding after-school or holiday work this figure rose to a whopping 92.45 percent after the guidance programme had been presented to them.

H11(b)

After the programmatic intervention the treatment group will not express a lesser need for help with the solution of career problems than will the control group when post-tested.

The career problems assessed by the ACD are indicated in hypothesis 11(a) above. The \(X^2\) test was used to analyse data pertaining to null hypothesis 11(b). The following results were obtained: Making career plans: \(X^2 = 13.17\); finding after-school work: \(X^2 = 37.60\). Table 6.26 below presents data relating to hypothesis 11(b).

**TABLE 6.26: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS’ PERCEIVED NEED FOR HELP WITH THE SOLUTION OF CAREER PROBLEMS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>CAREER PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Treatment)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Post-Test)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>98.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>81.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2 = 13.12\] \[X^2 = 37.60\]

\[df = 1\] \[df = 1\]

\[P < .05\] \[P < .05\]
Both the $X^2$ values reflected in table 6.26 are significant at the .05 level. There was therefore significant differences in the post-test guidance needs of the treatment and control groups in respect of career planning. However, since the observed differences in the post-test guidance needs of the two groups in question has not taken the hypothesized direction, we are compelled to accept null hypothesis 11(b) which stated that after exposure to the guidance programme the treatment group would not express a lesser need for help with regard to the solution of career problems than would the control group at the post-test. An examination of table 6.26 above clearly shows that after the exposure to the guidance programme, the treatment group expressed a greater need for help regarding the solution of career problems than did the control group when post-tested. For instance, almost half of the pupils in the control group (47.22%) indicated that they did not have any need for help with finding after-school or holiday work.

6.3.6.3 Help with solution of personal problems

$H_{12(a)}$

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme the treatment group will not express a lesser need for help with the solution of "personal problems" than will the same group before the programmatic intervention.

Included here is the need for an opportunity to discuss problems of a personal nature with someone who can be helpful as well as the opportunity to discuss a health problem that is giving concern. To test this hypothesis
the relevant data were analysed by means of the $X^2$. The following $X^2$ values were obtained: discussing personal matters: $X^2 = 11.74$; discussing health problem: $X^2 = 1.79$. Table 6.27 below presents the data concerning hypothesis 12(a).

### TABLE 6.27 THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' PERCEIVED NEEDS FOR HELP WITH THE SOLUTION OF "PERSONAL PROBLEMS" (POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>CAREER</th>
<th>PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>86.79</td>
<td>13.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65.08</td>
<td>34.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 11.74 \quad X^2 = 1.79$

$df = 1 \quad df = 1$

$P < .05 \quad P > .05$

**NOTE** The letters heading the columns in tables 6.27 and 6.28 represent the following guidance needs:

A - Discussing personal things that are concerning me.

B - Discussing a health problem that is concerning me.

From table 6.27 above we can see that the $X^2$ value derived from the testing of the data relating to the solution of intimate personal matters was significant at the .05 level, while that obtained from the data relating to the solution of a health problem did not
reach the .05 level of significance. It would seen as if the treatment group came to appreciate the fact that the guidance teachers can help them resolve their intimate personal concerns. There was therefore a significant pre- to post-test shift in this regard. Only an insignificant pre- to post-test shift occurred regarding the need of the pupils for help with the solution of an intimate health problem. In both cases the shift that occurred was not in the hypothesized direction. Therefore null hypothesis 12(a) which asserted that consequent to participation in the Guidance Programme the treatment group would not express a lesser need for help regarding the solution of "personal problems" than would the same group before the programmatic intervention was accepted.

H₀12(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance programme the treatment group will not express a lesser need for help regarding the solution of "personal problems" than will the control group in the post-test. Such "personal problems" as are assessed by the ACD are indicated in hypothesis 12(a) above. Data relating to hypothesis 12(b) were analysed by means of the X²-test and the following results were obtained: discussing personal things: \( X^2 = 9.04; \) discussing a health problem: \( X^2 = .25. \) Table 6.28 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 12(b).
TABLE 6.28: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' PERCEIVED NEED FOR HELP REGARDING THE SOLUTION OF "PERSONAL PROBLEMS"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>PERSONAL CONCERNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>86.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>68.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
x^2 = 9.04 \quad x^2 = .25
\]
\[
df = 1 \quad df = 1
\]
\[
P < .05 \quad P > .05
\]

There was a significant difference in the need perception of the treatment and control groups with regard to the resolution of an intimate personal problem, (68% control group and 86.79% treatment group). Only a very slight difference was found between the two groups with regard to the perception of a need for help regarding the solution of an intimate health problem. The differences that were observed between the two groups relating to hypothesis 12(b) were not in the hypothesized direction. Consequently null hypothesis 12(b) stating that consequent to participation in the Guidance Programme the treatment group would not express a lesser need for help regarding the solution of "personal problems" than would the control group when posted was accepted.
6.4 CAREER PLANNING AND DECISION MAKING

6.4.1 Career Planning Knowledge

$H_{13}(a)$

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD.

The treatment group's pre-test and post-test scores on this scale were analysed by means of the t-test for correlated data. The following t-values were obtained:

Post-test versus Pre-test (females), $t = 12.93$
Post-test versus Pre-test (males), $t = 8.41$
Post-test versus Pre-test (total treatment group), $t = 15.29$.

The t-values for the two sub-groups as well as the one for the total treatment group reached the .05 level of significance. The data relating to hypothesis 13(a) are presented in table 6.29 given below:
TABLE 6.29: POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, STANDARD ERROR, T-VALUE, DEGREES OF FREEDOM, AND TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY FOR TREATMENT GROUP (FEMALES, MALES, TOTAL GROUP) ON THE CAREER PLANNING KNOWLEDGE SCALE OF THE ACD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>28.11</td>
<td>12.03</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>12.93</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>16.08</td>
<td>11.74</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>8.41</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>29.04</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>15.29</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>15.29</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL GROUP</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>28.47</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>15.29</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The null hypothesis that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD was rejected for both sex sub-groups as well as for the total treatment group.

H_{13(b)}

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD.

To test this hypothesis the post-test scores of the two groups were analysed by means of the t-test for uncorrelated data. This statistical procedure yielded
the following t-values: Post-test (treatment group) versus post-test (control group) (females), \(t = 13.15\), post-test (treatment group) versus post-test (control group) (males) \(t = 11.66\); post-test (treatment group) versus post-test (control group) (total group), \(t = 17.55\). The t-values for the two sub-groups as well as that for the total group were all significant at the .05 level. Data pertaining to hypothesis 13(b) are presented in table 6.30 below:

**TABLE 6.30 : MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, STANDARD ERROR, T-VALUE, DEGREES OF FREEDOM AND TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY FOR POST-TESTS OF TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS (FEMALES, MALES, AND TOTAL GROUP) ON THE CAREER PLANNING KNOWLEDGE SCALE OF THE ACD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test (T)</td>
<td>28.11</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>13.15</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (C)</td>
<td>15.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (T)</td>
<td>29.04</td>
<td>13.32</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>11.66</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (C)</td>
<td>15.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>Post-Test (T)</td>
<td>28.47</td>
<td>12.96</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>17.55</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUP</td>
<td>Post-Test (C)</td>
<td>15.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null hypothesis 13(b) which stated that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Career Planning Knowledge Scale of the ACD was rejected.
6.4.2 Career Planning Involvement

H.14(a)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of ACD.

The data pertaining to hypothesis 14(a) was analysed by means of the t-test for correlated data. This statistical procedure resulted in the following t-values:

Post-test versus pre-test (females), \( t = 1.51 \)
Post-test versus pre-test (males), \( t = .91 \)
Post-test versus pre-test (total treatment group), \( t = 1.83 \)

The t-values for the two sub-groups as well as that for the total treatment group failed to reach the .05 significance level. Data relating to hypothesis 14(a) is presented in 6.31 below.

TABLE 6.31 : POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, STANDARD ERROR, T-VALUE, DEGREES OF FREEDOM AND TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY FOR TREATMENT GROUP (FEMALES, MALES, AND TOTAL GROUP) ON THE CAREER PLANNING INVOLVEMENT SCALE OF THE ACD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL GROUP</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The null hypothesis stating that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be significantly higher than the mean pre-test score of the same group on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD was accepted and the research hypothesis rejected.

H.14(b)

The mean post-test score of the treatment group will not be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD.

To test this hypothesis the post-test scores of the two groups on the Career Planning Involvement Scale were analysed by means of the t-test for uncorrelated data. This statistical analysis yielded the following results:

Post-test (treatment group) versus Post-test (control group) (females), \( t = 1.27 \)

Post-test (treatment group) versus post-test (control group) (males), \( t = 1.23 \)

Post-test (treatment group) versus post-test (control group) (total group), \( t = 2.07 \).

The t-values for the two sub-groups failed to reach the .05 significance level. However the t-value for the total group was significant at the .05 level. The data relating to hypothesis 14(b) are presented in table 6.32 below.
TABLE 6.32: POST-TEST MEANS, DIFFERENCE IN MEANS, STANDARD ERROR, T-VALUE, DEGREES OF FREEDOM AND TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY FOR TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS (FEMALES, MALES, AND TOTAL GROUP) ON THE CAREER PLANNING INVOLVEMENT SCALE OF THE ACD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>DIF IN MEANS</th>
<th>STD ERROR</th>
<th>T-VALUE</th>
<th>TWO-TAIL PROBABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>Post-Test (T)</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (C)</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>Post-Test (T)</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (C)</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL GROUP</td>
<td>Post-Test (T)</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-Test (C)</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Null hypothesis 14(b) which stated that the mean post-test score of the treatment group would not be significantly higher than the mean post-test score of the control group on the Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD was rejected.

6.4.3 Self Evaluation of Career Planning

H-15(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group will not have given careful thought to the appropriateness of their first two job choices than will have the same group before the programmatic intervention.
The $X^2$ was used to analyse the data relating to this hypothesis. The test yielded the following result: $X^2 = 5.15$. This $X^2$ value did not reach the .05 level of significance. Table 6.33 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 15(a)

**TABLE 6.33: THE TREATMENT GROUP’S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST LEVEL OF CONTEMPLATION OF A FUTURE CAREER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF REFLECTION</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 5.15$

$df = 2$

$P > .05$

**NOTE** With regard to hypotheses 15(a) and 15(b) the pupils had to answer the following question: Have you given much thought as to why these two jobs are right for you? The letters heading the columns in tables 6.33 and 6.34 represent the three options the student had for purposes of answering the question. These options are:

A - Little
B - Some
C - A lot.
An examination of table 6.33 above shows that both before and after the programmatic intervention a large percentage of the pupils in the treatment group had not given much thought to their future careers. The only appreciable pre- to post-test shift in this regard was in respect of those who had given "some thought" about their careers - from 36.51 percent (pre-test) to 51.72 percent (post-test). An interesting finding reflected in table 36 is the fact that a sizeable proportion of the treatment group (38.10%) thought they had given careful consideration to their future careers. However, after the programmatic intervention some of these pupils seem to have discovered that in reality they had not done so. The proportion of those pupils who thought they had carefully thought out their future careers fell to 25.86 percent after the pupils had had exposure to the Guidance Programme. In view of the low $X^2$ value obtained, null hypothesis $H_{15(a)}$ to the effect that participation in the Guidance Programme would not have led a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group to give careful thought to their two first job choices than would have been the case with the same group before the programmatic intervention was thus accepted.

$H_{15(b)}$

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group will not have carefully thought about the appropriateness of their first two jobs than will have been the case with the control group when post-tested.
The $X^2$ test was applied to the data relating to this hypothesis and yielded the following results: $X^2 = 5.45$. This $X^2$ value was not significant at the .05 level. Data relating to hypothesis 15(b) is presented in table 6.34 below.

**TABLE 6.34: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST LEVEL OF CONTEMPLATION OF A FUTURE CAREER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CONTEMPLATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>22.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>23.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 5.45$

$df = 2$

$P > .05$

Null hypothesis 15(b) stating that as a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group would not have carefully thought about the appropriateness of their first two jobs choices, than would have been the case with the control group when post-tested, was accepted. Slightly more of the pupils who participated in the Guidance Programme indicated that they had not thought much about the appropriateness of their chosen jobs for themselves than did those pupils who had not been exposed to the Guidance Programme.
H.16(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not have planned their education in line with what is needed for their chosen jobs.

To test this hypothesis the relevant data was subjected to the \(X^2\) test which yielded the following result: \(X^2 = 15.43\). This \(X^2\) value reached the .05 level of significance. Table 6.35 below present data related to hypothesis 16(a).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>34.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>60.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2 = 15.43\]
\[df = 2\]
\[p < .05\]

NOTE The pupils were required to respond to the following question. Is the amount of education you are planning in line with what is needed for
these jobs? The letters heading the columns in tables 6.35 and 6.35 represent the options the pupils had for purposes of answering this question, namely:

A - Yes
B - Not sure
C - Probably not.

There was a significant shift in the treatment group's pre-test and post-test level of confidence regarding the degree of fit between their educational and career plans. However this shift was not in the hypothesized direction. For instance, before the programmatic intervention 60.32 percent of the pupils in the treatment group were certain about the appropriateness of their educational plans in relation to their career plans.

After their participation in the Guidance Programme only 34.48 percent were still sure that their educational plans were properly matched to their career plans. After the programmatic intervention 53.45 percent were "not sure" that this was the case. Prior to the programmatic intervention only 36.51 percent were "not sure" about the appropriateness of their educational plans in relation to their career plans.

There was a four-fold pre- to post-test increase in the percentage of students who thought their academic plans were not in line with their career plans.

Null hypothesis 16(a), as enunciated above, was accepted.
H.16(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when it is post-tested, will not have planned their education in line with what is required for their chosen job.

The $X^2$ test was used to analyse the relevant data. A $X^2$ value of 18.82 was obtained. This $X^2$ value was significant at the .05 level. Data relating to hypothesis 16(b) are presented in table 6.36 below.

TABLE 6.36: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST LEVEL OF CERTAINTY REGARDING THE APPROPRIATENESS OF THEIR EDUCATIONAL PLANS IN RELATION TO THEIR CAREER PLANS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>34.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>64.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 18.82$

$df = 2$

$P < .05$

Null hypothesis 16(b), just like null hypothesis 16(a), failed to be rejected and was thus accepted because the significant difference that was observed
between the treatment and control groups regarding the certainty they had about the appropriateness of their academic plans in relation to their career plans was not in the hypothesized direction. More pupils in the treatment group were less sure about the appropriateness of their educational plans in relation to their career plans after the programmatic intervention than those in the control group who were not exposed to the Guidance Programme. When post-tested 64 percent of the pupils in the control group expressed complete certainty about the adequacy of the amount of education they planned to have in relation to jobs they had chosen. Only 34.48 percent of the pupils in the treatment group expressed the same degree of certainty in this connection when they were post-tested. After their participation in the Guidance Programme, more than half of the pupils in the treatment group (53.45%) were "not sure" of the appropriateness of their educational plans in relation to career plans. Only 32.67 percent of the pupils in the control group gave the same reply when they were post-tested. The pupils in the treatment group who thought that their educational plans were probably inappropriate in relation to their career plans were nearly four times as many as those pupils in the control group who thought the same way: 12.07 percent and 3.33 percent respectively.

H17(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not have selected jobs that will enable them to achieve their goals in life.
To test this hypothesis the X² test was applied to the relevant data and yielded the following result: X² = 21.33. This X² value reached the .05 level of significance. Table 6.37 below presents the data related to hypothesis 17(a).

**TABLE 6.37: THE TREATMENT GROUP’S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST LEVEL OF CERTAINTY REGARDING THE APPROPRIATENESS OF THEIR CAREER PLANS IN RELATION TO THEIR LIFE GOALS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.10</td>
<td>53.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>74.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 21.33 \]
\[ df = 2 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

**NOTE** Regarding hypothesis 17(a) and 17(b), the pupils were required to answer the following question: Will the two (chosen jobs) help you obtain what you want out of life? The letters which head the columns in tables 6.37 and 6.38 represent the options the pupils had for purposes of answering this question, namely:

A - Yes
B - Not sure
C - Probably not.
There was a large pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group’s level of certainty regarding the appropriateness of their career plans in relation to their life goals. Nearly three-quarters of the pupils in the treatment group (74.60%) believed that their chosen jobs would enable them to realize their life-goals. This figure fell to 43.10 percent when the group was post-tested after the programmatic intervention. After the programmatic intervention the majority of the pupils in this group (53.45%) were no longer so sure that their chosen careers would help them obtain what they wanted in life. Only 22.22 percent had felt the same way before the group was exposed to the Guidance Programme. All in all, the pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group’s level of certainty regarding the degree of fit between the group’s career plans and their life goals did not occur in the hypothesized direction. Consequently null hypothesis 17(b), as stated above, was accepted.

H.17(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will not have selected jobs which will enable them to realize their life-goals.

Data pertaining to this hypothesis was analysed by means of the $X^2$ test and the following result was obtained: $X^2 = 22.69$. This $X^2$ value was significant at the .05 level. Table 6.38 below presents data relating to hypothesis 17(b).
Table 6.38: The treatment and control groups' post-test level of certainty regarding the appropriateness of their career plans in relation to their life-goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>43.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 22.69 \]

\[ df = 2 \]

\[ p < .05 \]

From Table 6.38 above we can clearly see that differences that were observed between the post-test level of certainty of the treatment and control groups concerning the appropriateness of their career plans in relation to their life-goals, were not in terms of the hypothesized position. It was hypothesized that exposure to the Guidance Programme would cause the treatment group to be more certain about the degree of fit between their career choices and their life-goals. The control group, which was not going to benefit from such exposure, would be less certain about the appropriateness of their career plans in relation to their life-goals. The reverse was the case. Over three quarters of the pupils in the control group were certain that the jobs they had chosen would help them realize their life goals. Only 43.10 percent of the pupils in the treatment group, expressed the same degree of certainty in this
regard. The majority of the pupils in the treatment group were "not sure" about this matter.

In view of the data in table 6.38 null hypothesis 17(b), as enunciated above, was accepted and the research hypothesis rejected.

H.18(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group prior to the programmatic intervention, will not be more certain of the steps that must be taken to prepare for and enter the selected jobs.

To test this hypothesis the $X^2$ test was applied on the relevant data with the resultant $X^2$ value of 6.57. This $X^2$ value failed to reach the .05 level of significance. Data pertaining to hypothesis 18(a) is presented in table 6.39 below.

TABLE 6.39: THE TREATMENT GROUP'S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST LEVEL OF CERTAINTY REGARDING THE STEPS TO BE TAKEN IN PREPARATION FOR ENTRY INTO EACH OF THE CHOSEN JOBS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>49.24</td>
<td>33.10</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>40.44</td>
<td>27.46</td>
<td>25.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 6.57$

$df = 3$

$p > .05$
NOTE In respect of hypotheses 18(a) and 18(b) the pupils were required to respond to the following question: How sure are you of the steps to take in order to prepare for and enter each of the two jobs? The letters heading the columns in tables 6.39 and 6.40 represent the options the pupils had in order to answer this question.

A - Don't know where to begin
B - Have some idea of how to go about it
C - The steps are fairly clear
D - The steps are quite clear.

The pre- to post-test shift in the degree of certainty regarding the preparation requirements for the chosen jobs was not significant. However there was a slight shift in the treatment group's certainty level on the issue under consideration.

However, the shift was on the whole, in the hypothesized direction. For instance the percentage of pupils who stated that they had some idea of how to go about making the required preparation to enter the jobs rose from 40.44 percent (pre-test) to 49.24 percent (post-test) and those who indicated that "the steps are fairly clear" rose from 27.46 percent (pre-test) to 33.10 percent (post-test).

However, since the observed differences were not significant \((X^2 = 6.57, \text{ df} = 3, p > .05)\), null hypothesis 18(a) was accepted.
H.18(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, when compared to the control group at post-testing, will not be more certain of the steps that must be taken to prepare for and enter their chosen jobs.

Data pertaining to this hypothesis was subjected to the $X^2$ test. A $X^2$ value of 10.44 was obtained. The $X^2$ value was significant at the .05 level. Table 6.40 below presents the data pertaining to hypothesis 18(b).

**Table 6.40**: The treatment and control groups’ post-test level of certainty regarding the steps to be taken in preparation for entry into each of the chosen jobs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>8.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 10.44$

$df = 3$

$P < .05$

The results obtained in respect of hypothesis 18(b) are very much the same as those obtained in respect of
hypothesis 18(a). The same degree of paradox is observable, to wit: While 8.22 percent of the control group gave a post-test response of not knowing where to begin, only 1.45 percent of the treatment group gave the same post-test response. This is as it should have been. However 27.21 percent of the control group indicated that "the steps are quite clear" while only 16.21 percent of the treatment group gave this response. In terms of the hypothesis more pupils in the treatment group should have given this response. However, if categories A and B and C and D of table 43 are combined a slightly bigger percentage of the pupils in the control group than was found in the treatment group indicated that the preparation were either fairly clear or quite clear, (56.67 percent for the control group as against 49.31 percent for the treatment group). The slight differences that were observed in the treatment and control groups with regard to null hypothesis 18(b) were not in the hypothesized direction. Null hypothesis 18(b), as stated above, was thus accepted.

H. 19(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not be in a position to feel that they will be able to complete the necessary steps for entry into at least one of the jobs.

The data relating to this hypothesis was analysed by means of the X² test. This test yielded a X² value of 7.80 which was significant at the .05 level. Data
relating to hypothesis 19(a) is presented in table 6.41 below.

**TABLE 6.41: THE TREATMENT GROUP’S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST LEVEL OF CERTAINTY CONCERNING THE COMPLETION OF ALL THE NECESSARY STEPS FOR ENTRY INTO AT LEAST ONE OF THE CHOSEN JOBS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 7.80 \]

\[ df = 2 \]

\[ p < .05 \]

**NOTE** The question that the pupils had to answer in connection with hypotheses 19(a) and 19(b) read as follows: Do you feel you will be able to complete all the necessary steps for at least one of the jobs? The letters which head the columns in tables 6.41 and 6.42 represent the following options which the pupils had for purposes of answering the question.

A - Yes
B - Not sure
C - Probably not.

An examination of table 6.41 shows that there was a pre-to post-test shift in the level of certainty the
pupils in the treatment group had regarding their ability to complete the necessary preparatory tasks for entry into one of the jobs they had chosen. Prior to their exposure to the Guidance Programme nearly three quarters of the pupils in the treatment group (73.02%) indicated that they would be able to complete all the required steps. However, after their participation in the Guidance Programme the percentage of pupils who felt this way dropped to 65.52 percent. What happened was that after their exposure to the programme a sizeable percentage of this group (34.48%) were now not so sure as to whether they would be able to complete all the necessary steps for entry into at least one of the jobs. Only 22.22 percent of the group had given this response before their participation in the Guidance Programme. The pre- to post-test shift that occurred in the treatment group concerning hypothesis 19(a) did not occur according to the expected direction. Consequently null hypothesis 19(a), as stated above, failed to be rejected and was thus accepted.

H. 19(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group at post-testing, will not be in a position to feel that they will be able to complete the necessary steps for entry into at least one of the jobs.

The $X^2$ test applied to the data pertaining to this hypothesis yielded a value of 9.00. This $X^2$ value reached the .05 level of significance. Table 6.42 below presents data relating to hypothesis 19(b).
TABLE 6.42: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST CERTAINTY LEVEL REGARDING THEIR ABILITY TO COMPLETE ALL THE NECESSARY STEPS FOR ENTRY INTO AT LEAST ONE OF THE CHOSEN JOBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>LEVELS OF CERTAINTY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>65.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>75.56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 9.00 \]
\[ df = 2 \]
\[ P < .05 \]

The results pertaining to hypothesis 19(b) are very similar to those relating to hypothesis 19(a). Slightly over four percent of the control group indicated that they would most probably be unable to complete all the necessary steps for entry into one of the jobs. After the programmatic intervention none of the pupils in the treatment group gave this reply. This was what was expected in terms of hypothesis 19(b). However, as against this finding, slightly over three quarters of the pupils in the control group (75.56%) expressed absolute certainty that they would be able to complete the necessary steps for entry into at least one of the chosen jobs. After the programmatic intervention only 65.52 percent of the pupils in the treatment group expressed the same degree of certainty in this regard, with 34.48 percent indicating that they were "not sure"
whether they would be able to complete all the necessary steps.

Although the differences between the treatment and control groups on the issue addressed by hypothesis 19(b) were of a significant nature, such differences were not in the hypothesized direction. Consequently, null hypothesis 19(b), as enunciated above, was accepted.

H.20(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not view their occupational future as bright.

The data pertaining to this hypothesis was analysed by means of the \( \chi^2 \) test. A \( \chi^2 \) value of 1.56 was obtained. This \( \chi^2 \) value was not significant at the .05 level. Table 6.43 below presents all the data relating to hypothesis 20(a).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>VIEWS OF OCCUPATIONAL FUTURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>78.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>84.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 1.56 \]
\[ df = 2 \]
\[ p > .05 \]
NOTE: Concerning hypothesis 20(a) and 20(b) the pupils were required to answer the following question:

Would you say that your job future is ____?

The letters heading the columns in tables 6.43 and 6.44 represent the options the pupils had for purposes of answering the question:

A - Bright?
B - Dark?
C - Uncertain?

The pre- to post-test shift in the optimism of the pupils in the treatment group regarding their occupational future was insignificant. Both before and after the programmatic intervention very high proportions of the pupils in the treatment group expressed a great deal of optimism about their occupational future 84.13 percent (pre-test) and 78.97 percent (post-test). A surprising, while insignificant finding, was the post-test increase in the percentage of pupils who regarded their future as uncertain. The figure in this regard increased from 11.11 (pre-test) to 17.17 (post-test).

Null hypothesis 20(a), as stated above, was thus accepted.

H0.20(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group at post-testing, will not regard its occupational future
as bright. The $X^2$ test was used to analyse the data pertaining to this hypothesis. A $X^2$ value of 2.29 was obtained. This $X^2$ value failed to reach the .05 level of significance. Data relating to hypothesis 20(b) are presented in table 6.44 below.

**TABLE 6.44: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST CONCEPTION OF THEIR OCCUPATIONAL FUTURE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>VIEWS OF OCCUPATIONAL FUTURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>78.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>86.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 2.29$

$df = 2$

$p > .05$

A large percentage of pupils in both the control and treatment groups regarded their future as bright. While a slightly larger percentage of the pupils in the control group (86.67%) expressed optimism about their future than those in the treatment group (78.97%), the difference was not significant.

Null hypothesis 20(b), as stated above, was therefore accepted.
6.5 REACTIONS OF CAREER GUIDANCE EXPERIENCE

H.21(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before programmatic intervention will not have benefitted much from the use of job description files, pamphlets and books on careers.

To test this hypothesis the treatment group's pre- and post-test responses to the issue under consideration was subjected to the $X^2$ test. This statistical procedure produced a $X^2$ value of 60.35. This $X^2$ value is significant at the .05 level. Tabale 6.45 presents the data relating to hypothesis 21(a).

**TABLE 6.45: THE TREATMENT GROUP'S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST EVALUATION OF THE CAREER GUIDANCE RESOURCES THAT WERE PROVIDED TO THEM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.24</td>
<td>6.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>43.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 60.35$

$df = 3$

$P < .05$
NOTE  Regarding hypotheses 21(a) and 21(b) the pupils had to evaluate the following guidances resources which had been available to them. The letters which head the columns in tables 6.45 and 6.46 represent the evaluative categories the pupils could use to assess the resources in question.

A - Help not provided or not used
B - This was of little help
C - This was of some help
D - This was a lot of help.

There was a substantial pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group’s evaluation of the guidance resources at their school. Prior to the programmatic intervention only 43.33 percent of the group indicated that the resources in question were either not provided or not used. After the exposure to the guidance programme, only a small proportion of the group (9.24%) still gave the same response. The majority of them not only indicated that these resources had been made available to them, but that for a large percentage of them (37.59%) such material was of some help and for a still larger proportion of the group (46.55%), a lot of help.

In view of the findings given above, null hypothesis 21(a), as enunciated above, was rejected.

H.21(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group at post-testing, will
not have benefited a lot from job description files, pamphlets and books on careers.

For purposes of the testing this hypothesis data relating to hypothesis 21(b) was subjected to the test. The test yielded a $X^2$ value of 60.98. This $X^2$ value reached the .05 level of significance. Table 6.46 presents the data pertaining to hypothesis 21(b).

TABLE 6.46: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS POST-TEST EVALUATION OF THE CAREER GUIDANCE RESOURCES WHICH WERE MADE AVAILABLE TO THEM.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>47.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 60.98$

$df = 3$

$p < .05$

The differences between the treatment and control groups' post-test evaluation of the guidance resources at their respective schools were highly significant. These differences were also in the hypothesized direction. Consequently null hypothesis 21(b), as stated above, was rejected.
H.22(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not have benefitted much from viewing films, listening to talks on various jobs by actual practitioners, and participating in career days and tours to plants.

The data relating to hypothesis 22(a) was analysed by means of the $X^2$ test. This statistical procedure produce a $X^2$ value of 1.70. This $X^2$ value did not reach the .05 significance level. Table 6.47 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 22(b).

**TABLE 6.47: THE TREATMENT GROUP'S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST EVALUATION OF THE CAREER GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES AT THEIR SCHOOL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>44.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 1.70$

$df = 3$

$p > .05$
NOTE  
In terms of the hypotheses under consideration (H 22(a) and 22(b)), the pupils had to make an evaluation of the following guidance activities that were or aught to have been provided in their school.

The letters heading the columns in tables 6.47 and 6.48 represent the evaluative categories according to which they had to assess the guidance activities.

A - Help not provided or not used
B -- This was of little help
C - This was of some help
D - This was a lot of help.

Both before and after the programmatic intervention the treatment group gave more or less the same evaluation of some of the guidance activities in their school. The general assessment on both occasions was that the guidance services being evaluated were either "not provided or not used". Over forty percent (43.33%) gave this reply before the programmatic intervention. This figure rose to 51.72 percent after the group had been exposed to the Guidance Programme. Of those who indicated that these activities were offered, a sizeable percentage stated that such guidance activities had been of little value to them 24.44 percent (pre-test) and 20.69 percent (post-test).

In view of the fact that there was no significant pre-to post-test shift in the views of the treatment group regarding the issue addressed by null hypothesis 22(a), this null hypothesis was accepted.
H.22(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will not have benefitted a lot from viewing films, listening to talks on various jobs by actual practitioners, and participating in career days and tours to plants.

The $X^2$ test was used to analyse data relating to hypothesis 22(b). The $X^2$ value of 1.70 which was obtained, failed to reach the .05 level of significance. Table 6.48 presents the data relating to hypothesis 22(b).

**TABLE 6.48 : THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST EVALUATION OF THE CAREER GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES AT THEIR SCHOOL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.72</td>
<td>20.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>43.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 1.70$

$df = 3$

$P > .05$
There was no significant difference in the treatment and control groups’ post-test evaluation of some key guidance activities that were offered or aught to have been offered at their respective school. Large proportions of the pupils in both groups, 43.33 percent (control) and 51.72 percent (treatment) indicated that such guidance activities were either not provided or not used in their schools. Actually, the data obtained in respect of null hypothesis 22(b) are very much the same as those for hypothesis 22(a).

Consideration of the data in table 6.48 including the low $X^2$ value which failed to reach the .05 significance level, led to the acceptance of null hypothesis 22(b) as enunciated above.

$H_{23(a)}$

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not have benefitted from a discussion by the various subject teachers of jobs that are related to their subjects.

To test this hypothesis the relevant data was subjected to the $X^2$ test. A $X^2$ value of 14.89 was obtained. This $X^2$ value was significant at the .05 significance level. Table 6.49 presents the data pertaining to hypothesis 23(a).
TABLE 6.49: THE TREATMENT GROUP'S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST EVALUATION OF THE ROLE OF THE ORDINARY SUBJECT TEACHER WITH REGARD TO CAREER GUIDANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.45</td>
<td>34.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>35.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 14.89 \]
\[ df = 3 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

**NOTE** Concerning hypotheses 23(a) and 23(b) the pupils had to assess the value of "class discussion by teachers of jobs related to the subjects they are teaching."

The letters heading the columns in tables 6.49 and 6.50 represent the evaluative categories in terms of which the pupils had to assess the subject teachers' guidance role.

A - Help not provided or not used
B - This was of **little** help
C - This was of **some** help
D - This was a **lot** of help.

The pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group's perception of the subject teacher's guidance role was
very significant. After the programmatic intervention more than half of the pupils in the treatment group (53.45%) indicated that class discussion by the teachers of jobs related to the subjects they taught did not take place. Only 35.40 percent of these pupils had given this response prior to the programmatic intervention. Of those who indicated that such class discussions did take place, 31.75 percent of these pupils thought, before their exposure to the programme, that the discussions were of little help. This figure rose to 34.48 percent after the group had participated in the programme. After the programmatic intervention only 3.45 percent of the treatment group thought that the class discussions were a lot of help. Over sixteen percent (16.98%) of the same group had given this answer before they were exposed to the programme.

All in all, while there was a pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group's assessment of the subject teacher's guidance role, such shift was not in the hypothesized direction. Null hypothesis 23(a), as enunciated above, was thus accepted.

\[ H_{023(b)} \]

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, when compared with the control group at post-testing, will not have benefitted a lot from a discussion by the various subject teachers of jobs that are related to the subjects they teach.

Data relating to this hypothesis was analysed by means of the \( X^2 \) test. This statistical procedure produced a \( X^2 \) value of 19.42. This \( X^2 \) value reached the .05 level
of significance. Table 6.50 below presents the data pertaining to hypothesis 23(b).

**TABLE 6.50: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST EVALUATION OF THE ROLE OF THE ORDINARY SUBJECT TEACHER IN RESPECT OF CAREER GUIDANCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>53.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Treatment)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>33.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Control)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 19.42 \]
\[ df = 3 \]
\[ p < .05 \]

The post-test evaluation by the control group of the career guidance role of the subject teachers is very similar to that made by the treatment group before the programmatic intervention. This post-test evaluation by the control group therefore differs significantly from that made by treatment group after the programmatic intervention \((\chi^2 = 19.42, df = 3, p < .05)\). An examination of table 6.50 above confirms this fact. However, the differences that were observed in the treatment and control groups' post-test evaluation of the role of the subject teacher in respect of career guidance, not in the hypothesized direction. Consequently, null hypothesis 23(b), as enunciated above, failed to be rejected and was thus accepted.
H. 24(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group prior to the programmatic intervention, will not have benefitted a lot from discussions with the school counsellor about the pupil's post high school education and job plans. The $X^2$ test was used to analyse the data relating to this hypothesis. A $X^2$ value of 39.35 was obtained. This $X^2$ value was significant at the .05 level. Table 6.51 presents the data pertaining to this hypothesis.

**Table 6.51: The treatment group's post-test and pre-test evaluation of the effectiveness of the school counsellor in respect of school guidance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>18.97</td>
<td>20.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td>51.75</td>
<td>23.81</td>
<td>14.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 39.35$

$df = 3$

$p < .05$

**NOTE** With regard to hypotheses 24(a) and 24(b) the pupils had to assess the effectiveness of the
school counsellor in helping pupils plan their post high school educational and occupational careers.

The letters heading the columns in tables 6.51 and 6.52 represent the evaluative categories according to which the pupils could assess the help they had received from the school counsellor.

A - Help not provided or not used.
B - This was of little help
C - This was of some help
D - This was a lot of help

A study of table 6.51 above reveals a highly significant pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group's evaluation of the effectiveness of the school counsellor in helping the pupils plan their educational and future careers. Prior to their participation in the Guidance Programme, more than half of the pupils in the treatment programme (51.75%) indicated that such help was not provided to them by the school counsellors. After their exposure to the Guidance Programme, only 17.24 percent of the same indicated that such help was not provided. After participating in the Guidance Programme 43.10 percent of the pupils in this group not only stated that they had received help from the counsellor in making their educational and career plans, but also indicated that such assistance had been "a lot of help". Before the programmatic intervention only 10.16 percent of the pupils in the treatment group indicated that they had received valuable help from the school counsellor. If we combine categories B, C, D in table 6.51, that is, the percentages of those pupils who indicated that they had had some
help from a counsellor irrespective of whether it was of a little, some or was a lot of value, we observe a pre-to post-test shift of 48.26 percent (pre-test) to 82.76 percent (post-test) in the hypothesized direction.

In view of the data presented and analysed above, null hypothesis 24(a) was rejected.

\( \textbf{H_0 24(b)} \)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the treatment group, when compared to the control group at post-testing, will not have benefitted a lot from a discussion with their school counsellor about the pupils' post high school education, al and occupational plans. To test this hypothesis the relevant data was subjected to the \( \chi^2 \) test. This statistical procedure yielded a \( \chi^2 \) value of 33.71 which was significant at the .05 level. Data relating to this hypothesis 24(b) is presented in table 6.52 below.

\[\text{TABLE 6.52: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELLOR WITH REGARD TO CAREER GUIDANCE}\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>18.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Control)</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 33.71 \)

\( \text{df} = 3 \)

\( p < .05 \)
There was a significance difference in the treatment and control groups' post-test evaluation of the role of the counsellor in helping the pupils plan their future careers. Fifty percent of the pupils in the control group indicated that such help was completely unavailable. Only 17.24 percent of the treatment group replied in the same manner. In fact, 43.10 percent of the pupils in the treatment group not only indicated that they had received such assistance, but also stated that this help had been of great value to them. If categories B, C and D of the pupils' responses are combined, we find that over eighty percent (82.76%) of the pupils in the treatment group indicated they had received some career planning assistance from their teacher counsellor, while only 49.99 percent of the pupils in the control group indicated that they had received such help. Considering the data and the results of the statistical test presented above, null-hypothesis 24(b), as stated in the preceding paragraphs, was rejected.

H₂₅(a)

As a result of their exposure to the Guidance Programme a significantly larger proportion of the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not have benefitted considerably from group discussions among themselves about, *inter alia*, their educational and occupational plans as well as what they want from a job.

By way of testing this hypothesis the relevant data was subjected to the $X^2$ test. This test yielded a $X^2$ value of 49.76 which was significant at the .05 level.
Table 6.53 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 25(a).

**TABLE 6.53 : THE TREATMENT GROUP'S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST EVALUATION OF SMALL GROUP DISCUSSIONS AMONG THE PUPILS THEMSELVES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>8.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>48.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 49.76 \]
\[ df = 3 \]
\[ P < .05 \]

**NOTE** With regard to hypotheses 25(a) and 25(b) the pupils were required to evaluate the small group discussions which they held among themselves by responding to the following statement:

"Meetings with small groups of students to discuss what we want from a job, education plans, job plans, etc."

The letters heading the columns in table 6.53 and 6.54 represent the evaluative categories at the disposal of the pupils.
A - Help not provided or not used
B - This was of little help
C - This was of some help
D - This was a lot of help.

If we combined responses in categories B, C and D in which the pupils indicated that small group discussions were held and were either of little, of some, or of great value, the pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group regarding the issue under consideration becomes very clear. We witness a pre- to post-test shift of a large magnitude, namely, from 51.13 percent (pre-test) to 91.38 percent (post-test). Moreover, prior to the programmatic intervention, nearly fifty percent of the pupils (48.47%) indicated that such small group discussion never took place. After the programmatic intervention only 8.62 percent of the pupils in the treatment group still maintained that such group activities never took place. After the group had been exposed to the Guidance Programme 74.14 percent indicated that the peer group discussions did take place and that they were either of some help (34.48%) or of great help (39.66%).

The pre- to post-test shift that occurred was not only statistically significant, but was also in the hypothesized direction. Consequently, null hypothesis 25(a) as enunciated above, was rejected.

H.25(b)

As a result of their exposure to the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control
group in the post-test, will not have benefitted greatly from group discussions among themselves about their educational and occupational plans as well as what they want from a job. The $X^2$ test was used in the analysis of the data relating to hypothesis 25(b). A $X^2$ value of 48.80 was obtained. This $X^2$ value reached the .05 significance level. The data pertaining to this hypothesis are presented in table 6.54 below.

**TABLE 6.54 : THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST EVALUATION OF SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION AMONG THE PUPILS THEMSELVES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>8.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test (Control)</td>
<td>48.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 48.80$

$df = 3$

$P < .05$

An examination of table 6.54 reveals a significant difference between the treatment and control groups' post-test evaluation of the value of small group discussion in helping pupils plan their future careers. Nearly fifty percent of the pupils in the control group (48.89%) indicated that such discussions never took place. Only 8.62 percent of the pupils in the treatment group
indicated that an opportunity for such group discussion was not provided. Over thirty four (34.48%) of the pupils in the treatment group stated that the small group discussions were of some value to them in helping them plan their future careers, as against 14.44 percent of those in the control group who gave the same response. While 39.66 percent of the pupils in the treatment group indicated that the group discussions were of great help, only 14.44 percent of the pupils in the control group thought so.

Null hypothesis 25(b) as stated above, was thus rejected.

Hr.26(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not have received a lot of help from their school with the planning of their future careers. To test this hypothesis the relevant data were tested by means of the $X^2$ test. The test yielded a $X^2$ value of 1.23. This $X^2$ value failed to reach the .05 level of significance. Table 6.55 presents the data relating to hypothesis 26(a).

| TABLE 6.55 : THE TREATMENT GROUP'S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST EVALUATION OF THE HELP WITH CAREER PLANNING WHICH THE PUPILS RECEIVED FROM THEIR SCHOOL |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| ASSESSMENTS     | EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES | A      | B      | C      | D      |
| Post-Test       |                  | %      | %      | %      | %      |
| Pre-Test        |                  | 43.10  | 31.03  | 13.79  | 12.07  |

$X^2 = 1.23$

$df = 3$

$p > .05$
NOTE Regarding hypothesis 26(a) and 26(b) the pupils were required to evaluate the career guidance help they had received from their school by responding to the following question:

Overall, how much help with career (education and job) planning has your school (teachers, guidance teachers, counsellors, principal, librarian, etc.) given you?

The letters heading the columns in table 6.55 and 6.56 represent the evaluative categories the pupils could use to assess the help they had received from their school in planning their future careers. These evaluative categories are:

A - None
B - Little
C - Some
D - A lot.

The pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group's evaluation of the assistance the pupils had received from their school was minimal. Both before and after the programmatic intervention a large percentage of the pupils, 46.03 percent (pre-test) and 43.10 percent (post-test) indicated that their school had given them no assistance whatsoever in planning their future careers. Before the programmatic intervention a quarter of the pupils (25.40%) indicated the school had given them some help, but that this help had not been enough. The percentage of pupils who gave this answer rose slightly to 31.03 percent after the group had been exposed to the Guidance Programme. The
percentage of the pupils in the treatment group who indicated that they had received a lot of help from their school in planning their careers was 15.70 percent before the experimental intervention. This fell to 12.07 percent after the group had been exposed to the Guidance Programme.

In view of the data presented above and the low $X^2$ value obtained, null hypothesis 26(a), as enunciated above, was accepted.

$H_2 26(b)$

As a result of their participation in the Guidance Programme a larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will not have received a lot of help from their school concerning the planning of their future careers.

The $X^2$ test was used in the analysis of the data relating to hypothesis 26(b). This analysis yielded a $X^2$ value of 2.67. This $X^2$ value failed to reach the .05 level of significance. Data pertaining to hypothesis 26(b) are presented in table 6.56 given below.
TABLE 6.56: THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST EVALUATION OF THE HELP WITH CAREER PLANNING WHICH THE PUPILS RECEIVED FROM THEIR SCHOOL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>43.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>45.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 2.67 \]
\[ df = 3 \]
\[ P > .05 \]

The post-test evaluation made by the treatment and control groups regarding the help in career planning that the pupils had received from their schools is the same as that which was made by the treatment group prior to and after the programmatic intervention. A sizeable number of pupils in both the treatment and control groups 45.56 percent (control group) and 43.10 percent (treatment group) indicated that their schools had not helped them in any way with the planning of their careers. Most of those pupils in the two groups who claimed to have received some help in this regard, indicated that this help was not of much value, (22.22% control group, and 31.03% treatment group).

On the basis of the low \( X^2 \) value and the data presented and discussed above, null hypothesis 26(b), failed to be rejected and was thus accepted.
H. 27(a)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the same group before the programmatic intervention, will not indicate that they are in a position to see a counsellor when they want to or need to.

To test this hypothesis the relevant data were subjected to a $X^2$ test. A $X^2$ value of 2.05 was obtained. This $X^2$ value was not significant at the .05 level. Data pertaining to hypothesis 27(a) is presented in table 6.57 below.

**TABLE 6.57 : THE TREATMENT GROUP'S POST-TEST AND PRE-TEST COMMENTS REGARDING THE AVAILABILITY AND ACCESSIBILITY OF A SCHOOL COUNSELLOR AT THEIR SCHOOL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>5.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>16.35</td>
<td>5.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 2.05$

$df = 3$

$P > .05$

**NOTE** Regarding hypothesis 27(a) and 27(b) the pupils were required to comment on the availability and accessibility of a teacher counsellor at their
schools by responding to the following question:

Do you feel that you can go and see a guidance counsellor when you want to or need to?

The letters heading the columns in tables 6.57 and 6.58 represent the evaluative comments the pupils had to use to assess the availability and accessibility of the teacher counsellor at their schools. These evaluative categories are:

A - Never
B - Usually
C - Almost always
D - We don't have a guidance counsellor.

As reflected in the low $X^2$ that was obtained ($X^2 = 2.05$), the pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group's perception of the availability and accessibility of the teacher counsellor in their school is highly insignificant. A significant finding here is that both before and after the programmatic intervention a large percentage of the pupils (68.73% pre-test and 68.97% post-test) indicated that they did not have a guidance teacher in their school. Another sizeable percentage of the treatment group, (16.35% pre-test and 17.24% post-test) stated that while there was a guidance teacher at their school, they never saw the person and thus he could not have been of any help to them.

All in all, null hypothesis 27(a) as enunciated above, was accepted.
H.27(b)

As a result of participation in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than will be found in the control group when post-tested, will not indicate that they are in a position to see a school counsellor when they want to or need to. The $X^2$ test was used in the analysis of the data pertaining to hypothesis 27(b). This statistical procedure yielded a $X^2$ value of 1.19. This $X^2$ value failed to reach the .05 significance level. Table 6.58 below presents the data relating to hypothesis 27(b).

**TABLE 6.58 : THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS' POST-TEST COMMENTS ON THE AVAILABILITY AND ACCESSIBILITY OF A SCHOOL COUNSELLOR AT THEIR SCHOOL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENTS</th>
<th>EVALUATIVE</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Treatment)</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>8.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test (Control)</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>12.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$x^2 = 1.19$

$df = 3$

$P > .05$

As can be seen in table 6.58 above the results obtained in respect of null hypothesis 27(b) are virtually the same as those obtained for null hypothesis 27(a).
Large percentages of the pupils in both groups indicated that they did not have a guidance teacher at their school. Consequently null hypothesis 27(b), as enunciated above, was accepted and the alternate one rejected.

6.6 DISCUSSION

6.6.1 Preamble

The findings in this study will be discussed under three categories. The discussion has been structured in this way so as to enable us to see clearly how the main question of this investigation has been answered through the data that has been obtained.

The first category includes those null hypotheses that have been rejected. The second category comprises those hypotheses that have been accepted inspite of the fact that significant differences were observed in the various group comparisons. The reason for the acceptance of these hypotheses is that the differences observed in the group comparisons were not in the hypothesized direction. The third category of the hypotheses include those that have been accepted as a result of the absence of statistically significant differences in the relevant group comparisons.

This type of analysis will enable us to see if the main question of this investigation, whether a school Guidance Programme can enhance the career development of secondary school pupils, has been answered.
All the group comparisons that have been made in this study for purposes of testing the various null hypotheses are summarized in tabular form in table 6.59, 6.60 and 6.61 given below.

**TABLE 6.59 : SUMMARY LISTING OF THE GROUP COMPARISONS FOR WHICH THE NULL HYPOTHESIS WAS TESTED AND REJECTED**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEPENDANT VARIABLE - INDEX OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT</th>
<th>NULL HYPOTHESIS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>x²</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Awareness:</td>
<td>1(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>26.80</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Knowledge</td>
<td>1(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>23.81</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Awareness: work values</td>
<td>3(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>68.42</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- independant-manage=</td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.96</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ria-materialistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>vs. self-fulfilment and people orientation</td>
<td></td>
<td>21.26</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Awareness:</td>
<td>3(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>46.96</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions preferences</td>
<td></td>
<td>vs. self-fulfilment and people orientation</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- indoor vs outdoor work</td>
<td>4(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>10.93</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Solitary work vs working with others</td>
<td>5(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>19.71</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>10.22</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPENDANT VARIABLE - INDEX OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>NULL HYPOTHESIS</td>
<td>ASSESSMENT</td>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>( x^2 )</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Variety vs. repetitive work</td>
<td>6(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>27.55</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>28.12</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Awareness: educational plans</td>
<td>8(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>17.72</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Planning and Decision making:</td>
<td>13(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>15.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- career planning knowledge</td>
<td>13(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs. Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>17.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments on Career Guidance Provided by the School:</td>
<td>21(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>60.35</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- guidance resources</td>
<td>21(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>60.98</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- help from the school counsellor</td>
<td>24(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>39.35</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>33.71</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- help from group discussion with peers</td>
<td>25(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>49.76</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>48.80</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 6.60 : SUMMARY LISTING OF THE GROUP COMPARISONS FOR WHICH THE NULL HYPOTHESIS WAS TESTED AND ACCEPTED AS A RESULT OF STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES THAT ARE NOT IN THE HYPOTHESESIZED DIRECTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEPENDANT VARIABLE - INDEX OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT</th>
<th>NULL HYPOTHESIS</th>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self Awareness:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- certainty of occupational preference</td>
<td>9(a)</td>
<td>Post-test $E$ vs Pre-test $E$</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>12.24</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9(b)</td>
<td>Post-test $E$ vs Pre-test $E$</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>9.47</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self Awareness:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived needs for help</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- help with solution of educational problems</td>
<td>10(a)</td>
<td>Post-test $E$ vs Pre-test $E$</td>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10(b)</td>
<td>Post-test $E$ vs Pre-test $E$</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Career Planning:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Evaluation of Career Planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Appropriateness of educational plans in relation to chosen jobs</td>
<td>16(a)</td>
<td>Post-test $E$ vs Pre-test $E$</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>15.43</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16(b)</td>
<td>Post-test $E$ vs Pre-test $E$</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>18.82</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPENDANT VARIABLE - INDEX OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>NULL HYPOTHESIS</td>
<td>ASSESSMENT</td>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>$x^2$</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Appropriateness of chosen jobs in relation to life-goals</td>
<td>17(a)</td>
<td>Post-test$_E$ vs Pre-test$_E$</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>21.33</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17(b)</td>
<td>Post-test$_E$ vs Post-test$_C$</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>22.69</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Evaluation of Career Planning:</td>
<td>18(b)</td>
<td>Post-test$_E$ vs Post-test$_C$</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>10.44</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Preparatory activities</td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test$_C$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ability to meet job preparation requirements</td>
<td>19(a)</td>
<td>Post-test$_E$ vs Pre-test$_C$</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>7.80</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19(b)</td>
<td>Post-test$_E$ vs Post-test$_C$</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of the Career Guidance role of the normal school subject teacher</td>
<td>23(a)</td>
<td>Post-test$_E$ vs Pre-test$_E$</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>14.89</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23(b)</td>
<td>Post-test$_E$ vs Post-test$_C$</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPENDANT VARIABLE - INDEX OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>NULL HYPOTHESIS</td>
<td>ASSESSMENT</td>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>X²</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Awareness:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- exploratory occupational experiences</td>
<td>2(a)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_E 6.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test_E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2(b)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_C 6.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Awareness:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions preferences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- manual work vs official work</td>
<td>7(a)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_E 6.17</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test_E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7(b)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_C 6.18</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Awareness:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educational plans</td>
<td>8(a)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_E 6.19</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test_E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Planning and Decision Making:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>career planning</td>
<td>14(a)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_E 6.31</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test_E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14(b)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_C 6.32</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Planning and Decision Making:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation of career planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- have carefully thought about chosen jobs</td>
<td>15(a)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_E 6.33</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test_E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15(b)</td>
<td>Post-test_E vs Post-test_C 6.34</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPENDANT VARIABLE</td>
<td>NULL HYPOTHESIS</td>
<td>ASSESSMENT</td>
<td>TABLE t</td>
<td>x²</td>
<td>p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge of job preparation requirements</td>
<td>18(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>optimistic view of occupational future</td>
<td>20(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment on the School Guidance Service:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comment on career guidance help received from school</td>
<td>26(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comment on availability and accessibility of school counsellor</td>
<td>27(a)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Pre-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27(b)</td>
<td>Post-test&lt;sub&gt;E&lt;/sub&gt; vs Post-test&lt;sub&gt;C&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.6.2 Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Rejected

A number of null hypotheses in this study were rejected outright. This suggests a pre- to post-test shift as well as a "positive" post-test (treatment) and post-test (control) group differences in the group comparisons that were made. In other words, the rejection of these null hypotheses seem to point to the effectiveness of the Guidance Programme in promoting the career development of secondary school pupils. This general finding of the study is not surprising. A number of studies intervention in promoting career development in groups of young people; Burt (1980), Baldwin (1982), Brisk-Hellman (1981) Clawson (1980), Hunter (1982), Pendell (1980), Peterson (1981), Rathburn (1981), Shannon (1982) Smith (1981), Steffens (1980), Zimbrick (1981) Spence (1982).

An examination of the career development indices on which the rejected null hypotheses are based will throw more light on the role of the Guidance Programme in enhancing the career development of the target group.

As ws indicated earlier on, three indices of career development were identified, namely, occupational awareness, self-awareness, and career planning and decision making. Null hypotheses relating to specific questions in these aspects of career development have been tested and rejected. We shall take a very brief look at those aspects of career development, that is, our dependent variables, which seem to have been positively affected by the Guidance Programme.
6.6.2.1 Occupation awareness

6.6.2.1.1 Occupational knowledge

An examination of table 6.59 reveals that the first of these dependent variables is occupational knowledge, which is an aspect of occupational awareness. The sections of the Guidance Programme that were meant to impart occupational information to the pupils can easily be regarded as the most important aspect of this study. As an educational exercise, one of the basic aims of the guidance programme was to convey to the pupils comprehensive and detailed knowledge about the world of work. Such knowledge would not only enable the pupils to make a choice of a future career but also to develop more self-knowledge as prospective practitioners of a particular occupation. In this way the pupil would be in a position to plan and decide about his career with a great deal of realism. Large portions of the Assessment of Career Development, in terms of which the dependent variables of the study have been operationalized, cover this area of occupational knowledge. In fact seventy-two (72) items of the ACD seek to assess the pupils' occupational knowledge.

The guidance programme has resulted in a substantial pre-to post-test increase in the knowledge the students have of the world of work; (t = 26.80, df = 58, p < .05)

To show that the pupils who participated in the guidance programme acquired their increased occupational knowledge from the programme, there was a substantial difference in the post-test scores of the treatment and control groups on the Occupational Knowledge Scale of the ACD (t = 23.81, df = 134, p < .05).
The programme seems to have considerably increased the occupational knowledge of the treatment group. From this fact, one can already see some powerful indication of this programme having achieved its goal; namely, the promotion of career development in a group of secondary school pupils.

6.6.2.2 Self awareness

The next batch of dependent variables the null hypotheses of which were rejected fall under the general career development index of self-awareness. These dependent variables include work value preferences, working condition preferences and educational plans.

6.6.2.2.1 Work value preferences

The Guidance Programme seems to have caused a significant shift in the work value preferences of the pupils who participated in it. There was a significant pre- to post-test shift from the independent-managerial-materialistic orientation towards the self-fulfilment and people-centered value orientation. This shift was observed in respect of work values that were regarded as "most-important" \( (X^2 = 68.42) \); "second most important", \( (X^2 = 16.96) \) and "least important" \( (X^2 = 21.26) \). Significant differences were also observed in the work value preferences of the treatment and control groups: "most important work value \( (X^2 = 46.96) \); "second most important" work value \( (X^2 = 4.74) \) (not significant at the .05 level), and "least important" work value \( (X^2 = 21.42) \). This apparent "development" in the work value preferences
of the programme participants have been observed in this study in spite of the fact that the section of the ACD that seeks to assess the work value preferences of the subjects does not seem to be a good measure of this attribute. For instance such typical work values as altruism, creativity, prestige are not included in the relevant section of the ACD.

The value clarification activities of the guidance programme seem to have greatly increased the value awareness of the pupils who participated in it. This in turn would seem to point to a higher level of career development in the pupils. As Figler (1974) has indicated, individuals who are not aware of their values cannot decide upon a work preference. Balistreri (1982) expressed the same view when he stated that knowledge of personal values increases one's ability to choose a career. Several studies have demonstrated the important role of value clarification on career development, Ohlde and Vinitsky, (1976; Smith, (1979); Kaufman, (1974).

6.6.2.2.2 Working condition preferences

The guidance programme seems to have brought about some significant changes in the working conditions preferences of the pupils who participated in the programme. The changes in working condition preferences were in respect of the following polarities of the working conditions continuum:

- indoor versus outdoor work.

Here we witnessed a pre- to post-test shift in the preferences of the treatment pupils as well as
significant differences in the post-test preferences of the experimental and treatment groups. The shift in preference that was observed was from the indoor working condition to the outdoor. The exposure of the pupils to a great multiplicity of occupations a great number of which are practised in the outdoor seem to have occasioned the shift in working condition preferences of the programme participants.

- solitary versus working with people

The guidance programme strongly highlighted the rewarding and satisfying experience firstly, of serving people and secondly, of working with cherished and valued colleagues. This may account for pupils' preference shift regarding the working condition options under consideration.

- variety versus repetitive work.

The guidance programme drew a clear distinction between a job and a career. To have a successful career implies cultivating the ability to do a variety of jobs successfully. This aspect of the guidance programme most likely contributed to the shift in the pupils' working condition preferences.

6.6.2.2.3 Educational plans

An interesting result was obtained in respect of the pupils' educational plans. No significant differences
were observed in the pre-test educational plans of both the experimental and control groups. There was also no significant pre- to post-test shift in the educational plans of the treatment group away from the academic towards the technical as hypothesized (a comment will be made on this finding in a later section of this chapter). A surprising finding in connection with the pupils' educational plans was the significant difference that was noted between the educational plans of the treatment and control groups, \( x^2 = 17.72, \ df = 6, \ p < .05 \). The reason for this difference between the post-test educational plans of the treatment and control groups was the inordinate proportion of pupils in the control group who expressed an interest in studying at a university.

6.6.2.3 Career planning and decision making

6.6.2.3.1 Career planning knowledge

One other key aspect of the Guidance Programme was the imparting of career planning knowledge to the pupils. This section of the Guidance Programme was as important as the one on Occupational Knowledge referred to above. An attempt was made to "teach" the pupils how to plan their careers and how to make decisions. This aspect of the Programme was effectively assessed by the ACD. Forty items of the ACD seek to measure the career planning knowledge of the participants.

There was a significant pre- to post-test increase in the scores of the treatment group on the Career Planning
Knowledge Scale of the ACD, \( t = 15.29, \ df = 58 \), \( p < .05 \). There was also a significant difference in the post-test scores of the treatment and control groups on the same scale \( t = 17.55, \ df = 134, \ p < .05 \).

The successful conveyance of occupational planning knowledge to the pupils who took part in the guidance programme is another indication of the success of the programme in achieving its stated goal, viz, the enhancement of career development in school pupils.

6.6.2.3.2 Self evaluation of career planning

Knowledge of steps to be taken in order to prepare for and enter a job was the variable at issue. There was no pre- to post-test increase in the proportion of pupils who claimed to be aware of the steps to be taken in this regard. However, a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group indicated that they knew what steps to take than was found in the control group when both groups were post-tested.

6.6.2.3.3 Comment on the career guidance provided by the school

- **guidance resources**

There was a very significant pre- to post-test increase in the percentage of pupils in the treatment group who indicated that they had benefitted a lot from guidance resources such as job description files, pamphlets and books on careers. There was no systematic guidance and counselling of any sort at both the experimental and the control schools.
Certainly the guidance resources under consideration here had not been made available to the pupils at both schools before the onset of this study. Therefore the guidance resources which the pupils in the experimental group claim to have benefitted from in the post-test seem to have been those supplied to them as part of the guidance programme used in this study. And in this programme there was a liberal supply of guidance resources of various types as can be seen in appendices A and B. Large posters and wall charts were stuck onto the walls of the classroom and left there for the duration of the guidance course. Pamphlets, brochures etc, were distributed to the pupils.

help from the teacher counsellor

There was a highly significant pre- to post-test increased in the percentage of pupils in the treatment group who claimed to have benefitted greatly from career guidance assistance given them by the teacher counsellor. A significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the treatment group, than was observed in the control group, made the same claim when the two groups were post-tested. Pupils in the two groups indicated consistently in both the pre- and the post-test that they did not have a guidance teacher (cf tables 6.57 and 6.58. The teacher counsellor that the pupils in the treatment group were referred when post-tested seem have been the presenters in this study who, besides the programme in the group sessions, individual counselling as they cou
pupils. Incidentally, some of these individual counselling sessions took place in the shade of the tree under which the programme presenters parked their car.

- help from group discussions with fellow pupils.

A sizeable portion of the guidance programme was offered by way of group discussion. It is not surprising that after taking part in the programme a significantly larger percentage of the treatment group indicated that they had gained a lot from such group discussions than was found in the same group before the programmatic intervention. A highly significant difference was also observed between the treatment and the control groups relating to the percentage of pupils who indicated that they had gained from such group discussions.

Taking into consideration the post-test comments of the pupils in the treatment group on the three key aspects of guidance, namely, guidance resources provision, teacher-counsellor assistance, and group experiences relating to career planning, the guidance programme seems to have been of great value concerning the career development of the pupils.

6.6.3 Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Accepted as a Result of Statistically Significant Differences that were not in the Hypothesized Direction

The null hypotheses in question relate to dependent variables forming part of the Self Awareness and
Career Planning indices of career development. In other words, these hypotheses related to variables that were basically of an attitudinal nature. The dependent variables in question are presented below:

6.6.3.1 Self Awareness

6.6.3.1.1 Certainty of occupational preference

There was a significant pre- to post-test shift in the degree of certainty the treatment pupils expressed regarding their occupational choices ($X^2 = 12.24$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$). There was also a significant difference in the expressed degree of certainty of the treatment and control groups when post-tested ($X^2 = 9.47$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$). However, as indicated earlier, the shifts that occurred were not in the hypothesized direction. After participating in the programme, the pupils in the treatment group were by far less certain about their occupational choices than they were before the programmatic intervention.

The secondary school pupil's commitment to his vocational preference has been researched extensively. Jordaan and Heyde (1979) found in the Career Pattern Study that junior high school pupils had very little confidence in or commitment to their expressed occupational preferences. The pupils' commitment to their occupational choices increased slightly and were appreciably higher in the senior high school years. This finding of the Career Pattern Study supported similar earlier findings by Super (1957) Crites (1969) and Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) who had found that students' ability to specify an occupational choice tended to increase over the high school years. Osipow (1979) using what
he called the Career Decision Scale found a significant decrease in indecision. This indecision went down and reached the lowest point in the final year of high school but increased again at university entry.

In attempting to explain the indecisiveness about career choice characteristic of high school youth in industrialized countries Gosen (1962) and Chatterjee (1962) (both cited in Cloete, 1980), postulated that students in such countries tended to procrastinate or delay making a choice as long as possible because they are bewildered by the sheer number and variety of jobs from which they must choose.

In strong contrast to the above findings Osuji (1976) indicted that the complex choice situation faced by youth in industrialized countries does not present itself to young people in a less developed country like Nigeria. Osuji (1976) indicated that 91.9 percent of the final year high school students he had surveyed had decided on a specific occupation. Upon further inquiry, he found that, on the average, the students had made a final choice four years earlier, that is, during the initial period of secondary education. However, Cloete and Le Roux (1979) found that 29 percent of a sample of black first year university students in South Africa could not specify an occupation that they intended pursuing after completing their studies. In a later study, Cloete (1980) found evidence which somewhat supported Osuji's (1976) findings. He found that only 2.6 percent of the group of secondary school pupils he surveyed could not specify an occupation that they intended to enter. Cloete's explanation
for the early career decisiveness on the part of these students is that they are "unaware of the vast variety of occupations that are available in the fast developing countries like South Africa and Nigeria, which already have diversified labour structures", (Cloete 1980, p. 182). To the present writer this seems to be a very plausible explanation of the situation.

One of Cloete's (1980) findings on career decisiveness that is of particular significance to this study is that although the majority of the students were certain about their occupational choices, there was a monotonic decrease in certainty from form III to university entrance. While the data supports the findings of Osipow (1979) and of Niece and Bradley (1979) (cited in Cloete, 1980) regarding the indecisiveness of university students, Cloete (1980) found the decrease in the students' certainty regarding their career choices from form III to form V rather interesting. This study has made a finding regarding the career decisiveness of the experimental group that is identical to the finding made by Cloete (1980) concerning the certainty of occupational choice of the black students he surveyed.

Prior to the programmatic intervention the pupils in the treatment group expressed the same degree of career decisiveness as that expressed by the form III pupils in Cloete's study. If the theory of career development postulated by Ginzberg et al or by Super is applied to the two groups of pupils, that is, the form III pupils in Cloete's study and the experimental group in this study, one can safely say that both groups were operating at the fantasy stage of career development. In this stage definite choices are made in ignorance or with a limited amount of reality
information. What is particularly characteristic of this stage is the absence of doubt and an expressed determination to adhere to the choice. However, as Cloete (1980) found with the pupils in his sample, it was found in this study that the information the pupils had about their prospective occupation, their plans for achieving their goals, and the steps they had taken to implement the decisions left much to be desired.

The pupils in Cloete's (1980) study seem to have gone from the fantasy substage of Super's exploratory stage of career development through the tentative stage where doubt and indecisiveness started to creep in regarding their occupational choices until they reached the realistic stage. The realistic stage is characterized by a narrowing down of occupational options. However, a certain amount of flexibility is maintained, resulting in a continuation of doubt and indecisiveness. Of course career development would only be completed when the individual went through Super's establishment stage. The pupils in Cloete's study seem to have gone through the various phases up to the realistic phase as they moved from form III through form V, until they reached university entry. Age, educational and general environmental influences seem to have played a role in this development.

(Note: The pupils in Cloete's (1980) study who "moved" through the various career development phases were not the same individuals. This was a cross-sectional study. Different groups of pupils at the various educational levels were involved).
A significant percentage of the pupils who constituted the experimental group in this study seem to have undergone the same type of career development as the various student groups in Cloete's (1980) study. Exposure to the guidance programme seems to have been the cause of this career development since the pupils in the control group did not display the same type and amount of development. An aspect of the finding about pupil career decisiveness which is of great educational significance is that the career development observed in the treatment group occurred after an exposure to a guidance programme that only lasted ten weeks. A short-term guidance programme seems to have had a significant effect on the career development of these secondary school pupils.

What has been said at great length on the effect of the Guidance Programme on career decisiveness of school pupils can also be said about the other dependent variables that manifested the career development of the treatment group through "negative growth". The dependent variables in question, which form part of the Self Awareness career development index, are as follows:

6.6.3.1.2 Perceived needs for help

- help with the solution of educational problems
- help with the solution of career problems
- help with the solution of personal problems.

Pupils in both the treatment and control groups expressed a strong need for help with the solution of educational, career and personal problems, (see tables 6.23, 6.25, and 6.27 given above). The evidence relating to the
existence of a widespread need for guidance serves to support a finding made by Chuenyane (1981) in this regard. In a study that sought to assess the guidance needs of black secondary school students in the Transvaal Province of the Republic of South Africa, Chuenyane established the existence of "a strong need for more extensive career guidance services in the Black secondary schools", (1981, p 162). The students in his samples expressed a need for help with such matters as self-understanding interpersonal relationships, value clarification, decision-making skills, career planning, and so on.

After their exposure to the Guidance Programme the pupils in the treatment group expressed a stronger need for help than they did before participating in the programme. For one thing, the Guidance Programme did not, therefore, leave them untouched. The effect it had on them seem to have been to reveal to them the problem areas that they needed to address and the assistance they could get in this respect from a school guidance service. This would seem to be a very heightened level of self-awareness.

6.6.3.1.3 Self evaluation of career planning

- Appropriateness of educational plans in relation to chosen jobs
- Appropriateness of chosen jobs in relation to life goals
- Ability to meet job preparation requirements.

Before their exposure to the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger number of pupils in the treatment
group were confident that their educational plans were appropriate to the jobs they had chosen; that their chosen occupations would enable them to realize their life-goals; and that they would be able to fulfil all the preparation requirements in relation to the chosen jobs. However, after participating in the Guidance Programme, a significantly larger percentage of the pupils in the experimental group were not as confident about any of these matters as they had been before the programmatic intervention, (see tables 6.35, 6.37 and 6.39 above. The Guidance Programme seems to have had the same effect on the pupils' perception of their career plans as it had on the certainty the pupils had had about the appropriateness of their occupation choices. The Guidance Programme seems to have exposed to the pupils the weak knowledge foundation on which they had based their career plans. This would have been a very important aspect of Self Awareness that they would have gained from the Guidance Programme. This type of Self Awareness enables the individual to cultivate one of the key characteristics of career maturity, namely, the ability to compromise. As Rathburn (1982) avers, the ability to make a realistic career decision depends, in part, on the individual's capacity to comprise, which capacity comprises the following traits: the individual's honesty (is he honest about his capabilities), his open-mindedness (is he open to several career possibilities), and willingness (is he willing to modify his career goals?). The ability to comprise between one's needs, wants, and reality is related to emotional maturity and, therefore, to psychosocial development. After the programmatic intervention, the pupils who participated in the guidance programme seemed to have been en route to attaining such emotional maturity.
6.6.3.1.4 Evaluation of the career guidance role of the normal school subject teachers

The idea is strongly held that guidance in the schools would be more effective if it were infused in the school curriculum. This seems to be a far-off ideal in the black schools. Prior to the programmatic intervention, slightly over a third of the pupils in the treatment group (35.40%) indicated that the subject teachers did not try to relate their subjects to the relevant occupations. After the programmatic intervention the number of pupils in the treatment group who gave this reply rose to 53.45 percent. The Guidance Programme seems to have made a larger number of pupils aware of the potential assistance that they could get from their subject teachers in planning their careers. This perception could develop into a "need" for career guidance help from their school teachers. If this were to happen one would hope that the pupils would tax the teachers into giving them such help and that if some of the teachers were unwilling or unable to give such assistance, that the pupils themselves would seek for such information and knowledge on their own.

6.6.4 Group Comparisons for which the Null Hypothesis was Tested and Accepted because of an Absence of Statistically Significant Differences

As has been stated repeatedly throughout this dissertation the programmatic intervention that was effected as part of this study was an educational exercise. It sought to give the programme participants an opportunity to acquire certain types of knowledge and experiences.
The ACD, which is a form of an achievement test was administered to both the treatment and control groups with an expected post-test differential performance by the two groups on the test. After their exposure to the guidance programme, the pupils in the experimental group were also expected to show a pre- to post-test shift in attitude or gain in knowledge and experience on the various aspects measured by the ACD. A lack of pre- to post-test shift in attitude or gain in knowledge on the part of the treatment group or an equivalent post-test performance by the two groups on some aspects of the test could mean one of two things. Firstly, that the Guidance Programme did not provide the programme participants with the knowledge and/or experiences presumed by the test. Secondly, that the Guidance Programme was ineffective on those aspects of career development. As we shall see presently, both factors were operative with regard to those few career development variables assessed by the ACD which were apparently unaffected by the guidance programme. The null hypotheses on these career development variables were accepted. These variables which are listed in table 6.6.1 above, are briefly reviewed below.

6.6.4.1 Occupational awareness

6.6.4.1.1 Exploratory occupation experiences

Exploratory Occupational Experience Scales survey student involvement in a wide variety of job-related activities and experiences (cf Appendix C, Section 6). Since many of these experiences occur outside the school, and hence not administered by the school, their acquisition is difficult to control. Many of the activities in question were really beyond the
scope of the guidance programme used in this study. For instance, there is no way in which the pupils in the treatment group could have been helped to "raise animals to be sold" or to "visit elderly or ill persons to cheer them up". The null hypotheses relating to the exploratory occupational experiences were thus accepted. What has been said about the Exploratory Occupational Experience Scale of the ACD applies to the Career Planning Involvement Scale to the reviewed below.

6.6.4.2 Self awareness

6.6.4.2.1 Working condition preferences

There were four working condition continuums. Each pair had two polarities between which the pupils could indicate a position. After participating in the Guidance Programme, the treatment group had made greater shifts on three of these continuums in the hypothesized directions than the control group when post-tested. However, there was one working condition continuum on which the treatment group showed no pre- to post-test shift and performed in the same way as the control group. The one pole of this continuum was "doing physical labour" and the other pole was "working in an office". Both before and after the programmatic intervention pupils in the treatment and control groups gravitated towards the "office work" working condition. The Guidance Programme failed to budge programme participants away from sedentary office work towards manual work.
6.6.4.2.2 Educational plans

The finding made in this respect is very similar to the one made about the pupils' preference for office work as against manual work. While a significant difference was found between the post-test educational plans of the treatment and control groups, there was no significant pre- to post-test shift in the educational plans of the treatment group. Both before and after the programmatic intervention a large percentage of the pupils in the treatment group indicated an intention to go and study at university after completing their matric.

A lot of research has been carried out on level of occupational aspiration. The general finding has been that young people aspire to predominantly professional, managerial and high level technical occupations (Slocum, 1966, in Cloete 1980). In the Project Talent, Flanagan (1964) found that high school seniors were unrealistic in their career plans. Fully 48 percent of the boys and 40 percent of the girls were planning a career in a professional or technical field. This was in spite of the fact that only a small percentage of the employed people, 15 percent of the employed males and 17 percent of the employed females between the ages of 25 and 29 were in professional or high technical occupations. In the U.S.A. it is not only white youth who show such high levels of occupational aspiration. Black youth also display similarly high occupational aspirations. Some studies have actually found that the level of occupational aspirations of Black youth is high than that of White youth (Anatovsky and Lerner,
1959; Currie and Picou, 1971). Kelly and Wingrove (1975) concluded that:

"disproportionate numbers of both Blacks and Whites aspire to either professional or managerial positions. This suggests that the social mobility and success represented by these positions are valued by Blacks and Whites alike" (p. 54).

In Nigeria, Osuji (1976) and Abiri (1977) reported similar findings for the youth of that country. For instance Osuji found that + 88 percent of the pupils he surveyed expected to enter the professions. Both concluded that the occupational aspirations and expectations of Nigerian youth were largely unrealistic when the limited opportunities that existed were taken into consideration.

In a survey of 1100 Zambian high school students, Hicks (1971) cited in Cloete (1980), reported that 53.2 percent of the pupils' occupational preferences could be placed in the professional category, 21.5 percent in the semi-professional and 25.2 percent in the skilled. The main tendency revealed by this data is the disproportionately high percentage of high school pupils who aspire to the prestigious occupations. Cloete (1980) reports a number of studies confirming this trend that have been carried out in other African countries. The studies in question are those by Foster (1965) in Ghana, Clignet and Forster (1966) in the Ivory Coast, Klingelhofer (1967) in Tanzania and Windham (1970) in Sierra Leone.
Research on the occupational aspirations of Black students in South Africa has revealed the same trends as found in other African countries. Cloete (1980) cites studies by Biesheuvel (1962), and Perry (1974) which found that the occupational aspirations of African youth in South Africa were unrealistically high. A later study of the occupational aspirations of African youth in South Africa was carried out by Cloete (1980). He found a large discrepancy between the African pupils who expected to enter the professional occupations and those Africans that are currently employed in this category. He found that 81 percent of the pupils in his sample aspired to professional, semi-professional and managerial occupations. Cloete (1980) made the observation that:

"Since these occupations require mostly university training, an inordinate number of students aspire to a university education" (p. 162).

Chuenyane (1981) found that over eighty-five percent (85.1%) of the pupils he surveyed intended to go and study at university. The findings on the occupational aspirations of youth that have been reviewed above seem to have been confirmed in this study. This is particularly true of the observations by Cloete cited in the foregoing paragraph. A large number of pupils in both the treatment and control groups expressed an intention to go and study at university. As stated above, they also showed an inordinate interest for office work. As can be seen in Appendix A the Guidance Programme sought to expose the pupils in the treatment group to a great variety of occupations at all occupational levels as well as the training related to such
occupations. However, as stated above, the Guidance Programme failed to shift the programme participants away from their strong desire for professional training and thus professional occupations towards lower level vocational and technical jobs. The pupils remained strongly attracted to those occupations that involved office work rather than manual work.

6.6.4.3 Career planning

6.6.4.3.1 Career planning involvement

Career planning knowledge and career planning involvement are not necessarily the same things. For this reason, the ACD provides a career Planning Involvement Scale along with the Career Planning Knowledge Scale. Likewise the Occupational Knowledge Scale is paralleled by the Exploratory Occupational Experiences Scale.

Most of the activities that constitute the Career Planning Involvement Scale occur outside the classroom situation. Again the majority of these activities are pupil- and not teacher-initiated and also depend on the richness of the cultural environment in which the pupil finds himself. Included in this scales are items such as

"Took up a hobby or joined a group
or club that was related to a job
I was considering"

or

"Attended a 'job fair' or 'career day'
where workers or employers talked
about jobs".
The Career Planning Involvement Scale of the ACD sought to assess experiences which were not provided by the guidance programme. Consequently there was no pre- to post-test shift in the treatment group's performance on this scale, neither was there a significant post-test difference between the treatment and control groups with regard to "career planning involvement".

6.6.4.3.2 Self evaluation of career planning

6.6.4.3.2.1 - have carefully thought about chosen jobs

Both the treatment and control groups had not given much thought about the two jobs for which they had expressed a preference. Even after exposure to the Guidance Programme, the pupils in the treatment group indicated that they had not given much thought to the chosen jobs. If we take into consideration the post-test responses of the pupils in the treatment group to the question relating to certainty of occupational preference, this might mean that the pupils felt they still needed to give more careful thought to their future occupations.

6.6.4.3.2.2 - have knowledge of job preparation requirements

An examination of table 6.39 above shows that while there was a slight increase in the treatment group's post-test knowledge of the preparation requirements, this increase was not significant. True enough the number of pupils who stated they did not know where to begin in making the necessary preparations had dropped from 6.22 percent (pre-test) to 1.45 percent (post-test).
However, after their exposure to the Guidance Programme, the treatment group seemed to have become less certain about their knowledge of the preparation requirements. To illustrate this assertion, the number of pupils who claimed that "the steps are quite clear" dropped from 25.87 percent (pre-test) to 16.21 percent (post-test). On the other hand more pupils gave the more "cautious" responses to the question: the number of pupils who indicated that "the steps are fairly clear" rose from 27.46 percent (pre-test) to 33.10 percent (post-test), while those who stated that they "have some idea of how to go about it" rose from 40.44 percent (pre-test) to 49.24 percent (post-test). After their exposure to the Guidance Programme the treatment group seemed to display a more sober and mature approach to career planning.

6.6.4.3.2.3 – have an optimistic view of occupational future

An examination of tables 6.43 and 6.44 will show that both before and after the programmatic intervention the pupils in the treatment and control groups expressed a great deal of optimism about their occupational future. They felt that their job future was bright. The Guidance Programme neither raised nor dampened the enthusiasm of the treatment group's optimism about their working future to any appreciable extent. They were already highly optimistic about their occupational future even before they participated in the guidance programme.

The finding regarding the job optimism of the pupils assessed in this study is not surprising. Earlier
studies of black students' occupational aspirations had also made the same findings. A number of people have tried to explain why black pupils in developing countries such as South Africa, Nigeria and Zambia have much higher occupational aspirations and are far more highly optimistic about their occupational future than those in developed societies such as the U.S.A and Great Britain. Some of these persons have sought an explanation for this phenomenon from the dynamics of change and development. According to Cloete (1980) during the process of change the end state is usually unknown or open-ended and as a consequence of this a marked increase in level of expectation and optimism occurs. Brzezinski (1970), cited in Cloete (1980) maintains that expectation and optimism levels will be particularly high if this open-ended conception of the future is coupled with a nationalistic movement and fervor. Partial support for this interpretation has been supplied by Carter and Picou (1975) who explained their finding that rural black youth in the U.S.A had higher occupational expectations than Whites in terms of the rising optimism kindled by the Black Pride movement. Conversely, students in developed or stable societies do not share the optimism of change since the occupational structure and the future is relatively fixed. Taking these explanations into consideration, the optimism of Black youth in South Africa is not surprising. Black youth in South Africa do not only envisage or visualize a better future, including a better occupational future, they regard themselves as the authors of such a future, hence the bubbling optimism.
6.6.4.4 Comment on the school guidance service

The last two dependent variables on which the independent variable (the Guidance Programme) had no influence are actually comments the pupils had to make on some key aspects of the guidance service at their school. The two pupil-comments in question are:

6.6.4.4.1 Comment on career guidance help received from the school

In his assessment of the career guidance needs of Black secondary school pupils, Chuenyane (1981) found that very "little of a vocational guidance nature is done in any of the Black secondary schools", in South Africa (p. 162). Indeed there is virtually no guidance worthy of the name in South African Black schools, especially those in the rural areas. It was therefore not surprising when most of the pupils in the treatment and control groups indicated in the pre- and post-tests that they had received little or no help at all from their school in planning their careers (see tables 6.54 and 6.55). Since the pupils were commenting on a factual situation there is no way in which the guidance programme could have altered this perception in the programme participants.

6.6.4.4.2 Comment on the availability and accessibility of a school counsellor

In 1982 the Department of Education and Training introduce Guidance as a school subject to be offered from standard six through standard ten. The principal of each secondary school had to designate a teacher or teachers to handle this subject in the various classes. The
principals of some schools have designated such guidance teachers while those of others have not done so. In those schools where "guidance teachers have been designated, such persons have had no training to prepare them for this new task. Most of these guidance teachers don't even attempt to give group guidance lessens to their classes, let alone do individual counselling. They use the time allotted to Guidance to teach the other school subjects.

So the comments of the pupils on the availability and accessibility of a guidance teacher in their school was not unexpected. Both before and after the programmatic intervention a large percentage of the pupils in the treatment group indicated that they did not have a guidance teacher. At both the pre-test and the post-test, a very large proportion of the pupils in the control group also stated that they did not have a guidance teacher. The most unfortunate aspect of this situation is that these pupils most probably went on to graduate from high school without having had a guidance teacher.

6.7 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

A summary of the effects of the guidance programme on the programme participants is now presented. The Programme Effects are looked at in terms of how they relate to the main questions of the study. The following are the key questions that the study sought to answer:

6.7.1 Whether the Guidance Programme would inculcate in the programme participants a higher level of Occupational Awareness. Two career development indices (dependent variables) comprised
the occupational awareness index of career development. These career development indices are Occupational Knowledge and Exploratory Occupational Experiences.

The occupational knowledge variable was effectively addressed by the Guidance Programme. After their exposure to the Guidance Programme the students displayed phenomenal gains in their knowledge of Occupational Characteristics (duties, psychosocial aspects, and worker attributes) and Occupational Preparation Requirements. The Guidance Programme did not provide adequate Exploratory Occupational Experiences to the programme participants. The reasons for this were outlined in the discussion of the results that was given above.

6.7.2 Whether the Guidance Programme would lead to a heightened level of Self Awareness in the pupils that were going to be exposed to it. The Self Awareness career development index consisted of the following aspects: work values, working condition preferences, educational plans, certainty of occupational preferences, expressions of need for guidance and counselling.

The dependent variables constituting the Self Awareness career development index are basically attitudinal in nature. They differ from the information, knowledge, and experience variables in the sense that with attitudinal variables the individual has to gain some insight into himself as well as carry out an evaluation of
what he has come to know about himself. The individual will either he satisfied or dissatisfied with the outcome of such an evaluation. He will then change his attitudes accordingly.

Concerning the various aspects of self awareness mentioned above, the Guidance Programme had the following effects on programme participants:

**Work values**: After participating in the value clarification activities of the guidance programme the pupils' value preference shifted appreciably in the hypothesized direction.

**Working condition preferences**: After the programme participants had been made to appreciate the extensive nature of the world of work and the variety of jobs that exist as well as the conditions under which some of these jobs are done, there was a significant shift in the working condition preferences of the treatment group in the hypothesized direction.

The effects of the guidance programme on the programme participants, which effects are of a more dramatic and profound nature, are in respect of those aspects of self awareness that are given below. The same effects were also observed in respect of certain aspects of Career Planning. These will be taken up when we examine the effects of the guidance programme on pupils' career planning ability. The Guidance Programme seems have promoted a more realistic self-appraisal on the part of the individual pupil as well as inculcated in him an attitude of doubt, flexibility and compromise, all of which are hall marks of career maturity.
- Certainty of occupational preference

Prior to their exposure to the guidance programme, a large percentage of the pupils in the treatment group expressed a great deal of certainty about their occupational choices. After their exposure to the guidance programme a significantly larger percentage of these pupils were no longer so certain.

- Perceived need for guidance and counselling

After their exposure to the Guidance Programme a significantly larger percentage of the experimental group than was the case before this group's exposure to the guidance programme expressed a strong need for help with the solution of educational, career, and personal problems.

6.7.3 Whether the Guidance Programme would Promote the Career Planning Ability of Programme Participants

Two aspects of career planning are assessed by the ACD, namely, Career Planning Knowledge and Career Planning Involvement. The test subject is also given an opportunity to evaluate the career planning that he has done.

- Career planning knowledge

The Guidance Programme has been very successful in imparting career planning knowledge to the programme participants. After their exposure to the Guidance Programme the pupils in the treatment group were far
more knowledgeable about career planning than they were before they took part in the Guidance Programme. They displayed extensive knowledge of basic career development principles, knowledge of reality factors, as well as knowledge of the career planning process.

- Career planning involvement

The ACD sought to assess pupil involvement in career planning activities that were not covered by the Guidance Programme. Because of constraints of time, lack of resources at the school as well as lack of relevant community resources, most of these activities were beyond the scope of the Guidance Programme used in this study. In any case some of these activities don't constitute the core aspects of a normal school guidance programme. They generally serve to enrich existing guidance programmes in highly sophisticated school systems. So their absence in the present Guidance Programme should not detract to any significant extent from the effectiveness of this programme.

- Self-evaluation of career planning

Prior to their participation in the Guidance Programme a sizeable percentage of the pupils in the treatment group thought that

(a) the education they were planning to have was appropriate to the jobs they had chosen
(b) the jobs they had chosen would enable them to realize their life goals
(c) they would be able to meet the training requirements of at least one of these jobs.
After their exposure to the Guidance Programme a significantly larger number of the pupils in the experimental group were no longer so certain about any of these aspects of career planning.

6.4 **Evaluation of the school guidance service**

The ACD offered the pupils an opportunity to evaluate the guidance service offered by their school. This evaluation took place at two levels. Firstly, the pupils evaluated the guidance offered by the programme presenters. The pupils in the treatment group gave a highly positive post-test evaluation of these services. The pupils indicated that these services had been of great help to them. For example, the pupils found the following aspects of the present Guidance Programme to have been of great value:

- Guidance resources used as part of the programme
- Group and individual counselling carried out with the pupils by the programme presenters
- Group discussion by the pupils among themselves.

Secondly, the pupil evaluation focussed on the guidance that was offered or should have been offered by the school. Both before and after the programmatic intervention, the pupils in the treatment group found this service to be very much wanting. Pupils indicated the following about the guidance service at their school:

- career guidance activities such as "career days" and school organized tours to different places of work were unheard of
the ordinary school subject teachers did not help
the pupils with career planning
they did not have guidance teachers
in sum there was no guidance service at their school.

6.8 SUMMARY

Chapter six presented an analysis of the data gathered
in the study. The material presented in the chapter
dealt with each question and the hypotheses derived
therefrom. Results were summarized in written and
tabular form.

The results showed that the Guidance Programme employed
in this study had enhanced the career development of
the pupils who were exposed to it in respect of both
cognitive and attitudinal characteristics. The Guidance
Programme did not provide adequate opportunity for
pupil "involvement" in the gathering of occupational
knowledge as well as in the planning of their careers.
Some attitudinal aspects of career development were
not affected by the Guidance Programme. When we look
at the results of this investigation as a whole we
realize that the Guidance Programme did succeed in
achieving its goal: the promotion of career development
in the group of pupils who were exposed to it.
CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter of the dissertation the main aim of the investigation is restated, a summary of the entire study given, conclusions drawn and recommendations made.

7.2 SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a ten week long guidance programme on the career development of a group of senior secondary school pupils. This study sought to ascertain whether a cluster of guidance activities could significantly increase the career development of a group of standard nine pupils.

Before the focus in this study was narrowed down to issues of career development a broad examination of the entire guidance function was made. This analyses of the school guidance function was carried out in chapters one and two. In chapter one an attempt was made to highlight the educational nature of this function. Of the various aspects of education, the guidance function was regarded as the most suitable to help the individual child, pupil and student develop a self-identity and a self-concept. The major task of school guidance was seen as the helping of children and youth develop and implement a self-identity and self-concept. Now, the development of a self-concept is the key factor in the individual's self-actualization;
it is the central aspect of the entire education activity. When we take this fact into consideration, the centrality of the guidance function in the education activity becomes self-evident.

Chapter two discussed in some detail the various socio-cultural and political factors that have made school guidance an urgent necessity in today’s school. The manner in which the education systems in various countries, including South Africa, have responded to this need are briefly reviewed in chapter three. The conclusion arrived at was that while the school guidance service in white education is highly developed, the sectional politics practised in South Africa have had a negative effect on the service.

The guidance services in African schools in South Africa were found to be so rudimentary that for all intents and purposes, there is no guidance service worthy of the name in these schools. The guidance services for the Indian population registration group approximates that for whites, while that for the coloured population registration group is only marginally better than that for Africans. This finding led directly to the problem which this study sought to address.

The situation that faces us in the African school system is that no meaningful guidance is taking place in those schools. Yet, as was indicated in chapter two the need for guidance is very great in those schools. Studies by Cloete (1980), Gama (1984), Chuenyane (1981) and have all pointed to a dire need for
guidance in African schools. In the face of the absence of guidance in African schools, this study sought to implement a guidance programme in one of these schools and see what would come of it. In other words, the study sought to determine the efficacy of such a school guidance programme on a group of African pupils. The programme that was presented to the selected secondary school pupils was broad enough to cover most of the key aspects of the guidance function. However, for practical considerations, the evaluation of the programme was limited to what is referred to as "career development".

The rationale for this study was that the successful presentation of a properly articulated guidance programme to African pupils as well as a demonstration of the efficacy of such a programme in this context, would have a salutary effect on the practice of guidance in African schools as well as generate the highly needed research in this area. The relevant research questions and the resultant hypotheses were stated in chapter three.

Chapter four was devoted to a discussion of career development theories. Super's theory of career development is the one that underpins this study. Chapter four also surveyed the studies that have been done on the efficacy of programmatic intervention on the career development of youth.

Chapter five presented the methods of investigation that have been used in the study. This study used a pre-post-test comparison with the treatment group and
a post-test comparison between the treatment and control groups to determine improvements in career development as measured by the Assessment of Career Development. Equivalence of the treatment and control groups was established by means of a pre-test. The treatment consisted of a ten-week guidance course. Subjects in the study were one hundred and thirty six (136) senior secondary school pupils; fifty-nine (59) in the experimental group and seventy-seven (77) in the control group. The $t$-test for correlated and uncorrelated data as well as the $X^2$ tests were used in the analysis of the data.

The results are presented and discussed in chapter six.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions which emanate from the findings reported in this study are presented.

(a) The guidance programme presented to the treatment group in this study did enhance the occupational awareness of programme participants.

(b) The Guidance Programme generated a heightened sense of self-awareness in the pupils who were exposed to it.

(c) The Guidance Programme enhanced the career planning ability of the programme participants. Of particular significance, it inculcated a realistic career planning attitude in the pupils to whom it was presented.
(d) The Guidance Programme did not provide the programme participants with enough out-of-school learning experiences through which they could acquire more occupational knowledge. Neither did the programme provide the pupils with adequate opportunities for hands-on acquisition of career planning skills.

(e) Some aspects of self awareness were unaffected by the Guidance Programme.

(f) The pupils in the treatment group viewed as very useful the guidance resources which were used in the programme, the group discussions which constituted the main strategy of programme delivery, as well as the counselling which they received from the programme presenters. The pupils who participated in the Guidance Programme therefore reacted favourably to the key aspects of the Programme.

(g) The pupils in both the treatment and control groups were of the view that there were no guidance services in their schools or that such guidance services as existed were highly inadequate.

(h) All in all the Guidance Programme was highly successful in promoting the career development of the pupils who were exposed to it. The Guidance Programme promoted significant growth and development in the attitudes, beliefs, values, and knowledge of the group of pupils who participated in it.
7.4 EDUCATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

(a) The results of this study have given credence to the idea that the various activities that constitute a school guidance service can be structured into a guidance curriculum. These results have also shown that such a curriculum can provide a systematic and effective intervention strategy for the promotion of development in school pupils. Guidance curricula can thus be compiled and implemented in schools.

Since an effective guidance service cannot function effectively within a rigid straight-jacket, such guidance curricula could be used as valuable guides by pupils and students as they explore themselves and their environment.

(b) This study has also shown that for effective programme delivery, a variety of methods and strategies should be used. Such methods should range from the traditional chalk-board and lecture methods to the more pupil-centered strategies like those used in the value-clarification activities in this study. If pupils and students get bored with what goes on in the guidance class, they will just switch themselves off or concentrate on other things. After all guidance is not an examination subject.
(c) The provision of a variety of resources and out-of-school experiences are essential for the delivery of a rich and stimulating guidance programme. The financial implications of such provision are self-evident.

(d) This study has demonstrated that the successful delivery of effective guidance programmes requires proficient personnel. One key implication that this study has for education departments relates to the provision of qualified guidance teachers.

(e) This study has also shown that the effects of school guidance can be "measured". Attempts should therefore be made by guidance workers to assess the effects their efforts on their pupils. This does not always involve the use of sophisticated assessment instruments. Feedback can be obtained in various ways; even through mere verbal questioning.

(f) The study has demonstrated the efficacy of programmatic intervention in promoting the career development of African pupils. The introduction of comprehensive guidance programmes in African schools in South Africa is therefore not only feasible but will most probably also yield positive results.

(g) A number of studies have pointed to a dire need for guidance amongst African pupils,
(Chuenyane, 1981; Gama, 1982; Spence, 1982; Msimeki, 1973; Cloete, 1980). This study has also established the existence of this need amongst these pupils. This need was observed in the results obtained. But more significantly the need for guidance experienced by these pupils was expressed through their enthusiastic participation in all aspects of the Guidance Programme. For this reason, if for nothing else, a comprehensive guidance programme should be introduced in African schools as well as in all other schools in the country as a matter of urgency.

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the experimental design in this study was rigorous enough, the applicability of the results of the present investigation is delimited by certain procedural restraints that were inherent in the design. The implementation of this programme on other pupils must be approached with caution. Replication in similar settings with similar groups could provide the basis for further generalization.

The most fundamental constraints are mentioned here briefly.

(a) The groups used in the study comprised intact classroom groups. This fact predetermined the nature and size of the groups.
The subjects in the experimental and control groups were not randomly assigned to groups. Complete randomization was logistically impossible as it was necessary to use intact classes for the study. Haig (1981) strongly suggests the use of intact classroom groupings in the implementation and evaluation of guidance programmes. The main reason for the use of classroom groupings is that students in such groups already know one another and this facilitates interaction in group sessions. Also used as reasons for the use of intact classes are advantages of convenience for all programme activities and less disruption of the school programme.

A follow-up test might have been run, say, six months after the treatment to determine the durability of any observed changes in the career development status of the treatment group. More significantly, such an assessment would establish the existence of any delayed effects the programme might have had on programme participants. Rathburn (1982) concluded that a career development workshop she had run with a group of female students had had a delayed effect on the maturation of the students' choice competencies.

Despite the generous time allocation that was made by the school authorities at the experimental school for the implementation of the guidance programme, programme presenters had to rush through many of the sections of the programme.
The programme should therefore have run for a longer period.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations that are made in terms of the findings of this study are divided into two categories, namely, research recommendations and educational recommendations.

7.6.1 Research Recommendations

(a) To further verify the conclusions arrived at in this study, the study should be replicated at several schools.

(b) More time should be devoted to the implementation of the programme.

(c) A team of workers in the field of school guidance and counselling should carry out research aimed at developing along scientific lines a comprehensive and educationally accountable school guidance programme.

The needs of children and youth as individuals and as participants in society, should serve as a basis for such a programme. The objectives, aims and content of the programme, as well as the student outcomes it seeks to accomplish should be clearly stated.

The programme should be sequential in such a way as to have implications for guidance content at the primary and secondary school
levels. The resultant guidance programme should be free of race, sex, religious, and class bias and prejudice.  

(d) Locally designed assessment instruments should be standardized. These should lead to more effective evaluation of programmatic intervention in guidance and counselling in our schools.

7.7 EDUCATIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Most of the recommendations that are made here represent the minimum requirements that must be met if guidance services are to get off the ground especially in African schools.

(a) The lack of trained staff should be addressed effectively and urgently.

- In-service training should be provided for guidance teachers who are already in the field. The candidates for such in-service courses should be screened to make sure that suitable people are selected. While the education departments themselves should offer some of these in-service courses, the universities should assume greater responsibility in this regard. Universities could offer six months sandwich as well as one-year courses after which certificates or diplomas could be offered to successful course participants. One or two universities in the country are already involved in this important work.
- All teacher trainees at teacher training colleges and universities should include School Guidance in their curricula.

- A four-year degree course should be introduced in the education faculties of universities to train School Guidance or Remedial Education teachers. Psychology, Education and School Guidance or Remedial Education should serve as the major subjects. These teachers should be registered with the Professional Board for Psychology of the Medical and Dental Council in a way that will properly reflect their professional status and not as mere psychotechnicians.

(b) Professional training for guidance teachers should occur within multicultural contexts and should provide skills essential to change agentry and student advocacy.

(c) The employment conditions of guidance teachers or teacher counsellors should clearly present career ladders from paraprofessional to professional. Career advancement prospects must thus be clearly perceptible to the guidance teacher to serve as motivation for him.

(d) A national association for school guidance workers should be established. Such a professional body would give a tremendous boost to the development of guidance in the schools.
- Professionally directed Masters programmes in Educational Psychology (with specialization in School Guidance or Remedial Education) should be introduced at all universities. Several universities in South Africa do not offer such programmes.

(e) Adequate facilities and resources for the proper implementation of guidance programmes should be provided.

(f) Guidance centres and not just offices for psychology inspectors should be established in all the inspectoral circuits. These centres would serve as guidance resource centres for both guidance teachers and school pupils. For instance such centres could serve as clearing houses for expensive equipment that are beyond the budgets of individual schools.

The private non-profit making guidance center such as the Careers Research and Information Centre in Cape Town and the Careers Centre in Soweto should be established at other places in the country. The services offered at these centres should be extended so as to offer a full guidance and counselling service. Various types of professionals should be employed at these centres. This is one of the areas in which the private sector can make its contribution to the development of the youth of this country.

(g) A close liaison between the school and the community should be established for purposes
of addressing the guidance needs of the pupils and for identifying community resources that can be useful to the pupils. All communication media in the community should be used in the implementation of school guidance programmes.

(h) Attempts should be made to change the negative or indifferent attitude of school managers, especially that of the school principal, towards guidance. School principals should be invited to and be involved in school guidance workshops. The guidance teacher, other subject teachers, and the school principal should cooperate in the implementation of the school guidance programme.

7.8 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the efficacy of a school guidance programme in enhancing the career development of a group of secondary school pupils. More importantly, the research was conducted to help the practising school guidance teacher find a productive and efficient method of enhancing the all-round development of children and youth. If the study succeeds in helping the guidance teacher carry out his daily tasks more effectively it will have achieved the first of two very important educational goals.

The second major goal that the study sought to achieve was to demystify the guidance function so that guidance programmes can be introduced with greater ease in the schools. There is nothing mysterious or esoteric in the content of the guidance programme that was implemented in this study. Some of the information
and activities that comprise the content of the programme are already being offered in the schools by the school teachers and school administrators. Admittedly this is perhaps being done in a haphazard and ineffective manner. What is needed is that this information and experiences should be scientifically organized into a formal guidance programme. Those other aspects of the school guidance service that are not available in the schools should be added to such a programme. Existing staff should be given in-service training to enable them to run those aspects of the programme that need expert knowledge, as new guidance teachers receive training at teacher training colleges and universities.

In short the introduction of comprehensive guidance programmes in the schools should not prove to be such a traumatic development because it basically would entail the systematising, broadening, deepening, and rendering more effective of a great deal of the educative effort that is already being made by the personnel in the schools to promote the self-actualization of their charges. To support this assertion and in that way bring this dissertation to an end we quote the words of Zeran and Riccio who maintain that

"No school, regardless of size, location, or personnel is devoid of guidance services. Even in schools where no one wears the label of "Counsellor", a substantial amount of incidental guidance takes place" (1962: 2).
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Figgler, H How to Counsel Students when they offer you only an hour of their time. Journal of College Placement. Fall 1974, 33 - 40.


Havinghurst, R J Human Development and Education. New York: Longmans, Green, 1953.


Kelly, P E and Wingrove, C R *Educational and Occupational Choices of Black and White Male and Female Students in a Rural Georgia Community.* *Journal of Research and Development in Education,* 1975, 9, 1, 45–56.


Menacker, J  Toward a Theory of Activist Guidance. 
Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1976, 54, 318 - 
321.

Miller, F W Guidance: Principles and Services. Columbus, 
Ohio : Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 
1968.

Miller-Tiedeman, A The Practice of Guidance and Counseling 
in the Middle/Junior High School. In The Status 
of Guidance and Counseling in the Nation's 
Schools, a Series of Issue Papers. Washington, 

Mojalefa, S P Work done at the NIPR on the Aspiration 
Level and Need Achievement of South African 
Blacks. In H J Webster and E van Loggerenberg 
(Eds). Mannekragbenutting - Eise en uitdagings 
vir die 80's. Potchefstroom : Potchefstroom 
Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys, 
1980.

Mortensen, D G and Schmuller, A M Guidance in Today's 
Schools. New York : John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 
1976.

Msimeki, A K A Preliminary Standardization of an Academic 
Interest Inventory for use among Black Secondary 
School Pupils and First Year University Students. 
Unpublished Masters Dissertation, University of 
the North, 1973.

MYERS, R A Effects of Educational and Career Exploration 
Systems of Vocational Maturity. Journal of 
Vocational Behavior, 1975, 6 (2), 245 - 253.


Rogers, C R  Questions I would ask myself if I were a teacher. Education, 1974, 95 (2), 103 - 114.


