

**SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE COUNSELLORS' ROLE
PERTAINING TO A CAREER IN COMMERCE**

by

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E.R.G. NAIDOO

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DEDICATION

This work is humbly dedicated to
my mother, Rita Naidoo, for her vision
that saw me through school,
and to my children,
Vanessa and Valdene Jenise Naidoo.
May this piece of work be a source
of encouragement and inspiration
throughout their lifetime

(v)

DECLARATION

**SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR'S ROLE
PERTAINING TO A CAREER IN COMMERCE**

MASTER OF EDUCATION 1996

I, *Emmanuel Rajugopal Gangia Naidoo*, do hereby declare that this dissertation which is submitted to the University of Zululand for the degree of Master of Education has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at any other university, that it represents my own work both in conception and in execution, and that all the sources that I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete reference.

Signed by me *EN Naidoo* on this 22 day of January, 1997

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To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I have, in my personal capacity, on a freelance basis and given the constraint of a very short period of time, edited Mr E R G Naidoo's M.Ed. thesis and can, to the best of my knowledge, declare it free from grammatical errors. The changes I have indicated concerning the thesis have been made by Mr Naidoo.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J.G. Naidoo', with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right.

Jonathan Naidoo, JSED (Springfield) BA (Unisa) BA (Hons) MA (Natal)
(Director: Publishing and Editing)

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SUMMARY

South Africa faces massive unemployment. The two major employers are the government and commercial enterprises of the private sector. Owing to restrictive fiscal policies, government has little leeway to create major employment opportunities. Greater emphasis is being placed on the commercial sector to fulfil this need. Vocational guidance counsellors ought to help a child acquire work-related knowledge in the classroom, thus saving them time, and sometimes the pain, of learning the hard way. By directing this research specifically at vocational guidance, much could be done by the guidance counsellor to help children towards embarking on a career in commerce.

The aims of this study are:

- * To pursue a study of relevant literature on school guidance counselling.
- * To undertake an empirical investigation into the school guidance counsellor's role pertaining to a career in commerce.
- * To provide certain guidelines and recommendations regarding the school guidance counsellor's role with regards to a career in commerce.

Research with regard to this study was conducted as follows:

- * A literature study of available, relevant literature.
- * An empirical study comprising structured questionnaires completed by guidance teachers of secondary schools. A Likert type scale questionnaire with three response categories; viz. Agree, Disagree and Uncertain, was constructed. The three response categories ensured that the respondents' selections fell into one of the categories enabling

the measurement of the direction and intensity of their perceptions of the school vocational guidance counsellor's role pertaining to a career in commerce.

Fifty -one respondents, representing guidance teachers and guidance counsellors were randomly selected from 14 secondary schools in Southern KwaZulu-Natal. With the aim of administering questionnaires in schools, it was necessary to first obtain permission from the Department of Education in KwaZulu-Natal. Only after such permission was granted, was the researcher able to conduct this study.

The primary data was in the form of a response to one of the three response categories (Agree, Disagree, Uncertain). Scores of the responses to each of the three categories were calculated. The descriptive technique was employed for the quantitative analysis of the data.

This investigation has the following value:

- * It will provide an image of school vocational guidance counsellors' perceptions of their role pertaining to a career in commerce.
- * Certain guidelines can be formulated to encourage the support of the school vocational guidance counsellor's task.

Anticipated dissemination of the research findings:

- * The research findings will culminate in articles (of accredited journals) and will be submitted to the relevant Education Department for possible implementation.
- * Findings from the research can be useful in planning of suitable methods (workshops, videos, etc.) to assist school vocational guidance

counsellors and teachers of school guidance to meet the future vocational needs of their pupils.

- * The topic lends itself to further research by interested stakeholders.

OPSOMMING

Tans het Suid-Afrika 'n massiewe werkloosheidsprobleem. Die twee groot werkgewers is die regering en die besigheidsondernemings of die private sektor. Weens beperkte fiskale beleidspolisse het die regering min ruimte om groot werksgeleenthede te skep. Dus word groter klem geplaas op die private sektor om hierdie nood te vervul. Beroepsleidingsonderwysers moet dus 'n kind in die klaskamer help om kennis i.v.m. beroepe te verwerf. Deur hierdie navorsing spesifiek in die rigting van beroepsleiding te kry, kan baie gedoen word deur die beroepsleidingsonderwyser om kinders te help om die regter beroep in die sakewereld te kies.

Die volgende is die doel van hierdie studie:

- * Om die relevante letterkunde i.v.m. beroepsleidingsonderwys te vervolg.
- * Om 'n empiriese ondersoek betreffende die rol van die beroepsleidingsonderwyser te onderneem oor beroepe in die kommersiele wereld.
- * Om riglyne betreffende die beroepsleidingsonderwyser se rol as beroepsleidingsman te verskaf.

Navorsings i.v.m. hierdie studie is gedoen volgens die volgende:

- * 'n Letterkundige studie van beskikbare en relevante letterkunde.
- * 'n Empiriese studie bestaande uit 'n gestruktureerde vraelys wat deur beroepsleidingsonderwysers van sekondere skole voltooi is. 'n Likert tipe skaal-vraelys met drie responskategoriee nl. Saamstem, Onseker en Nie Saamstem is opgestel. Die drie respons kategoriee het verseker dat die respondent se keuse in een van die kategoriee geval

het. Hierdie vraelys het die rol van die beroepsleidingsonderwyser se persepsie betreffende sy rol as beroepsleidsman gemeet.

51 respondente insluitende beroepsleidingsonderwysers en beroepsleidingsraadgewers uit 14 sekondêre skole in Suidelike-KwaZulu Natal is gekies. Dit was eers noodsaaklik om toestemming van die Department van Onderwys te kry voor die vraelys aan die skole uirgegee kon word. Nadat die toestemming gekry is, is 'n begin met die studie / navorsing gemaak.

Die primêre data was in die form van 'n respons tot een van die drie kategorieë op die vraelys. Die punte vir elke kategorie is daarna uitgewerk. Die beskrywende tegniek is gebruik vir die kwantitatiewe ontleding van die data.

Die navorsing het die volgende waarde:

- * Dit sal 'n beeld verskaf van beroepsleidingsraadgewers betreffende hulle rol as beroepsleidingsmanne i.v.m. beroepe in die sakewêreld.
- * Betrokke riglyne kan geformuleer word met die doel om beroepsleidingsonderwysers te ondersteun en aanraai.

Verspreiding van die navorsingswerk:

- * Die navorsingswerk sal in die vorm van artikels gepubliseer word en kopieë daarvan sal aan alle Opvoedingsdepartemente beskikbaar gemaak sal word.
- * Die navoorsingswerk kan ook help met beplanning (beplanning van werksinkels, videos, ens.) wat skoolleidingsonderwysers kan help om hulle doele te verwenselik.
- * Die onderwerp is van so 'n aard dat ander geïnteresseerde navorsers hierdie onderwerp kan volg en die navorsing verder uitbrei.

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Dobie (1981 : v) in June 1980 the Cabinet requested the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) to conduct a penetrating investigation into education in all its facets in South Africa. As appears from that assignment, the education systems for all the population groups in the country had to be investigated to determine if education was giving proper attention to (Dobie, 1981 : 1) :

- the realisation of the potential of the inhabitants,
- the improvement of their quality of life,
- making a positive contribution towards the provision of manpower, and
- the economic development of the country.

In an attempt to achieve these objectives, the educational system offers school guidance as a supporting service to orientate young people to make an educational and career choice commensurate with their abilities to realize their potential and to lead a meaningful life through their vocation.

Garbers (Visser, 1987 : 1) claims that there is no doubt as to the importance of career counselling. The career that an individual chooses forms an important part of his identity, personal well-being and inclusion in the community. Career counselling is therefore an important step towards ensuring a person's mental health. Today more emphasis is placed on prevention than on intervention in terms of the state of an

individual's mental health. For this reason it is important to reflect on career counselling in a changing South Africa. The main population groups in South Africa have all voiced a definite need for career counselling for their children. Surveys conducted by the HSRC in 1985 and 1986 among stratified samples of South Africans, showed that 14% of the white, Indian and coloured parents and 24% of the black parents were worried about their children's choice of occupation.

Garbers (Visser, 1987 : 1) states that financial problems and unemployment pose a problem for many South Africans. In the mentioned HSRC survey 10% of whites, Indians and coloureds and 32% of urban blacks suffered serious problems from unemployment. Of the whites, Indians and coloureds 39% and 61% of urban blacks experienced severe financial problems. Correct career placement and anticipation of supply and demand of job opportunities can alleviate these problems. Rapid technological development has also led to a diversity of careers as well as an emphasis on specialisation. Career counselling should prepare the individual for this.

The vocational guidance counsellor is a very important facilitator in our society and in the lives of people. They bring together (Visser, 1987 : 1):

- the changing person and a changing world,
- the changing person and diversity of relevant educational paths, and
- the changing person and a diversity of career opportunities.

The practitioner has to implement and integrate theory and practical parameters like (Visser, 1987 : 2):

- the tempo and extent of changes in our society,

- the educational scene, formal and non-formal education, and
- the extensive possibilities in the labour market and private sector.

It is evident that South Africa faces massive unemployment. The two major employers are the government and commercial enterprises of the private sector. Owing to restrictive fiscal policies, government has little leeway to create major employment opportunities. Greater emphasis is being placed on the commercial sector to fulfil this need. As a result, more job opportunities will emerge from commerce than any other employment sector of our economy.

The school vocational guidance counsellor is entrusted with the responsibility of weaving these two fabrics of society together i.e. to enlighten pupils on the merits of choosing a career in commerce thereby fulfilling their objective of being gainfully employed, and simultaneously making a positive contribution towards the provision of manpower and the economic development of the country.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

The researcher has in his teaching experience observed that the aspirations of pupils, parents and teachers focused on directing the pupil toward careers in education and professional employment e.g. medicine, engineering, nursing etc. One could understand the relevance of the focus of their aspirations as most economically successful people in society emerged from those sectors. However, circumstances have changed to such an extent these days that very little, and in most cases, no employment opportunities exist in these sectors. The commercial sector, on the other hand, boasts entrepreneurial successes, and as the profit motive dominates and investment potential exists, it is not surprising that commerce is the only sector of the South African economy that holds some promise for future employment. This being the case, the school guidance counsellor should focus his pupils aspirations towards a

career in commerce as this would offer the pupil the best opportunity to be meaningfully and economically engaged in the future. This research is aimed at examining the role of the school vocational guidance counsellor in leading the pupil to a meaningful career in commerce.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As South Africa progresses, its population is expanding faster than job opportunities are being created. In fact, many employment sectors are rationalising and down-sizing thereby causing a further decline in employment opportunities. The two major employers are the state and commercial enterprises of the private sector. Owing to restrictive fiscal policies, government has little leeway to create major employment opportunities. Greater emphasis is being placed on the commercial sector to fulfil this need.

Vocational guidance counsellors ought to help a child acquire work-related skills and information in the classroom, thus saving him the time, and sometimes the pain of learning the hard way. By directing this research at the vocational guidance counsellor's role, and by specifically relating it to a career in commerce, much could be done by the vocational guidance counsellor to help children towards embarking on a career in commerce.

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

Dobie (1981 : 3) claims that there is little uniformity in the terminology generally used in school guidance as each previously different education department assigned various meanings to similar concepts and terminology. This results in confusing concepts, causing different bodies to interpret and use such concepts differently. This difference is detrimental to uniformity and singleness of purpose of school guidance. Certain

concepts are subsequently explained to illustrate the context in which they are used in this research project.

1.4.1 School

Rowntree (1981 : 265) explains that a *school* is an institution providing education for young people up to the age of about 19 years. Hawes and Hawes (1982 : 197) claim that a *school* is an institution primarily for education. Good (1973 : 512) states that a *school* is an organised group of pupils pursuing defined studies at defined levels and receiving instruction from one or more teachers, frequently with the addition of other employees and officers, such as a principal, various supervisors of instruction and a staff of maintenance workers, usually housed in a single building or a group of buildings. Swannell (1990 : 489) defines *school* as an institution for educating children or giving instruction. "School" in this study will be used to mean "secondary school", unless the context otherwise indicates. The Education and Training Act (Act No. 90 of 1979) defines "secondary school" as follows:

"...*secondary school*" means a school for educating up to a higher standard than the fifth standard but not higher than the tenth standard (Linda, 1994 : 7).

1.4.2 Vocational

Good (1973 : 644) defines *vocational* as a calling related to a particular occupation, business or profession. Rowntree (1981 : 343) states that *vocation* was once a "calling" to some special, and probably, self-abnegating form of service. Nowadays, a *vocation* may be any chosen trade, profession, or way of earning one's living. Hawes and Hawes (1982 : 242) claim that *vocational* refers to employment in a variety of occupations, industry or technical specialities. In this research project, the term *vocational* follows the definition given by Swannell (1990 : 633) in The Little Oxford

Dictionary of Current English, to be a divine call to, or sense of fitness for, career, occupation, employment, trade or profession.

1.4.3 Guidance

Hawes and Hawes (1982 : 104) conceptualises *guidance* as a professional function in education, carried out by qualified guidance counsellors as their full-time duties. It includes vocational guidance, concerning development of sound career choices; academic guidance, concerning sound choices of type of programme and specific courses; personal guidance, concerning emotional and social adjustment; and college guidance, concerning college planning, admission, and financial aid. Good (1973 : 270) on the other hand, explains that *guidance* is a process of assisting an individual to understand himself and the world about him, and to gain a knowledge of the implications of this understanding for educational progress, career development and personal fulfilment. He goes further to explain that guidance should assume a form of systematic assistance to pupils, students and others to help them to assess their abilities and liabilities and to use that information effectively in daily living. Swannell (1990 : 241) explains that *guidance* means guiding or advice given by a professional conductor who shows the way using directing principles. “*School guidance*” in this context can mean one or more of the following, according to Dobie (1981 : 3): “...a support service directed at pupils with problems, career guidance and guidance with regard to ethic, moral and economic aspects.” He further elaborates that “*school guidance*” is the overall concept for two components, namely “*general guidance*” and “*careers guidance*.”

(1) General guidance.

General guidance entails the identification of and providing assistance to pupils with problems (excluding problems experienced in choosing a career) as well as guiding pupils to examine and comprehend the demands of life.

(2) Careers guidance

Careers guidance indicates guidance to pupils directed towards the future career of a pupil. It includes self-knowledge (subjects, level of subjects and training) and vocational knowledge with a view to meaningful choice of career. Good (1973 : 146) defines *vocational guidance* as a continuous process of helping an individual through interpersonal relationships and a reliable fund of information to understand himself and his possible role in the world or work, to test this concept of himself against reality, and to change it into reality with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society. He further states that it involves conferring with a person for the purpose of assisting him in problems connected with his choice of occupation, training for that occupation, and obtaining employment.

In this study, the concepts “*careers guidance*” and “*vocational guidance*” are used synonymously.

1.4.4 Counsellor.

Brown (1993 : 525) states that a *counsellor* is a person who gives or offers counsel, an advisor, a person who provides counselling as a therapy. *Counsellor*, as defined by Swannell (1990 : 122), is an adviser, one who gives advice, recommends or informs. His definition includes one who advises a course of action a person should take, or, gives information to a person, knowing the facts. Hawes and Hawes (1982 : 216) briefly describe a *counsellor* as an advisor, especially to students. Rowntree (1981 : 54-55) explains that a *counsellor* is one who is skilled in the art of advising pupils or students on their educational progress, on career opportunities, on personal anxieties, or on sudden crises in their lives. This may be partly the job of all teachers, but many institutions have specialist counsellors. Good (1973 : 146) sees a *counsellor* as one who assists individual students to make adjustments and choices especially in regards to vocational, educational and personal matters. Dobie (1981 : 3) states that different

authors have used various terms to define a *counsellor*. Some of the terms are explained below:

(1) School Counsellor.

“*School counsellor*” is the designation proposed for the person who has to assume the responsibility for general guidance.

(2) Careers counsellor, assistant careers counsellor, junior careers counsellor.

The above terms are the proposed designations for those persons who will assume the responsibility for careers guidance to pupils at school.

(3) Guidance teacher.

The term “*guidance teachers*” is used in this research to indicate the persons who are in charge of school guidance at school at present.

In this research, the use of any of the above terms in place of the concept “*counsellor*” does not alter the findings of this study.

1.4.5 Role.

Role, as defined by Good (1973 : 502), represents the characteristic behaviour shown by an individual within a group. He explains further that *role* characterises the behavioural patterns of functions expected of, or carried out by, an individual in a given societal context. Brown (1993 : 2618) states that *role* is the part played or assumed by a person in society, life, etc, or the characteristic or expected function of a person or thing, especially in a particular setting or environment. Swannell (1990 : 474) defines *role* as person’s function or official duty.

1.4.6 Pertaining.

Pertaining, according to Swannell (1990 : 400), means belong to, be proper to or connected with, related to, have reference to, or bring oneself into relationship to. Brown (1993 : 2173) defines *pertaining* as belonging to or being attached to, as a part, as an appendage or accessory, as a possession, legal right or privilege; be appropriate to, have reference or relation to, to relate to.

1.4.7 Career.

Brown (1993 : 338) states that *career* refers to a course or progress in life or history, an occupation or profession engaged in as a life-work, a way of making a livelihood and advancing oneself. Swannell (1990 : 77) defines *career* as course through life especially in a profession or occupation.

1.4.8 Commerce.

Hawes and Hawes (1982 : 46) explains that *commerce*, in higher education, is a term used in previous decades to refer to study programmes concerned with business and business management; such programmes are commonly characterised today as ones in business administration or management. *Commerce* is defined by Swannell (1990 : 104) as all forms of trading, buying and selling. Brown (1993 : 451) states that *commerce* implies buying or selling; the exchange of merchandise or services, especially on a large scale; interested in financial returns, likely to make a profit.

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to draw attention to and initiate debate on the importance of the role that the school vocational guidance counsellor is entrusted with in leading pupils to a career in commerce. The aims of this study are:

- To pursue a study of relevant literature on school guidance counselling.
- To undertake an empirical investigation into the school guidance counsellor's role pertaining to a career in commerce.
- To provide certain guidelines and recommendations regarding the school guidance counsellor's role with regards to a career in commerce.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Research with regard to this study will be conducted as follows:

- A literature study of available, relevant literature.
- An empirical study comprising structured questionnaires to be completed by guidance teachers of secondary schools. A Likert type scale questionnaire with three response categories; viz. Agree, Disagree and Uncertain, will be constructed. The three response categories will ensure that the respondents' selections fall into one of the three categories enabling the measurement of the direction and intensity of their perceptions of the school guidance counsellor's role pertaining to a career in commerce.

1.7 CHAPTER DELIMITATION

Chapter two will provide a conceptual framework regarding the nature and scope of school guidance.

A review of literature regarding school vocational guidance and a career in commerce will be discussed in chapter three.

The planning of the research will be described in chapter four. Research methodology and research issues will also be clarified in this chapter.

Chapter five will present the data which involves analysis of the data from the empirical study through questionnaires.

A summary, findings and recommendations are given in chapter six.

CHAPTER 2

SCHOOL GUIDANCE

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CHAPTER TWO

SCHOOL GUIDANCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A discussion on the aims, nature and scope of school guidance is essential, as an understanding of these facets of school guidance provide a framework upon which this research is structured. A broader framework on the subject is enhanced by discussion i.a a historical overview of school guidance, defining school guidance, certain ideological approaches to school guidance, principles underlying school guidance, and the need for school guidance.

2.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF SCHOOL GUIDANCE

According to Shertzer and Stone (1974 : 21) as is true of all histories, that of school guidance and counselling reflects continuous change and progressive development. This does not mean that there have not been crises or that development has necessarily been smooth or uniform. School guidance and counselling has been and continues to be a dynamic movement. It is important for every counsellor to be acquainted with the broad dimensions of its evolutionary process.

Landmarks or "firsts" in the history of counselling, such as who the first counsellor was, are hard to establish with any degree of certainty. Resolving the issue of "first" depends on how counselling is defined. If its traditional definition -giving of advice- is accepted, then the point at which man first sought and received verbal aid or instruction from another marked the advent of counselling (Shertzer & Stone,1974:21). Some would point out that certain counselling concepts can be traced back to the Greek philosophers, to parts of the Old Testament, or to other early sources.

In this sense, the social philosophers of ancient Greece (e.g. Plato [427 - 347 B.C.] and Aristotle [384 -322 B.C.]), the hedonists, the philosophers of the British associationist school (such as Locke [1632 - 1704], Hume [1711 - 1776], and James Mill [1773 - 1836]), and others were influential because they sought to define the nature of man, the nature of society, and the relationship between the individual and society (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 21).

Counselling emerged and developed as an American product. In no other country did it flower as it did there. Why it emerged in America has never been satisfactorily explained. Some claim that the American social environment, strongly influenced by the belief in the importance of the individual, was especially congenial to its development.

The pervasive concept of individualism, the lack of rigid class lines, the incentive to exercise one's talents to the best of one's ability may have provided a philosophical base, or perhaps counselling originated in America because their economic system was affluent enough to afford it. It may have appeared there because their society has long been child centred. Undoubtedly all these factors were instrumental in its emergence in America.

But restricted to its modern and technical definition, guidance and counselling has a much more contemporary history and therefore a much shorter one. It's highly significant events have been capsuled and presented by Borow (1964 : 48-62). Some of them, abstracted from his work, are discussed here.

(1) Formative period

Guidance and counselling may have begun in 1898 when Jesse B. Davis begun work as a counsellor at Central High School in Detroit, Michigan. For ten years he helped students with educational and vocational problems (Borow, 1964 : 49). William R.

Harper, first president of the University of Chicago, in an 1899 address entitled "Scientific Study of the Student" urged *individualised instruction and prophesied the advent of college personnel specialists*. In 1906 Eli Weaver published the booklet "Choosing a Career." The Vocational Bureau of Boston opened in 1908 with Frank Parsons as its director and counsellor. His report (1909) to its Executive Committee described guidance procedures employed with some 80 young people who made use of its services. Simultaneously, William Healy was conducting meetings in Chicago, to plan the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute he started the following year. This was the first systematic effort to provide psychiatric examination for juvenile offenders - actually the first child guidance clinic. In 1909 Parson's book "Choosing a Vocation" was published posthumously. The first national guidance conference took place in Boston in 1910. A year later, Harvard University offered the first university-level course in vocational guidance, with Meyer Bloomfield as instructor. In 1912 Grand Rapids, Michigan, established a city-wide guidance department in its school system. The year 1913 marked the founding of the National Vocational Guidance Association at Grand Rapids (Borow, 1964 : 50).

(2). Later developments

We pick up the narrative again years after this pioneering period. The Occupational Information and Guidance Service was organised in 1938 in the U.S. Office of Education with Harry A. Jager as chief. In 1939 the first edition of the "Dictionary of Occupational Titles" was published. The year 1942 marks the publication of the "History of Vocational Guidance", written by John M. Brewer. The use of Federal funds for vocational guidance was authorised under the George-Deen Act in 1938 and later in the George-Barden Act of 1946. Five years later (1951) the American Personnel and Guidance Association was formed. After Sputnik 1 was launched by the Russians in October 1957, the National Defence Education Act of 1958 was passed by Congress and provided funds (Title 5) for strengthening school guidance programmes and for preparing school counsellors. The Commission on Guidance in

American Schools (administered by the APGA) reported (1962) its examination of the current status and future prospects of counselling and its far-reaching recommendations. The report, "The counsellor in a Changing World", was written by C. Gilbert Wrenn. In 1964, Title 5 was amended by Congress to include the preparation of elementary school counsellors in institute programmes at the local level. This amendment also provided for the preparation of counsellors for higher education settings (Borow, 1964 : 51).

(3) Current developments

The 1960 - 1970 period was a time during which impressive gains were made in numbers of counsellors prepared and employed. During these years attention was focused upon clarifying counsellor role and function, upon accountability in counselling, upon the use of group approaches, upon computer applications to career information, and upon the use of behaviour modification techniques. During the early 1970's, many school counsellors were involved in recasting their efforts to provide vocational or career counselling (Borow, 1964 : 51-52)

2.3 AIMS, NATURE AND SCOPE OF SCHOOL GUIDANCE

2.3.1 Aims of school guidance

The assumption that School Guidance is a purposeful, goal-directed aspect of the curriculum rests on particular aims. Its overall aim, by definition, is to cater for the needs of the individual in terms of providing information and direction on a general level and on a specifically career-orientated level, through facilities available to all pupils in state, state-subsidised and independent educational institutions.

Specific aims in guidance as delineated by Dobie (1981: 9-10) are as follows:

- It sets out to facilitate learning and orientation. After being exposed to demonstration, the pupil is encouraged to make autonomous choices.
- In terms of *careers* guidance, the aim is to provide information useful to the pupil in making a career choice. Personal counselling may be involved (or otherwise the career counsellor would be merely a referral agency or clerk), but guidance and counselling are not synonymous; the latter implies a professional role (for which a high level of training is necessary) associated with a service.
- A topical and emphatically important aim in Guidance at the present time is the adequate provision of guidance personnel and facilities in Coloured and Black schools. The lack of such facilities and personnel requires immediate remediation.
- Co-ordination of the efforts of industry, commerce, the teaching profession and other agents is an immediate aim in Guidance, particularly in terms of the provision of information about occupational opportunities. At present, legal and other restrictions tend to prevent the necessary co-ordination.
- In view of the differences and dual necessity of general and careers guidance, an aim in Guidance is clearly to grant access for every pupil to a General Guidance programme and a specialised Careers Guidance programme, as well as to more specialised guidance services where necessary. This aim has direct implications for systems planning, teacher training, finance, management and curriculum construction.
- In the guidance situation, the total context of the pupil must be taken into account in a non-directive manner, with respect for his privacy, and in an atmosphere of

guaranteed confidentiality. This aim has implications for teacher selection and training.

- The overall aim in Guidance is to enhance the atmosphere of the school or guidance centre through engendering a helping, caring relationship intent on establishing and serving the pupil's interests, intellect, abilities and opportunities.

2.3.2 Nature and scope of school guidance

To some people school guidance is synonymous with vocational guidance. And to others vocational guidance is the alpha and the omega of school guidance. Nothing can be further away from the truth. But this trend of thinking is not without cause. Crow and Crow (1960 : 8) state that at the beginning of the twentieth century many young people found themselves faced with the problem of deciding on the type of job in which they might be interested and for what they wanted to qualify. Frank Parsons then started the first guidance movement in Boston in order to provide vocational guidance to young people. In 1908, group and individual vocational guidance was offered to high school students in Grand Rapids, Michigan. Jones (1945 : 59) states that because Parsons stressed the vocational aspect in the beginning of the guidance movement, many people still think of guidance as restricted to "getting jobs for young people", to "distributing young people to jobs according to their ability", or to some other purely vocational aspect of the problem. Some people also feel that every important crisis in the lives of individuals has its origin in or is associated directly with vocational choice, vocational placement or vocational adjustment.

On the extreme end of this narrow view of school guidance is the tendency to link guidance with each and every problem area and name guidance after it. In this way we end up with too many different kinds of guidance. We see Jones (1945 : 77) falling into this pitfall.

He lists the problems by classifying them under the following eight headings:

- health and physical development
- home and family relationships,
- leisure time,
- personality,
- religious life and church affiliations,
- school,
- social (including moral and civic),
- vocational.

These headings might well be used to designate the different kinds of guidance. Thus we may distinguish for purposes of discussion eight kinds of guidance according to what may seem to be the major emphasis of each problem.

The problem with the above classification is that there is nothing to stop us from adding the ninth or tenth kind of guidance till we reach an absurdly high figure, or stop at no figure at all. Later it will become apparent that Jones' so many kinds of guidance can be summarised into only two or three kinds of guidance.

Lindhard, Barnard & Dlamini (1983 : 4-6) identify four different areas of school guidance: personal, social educational and vocational. The social field is said to involve the preparation of the pupil for the future when he will be an adult citizen. This preparation starts in the family circle and the school community and moves out to the larger community.

Quite a number of authors identify three areas of school guidance: personal, educational and vocational. This is true of Kruger (1980 : 12-17), Van Niekerk (1977 : 41) and Crow and Crow (1960 : 8-10). Section 16 (1) of Government Notice R2029 of 12 November 1971 (Government Gazette 1971 : 20) seems to uphold the

above classification, namely “Guidance shall be given to a pupil in respect of *personal matters, educational choice* and, with due regard to the needs of the country, *choice of career.*”

- Personal guidance is explained by Van Niekerk (1977 : 42) as follows: “Die persoonaspek van skoolvoorgligting veronderstel ‘n studie van elke kind, die bybring van selfkennis by die leerling, gesonde houding teenoor die eie persoon, die ontdekking en behandeling (of verwysing) van kinders met persoonsprobleme.”
- Van Niekerk (1977 : 42) states that educational guidance embodies the knowledge of the worth of the different subject directions, the correct subject choice, knowledge and application of the correct study methods, placement at the specific school, proper scholastic achievement and the choice of a further study direction if any, and the treatment of problems in this regard.

Hamrin and Paulson (1950 : 186) point out that guidance in the area of education includes those parts of the complete guidance programme which are concerned particularly with helping students to solve their educational problems, to make their educational adjustments, and to plan their educational programme wisely.

Proctor (1975 : 243) defines vocational guidance as follows: “Vocational guidance embraces all those school activities specifically designed to assist individual pupils in learning about, choosing, preparing for, entering upon, and making progress in occupations.” Gous and Jacobs (1980 : 1) describe vocational guidance as: “Beroepsvoorgligting is ‘n algemeen aanvaarde begrip wat eintlik alles omvattend is en insluit hulp en leiding aan leerlinge met die keuse van skoolvakke, naskoolse kursusse en ‘n beroepsrigting.”

Dobie (1981 : 11) makes provision for two components of school guidance : a general school guidance component and a careers school guidance component. Dividing the

existing contents of school guidance into inter alia personality guidance, educational guidance, family guidance, recreational guidance is not justified because all this and more jointly have bearing to the pupil as person and the world in which he has to assert himself.

Dobie (1981 : 14) suggests that general school guidance “will cover guidance for the individual in society, the development of his social skills, his growth and development into a mature and well functioning family man and an accepted member of his society.” It also suggests that “careers guidance is a comprehensive and systematic, vocational, educational programme which will help pupils to choose a career and which will provide them with skills, attitudes and knowledge useful for survival and progress in their first jobs and in their subsequent career.”

For the purposes of this study we shall adopt the classification of school guidance into the two components : general school guidance and careers guidance. It can be seen that all classifications of school guidance exceeding two, can be brought under the two components (Linda, 1994 : 34).

2.4 DEFINING SCHOOL GUIDANCE

“Guidance” and “counselling” has been used to denote a wide range of procedures including advice giving, encouragement, information giving, test interpretation and psychoanalysis. Because most of the previous education department used “guidance” and “counselling” synonymously, the same practice will be followed in this study. *English and English (1958 : 127) define counselling as “ a relationship in which one person endeavours to help another to understand and to solve his adjustment problems.”*

A few of the definitions of counselling given here reflect some of the subtle differences that have been emphasised or have evolved over the years.

“... a process in which the counsellor assists the counselee to make interpretations of facts relating to choice, plan, or adjustments which he needs to make” (Smith, 1955 : 156).

“... a process which takes place in a one-to-one relationship between an individual troubled by problems with which he cannot cope alone, and a professional worker whose training and experience have qualified him to help others reach solutions to various types of personal difficulties” (Hahn & MacLean, 1955 : 6).

“... the process by which the structure of the self is relaxed in the safety of the relationship with the therapist, and previously denied experiences are perceived and then integrated into an altered self” (Rogers, 1952 : 70).

“... that interaction which a) occurs between two individuals called a counsellor and client; b) takes place in a professional setting, and c) is initiated and maintained as a means of facilitating changes in the behaviour of the client” (Pepinsky & Pepinsky, 1954 : 3).

“... the process involving interpersonal relationships between a therapist and one or more clients by which the former employs psychological methods based on systematic knowledge of the human personality in attempting to improve the mental health of the latter” (Patterson, 1959 : 13).

“.. helping an individual become aware of himself and the ways in which he is reacting to the behavioural influences of his environment. It further helps him to establish some personal meaning for this behaviour and to develop and clarify a set of goals and values for future behaviour” (Blocher, 1966 : 5).

“.. a process by which a troubled person (the client) is helped to feel and behave in a more personally satisfying manner through interaction with an uninvolved person (the counsellor) who provides information and reactions which stimulate the client to develop behaviour which enable him to deal more effectively with himself and his environment” (Lewis, 1970 : 10).

As time progressed, change in emphasis and meaning to counselling emerged. Shertzer and Stone (1974 : 19) summarise some of the more obvious differences as follows:

- The early emphasis was upon cognitive concerns (“make interpretation of facts”) while more current definitions stress affective experiences (“establish some personal meaning for this behaviour”) as well as cognitive dimensions.
- Earlier definitions identified counselling as a dyadic (one-to-one) relationship, whereas current definition usually refer to more than one counsellee.
- All definitions state or imply that counselling is a process. Process (any phenomenon which shows continuous change in time) implies that counselling is not a single event but involves sequential actions and practices progressing toward a goal.
- The definitions usually specify that a relationship is involved and that it is characterised by warmth, permissiveness, understanding, acceptance, etc.
- Some definitions describe the participants: the counsellor as a professional or as older or as more mature or as possessing special knowledge; the client as troubled, anxious, upset, or frustrated.

- Most definitions indicate that the effect of counselling is improvement or change in client behaviour.

According to the report of the Work Committee on Guidance of the HSRC investigation into education in 1981 (Dobie, 1981 : 3), "School Guidance" as represented in the recommendations, is the overall concept for two components, namely "careers guidance" and "general guidance."

- Careers guidance indicates guidance to pupils directed towards the future career of a pupil. It includes self-knowledge, educational knowledge (subjects, level of subjects and training) and vocational knowledge with a view to meaningful choice of career. (Careers guidance is not limited to the school situation, but is extended to serve also those persons who have left school.)
- General guidance entails the identification of and providing assistance to pupils with problems (excluding problems experienced in choosing a career) as well as guiding pupils to examine and comprehend the demands of life.

2.5 CERTAIN IDEOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO SCHOOL GUIDANCE

2.5.1 Cognitively oriented approaches to school guidance

(1) Trait and factor viewpoint

The best known proponents of the trait and factor point of view have been associated with the University of Minnesota. They include Walter Bingham, John Darlet, Donald G. Paterson, and E.G. Williamson. Most renown is Williamson who served as Dean of Students at the University of Minnesota from 1941 to 1970.

The trait and factor point of view is sometimes called "directive counselling" and "counsellor-centred" theory. Like all dynamic viewpoints it has undergone change since its origin as a vocational counselling approach. It has been broadened to include a concern for total development, not solely vocational development (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 181).

The trait and factor viewpoint holds that the counsellor actively influences the development of the client. Williamson contends that the individual's freedom "to become" includes self-destructive and antisocial forms of individuality as well as positive development (Williamson, 1959 : 3). Because of this possibility, the counsellor seeks openly and frankly to influence the direction of development. Counselling help is sought because people do not possess the personal resources to determine their own individuality. Since they do not fully understand themselves, externally known diagnostic data are collected by the counsellor to supplement a client's perception of himself. The counsellor uses these data to formulate hypotheses for understanding the individual. They are tentative and have to be checked and verified.

Williamson (1959 : 3) recognises that students that come voluntarily for counselling are easier to help, but he doubts that the completely voluntary relationship is the only possible one for counselling. He urges that the counsellor not sit in his office and wait for students, but he does not advocate "forcing" or "compelling" them. The counselling objectives set forth by Williamson (1959 : 3) include (1) helping individuals feel better by acceptance of their perceived self and (2) helping individuals think more clearly in resolving their personal problems so that they can control their own development through rational problem-solving methods.

The counsellor with the trait/factor viewpoint is active in the learning situation represented by counselling. He is involved in diagnoses, presenting information, clarifying issues and the like. He collects and evaluates the data. He sorts and

appraises life history data to help the individual understand himself. Because the counsellor is older or more mature and has special skills, his major role in counselling is essentially that of a teacher, with the subject matter being the counselee and his own pattern of behaviour. The task of the counsellor is to teach the counselee how to learn about himself and his environment while the counselee's task is to learn how to understand himself and to use this learning rationally to achieve a productive life.

The work of trait/factor counsellors was divided into six steps by Williamson (1959 : 3). *Analysis* involves collecting data from a wide variety of sources to obtain an understanding of the client. *Synthesis* refers to the summarising and organising of the data to determine the client's strengths and liabilities. *Diagnosis* is the counsellor's conclusions about the problem causes and characteristics. *Prognosis* refers to the counsellor's prediction of the counselee's future development or the implications of the diagnosis. *Counselling* means the steps taken by the counsellor and counselee with new or recurring problems as well as *evaluation* of the effectiveness of counselling.

The counsellor's techniques were placed in five general categories by Williamson (1959 : 5) : (1) forcing conformity, (2) changing the environment, (3) selecting the appropriate environment, (4) learning needed skills, and (5) changing attitudes. Five stages of counselling were conceptualised by Williamson : (1) establishing rapport, (2) cultivating self-understanding, (3) advising or planning a programme of action, (4) carrying out the plan, and (5) where appropriate, making referral to other personnel workers. In respect of advising, the trait and factor counsellor could engage in (1) *direct advising*, which means that he states his opinion openly and frankly, (2) the *persuasive method*, wherein the evidence is marshalled in such a fashion as to lead the individual to understand the outcomes of alternative actions, or (3) an *explanatory method*, which refers to explaining the significance of diagnostic data and pointing out possible solutions.

(2) Rational - emotive viewpoint

Albert Ellis (1967), a clinical psychologist specialising in the field of marriage and family counselling, has set forth the basic tenets of rational-emotive Psychotherapy in his book, *Reason and Emotion in Psychotherapy*. After becoming dissatisfied with the outcomes of his work in marriage and family counselling, Ellis completed psychoanalytic training and practised psychoanalysis. He soon came to believe that orthodox analytical procedures with their emphasis upon insight were not sufficient to enable his clients to overcome their deep-seated fears and hostilities. Drawing upon his experiences as a private practitioner and his knowledge of behavioural learning theory, he formed rational-emotive therapy (Ellis, 1967 : 442).

The task of the counsellor, according to Ellis (1967 : 36), is to work with individuals who are unhappy and troubled and “to show them (a) that their difficulties largely result from distorted perceptions and illogical thinking and (b) that there is a relatively simple, though work-requiring, method of reordering their perceptions and reorganising their thinking so as to remove the basic cause of their difficulties.” Ellis (1967 : 58-59) contends that all effective counsellors teach or induce their clients to re-perceive or rethink life events. Clients, by doing so, modify their illogical thought, emotion and behaviour.

The main goal of rational-emotive therapists is to demonstrate to clients that their self-verbalisations have been and currently are the source of their emotional disturbances. The rational-emotive practitioner uncovers his client’s past and present illogical thinking by “(a) bringing them forcibly to his attention or consciousness, (b) showing him how they are causing and maintaining his disturbance and unhappiness, (c) demonstrating exactly what the illogical links in his internalised sentences are, and (d) teaching him how to rethink, challenge, contradict, and re-verbalize these (and other similar sentences) so that his internalised thoughts become more logical and efficient.” Further, the rational-emotive therapist not only corrects the client’s illogical thinking,

but also demonstrates the main irrational ideas so that the client will not fall victim to one or more of them at a later time (Ellis, 1967 : 59).

Advocates of rational-emotive therapy use relationship techniques, insight-interpretative techniques, and supportive techniques mainly as preliminary strategies designed to gain the client's trust and confidence. These techniques are useful, according to Ellis (1967 : 95), to demonstrate that the individual is illogical and how he became that way. But relationship techniques fall short because they fail to show the client how he maintains his illogical thinking and how it can be changed. The rational-emotive therapist attacks the specific and general irrational ideas and induces the client to adopt more rational views. He does so in two ways:

- The therapist serves as a frank counter-propagandist who directly contradicts and denies the self-defeating propaganda and superstitions which the patient has originally learned and which he is now self-instilling.
- The therapist encourages, persuades, cajoles, and occasionally even insists that the patient engage in some activity (such as doing something that he is afraid of doing) which itself will serve as a forceful counter-propaganda agency against the nonsense he believes.

Ellis (1967 : 331-374) has pointed out that the rational-emotive therapist must deal with the individual's basic irrational thinking processes that underlie all kinds of fears. Otherwise treatment of one specific fear will not prevent another illogical fear from cropping up at a later time. Because the therapist is supposed to be emotionally stronger and healthier than the client, he should be able to take the risk of attacking the client's defences or resistance to changing his illogical thinking. Ellis believes that passivity on the part of the counsellor encourages clients to take advantage of him and enables them to avoid facing and working on their basic problems.

Contrary to orthodox psychoanalysis, the rational-emotive therapist does not create a transference neurosis with his client, but when normal transference and countertransference relations appear, they are either directly interpreted or dealt with or simply noted but not interpreted to the client. The therapist spends considerable time in the interview, according to Ellis (1967 : 333), analysing and observing the philosophic basis of illogical beliefs. He then attacks the foundations of these beliefs. He uses, where appropriate, suggestion, persuasion, activity, homework assignments and other directive methods of therapy.

(3) Eclectic viewpoint

The leading proponent of the eclectic viewpoint is Frederick C. Thorne, who in 1945 founded the *Journal of Clinical Psychology* and still edits it. Thorne obtained the Ph. D. degree in psychology (Columbia University, 1934) and the M.D. degree (Cornell, 1938) and is a Diplomate in Clinical Psychology of the American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology.

The word "eclectic" means to select, to choose appropriate doctrines or methods from various sources or systems. The eclectic believes that a single orientation is limiting and that procedures, techniques, and concepts from many sources should be utilised to best serve the needs of the person seeking help. The true eclectic maintains that he has a consistent philosophy and purpose in his work and that he employs techniques for reasons that are as well verified as possible rather than completely by trial and error. From his knowledge of perception, development, learning and personality, the eclectic counsellor develops a repertoire of methods and selects the most appropriate for the particular problem and the specific individual (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 188).

The sequence by which counsellors develop an eclectic viewpoint has been described. First, the counsellor resists emphasising theory exclusively. He observes and criticises client and counsellor behaviour. Second, the counsellor studies the history of

counselling and psychotherapy so that he can build upon what is known. Third, the counsellor who evokes an eclectic viewpoint knows his own personality. He is aware of his interacting styles with particular kinds of clients. Thorne (1950 : 27-28) has attempted to analyse the contribution of all existing schools of counselling and to fit them together into an integrated system, retaining the best features of each. He refers to how the methods are combined and used as the "art of clinical practice."

Eclecticism as perceived by Thorne (1950 : 24) would require a global evaluation of an individual in respect of past history, present situation, and future possibilities. This evaluation would utilise methods of understanding personality development contributed by the biological and social sciences. It would require the counsellor to possess direct and intimate knowledge of the individual in all his manifestations and activities.

Both affective-impulsive and rational-intellectual concerns are dealt with as they are encountered in the counsellee. Eclectic theory and practice are built upon the need for maximising the individual's intellectual resources to develop problem-solving behaviour. Maladjustment is believed to result from the client's failure to use his intellectual resources, as he was supposed to do early in life.

Counselling is viewed as a process of re-education and treatment is conceptualised as training the individual. If emotions block training, they may have to be resolved but this is not an inevitable step since training may take place under unfavourable conditions. The goal of therapy is to replace emotional-compulsive behaviour with deliberate rational adaptive behaviour based on the highest utilisation of intellectual resources.

Counselling and psychotherapy are conceived of as a learning process. The learning process, according to Thorne (1950 : 28), involves (a) diagnosing the etiologic psychodynamic factors in the disorder in order to formulate the problem to be learned,

(b) arranging optimum conditions for learning, (c) outlining and guiding the steps of education and re-education, (d) providing opportunities for practice, and (e) giving the subject insight into the nature of the process and its results in order to increase motivation and incentive to learn.

Counselling is defined as a face-to-face relationship in which the counsellor, a person competently trained in psychological science, consciously attempts by attitudes and verbal means to help others solve problems of life which personality factors are the primary etiologic agents. Further, it is concerned with the personality problems of normal people with intact personality resources and is regarded as a method of dealing with man's more superficial personality problems rather than defect or disorder.

Thorne (1950 : 85) believes that an individual seeks counselling assistance because he has problems with which he is unable to cope alone. The counselee expects the counsellor to be more intelligent and to have more training and experience than he does. Consequently, a dominance-submission relationship is present in every counselling relationship, no matter how nondirective the counsellor.

The direction of counselling lies on an active-passive continuum and is the responsibility of the counsellor. Any degree or multiple degrees of this continuum may be used with a counselee according to the indications of the situation.

According to Thorne (1950 : 87-88), direction is an attribute of behaviour indicative of specific function and variously expressed in terms of needs, drives, goals, purposes, and other concepts descriptive of integrated behaviour. Until such time as the person demonstrates his ability to regulate his behaviour within the limits of what is socially acceptable, he is subject to varying degrees of direction or regulation from the environment. The general rule may be stated that the need for direction is inversely correlated with the person's potentialities for effective self-regulation, i.e. the healthier the personality, the less the need for direction; the sicker the personality, the more the

need for direction. Training and experience let the counsellor know when to utilise directive or nondirective methods. And the skill with which the method is used is the critical factor, not the method *per se*.

Thorne (1961 : 65) believes that an individual's personality is formed and reflected as he interacts with his environment. It is characterised as a process of changing or becoming. Personality dynamics include a series of drives: (1) the drive for higher organisation (actualisation, perfect functioning, integration), (2) the drive to achieve and maintain stability (self-preservation, homeostasis, control, life-goals, life-style), and (3) the drive to integrate opposing functions so as to avoid imbalance. There is a constant striving for unity manifesting itself in efforts to maintain the unity of the system of organisation self-consistently.

An individual's life-style is based upon his characteristic patterns of achieving unification of his strategy in satisfying needs and coping with reality. Consciousness is considered the main organising, integrating and unitising mechanism determining and making possible higher level personality functioning. Emotional status and disturbances in behaviour result from disturbances of consciousness. Self-image is defined as what one thinks himself to be while the self-concept as the evaluative core of one's self as the individual believes it appears to others. From the eclectic viewpoint, personality development is regarded as a struggle to transcend affective-impulsive-unconscious determination of behaviour by learning and perfecting rational-logical-voluntary control of behaviour.

Past experience may place limits upon an individual but man transcends his past by his ability to imagine his future. Logic and rationality are man's best means for becoming better and healthier.

(4) Psychotherapy by reciprocal inhibition

Since counselling is concerned with effecting behavioural changes, there have been attempts to interpret and explain what happens in the process in the light of one or more of the several available learning theories. Reinforcement and conditioning theories have been applied very frequently. Pavlov's classic conditioning theory and Skinner's concepts and principles have influenced many counselling theorists and practitioners (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 194).

Joseph Wolpe was educated in South Africa and received his M.D. degree from the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg (1948). He has served as Professor of Psychiatry at the University of Virginia (1960-1965) and Temple University (1965). The name of his conditioning therapy, "psychotherapy by reciprocal inhibition", also serves as a title for the volume he produced to describe the method. In the Preface, Wolpe (1958) traces the evolution of his interest in counter-conditioning methods beginning in 1944 when as a medical officer he read enough to cause him to question the universality of Freud's Oedipal theory. His interest turned from Pavlov to Hull and from Hull to studies of experimentally-induced neuroses. The book was written during 1956-1957 while Wolpe was a fellow at the Centre for Advanced Study in the Behavioural Sciences, Stanford, California (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 195).

The logic of Wolpe's approach is briefly stated by him. Wolpe (1958 : ix) maintains that only three kinds of processes are known that can bring about lasting changes in an organism's habit of response to a given stimulus situation: growth, lesions, and learning. Since neurotic behaviour demonstrably originates in learning, it is only to be expected that its elimination will be a matter of unlearning.

Wolpe conducted experimental observations on cats in which neurotic anxiety had been induced and was later removed by having the animals eat in the presence of initially small but progressively larger doses of anxiety-evoking stimuli. When anxiety was intense, feeding was inhibited. Transient inhibition of anxiety occurred at time of

feeding because the reduction of the hunger drive “stamped this in.” The experiments suggested to Wolpe that human neurotic anxieties might be handled similarly, and he concluded that fundamental mental psychotherapeutic effects follow reciprocal inhibition of neurotic responses. Rather than applying feeding responses to overcome human neuroses, Wolpe utilises more convenient anxiety-inhibiting responses such as assertion, relaxation and sexual responses inside and outside the consultation room (Wolpe, 1958 : x).

Learning takes place, according to Wolpe (1958 : 19), if a response has been evoked in temporal contiguity with a given sensory stimulus and it is subsequently found that the stimulus can evoke the response although it could not have done so before. Reinforcement is defined by Wolpe as the process of learning. An individual’s behaviour can be judged as either *adaptive* (progress toward satisfaction of need or avoidance of possible danger or deprivation) or *unadaptive* (expenditure of energy or occurrence of danger or deprivation). Neurotic behaviour was defined by Wolpe as any persistent habit of unadaptive behaviour acquired by learning in a physiologically normal organism. Anxiety is usually the central constituent of this behaviour, being invariably present in the casual situations. Unadaptive responses are usually extinguished; it is their persistence that is a feature of neuroses.

Reciprocal inhibition is the inhibition, elimination, or weakening of old by new responses. The Principle of Reciprocal Inhibition was stated by Wolpe (1958 : 71) that if a response antagonistic to anxiety can be made to occur in the presence of anxiety-evoking stimuli so that it is accompanied by a complete or partial suppression of the anxiety responses, the bond between these stimuli and the anxiety responses will be weakened. Wolpe points out that the bonds may be weakened by other means although when experimental extinction was sought, it was singularly ineffective. Poor extinction of anxiety responses was thought to be due to (1) the small amount of reactive inhibition generated by the autonomic response and (2) the reinforcement of

anxiety responses by drive reduction when the individual is passively removed from anxiety-evoking stimuli.

Individuals come for counselling because they suffer. Later they appraise therapy in terms of the relief experienced. The methods employed, according to Wolpe (Wolpe, 1964 : 5), should be assessed using several criteria. The primary criteria relate directly to the well-being of the patient. Is the suffering alleviated? If so, how quickly, how completely, and how enduringly? And how free is the accomplishment from disadvantageous sequelae? Secondary criteria are the amount of time and effort demanded of the therapist, and the cost of the treatment to the patient.

The choice of responses depends upon the anxiety-evoking stimuli. In general, assertive responses are used for anxieties evoked in the course of direct interpersonal dealings, sexual responses for sexual anxieties, relaxation responses for anxieties arising from any source whatever but especially from stimulus configurations that do not allow of any kind of direct action (e.g. inanimate objects), and respiratory responses for pervasive (free-floating) anxiety. These four techniques are briefly described here.

Assertive responses refer not only to more or less aggressive behaviour but also to feelings of friendliness and affection. Assertive responses are used to treat anxieties arising from interpersonal relationships (e.g. inability to express one's opinion to friends lest they disagree). Techniques for instigating assertive behaviour include (1) use of analogies, (2) behaviour rehearsal in which the therapist takes the role of the persons toward whom the client has a neurotic anxiety reaction and instructs the client to express his inhibited feelings, and (3) pressure interviews, in which the individual is given a task to perform while verbal demands are simultaneously made upon him. Appropriate pressure is applied to motivate the individual to engage in the requisite behaviour outside the consulting room. Wolpe (1958 : 130-131) has warned that

assertive acts should never be instigated that have punishing consequences for the client.

Sexual responses refer to measures used to inhibit anxiety responses conditioned by various aspects of sexual situations. Sexual inhibition varies by definable properties within the situation. Wolpe (1958 : 132) indicates the essential nature of the techniques employed: There are occasional patients of either sex in whom so high a degree of anxiety has been conditioned to individual women (or men) or classes of women (or men) that the mildest embrace or even close proximity may produce great disturbance; and if there is pervasive anxiety, as may be expected in patients so sensitive, its level is raised. Such a patient is instructed to expose himself only to sexual situations in which pleasurable feelings are felt exclusively or predominantly. The decision regarding the suitability of a situation is made *on the basis of the feelings experienced when the situation is in prospect*.

Relaxation responses are methods which involve giving patients intensive training in the practice of relaxation to enable them to keep relaxing muscles not in use. Differential relaxation (tension kept to a minimum in the muscles required for an act along with relaxation of other muscles) is used. Wolpe (1958 : 136) gives training in relaxation in seven sessions to most of his patients.

Respiratory responses are those used for individuals suffering from pervasive anxiety. After being shown to empty and fill his lungs, the individual empties his lung and then inhales a gas mixture usually consisting of 70 per cent carbon dioxide and 30 per cent oxygen. Between one and four inhalations are given at a session.

Most well known among Wolpe's techniques is that of systematic desensitisation. Three sets of operations are involved in systematic desensitisation: training in deep muscle relaxation, construction of anxiety hierarchies, and counterposing relaxation and anxiety stimuli from the hierarchies. The individual makes up a list of stimulus

situations to which he reacts with graded amounts of anxiety . The most disturbing items are placed at the top and the least disturbing at the bottom. After being taught to relax, the individual (in some cases) is hypnotised and told to relax. He is then told to imagine the weakest item in the anxiety hierarchy. If relaxation is maintained, he is told to imagine the next weakest item, and so on until the strongest item can be encountered. Apparently the relaxation inhibits the anxiety and weakens the anxiety-invoking potential of the stimulus (Wolpe, 1958 : 137).

(5) Behavioural counselling viewpoint

John D. Krumboltz, Stanford University; Carl E. Thoresen, Stanford University; Jack Michael and Lee Meyerson, Arizona State University; and Ray E. Hosford, University of California, Santa Barbara, are amongst those who present behavioural counselling viewpoints (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 198).

Behavioural counsellors define behaviour as the function of the interaction of heredity and environment. Observable behaviour is what counsellors are concerned with and constitutes the criterion against which counselling outcomes are assessed. This view excludes virtually all hypothetical constructs such as those found in self-theory and Freudian theory. According to Michael & Meyerson (1962 : 395) "Man is not at the mercy of his 'unconscious' or his drives; for these entelechies, if they exist, can be expressed in many ways."

Although there are wide divergencies in specifics of behavioural viewpoints, fundamental agreement exists regarding the fact that most human behaviour is learned. Behaviour is modifiable by manipulation and creation of learning conditions. Basically, the counselling process becomes the judicious and expert arrangement of learning or relearning experiences to help individuals change their behaviour in order to solve whatever problems they manifest or select for presentation to the counsellor.

Thoresen (1966 : 17) has characterised behavioural counselling with a fivefold statement:

- Most human behaviour is learned and is therefore subject to change.
- Specific changes of the individual's environment can assist in altering relevant behaviours; counselling procedures seek to bring about relevant changes in student behaviour by altering the environment.
- Social learning principles, such as those of reinforcement and social modelling, can be used to develop counselling procedures.
- Counselling effectiveness and the outcome of counselling are assessed by changes in specific student behaviours outside the counselling interview.
- Counselling procedures are not static, fixed, or predetermined, but can be specifically designed to assist the student in solving a particular problem.

Basic to behavioural counselling is the principle of reinforcement, simply defined as the creation of desirable consequences that will strengthen or facilitate certain behaviour. Not all human behaviour can easily be fitted to the classical or Pavlovian conditioning model. The individual who learns, first of all, is motivated by some need. The need produces general exploratory activity. During the exploration, a response is made that is instrumental in achieving the appropriate goal. The response is learned. The critical events of most human behaviour are the environmental consequences of the behaviour. Obviously, much of our learning is the result of secondary reinforcement. Michael and Meyerson (1962 :384-385) group the stimulus events which serve as consequences of acts into three classes with respect to their effect on operant behaviour.

Their description is paraphrased here:

- **Positive reinforcers** : Behaviour which preceded stimulus events has a good chance of occurring under similar conditions in the future. The stimulus events are called rewards and are pleasant; they include praise, affection, grades.
- **Negative reinforcers** : Behaviour which preceded the removal of stimulus events has a good chance of occurring under similar conditions in the future. Negative reinforcers or aversive stimuli are painful or unpleasant and include social disapproval, criticism, and nagging.
- **No consequence and neutral stimuli** : Responses cease if followed by neutral stimuli. When behaviour is not reinforced, operant extinction occurs.

To Krumboltz (1965 : 38), "Counselling consists of whatever ethical activities a counsellor undertakes in an effort to help the client engage in those types of behaviour which will lead to a resolution of the client's problems." The behavioural counsellor would agree to work on any problem presented by a client subject to three limitations: (1) counsellor interest in client problem type, (2) the competences possessed by the counsellor, and (3) ethical considerations.

Counselling is conceptualised in learning terms, with the counsellor serving as an aid in the learning process. The counsellor arranges conditions for the client to learn adaptive behaviour so that he can cope with his problems. While certain behaviour problems do have organic origins, Krumboltz (1966 : 7) does not believe that the disease paradigm is appropriate for classifying behavioural problems. He also rejects the notion that adaptive behaviour is present in the individual and needs only to be released by a warm, accepting, understanding counsellor. To him, understanding is necessary but not sufficient. The client has to learn to resolve his difficulty and

understanding is seen as but the first step upon which learning experiences can be built.

Krumboltz & Thoresen (1969 : 1-2) cites five advantages of conceptualising client problems as learning problems. These are paraphrased here: (1) The theoretical and research base accumulated from current evidence and thinking about the problems of learning can generate new ideas. (2) Conceptualising counselling as learning immediately integrates counselling with the educational enterprise. (3) Goals can be defined and reached. (4) Attention can be concentrated upon what should be done to develop more adaptive behaviour. (5) Clients will feel an increased sense of responsibility for their actions because they are more aware of the consequences of their actions.

- **Counselling Goals :** Reference has been made to the goals of counselling. It will be remembered that three criteria are used to assess a counselling goal: (1) It must be a goal desired by the client, (2) the counsellor must be willing to help the client achieve this goal, and (3) it must be possible to assess the extent to which the client achieves this goal. The three categories of goals include altering maladaptive behaviour, learning the decision-making process, and preventing problems.
- **Counselling Methods :** Four general approaches are cited from which present counselling techniques are derived. From *operant learning* comes the knowledge that the timing of the counsellor's reinforcements can be useful in producing client-desired behaviour. The counsellor's attention, interest, and approval following certain kinds of client responses determine, at least in part, the future responses the client makes. Outside the counselling interview, administrators, parents, and others can reinforce certain behaviour. The timing of reinforcements both within and without the interview is most important. Hosford identifies four crucial elements necessary for implementing operant conditioning procedures. The first is

that the reinforcements which the counsellor employs must be potent enough to motivate the individual sufficiently to continue performing the behaviour being reinforced. The second is that the reinforcement must be applied systematically. Third, the counsellor must know when and how to reinforce, and fourth, the counsellor must be able to elicit the behaviour he plans to reinforce.

- **Imitative learning** : Imitative learning or social modelling is applied in that the counsellor can arrange for the counsellee to observe models of more adaptive behaviour. If clients have little idea of what constitutes appropriate behaviour, models in the form of tape recordings, programmed instruction, video tapes and films, people, and autobiographies may induce imitative behaviour, which can then be reinforced. Krumboltz and Thoresen (Hosford, 1969 : 20-21) point out that social models should be prestigious, competent, knowledgeable, attractive, and powerful, and that clients may be influenced more when the social model they view is similar to them in some characteristics. Hosford states that social modelling techniques work with groups as well as individuals. He believes that when clients need to learn completely new or highly complex behaviours, social modelling or combinations of social modelling and operant conditioning can best be used to promote the desired change.
- **Cognitive learning** : Cognitive learning supplies methods that include verbal instruction, contracts between counsellor and counsellee, and role playing. *Emotional learning* has application in that individuals with severe feelings, of anxiety can be systematically relaxed when the stimuli which produce anxieties are paired with more pleasant stimuli. The techniques employed by the behavioural counsellor depend on many variables. Among those cited by Hosford (1969 : 21) are (1) the client's behavioural assets and deficiencies, (2) the type of problem for which the client sought help, (3) the type and value of the various reinforcements available in the client's environment , and (4) the significant others in the client's life who might assist the counsellor in promoting the desired behaviour change.

- **Evaluation of Counselling** : Krumboltz (1966: 22) does not believe that counselling in its totality can be evaluated. Evaluation consists of specifying the kind of client problem, the direction of change desired by the client, the precise counselling procedure used, and the circumstances under which it is used. “What we need to know is which procedures and techniques, when used to accomplish what kinds of behaviour change, are most effective with what kind of clients when applied by what kind of counsellors.”

2.5.2 Affectively oriented approaches to school guidance

(1) Psychoanalytic viewpoint

Psychoanalysis is a method of treating individuals by psychological rather than physical means and is a branch of science. The original body of doctrine was set forth by Sigmund Freud between approximately 1890 and 1939. Taken in its broadest meaning, psychoanalysis, includes not only analytic psychology, individual psychology, and other departures from orthodox Freudianism, but also literary, political, and social ideologies which have been influenced by Freud (English & English, 1958 : 417). Among the secondary sources available for study of the psychoanalytic viewpoint are A. A. Brill, Jacob A. Arlow and Charles Brenner, Douglas H. Ford and Hugh B. Urban, Robert Harper, Carlton Beck, and Franz Alexander (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 205).

The major objective of psychoanalytic therapy is to help the individual achieve an enduring understanding of his own mechanisms of adjustment and thereby to help him to resolve his basic problems. It is designed primarily for the treatment of neurosis but has been used with a great variety of psychological disorders.

Classic psychoanalytic treatment required the patient to recline on a couch with the analyst seated behind the patient's head. Literally and figuratively, the analyst

occupied the role of unquestioned authority. Freud's work with Breuer uncovered the fact that a hypnotised patient was helped by talking out emotional difficulties that apparently arose from early events which could not be remembered previously. After the analyst explains the general procedures, aims, and purpose of therapy, the patient is told that his behaviours and attitude attitudes may depend upon emotional factors of which he is unaware and that these must be traced back to their unconscious motivations if they are to be understood and dealt with effectively (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 206).

An important tool of psychoanalysis is the use of *free association*. The individual tells all that comes to mind (free association) especially about early trauma (or shock) regardless of how irrelevant or objectionable it may seem to him. Since infancy and much of childhood are consciously "forgotten", the patient may resist or fail to produce any words, ideas, or thoughts. *Resistance* is an ability to remember important past events or to talk about anxiety-charged subjects. It is the analyst's task to deal with resistances.

Situations cannot be forced, but the analyst may interpret the resistance to clear the path of the associations and provide a flow for further understanding. *Interpretations* are tentative and are revised as free association continues (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 207).

During the course of *analysis* the patient may report *dreams*, which often recapture childhood experiences. Dreams are considered important because they may provide a means of understanding the unconscious. The manifest content (reported dream product) is not as important as the latent content or motivational conflicts symbolised in the dreams. While a dream is often a wish fulfilment, there is no absolute symbolism (snakes may be phallic symbols to one dreamer but to another simply reminiscent of a trip to a zoo) and consequently no universal key to the meaning of dreams.

At the core of psychoanalytic therapy is the *transference* that develops as analysis proceeds. Transference is the re-enactment of previous relationships with people and principally of the parent-child relationship. This attachment of the patient to the analyst may actually be seen as a form of displacement since the analyst becomes the proxy for love or hatred unconsciously attached to a significant person. The therapist may become, emotionally, a father figure for the patient. When the emotions directed toward the therapist are those of affection and dependence, the transference is positive; if a hostile attitude is dominant, the transference is negative. Handling transference requires great adroitness on the part of the analyst. He normally meets the transference reaction boldly but treats it as unreal. Success in the analysis is dependent upon the utilisation of the transference in understanding the patient's resistance (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 208).

Freud often used "slips of tongue" and *wit or humour* as an aid in understanding unconscious motives. They were seen as individual ways of releasing pent-up-energy attached to repressed wishes.

Termination is indicated when the patient gives evidence of having cleared up childhood memories that have served as resistances for important motives. Another indication is that the transference situation has been resolved and a normal relationship between analyst and patient has been established (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 213).

(2) Client - centred approach

Client-centred counselling is also often called self-theory counselling, nondirective counselling, and Rogerian counselling. Carl R. Rogers, its originator, labelled it "client-centred therapy." Like many others, (Rogers, 1961 : 3-38) thinks distinctions between counselling and psychotherapy are artificial and unnecessary.

Client-centred counselling represents a truly American approach. Many in the helping professions, eager for new concepts and tools, readily accepted it for use not only with adults and adolescents but also with children. It has also been utilised widely in group therapy.

Harper (1959 : 83-84) cites five reasons for the prominence achieved by Roger's viewpoint: (1) It fitted into the American democratic tradition since the client is treated as an equal rather than as a "patient" ; (2) its optimistic philosophy emphasised the individual's potentiality for constructive change and was reflective of the optimistic American culture; (3) it appealed to young, insecure therapists as an easy approach; (4) it held promise of being a swifter route to personality change than did psychoanalysis; (5) it was better understood by American psychologists because of its philosophical postulates, its respect for research, and its lack of foreign terms and methods.

This approach stresses the counsellee's ability to determine the issues important to him and to solve his own problems. Counsellor intervention is minimal. According to Harper (1959 : 85) the most important quality of the counselling relationship is the establishment of a warm, permissive, and accepting climate which permits the client to explore his self-structure in relation to his unique experience. He is thus able to face his unacceptable characteristics without feeling threatened and anxious; he moves toward acceptance of himself and his values and is able to change those aspects of himself which he selects as needing modification.

Fundamental to understanding both client-centred counselling and self-theory are the *concept of self* and the concept of becoming or self-actualising growth. Rogers (1951 : 136) states that the central construct of client-centred counselling is the self or the self as a perceived object in a phenomenal field.

Self actualisation, according to Patterson (1969 : 3-6), means that man's behaviour is motivated by this single master motive or drive-enhancement of the self and actualisation of his potential - rather than multiple motives or drives. Patterson does not believe that Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of motives is needed since all are secondary to this basic tendency. Moreover, self-actualisation should not be construed as self-centred or antisocial. Man, a social animal, needs others to actualise himself.

In marked contrast to Freud's irrational and unsocialised man, Rogers' man is "basically socialised, forward-moving, rational and realistic" (Rogers, 1961 : 91). Deep down, in the core of his being, man has no desire to strike back or to wound but rather wants to rid himself of such feelings. While negative feelings may be and often are expressed in counselling, beneath the bitterness and hate is a self that is positive, constructive, and concerned about others. Rogers (1951 : 483-524) has presented his theory of personality in the form of 19 propositions. Discussion will be limited to three fundamental concepts.

First, perception (translation of knowledge of one's environment into mental processes such as judgement, reasoning, and memory) is an active process. Individuals attach meaning to their experience and do not merely recognise meanings inherent in the situation. What is perceived constitutes reality for the individual, and he attends to or responds to the focus of that reality (behaves) as a total organised system. He does not want to be controlled but moves with struggle and pain toward self-government, self-regulation, and autonomy.

Second, as the individual develops, a portion of the perceptual field is differentiated and represents his awareness of his personality. In other words, he learns to differentiate his body and behaviour from other objects in his environment and becomes aware of his being. When experiences and needs appear which have not symbolised and which are inconsistent with the self, they are, *disowned* by the individual. The unconscious mind has little place in Roger's theory of personality.

The person's self-perception is influenced by the ways others perceive him and the way he perceives self-defining references to himself. Values assigned to these experiences are based upon either introjection of others' references or direct involvement. The individual needs to be regarded positively by others. From his experiences flows the need for self-regard or worth as an individual.

Third, the need for self-regard may lead to perceiving experiences selectively so that they are in accord with one's conditions of worth. If incongruity develops between self and experience, serious adjustment problems arise because the individual is constantly called upon to explain away evidence which is incompatible with his view of himself. This incongruity is subceived as threatening and, if symbolised into awareness, introduces inconsistency into behaviour, leads to anxiety, and leads to perceptual rigidity or inaccurate views of reality.

The healthy person is one who can incorporate without distortion most of the data of his living, and among the most significant are his own organic reactions to experiences. Rogers (1961 : 187-192) has stated that the individual strives to become himself. He seeks to find the pattern or underlying order existing in the flow of his experience. The individual who becomes fully functioning (1) is open to experience, (2) lives fully each moment, and (3) trusts his own judgements and choices and depends less upon others' approval or disapproval.

Vulnerability or anxiety occurs when there is discrepancy between the experiencing organism and the concept of self. Trouble comes when events perceived as having significance for the self are incompatible with the organisation of self. In this case the events are either denied or distorted to the point of acceptability.

Client-centred counselling focuses on the experiencing individual. In a process of disorganisation and reorganisation of self, it tries to reduce to a minimum perceived threat to the self and to maximise and sustain self-exploration. Change in behaviour

comes through releasing the client's potentiality to evaluate his experiences, permitting him to clarify and gain insight into his feelings, which presumably leads to growth. Through acceptance of the counsellee, the counsellor enables him to express, examine, and incorporate previously consistent and inconsistent experiences into his self-concept. By redefinition, the individual gains in self-acceptance and learns to accept others and to become a more fully functioning person.

(3) The existential viewpoint

The history of existentialism closely parallels that of psychoanalytic theory. Its origin, however, predates Freud's analytic views, lying in an extremely productive period of philosophical thought and accompanied by the rise and dominance of late 19th and contemporary 20th century science. The existentialist viewpoint, taken broadly during the last 100 years, is a meld of theology, philosophy, psychiatry, and psychology involved in a tremendous effort to understand human behaviour and emotions. Contributors to existential thought include Soren A. Kierkegaard (1813-1855), Paul Tillich (1886-1965), Martin Heidegger (1889-), Jean Paul Sartre (1905-), Eugene Minkowski (1885-), Ludwig Binswanger (1881-1966), Rollo May (1909-), and Viktor E. Frankl (1906-) (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 225).

The factors which led to the development of existentialism have been identified by May, Angel & Ellenbergher (1958 : 4) who sees the fundamental basis as an attempt to understand the individual as he really is, to know him in his reality, to see his world as he sees it, to comprehend that he moves and has a being which is unique, concrete, and quite different from abstract theory.

Existentialism endeavours to understand man- most simply, to understand man as being and becoming. The grasping of another's being occurs on a different level from that of knowledge of specific things about him. "This is the classical distinction between *knowing and knowing about*. When we seek to know a person, the

knowledge *about* him must be subordinated to the over-arching fact of his actual existence" (May *et al.*, 1958 : 38). In this context, existentialism seeks to understand man at greater depth than that represented by the subject-object dichotomy which has permeated Western thought since the Renaissance. It tries to see individual man as a meaningful whole. Unless one focuses upon the fundamental fact of a person's existence and being, one cannot understand drives and behaviour. All lose meaning unless viewed from the dynamic point of being and becoming.

Being is man's awareness of who he is, man's definition of himself, what he makes of himself. The healthy individual is open to reality and creates meaning for himself. The most obvious form of *nonbeing* is death. However, the real therapeutic issue of nonbeing focuses upon live nonbeing represented by total conformity, absorption by collective society- in short, loss of uniqueness and individual identity (May *et al.*, 1958 : 39).

From the existential point of view, *anxiety and guilt* are central in understanding existence. As the individual confronts the fulfilment of his potentiality, he experiences anxiety. If he denies his potentiality or fails to fulfil it, his condition is guilt. May *et al.* (1958 : 55) identified four characteristics of ontological (things that exist) guilt. First, since no one ever really fulfils his potentialities, everyone feels guilt. Second, guilt is not totally culturally determined through failure to meet the demands of society's rules; rather it stems from the realities of choice- choosing one type of behaviour precludes choosing another. Third, ontological guilt differs from neurotic guilt in that it is a condition of existence. Finally, ontological guilt is to be viewed as a constructive force in human personality leading to humility, sensitivity in personal relationships, and creative utilisation of one's potentialities.

The future rather than the present or past is man's most dominant mode of time. Personality is best understood as a projection of man's future. His explorations into the immediate future mould and move him in distinctive ways.

Man has the ability to transcend (climb over or beyond) his immediate situation. He seeks to stand out and by his ability to think abstractly he can orient himself to project what he can be.

Some existentialities see man as becoming, as having choice and will, and, therefore, as exercising freedom. This view is diametrically contrary to that of some behaviourists who regard man as controlled by his environment and think of his behaviour as governed by the law. For some existentialists the self is the determiner of man's culture. While man is not free from conditions, he is free to act upon or take a stand toward them. It is the individual who decides what his existence is to be, not his environment (May *et al.*, 1958 : 56).

Individuals seek counselling for any one of several reasons. Nevertheless, Dreyfuss (1964 : 115) points out, the counsellor assumes that clients seek to expand their psychological world in one way or another. The client's world is unique and must be understood by the counsellor if he is to assist him. According to Dreyfuss (1964 : 114) the premise underlying the existential viewpoint is that "The client is a figure standing out from his ground, the ground being the world of other people, creatures and objects. The goal of counselling is the elucidation of this client's uniqueness" (Dreyfuss, 1964 : 114). The problem presented by the client may be only a socially acceptable excuse to obtain help. Consequently, the counsellor encourages the client to unfold his world in their encounter so that both of them can begin to understand it and the counsellee can act upon the possibilities inherent in it. Dreyfuss (1964 : 116) maintains that the existential counsellor "does not offer interpretations in terms of the client's past, but rather in terms of the client's present being-in-the-world."

Because honesty is an essential characteristic of an encounter, the counsellor must expose himself and he cannot view the client as an object to be manipulated or

exploited. The counsellor's ability to be human enables the client to become aware of similar qualities in himself. It is through this process that the individual will realise his potentialities and achieve self-growth because that becomes his responsibility.

The counsellor's basic task is to enter the client's world and participate with him in its realities. In the special relationship-the encounter-that comes to exist between counsellor and counsellee the latter is no longer an object but becomes a "thou." The intent of the encounter, according to Vaughan (1965 : 555), is three-fold: to foster freedom within the counsellee, to improve his encounters with others, and to discover meaning for his existence.

In existential counselling, knowledge and insight are presumed to follow commitment. Most existentialist counsellors do not believe in viewing man as divided into conscious and unconscious parts. They hold that what is often called the unconscious is part of the individual's being and that the unconscious is too often used as a frivolous means of rationalising behaviour and responsibility, and as a way of avoiding the realities of one's existence. The aim of psychotherapy is to enable man to accept responsibility for himself (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 223-228).

(4) Gestalt therapy

Frederick S. Perls (1894-1970) originated and developed gestalt therapy. He views gestalt therapy as existential in nature and asserts that it is in harmony with medicine, science, and the universe (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 225).

The word "gestalt" has long been used to mean "wholes." Those who advocate gestalt theory believe that a response to a situation is a whole response to the whole situation. The whole is more than the sum of its parts. They deny that behaviour consists of separate responses to a combination of separate stimuli. Gestaltists believe that specific components serve as important *figures* rather than as distinct elements.

Accordingly, "parts" derive their meaning from their membership in the whole. Learning, according to gestalt theory, takes place, not by accretion, but by reorganisation (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 231).

A fundamental concept in gestalt therapy is the clash between social and biological existence. Too many people try to actualise what they "should" be like rather than actualise themselves. For Perls (1971 : 35), this difference between self-image-actualising and *self-actualising* is very critical. The former, the curse of the ideal, leads to the notion that one should not be what he is. Each person lives on two levels. The first is the public (or doing) level which can be observed and verified. The second is the private (or thinking) level. On the latter, the individual rehearses or prepares for future roles. Perls suggests that the *situation* should control a person's actions or behaviour. Those individuals who lack confidence in themselves, or who are not in touch or the world, react by wanting to exert control, rather than reacting spontaneously to the whole. Perls (1971 : 35) distinguishes between *end-gain* and *means-whereby* behaviour. Needs of the organism determine the end-gain while means-whereby are matters of choice. Once the organism is integrated, control of the means-whereby produces satisfaction for the individual.

As he develops, the individual is confronted with two choices. He either learns to overcome *frustration* or is spoiled by his parents. Perls views frustration as a positive element for it forces the individual to mobilise his own resources, to discover his potential, and to manipulate the environment.

Perls (1971 : 36) believe that the development of character leads to rigidity in responding, loss of the ability to cope freely and spontaneously, and produces predetermined behaviours. Character demands directional support from parents, teachers, and other adults. It forces the individual to play stupid and to establish dependency games. The individual expends energy in manipulating the world rather than using his energy for his own development.

The aim of gestalt therapy is to assist the individual to discover that he need not depend upon others; rather, he can be an independent being. The process enables the individual to discover that something is possible for him. The therapist helps the client remove the blocks which keep him from being authentic. A major focus in gestalt counselling is that of helping the individual make the transition from environmental support to self-support. The therapist does this by identifying the impasse. The gestalt therapist serves as a screen for the client who projects that which he cannot mobilise in himself. In projecting upon the therapist, the client discovers that neither he nor the therapist is complete, that everyone has holes in his personality. What is missing is a centre (Perls, 1971 : 37).

The missing parts of the personality in this conception by Perls (1971 : 40) are those that the individual has alienated or given up to the world. The therapist frustrates the client so that he is forced to find his own way or to develop his own potential. The client discovers "...that what he expects from the therapist, he can do just as well himself." That which he disowns can be recovered. Recovery comes by understanding, playing, and becoming those parts that the individual has disowned.

An important concept in gestalt therapy is the *here and now*. That which exists in the here and now is often an unfinished situation or an incomplete gestalt. Perls' example (Perls, 1971 : 48) of a common unfinished situation is that of children who never forgive their parents. They blame them and make them responsible for all their problems. It is only by letting go of one's parents and forgiving them that one becomes responsible for his *being*. Perls suggests that the gestalt counsellor uses the *now* and the *how* rather than the *why* in his work with clients. The *why* only leads to rationalisations and never to understanding. *Now* includes all that exists, for the past is no more and the future is not yet. *How* is the structure or behaviour and includes all that is going on. The therapist seeks to help the client to understand the "*how* : *how* do you behave *now*, *how* do you sit, *how* do you talk, all the details of what goes on

now.” Above all, the therapist tries to find out what the client avoids or is unwilling to suffer.

Perls (1971 : 28) emphasises that the gestalt therapist does not analyse, but integrates attention and awareness. Attention is defined as a deliberate way of listening to the foreground figure or that which is unpleasant. Awareness is experiencing or being in touch with the self and the world.

Perls has stated that gestalt therapy seeks to promote the individual’s growth process and to help him develop his human potentials, to take a stand.

2.6 PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Nine principles for guidance were formulated by the Works Committee of the HSRC in 1981. These are given below with some elaboration, and cross-referencing to the Principles of Education devised by the main committee where appropriate (Dobie, 1981 : 7-9).

2.6.1 The state shall strive to ensure that every pupil shall have equal access to a school guidance programme of equivalent standard

Providing “equal access” and an “equivalent standard” of guidance will not, however, guarantee equal benefit to all, because of vast individual, cultural and social differences. For this reason, the poorer or less-developed sectors of society will need to be shown how to derive maximum benefit from the system. The guidance of parents is therefore implied.

2.6.2 Values of different cultures and communities shall be considered and respected in a school guidance programme

- (a) The implication is that in terms of a curriculum or syllabus for guidance, there should be a scope for choice, interpretation and supplementation.
- (b) While guidance inevitably occurs within the broad framework of a cultural milieu, such a milieu should not be seen to operate in a limiting way.

2.6.3 School guidance shall recognise positively the freedom of individual pupils and their parents with regard to educational and career choice

- (a) Freedom of choice is entrenched in Principle 3 of the Main Committee.
- (b) Equality in careers education presuppose equal access to career opportunities; this would benefit the individual as well as the economic development of the country.
- (c) "Freedom of choice" means that real choice must in fact exist. The only limitations on choice should be those arising from the pupil's own abilities and aptitudes.

2.6.4 School guidance shall in an educationally responsible way take account of the individual needs of the pupil, as well as the social, economic and manpower needs of the country

This principle implies that all advice-giving personnel should have had some teacher training, and likewise that all teachers should have had guidance training. A multi-disciplinary approach is envisaged, the guidance counsellor and careers counsellors acting as co-ordinators.

2.6.5 The development of school guidance, in its formal, non-formal and informal respects shall involve joint participation of parents, community organisations, the state and especially the private sector, because of the ultimate benefit this sector derives from school guidance

- (a) In terms of operationalisation, the establishment of guidance centres is envisaged. These could be subsidised by the private sector, particularly in respect of careers guidance.
- (b) This principle emphasises the joint responsibility shared by all concerned in respect of the provision of effective guidance.

2.6.6 The provision of formal guidance shall be the responsibility of the State, provided that the individual, the parents and society shall have a joint responsibility, say and choice in this regard

- (a) While the onus of providing facilities falls upon the State (as does the onus of providing education in general), all who are involved should participate in the establishment of policy and practice. This upholds the Main Committee Principle 6.
- (b) Because effective guidance essentially strives after the prevention and elimination of conflicts and anxieties, joint participation and responsibility are essential.

2.6.7 There shall be overall co-ordination of school guidance services, whatever the extent of decentralisation of these services may be

- (a) Principle 9 of the Main Committee envisages rationalisation in terms of the centralised and decentralised provisions of education. Particularly in respect of

guidance, overall co-ordination of programmes and resources (e.g. clinics) is necessary to ensure equivalence of standards.

- (b) This principle has particular relevance in terms of the differences in opportunity which exist between urban and rural areas. Co-ordination would ensure a measure of equitable distribution of resources.

2.6.8 Registration of all trained guidance personnel in school and clinics through one central teachers' registration organisation responsible for the evaluation of qualifications, shall be provided for

- (a) Main Committee Principle 10 provides for the recognition of the status of teaching personnel. Central registration of all guidance personnel is necessary to ensure equivalence in criteria for qualifying.
- (b) Towards the attainment of equivalent standards of qualification, immediate intensive training of guidance and career counsellors needs to be introduced.
- (c) Central registration would facilitate an interchange of qualified staff between or within regions, thus promoting distribution of resources.

2.6.9 There shall be constant updating of careers information and guidance methods, by means of ongoing evaluation and research

- (a) The information explosion and the increasing complexity of life, not to mention expanding access to different careers in the RSA, necessitate constant research which could lead to effective data storage and retrieval, by computer, through the envisaged guidance services.

- (b) Constant in-service education and upgrading of guidance counsellors is envisaged in this principle.

2.7 THE NEED FOR SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Hutson (1958 : 110) states that the service to be rendered by the guidance programme can be seen more clearly if the need for it is outlined. Cottingham & Hopke (1961 : 30) point out that the need for guidance has become much greater because of the many changes in economic, industrial and social life. Such changes have created many new problems of adjustment for the children, and the public has turned to the school for assistance in helping them meet the challenges that these problems present.

- **The fundamental worth of the individual :** According to Humphreys & Traxler (1954 : 24) the level of development of a civilisation is measured by the degree to which it respects the value or worth of the individual. Civilisations that have minimised and even degraded the individual have declined and disappeared. Those that gave the individual a good chance to improve and to express himself as a person have tended to flourish and persist. With such an attitude, the guidance worker is imbued with the desire to serve the person in need of assistance and to preserve his fundamental worth.
- **The conservation of human beings :** In civilisations where human life was cheaply held, human resources have been wasted and even destroyed. The concept of conservation of human beings implies that society has the obligation to help the individual to live the kind of life that is both individually satisfying and socially effective. To help meet this obligation, the school as a social institution must provide sufficient guidance services to the individual when, as, and if he needs them. The school, moreover, must supply for each individual the kind of education that best fits his abilities and other potentialities. Thus the school aids the

the individual to attain his own maximum development, a benefit both to himself and to society.

- **The increasing complexity of societal demands :** The complexities of modern life and the changes therein mean that people confront more problems than formerly and that they have more difficulty in achieving satisfactory solutions. They find that older patterns of thinking and acting and that older stocks of knowledge are inadequate guides in the new situations. People as individuals are in greater need of assistance today than they were in the past. To obtain this assistance, they look to various organisations that have assumed responsibility for guidance services. The school is such a primary organisation.
- **Specialisation of function :** Jones (1945 : 7) states that modern life demands that production be speeded up, that small business give place to larger concerns, that industry be specialised, that each man learns to do one thing and do it well, or at least do it quickly, in order that larger products may result. This specialisation calls for very definite and careful guidance in some organised form; it cannot be left to haphazard choice. It becomes more and more apparent that the only agency that can be relied upon to give this help is the public school.
- **The importance of right placement :** Humphreys & Traxler (1954 : 30) indicate that the worker who is engaged in the occupation he likes and succeeds in tends to remain in that occupation. He benefits both materially and in less tangible but equally important ways. And society, of which he is a member also benefits; through his achievements and satisfactions, society both maintains stability and makes progress. Jones (1945 : 3) states the importance of right placement as follows:

We have only to look around us and see the conditions that confront our friends and ourselves to be convinced that human energy is wasted, lives are

misspent, and misery and disaster result from lack of direction and from unwise selection of occupation, of recreation, of companions, and of educational opportunities.

- **The employment of women :** Another basis of guidance work is the trend in the employment of women. For generations, society held the idea that a woman's place was in the home. Slowly this idea underwent change. Today woman can gain entrance to a greater variety of occupations. Because of this fact young women, like young men, need help in studying and choosing occupations. The situation now faced by young women places a genuine responsibility on the guidance services of every school.
- **The increasing number of youth in schools :** The other basis of a guidance services programme is the increasing proportion and number of children who are attending elementary schools, high schools, colleges, and other training institutions. Since the long range predictions of high school and college enrolments are on the side of mounting numbers, these institutions will probably experience a growing demand for guidance services.
- **Importance of Differences between Individuals :** Guidance workers recognise that individuals differ in ordinary physical characteristics such as height, weight, strength and endurance, and that individuals differ in their mental abilities-in general intelligence and specific aptitudes such as verbal, quantitative, mechanical and clerical. If individuals are measured in the characteristics of general mental ability, for example, their measurements tend to distribute themselves according to what psychologists call the normal curve. If the guidance worker fully understands the normal curve, he can determine approximately where an individual stands in a given measured characteristic in comparison with other individuals. He can also advise that individual with greater confidence regarding the latter's problems and potentialities.

- **The Importance of differences within the individual :** There are also differences among characteristics within a given individual. These are called trait differences. For example, an individual can be very high in “ Number” but lowest in “ Verbal Meaning.” Guidance services cater for the differences among traits within an individual for both the immediate and long-term adjustments of the individual. Differences among characteristics within an individual will help the individual decide whether he should, for example, be a reporter or an accountant.
- **The Role of Adjustment :** Naude & Bodibe (1986 : 73) define adjustment as “the way people attempt to adapt to their physical and social environment, and attempt to achieve harmony between their desires and motives and the demands and constraints placed on them by their environment.” The guidance teacher is therefore often called upon to help the child cope with the demands of the environment and society. This means that guidance services promote adjustment and combat maladjustment or abnormal behaviour.
- **Pupil Failure :** According to Hutson (1958 : 110) pupil failure may be due to what he calls “ educational or curriculum maladjustment.” Pupil failure may be due to much more than this. Here we are talking about pupil failure that has reached such high levels as to be alarming. Be that as it may, it is true that guidance services are needed to play a significant role in identifying and fighting the causes of alarming pupil failure.
- **Elimination :** According to Cottingham & Hopke (1961 : 38) guidance services are needed to aid in increasing the “ holding power” of schools. They point out that the school is in a strategic position to recognise the potential early school leaver, to get at the cause in each case, to contact such children through counselling before they leave and to make such instructional adjustment as will make school a more satisfying experience for those children. Jones (1945 : 30)

concur that elimination calls for definite and careful guidance, to the end that abilities may be conserved and success be assured by further education.

2.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter an exposition has been made of some major issues regarding school guidance. The need for and principles of school guidance was emphasised. It is hoped that as we proceed with the following chapter, clarity has been established as to the nature, aims and scope of school guidance. The conceptual framework, historical and theoretical overviews, serve as an important source of reference for discussion in future chapters.

CHAPTER THREE

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CHAPTER THREE

SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND A CAREER IN COMMERCE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Shertzer & Stone (1974 : 24) most authorities identify the emergence of vocational guidance as the beginning of modern-day counselling. The activities of Frank Parsons in Boston have been cited. Parsons, often called the “father of vocational guidance,” began his work at the Vocational Bureau to improve post-school placements of individuals and coined the term “vocational guidance” to describe the methods he used with young people and urged that vocational guidance become part of the public school programme with experts to conduct it.

Shertzer & Stone (1974 : 24) state further that Parson’s observations of young people led him to the conclusion that they needed careful and systematic help in choosing a vocation. His idea was to match the characteristics of the individual to the requirements of the occupation. He reasoned that three major steps were necessary in selecting a vocation and that they suggested how an experienced counsellor could assist the young person. These steps may be summarised as *man analysis* - careful study of the counsellee’s capabilities, interests and temperaments; *job analysis* - counsellee study of occupational opportunities, requirements, and employment prospects in various lines of work; and *true reasoning* - on the relationship between these two sets of data.

3.2 DEFINING SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Dobie (1981 : 14) describes vocational guidance as : “... a comprehensive and systematic, vocational, educational programme which will help pupils to choose a career and which will provide them with skills, attitudes and knowledge useful for

survival and progress in their first jobs and their subsequent career.” He goes further to state that, vocational guidance helps the pupils to become aware of the opportunities open to them in accordance with their abilities and limitations as well as their needs.

Gous and Jacobs (1980 : 1) maintain that vocational guidance counselling is a term which is generally accepted and encompasses assistance and guidance to students in the choice of their school subjects, post school courses and career. According to Lindhard *et al.* (1985 : 179) vocational guidance means helping the pupil to choose a career, to find a job, and to succeed in it.

3.3 AIMS, NATURE AND SCOPE OF SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

3.3.1 Aims of school vocational guidance

Dobie (1981 : 13) recommends that the following objectives are striven for with careers guidance :

- To exercise this choice of education and occupation, each pupil has to be supported and guided in exploring, understanding, accepting and considering this physical, social, mental and spiritual potential.
- Pupils have to be supported by means of individual and group orientation to explore, understand, accept and realise their potential in exercising their choice of education and occupation.
- To make education and occupation information available to the pupils, to interpret it and to guide them to explore the educational and occupational opportunities and

to connect them with their own potential with a view to a choice of education and occupation.

- Identification of pupils with problems regarding their choice of education and occupation and the solution to these problems.

3.3.2 Nature of school vocational guidance

The United States Office of Education introduced in 1971 the concept of "Career Education" into the curricular of American schools. No particular definition of the concept was stated by the Office of Education, but its goals were stated by Hoyt (Dobie, 1981 : 14) as follows:

- To help all individuals;
- To have reason to want to work;
- to acquire skills useful for work;
- to know how to obtain work opportunities;
- to enter the world as a productive contributor; and
- to continue to grow in a productive and satisfactory manner.

The programme can be said to have a narrow approach of educating, not for life, but merely for living. This is confirmed by comments that: "In America at least, we demonstrate achievement, we gain in social estimation, and confirm our necessary feelings of self-worth to a large extent through our labour market roles and activities."

The British Department of Education and Science says in "Careers Education in Secondary Schools" : "Careers education can be defined as that element in the programme of secondary schools explicitly concerned with what one pioneer in this field has described as 'preparation for adult life'. Between the ages of 13 and 17, and in some cases well beyond these years, a period when they must learn to know themselves, to come to terms with their strengths and weaknesses, to make choices, reach decisions and accept the implications of those decisions. It is the period during which consultation should take place between pupils, teachers, parents and careers officers about long term educational and vocational strategy or about short term tactics. It is a period of choice and of decision, but also of adaptation to conditions in an adult world in which occupational opportunity for young people varies considerably from area to area" Hoyt (Dobie, 1981 : 15).

The British pioneers of Careers Education, A.G. Watts and Bill Law (Dobie, 1981 : 15) say that Careers Education describes a new approach to careers guidance work, one which brings it much closer to the heart of the school, the classroom. It ceases to see the school's task as simply providing diagnostic advisory services; instead it sees the school's central task as helping students develop the skills and acquire the concepts and information that will help them to make decisions for themselves. One of the major proposals of these two authors is that Careers Education is too subtle and too complex an undertaking to be left solely to the specialists and the professionals, but is rather a task which inevitably is shared by the whole community and should be planned to take account of this fact.

The Careers Education programme was introduced into this country in 1975 in a paper "Careers Education in South Africa", at a national guidance conference at the University of Cape Town. A manual, "The World of Work in South Africa", by Niels Lindhard and Henry Africa, was published in 1978 and later supported by work books with 30 lessons in careers guidance, "What can I do?" and "Wat wil ek word?", in 1980.

3.3.3 Scope of school vocational guidance

According to Dobie (1981 : 20), the purpose of a Careers Education programme is to teach pupils to choose a career with full knowledge of all the alternatives they have, the opportunities which they have and which they do not have, the abilities and personality each one has to offer to the working world, and, if they have a choice, how to choose between their alternatives, how to get a job, how to survive and progress in it, and how to build it into a career.

A Careers Education programme was defined as a comprehensive and organised instructional programme which can help pupils to choose a career and which will provide them with skills, attitudes and knowledge useful for survival and progress in their first jobs and in their subsequent career. The Careers Education is based on our knowledge of the careers decision process. In "The Careers Counsellor" Lindhard (Dobie, 1981 : 21) described it as follows:

• In order to come to a decision about a career the pupil has to have knowledge in three different areas: he needs to know about himself because, as it has been said, "until you know who you are you will not know what you can become." So he must have developed a realistic picture of himself, a self-concept. He must also have a knowledge about his education, the one he is receiving now in school and how it can help him in the future, and higher education which will improve his opportunities. Finally, he needs to have job information which must be factual and up to date and which describes for him what his opportunities are and what kind of work-satisfaction he may hope for. Three main areas of knowledge, the self, the education and the careers information, are described as areas of awareness. So we have self-awareness, educational awareness and careers and job awareness. The word awareness is used because in each area there are decisions and assessments to be made which are not made solely on fact; they include emotional and value decisions. For instance, an aptitude test can give a pupil better self-knowledge, but his self-awareness includes

information which does not show in any test. The three areas of awareness give the pupil information on which he can make a decision, that is if he knows how to make a decision. Teaching pupils how to decide is part of the Careers Education programme.

The fifth element in the programme is employability awareness: how to find a job, how to keep it, how to progress in it or how to change it. There is a new element in the Careers Education programme: how to be unemployed. No careers counsellor can afford to describe job opportunities to his class as if they are readily available if last year's school-leavers are still on the street. So unemployment is now a realistic part of the programme.

(1) Self-awareness

It was the father of modern vocational guidance, Super (Dobie, 1981 : 23), who said: "A person will express his idea of the kind of person he is in the kind of occupation he chooses", and this is often confirmed to experienced vocational counsellors whose clients complain: "I don't like my job, it is just not me." Super was backed up by Holland (Dobie, 1981 :23) who said: "Persons with inaccurate self-knowledge make inadequate choices more frequently than persons with more adequate self-appraisals."

Self-awareness is the knowledge of one's nature, personality, ability and values. The syllabus will cover personality, ability, potential maturity and permanence (what you can change about yourself if you want to and what you cannot change), strengths and limitations, needs and values (what kind of work satisfaction you seek) and interests.

(2) Educational awareness

The practical use of one's school education and the benefits of good school performance. The advantages of staying in school as long as possible. The basic skills which can be learnt at school, which are required for success at work: reading and

writing, communication skills, numerical skills, memory, reasoning skills and social skills (Dobie, 1981 : 24).

The education and training which are available after school and which links up with ambition, ability and opportunity: vocational, practical, technical and academic training, as well as training on the job or with the job (in-service), adult education and correspondence courses, bursary facilities, entrance requirements, costs and regional availability of educational facilities.

(3) Career and job awareness

This means first of all knowing something about the whole South African economy and then knowing about individual jobs. Knowledge about the economy gives the pupils a wider scope and insight into a larger range of opportunities. John Holland's second proven thesis said: "People with inadequate occupational information make inadequate careers decisions more frequently than people with more adequate occupational information." According to Holland (Dobie, 1981 : 24) what a pupil needs to know about individual jobs or careers are:

- The entrance qualifications required for that job.
- Conditions of work, days, hours, leave, travel.
- Rewards and benefits: annual bonus, medical aid, pension, study allowances.
- Opportunities: for progress, for learning, for promotion.
- Work: the actual kind of work to be done day by day.
- Satisfaction: what kind of work satisfaction?

- Success: what kind of person will succeed in this job?

(4) Decision-making skills

Teaching pupils about the different ways in which decisions are made by different people, teaching them about information gathering, evaluation of alternatives, priority setting, risk taking, responsibility to self and accountability to others. As decision-making in the careers area means the comparison of a person's nature as he sees himself with the nature of the job as he sees it, the school-leavers must be taught to realise this match between themselves and their opportunities (Dobie, 1981 : 24).

(5) Employability awareness

Moving from school to the first job is a transition which involves much difficulty and adjustment; it means learning about a new way of life. It includes information and instruction about how to find a job, how to keep it and how to get promoted. Employability awareness also includes knowledge about how to act if there is no employment. Unemployment or under-employment is not uncommon for many school-leavers. How to cope with unsolicited leisure is an important part of Careers Education (Dobie, 1981 : 25).

3.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR

The search for characteristics basic to counselling effectiveness led to the realisation that their identification could not be studied independently of the counselling process. Yet in this extraordinarily complex interpersonal process of the counsellor's personality traits are only one set of variables which interact with other sets of variables.

3.4.1 Attitudes

Wrenn (1970 : 91-96) concludes that to become involved with one's clients and one's profession must not mean neglect of the most potent single element in the counselling relationship. This is the person of the counsellor, his sense of reality, his self trust, his increasing awareness of beauty and the joy of living, and his open regard for others.

3.4.2 Race, sex, age

Vontress (1971 : 7-13) in a series of articles, has called attention to the impact of racial differences upon counselling. He believes that it is difficult for white counsellors to establish and maintain relationships with black clients and vice versa. He further suggests that working relationships with black or coloured females can be established more easily than with males. Hopke and Rochester (1969 : 24-28) reported that effective counsellors were younger and had fewer years of teaching experience than their less-effective counterparts.

3.4.3 Previous experience

Kehas and Morris (1970 : 248-258) investigated the way in which counsellors who had taught were influenced by their earlier experience, and concluded that having been a teacher was useful to the counsellor in understanding and working with counselees and teachers on student-teacher problems.

3.4.4 Transparency

Successful counselling facilitates counslee self-disclosure and self-exploration. It is successful because the individual verbalises and comes to know his beliefs, motives, fears, relationships to others and life's decisions. Truax and Carkhuff (1965 : 3-9) have presented research supporting a significant relationship between counsellor

transparency and counselee self-disclosure. They reported that the greater the self-exploration, the greater the constructive personality change.

3.4.5 Counsellor activity

Grigg and Goodstein (1957 : 31-36) followed up 288 former counsees at the University of Iowa Counselling Service. They reported that those individuals who saw their counsellors as taking an active role were more likely to report a favourable outcome for counselling than those who saw their counsellors as passive listeners.

3.4.6 Motivation and expectancies for change

Wallach and Strupp (1960 : 316-323) hypothesised that (1) the more highly motivated patient will engender in the therapist a warmer attitude and (2) a warmer therapist attitude is associated with more favourable perceptions of the patient, including clinical judgements, prognostic estimates, and treatment plans. Their data supported the hypothesis that the personality of the counsellor is an integral part of his clinical judgements and counselling practices.

3.4.7 Similarity to counselee

Whitehorn and Betz (1954 : 321-331) reported that therapists who had high success rates with schizophrenic patients (A-therapists) were different from therapists who had low success rates with schizophrenics (B-therapists). Since success with one kind of patient did not correlate very highly with success with another type of patient, they assumed that the difference was the result of the interaction between a certain type of patient and a certain type of therapist. The A-therapists approached patients' problems in a personal way, gained a trusted confidential relationship, and participated more actively with the patient. The B-therapists were more interested in the

psychopathology, were passively permissive, and attempted to develop insight by interpretation.

3.4.8 Perceptions

Parloff (1961 : 29-38) found that patients who established better relationships with their therapists tended to show greater improvement and to continue in therapy. The therapist who was judged as integrating the better social relationship with the client was rated as establishing the better therapeutic relationship. The quality of the therapeutic relationship varied positively with the degree to which the therapist perceived the client as approximating his ideal patient.

3.4.9 Presence of anxiety

In his research on counsellors, Bandura (1965 : 333-337) concluded that anxious therapists were rated less competent than those who were low in anxiety; no relationship existed between therapist's degree of insight into the nature of his anxiety and competence, and no relationship existed between therapist's self-rating of anxiety and competence. Therefore, presence of anxiety in the counsellor, whether recognised or not, affects his ability to do successful counselling.

3.4.10 Communication

Brams (1961 : 25-30) studied the relationship counsellor trainees' personality characteristics and their ability to communicate effectively with their clients in counselling interviews. His research concluded that counsellors who create successful counselling relationships are more tolerant of ambiguous material than are less successful counsellors.

3.5 OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE THEORIES

3.5.1 Occupational choice

Jacobs, Van Jaarsveld & Von Mollendorf (1991 : 1) claim that it would definitely be to the career guidance teacher's advantage, determining exactly why certain people prefer specific occupations or groups of occupations, while other people prefer others. Various theories with regard to occupational choices have been developed and various factors that could affect occupational choice, identified. Although no answer has yet been found as to what forms the basis of occupational decision-making people now have more insight into the matter.

The subject literature contains several examples of works that classify the various occupational choice theories. These include (Jacobs *et al.*, 1991 : 1):

- Crites (1969), who classified the various theories broadly as non-psychological, psychological and general.
- Weinrach (1979), who distinguished two approaches, namely the process-oriented approach as opposed to the structural or incidental approach.
- Osipow (1983), who warned that any attempt at categorising occupational choice theories ran the risk of oversimplifying the process of choosing a career. However, he also pointed out that before anything meaningful can be said or written about occupational choice as a phenomenon, a certain degree of classification was in fact needed.

Weinrach's two-category classification gives a better perspective of a general point of difference identified by many local practitioners of career guidance (Jacobs *et al.*, 1991 :1). As far as career guidance at school is concerned, the individual goes through a

number of *phases of development* during which he has to be prepared for specific occupation-related choices (although some of these choices do not have any effect until long after the decision has been made). These phases which are clearly related to the *process-oriented* approach of occupational choice, are the following (Jacobs *et al.*, 1991 : 2):

- School readiness and school entrance.
- Type of school to attend after Standard 5.
- Choice of school subjects at the end of Standard 7.
- Choice of study field or occupation on leaving school.

3.5.2 Theories on occupational choice

Jacobs *et al.* (1991 : 5) distinguishes the following approaches with regard to the theories of occupational guidance.

(1) Process-oriented approach

According to Weinrach (Jacobs *et al.*, 1991 : 5) most process-oriented approaches are based on the assumption that career guidance should be aware of an individual's life and developmental phases. They regard career development, for instance a school, student or occupational career, as part of a process that takes place over a period of time. Occupational choice is therefore the result of consecutive decisions made during specific phases in one's life.

Supporters of the process approach include the *developmental theory of Ginsberg and his fellow workers*, the *developmental theory of Donald Super*, and the *decision-*

making theories of Crites (1986), Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963), Hilton (1962), Vroom (1964) and Hsu and Fletcher (1966).

(2) Structural approach

In the subject literature, the structural approach is regarded as synonymous to the incidental approach to making an occupational choice. According to Bisschoff (Jacobs *et al.*, 1991 : 12), occupational-choice theories falling in this category emphasise the relationship between information that is known about the individual and about the world of work. Since the ultimate objective of career guidance is the choice of an occupation, the interaction between the individual and the occupational environment is vitally important. When determining the relationship between specific personal information and aspects of the world of work, the so-called psychometric instruments are used to obtain information on personality traits, values, interests, aptitudes and so integrate it with the relevant information available on the work that is available.

Subject practitioners often maintain that the structural approach is too simplistic and static: simplistic in the sense that it describes rather than explains occupation-oriented behaviour, and static in the sense that the whole process of career development is omitted and attention is paid only to a choice that has to be made at a specific time in a person's life.

Some of the earliest occupational choice theories fall under the structural approach. Weinrach (Jacobs *et al.*, 1991 : 12) classifies the trait-factor approach by Parsons and the approaches by Roe and Holland as belonging to the structural approach.

3.6 CAREERS IN COMMERCE

3.6.1 Commercial careers

Brown (1993 : 451) states that *commerce* implies buying or selling; the exchange of merchandise or services, especially on a large scale; interested in financial returns, likely to make a profit. Hawes and Hawes (1982 : 46) explains that *commerce*, in higher education, is a term used in previous decades to refer to study programmes concerned with business and business management; such programmes are commonly characterised today as ones in business administration or management.

The given definitions of commerce opens the choice of a career to a wide spectrum of possibilities. The entire wholesale and retail markets are covered and includes the electronic and manufacturing sectors as well. Banking, importing and exporting, buying, selling, manufacturing, service industries, etc. all fall into the commercial sector by virtue of its broad definition. The importance placed on private entrepreneurship these days has resulted in a surge of people into the commercial sector.

3.6.2 Career information

Career information can be obtained from various sources. The first source of information can be from the employer himself. Numerous firms and manufacturing industries have policy documents that provide information on types and ranks of different careers that exist within their organisations, the conditions of employment, remuneration, leave, working hours, etc. The Department of Labour and the Department of Manpower can also provide prospective employees with similar information, together with details on governmental training opportunities. Most universities, technicons, trade schools, commercial colleges, etc. can provide information on subjects and training requirements for specific job-types. The news

media also offers a wide variety of career information. Some newspapers include a career supplement at the end of the year so that school leavers may gather information on respective careers.

3.6.3 Career exhibitions

Many teachers have realised that the most influential means of informing the pupil about the work-place, is to arrange career exhibitions at school. Various business-houses, manufacturing industries, successful entrepreneurs, highly skilled persons, etc. are invited to the school collectively or separately, to provide pupils with information on specific careers. Tertiary institutions like universities, commercial colleges, technicons, etc. also embark on career exhibitions, very often at their own campuses, where work-place requirements and study requirements are brought to the attention of pupils.

The Department of Manpower and private companies like Spoorinet arrange annual career exhibitions in some central venue where pupils from throughout the province, and sometimes, throughout the country, attend to obtain career information.

3.7 THE ROLE AND FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO A CAREER IN COMMERCE

3.7.1 The concept of role and function

According to Shertzer and Stone (1974 : 133-134) it was noted in counselling literature that "role" and "function" are often used synonymously. Distinction between the two is not easy or clear-cut. Role has been defined as the expectations and directives for behaviour connected with a position, whereas function is usually defined as the activities assigned to a role. Wrenn (1965 : 235) has stated that the distinction

between the two may be conceptualised as one of purpose (role) and process (function) or as one of ends (role) and means (function). He noted too that many individuals and groups may be concerned with defining the role of the counsellor in whatever setting he works but that functions are the exclusive domain of the professional counsellor.

3.7.2. Counsellor role regarding career in commerce

The American School Counsellor Association Statement of Policy for secondary school counsellors (1964) states that the counsellor is dedicated to the idea that most pupils will enhance and enrich their personal development and self-fulfilment by means of making more intelligent decisions if given the opportunity to experience an accepting non-evaluating relationship in which one is helped to better understand himself, the environment he perceives, and the relationship between these. Counselling is essentially such a relationship. The school counsellor views himself as a person from the school staff with the professional competencies, behavioural science understanding, philosophical orientation and position within the school necessary to provide such help to pupils.

Nhlopho (Visser, 1987 : 53-54) states the following concerning the role of the counsellor in a changing South Africa: "The old method of filling 'pegs' into 'holes' is useless when there are no 'holes' and too many 'pegs.' And what does all client-centred empathy, warmth and congruence help, when the self-exploration of the client results in the awareness of selves that personal growth and career development are made impossible by lack of work? It seems therefore, that career education is lagging behind, unless it can capture the challenges of our society and prepare our counsellors for a changing role in a changing society. Without this, career guidance would have no relevance to the South African reality. The current needs of present-day youth calls for life skills and teaching education for self reliance. Guidance counsellors also need

to be sensitive about opportunity structures and have to provide a realistic picture of opportunities and restrictions in careers.”

The above statement highlights the important role of the school vocational guidance counsellor in leading a pupil towards a career in commerce. Most of the remaining employment sectors are either “down-sizing” or “right-sizing”, both of which results in the restrictions of employment opportunities. The commercial sector, on the other hand, is expanding as more investment, more products and services are demanded, the Reconstruction and Development programme initiation, etc. increase the potential of securing a career in the commercial sector. In a situation where unemployment is high, the vocational guidance counsellor needs to expose the child to the realities of obtaining work. He needs to obtain information from the commercial sector and use same to encourage and direct his pupils to embark in a career in that particular field.

According to Jacobs *et al.* (1991 : 552-553) the school vocational guidance counsellor at school can do the following to encourage entrepreneurship:

- encourage and orient the pupil to change from an employee mentality to a self-employment/employer approach;
- encourage young people to work for undertakings of their choice first in order to gain practical experience before starting their own undertakings;
- test pupils’ entrepreneurship by means of a questionnaire.

- use the expertise available at institutions involved in small business undertakings to inform pupils of aspects of small business undertakings. The following institutions are important:

- Small Business Development Corporation (SBDC).
- Council for Promoting Small Business (CPSB).
- Subsidised faculties at tertiary institutions that promote small business undertakings.

3.8 SUMMARY

A detailed study and exposition of some of the important facets of school vocational guidance has been made in this chapter. The definition of school vocational guidance lead to a discussion on the aims, nature and scope of the subject. Careers in commerce are identified and means of obtaining career information are discussed. After an elaboration on the characteristics of a good school vocational guidance counsellor, his role and function are explained with special reference to a career in commerce. In the next chapter the planning of the emperical research will be explained.

CHAPTER FOUR

PLANNING OF THE RESEARCH

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CHAPTER FOUR

PLANNING OF THE RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 8) define *research* as a systematic process of collecting and logically analysing information (data) for some purpose. This definition is general because there are many methods available to investigate a problem or question. *Research methods* (sometimes called “methodology”) are the ways one collects and analyses data. These methods were developed for acquiring knowledge by reliable and valid procedures. Data collection must be done with measurement techniques, extensive interviews and observations, or a collection of documents.

Research methodology is systematic and purposeful (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988 : 197). Procedures are not haphazard activities; they are planned to yield data on a particular research problem. In a broader context, methodology refers to design whereby the researcher selects the data collection and analysis procedures to investigate a specific research problem. It is possible to have a design that provides no valid or reliable data on the problem, but the deliberate choice of a design increases the likelihood that the data will yield information on the research question.

Cronbach and Suppes (1969 : 15-16) further suggest that whatever the character of the study, if it is disciplined, the investigator has anticipated the traditional questions that are pertinent. He institutes control at each step of information collection and reasoning to avoid the sources of error to which these questions refer. If the errors cannot be eliminated, he takes them into account by discussing the margin of error in his conclusions. Thus, the report of a disciplined inquiry has a texture that displays the raw materials entering the argument and the logical processes by which they were compressed and rearranged to make the conclusion credible.

Wiersma (1991 : 8) identifies five steps that characterise the systematic nature of the research process. These are : (1) identifying the problem, (2) reviewing information, (3) collecting data, (4) analysing data, and, (5) drawing conclusions. This chapter is about the third step, i.e. collecting data.

Aspects under discussion in this chapter include preparation and design of the research, permission, selection of respondents, the research instrument, the pilot study, administration of the questionnaire, processing of the data and limitations of the investigation.

4.2 PREPARATION AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 31) *research design* refers to the plan and structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence for conducting the study, including when, from whom, and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In other words, design indicates how the research is set up: what happens to the subjects and what methods of data collection are used.

The project under investigation involves a survey research. Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 36) explains that in a research survey, the investigator selects a sample of subjects and administers a questionnaire or conducts interviews to collect data. Surveys are used frequently in educational research to describe attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and other types of information. Usually the research is designed so that information about a large number of people (population) can be inferred from the responses obtained from a smaller group of subjects (sample).

Briefly, this research is designed along the following lines : Chapter one, which introduces the research problem; chapter two, a literature review on school guidance; chapter three, literature review on vocational guidance and a career in commerce;

chapter four, planning of the research; chapter five, analysis and interpretation of data, and, chapter six, summary, findings and recommendations.

4.2.1 Permission

A written request (*cf.* Appendix A) was made to the Research Committee of the KwaZulu Natal Department of Education to conduct this research study amongst guidance counsellors and teachers of guidance in secondary schools located in Southern KwaZulu Natal. The permission (*cf.* Appendix B) was granted and the researcher was told to work through the principals of each identified school. The researcher sought permission (*cf.* Appendix C) from each principal concerned for utilising the teachers in completing the final questionnaire during teachers' non-teaching time. In each case, the purpose of the study was clearly stated to them.

4.2.2 Selection of respondents

(1) Sampling

Slavin (1984 : 98) observes that one very important aspect of research design, especially in survey research, is the determination of the appropriate sample. As the word implies, a sample is a part of a larger whole.

Ary, Jacob & Razavieh (1979 ; 138) point out that inductive reasoning is the rationale of sampling. The inductive method involves making observations and then drawing conclusions from these observations. This is the concept of sampling, which involves taking a portion of the population, making observations on this smaller group, and then generalising the findings to the large population. It is extremely important that the individuals included in a sample constitute a representative cross section of individuals in the population. That is, samples must be representative if one is to be able to generalise with confidence from the sample to the population.

Sowell and Casey (1982 : 75) states that there are four basic types of scientific sampling methods, namely: simple random, stratified random, cluster and systematic sampling. This study, however, made use of the simple random sampling design in the selection of schools.

(2) Simple random sampling

According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 161) in simple random sampling, subjects are subjected from the population so that all members have the same probability of being selected. A common type of simple random sampling with a small population is to select names from a hat. With a large population, it is necessary to use a more precise procedure. One such procedure is to use a table of random numbers. A researcher then selects a random starting point in the table and then selects numbers moving down a column or across a row. Another method of drawing a random sample is to use a computer programme that will do the sampling.

(3) The size of the sample

Wiersma (1991 : 264) observes that a number of factors may affect the sample size. In educational research, available resources of time, money, personnel and facilities are often the most influential. Generally, increasing sample size enhances statistical precision. However, it should not be inferred that it is always desirable to increase the sample size to its maximum, since this may be unduly costly and wasteful of effort and information. According to Gay (1987 : 114) for descriptive research, a sample of 10% of the population is considered minimum. For smaller populations, 20% may be required.

(4) Choice and sizes of samples for this study

Two samples were involved in this study, namely, samples from secondary schools in southern KwaZulu Natal, and samples of vocational guidance counsellors and teachers of guidance from these schools.

For the purpose of this study, 15 schools were randomly selected from regions that constitute southern KwaZulu Natal. These regions included Port Shepstone, Umzinto, Umkomaas, Isipingo, Merewent and Clairwood. One precondition, however, did exist. The researcher had to ensure that those schools that were selected had personnel on their staff who fell into the category of "vocational guidance counsellors or teachers of guidance."

However, when it came to the selection of the vocational guidance counsellors and teachers of guidance, all persons falling into these categories in each respective school, were chosen to respond to the questionnaire. This is attributed to the fact that at most each school had approximately 3 to 4 teaching staff that matched the description of the targeted respondents. In some cases, only one teaching staff was in charge of all of the guidance provided at the school.

4.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 40) claim that there are basically six ways to collect data: observations, questionnaires, interviews, documents, tests and unobtrusive measures. All research uses a variation of one or more of these, depending on strengths and limitations of each and other considerations. The research instrument that best served the needs of this research study was the questionnaire.

4.3.1 The questionnaire

Tuckman (Luthuli, 1990 : 197) stresses that questionnaires are used by researchers to convert into data the information directly given by a person (subject). By providing access to what is “inside a person’s head”, these approaches make it possible for the researcher to measure what a person knows (knowledge and information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences) and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs). The information is transformed into numbers or qualitative data by using attitude scaling or by counting the number of the respondents who give a particular response, thus generating frequency data.

4.3.2 Construction of the questionnaire

Behr (Zungu, 1994 : 79) states that the construction of a questionnaire needs considerable thought. The nature, form, and order of questions are very important if meaningful results are to be obtained. He further emphasises that a questionnaire needs to be brief because, if too many questions are asked, the respondent tends to become bored or tired, with the result that those questions appearing towards the end of the questionnaire, are either left unanswered or answered without much care.

Nisbet and Entwistle (Luthuli, 1990 : 194) maintain that the questionnaire may be regarded as a form of interview on paper. Procedure for the construction of a questionnaire follows a pattern similar to that of the interview schedule. However, because the questionnaire is impersonal, it is all the more important to take care over its construction. Since there is no interview to explain ambiguities or to check misunderstanding, the questionnaire must be especially clear in its wording.

Sax (Luthuli, 1990 : 198) states that questionnaires are a way of getting data about persons by asking them rather than by watching them behave or by sampling a bit of

their behaviour. In preparing questionnaires, researchers should be very careful. The following criteria ought to be applied:

- to what extent might a question influence respondents to show themselves in good light?
- to what extent might a question influence respondents to be unduly helpful by attempting to anticipate what researchers want to hear or find out?
- to what extent might a question be asking for information about respondents that they are not certain, and perhaps not likely, to know about themselves?

(1) Closed-ended questions

Questions in a questionnaire can be either open-ended or closed-ended. Nachmias and Nachmias (Luthuli, 1990 : 198) assert that in a closed-ended question, respondents are offered a set of answers from which they are to select the one that closely represents their views. Closed-ended questions are easy to ask and quick to be answered. They require no writing by either respondent or interviewer. Their analysis is also straightforward. Their major drawback is that they may introduce bias, either by forcing the respondent to choose from given alternatives or by making the respondent select the alternatives that might not have otherwise occurred.

(2) Open-ended questions

Open-ended questions are not followed by any kind of specified choice and the respondent's answers are recorded in full. The virtue of the open-ended question is that it does not force the respondent to adapt to pre-conceived answers. Further, the open-ended questions are flexible, thereby enabling the researcher to clear up misunderstandings and then encourage rapport.

(3) Scaled items

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 244-245) claim that scales are used extensively in questionnaires because they allow fairly accurate assessments of beliefs or opinions. This is because many of our beliefs and opinions are thought of in terms of gradations. We believe something very strongly or intently, or perhaps we have a positive or negative opinion of something.

The usual format of scaled items is a question or statement followed by a scale of potential responses. The subjects checks the place on the scale that best reflects their beliefs or opinions about the statement. The most widely used example is the Likert scale. A true Likert scale is one in which the stem includes a value or direction and the respondent indicates agreement or disagreement with the statement. Likert-type items use different response scales; the stem can either be neutral or directional.

The researcher employed both open-ended and closed-ended questions, as well as Likert-type scaled responses, in the construction of the questionnaire.

4.3.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire

Ary *et al.* (1979 : 345) warn that developing a good questionnaire is a difficult and time-consuming task. They offer eleven suggestions for writing items that constitute a good questionnaire:

- Construct the instrument is such a way that it reflects quality.
- Keep the questionnaire as brief as possible so that it requires a minimum of the respondent's time.

- Make sure that the respondents have the information necessary to answer the questions.
- Phrase questionnaire items so that they can be understood by every respondent.
- Keep individual questionnaire items as short and simple as possible.
- Phrase questionnaire items so as to elicit unambiguous answers.
- Phrase questionnaire items so as to avoid bias that might predetermine a respondent's answer.
- Avoid questionnaire items that might mislead because of unstated assumptions.
- Make sure that the alternatives to each questionnaire are exhaustive; that is, express all the possible alternatives on the issue.
- Avoid questions that might elicit reactions of embarrassment, suspicion or hostility in the respondent.
- Avoid "double - barrelled" questions that attempt to ask two questions in one.

Khubisa (Zungu, 1994 : 79) adds to the characteristics:

- The questionnaire must provide some depth, in order to avoid superficial replies as responses.

The ideal questionnaire must not be too suggestive or too unstimulating, particularly with reference to choice.

- Questions must be asked in such a way that the responses will not be embarrassing to the individual.

The researcher took cognisance of the above suggestions in constructing the questionnaire. A good questionnaire design is the culmination of a long process of planning and thought. The researcher ensured that at all times, he was aware of the specific goals and objectives of the research, when formulating the questions. Questions were included because of their relevance to the aims of the study and not merely because they were interesting.

4.3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

(1) Advantages of the questionnaire

According to Tuckman (Luthuli, 1990 : 197) the obvious advantage in using the questionnaire rather than the interview is economy in cost, time and labour. The fact is that questionnaires can be turned to advantage, for example, when answers are given in anonymously. But for most part, questionnaire responses should be treated with caution and the questionnaire method should be used only for relatively simple and factual inquiries, although it may form a necessary part of more complex studies.

Dyer (Luthuli, 1990 : 196) cites the following benefits of a questionnaire:

- It is usually less costly to the researcher.
- It is easier to administer.
- It does not have problems of interviewer turnover and training.

- It may create more trust in the anonymity of the respondents' answers to personal aspects of the topic being researched.
- It is not affected by the halo effect of the interviewer because the interviewee completes the questionnaire in privacy.
- It is not affected by the pressure of on-the-spot replies.

Mouly (Luthuli, 1990 : 200) maintains that the use of questionnaires permits a wide coverage at minimum expense in both money and effort. A written questionnaire provides a vehicle for expression without fear of embarrassment to the respondent. This is especially the case if the respondents are assured that their answers will be treated as confidential. All respondents receive identical instructions. This reduces bias of the investigator.

(2) Disadvantages of the questionnaire

Luthuli (1990 : 196) states that one main weakness of the questionnaire method, is that inevitably, a proportion of the sample will not answer and it is difficult to discover how non-respondents differ from those who do respond.

Non-respondents present a problem for the researcher. The researcher may be asked: "How would the results have been if all the subjects had responded to the questionnaire?" Isaac and Michael (Luthuli, 1990 : 196) suggest that under ordinary circumstances, percentages under twenty, can be reasonably ignored. Percentages over twenty, they argue, raise increasing serious questions about the "hold-outs" and what they are withholding.

On the issue of limitations of the questionnaire, Mason and Bramble (Luthuli, 1990 : 196) state that:

- The questionnaire tends to be less flexible and adaptable than the interview. The advantage of having an interviewer present, who is capable of adapting to the situation and the subjects' responses, is lost.

Ary *et al.* (1979 : 345) add that:

- A disadvantage of the questionnaire is the possibility of misinterpretation of the questions by the respondents due to poor wording or differential meaning of terms.
- Questionnaires do not elicit as high a completion rate as the interview. It is easy for the individual who receives a questionnaire to lay it aside and simply forget to complete and return it.

Luthuli (1990 : 199) indicates one major drawback in using closed-ended questions, is that they may introduce bias, either by forcing the respondent to choose from given alternatives or by making the respondent select the alternatives that might not have otherwise occurred.

4.3.5 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

(1) Validity

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 223-226) define validity as a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for specific inferences or decisions that result from the scores generated. In other words, validity is a situation-specific concept: validity is assessed depending on the purpose, population and environmental characteristics in which measurement takes place. In order to assure others that the procedures have validity in relation to the research problems, subjects and setting of the study, it is incumbent on the investigator to describe the validity of the instruments used to collect

data. Validity is a matter of degree and is not an all-or-nothing proposition. Investigators should show that for the specific inferences and conclusions made in their study, there is evidence that validity exists.

(2) Reliability

Reliability, according to Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 227), refers to the consistency of measurement, the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument or occasions of data collection. The goal of developing reliable measures is to minimise the influence of chance or other variables unrelated to the intent of the measure. If the instrument is unreliable, the information obtained is ambiguous, inconsistent, and useless. It is therefore important for researchers to select and develop data gathering procedures that will be highly reliable.

Although questionnaire-type instruments are not strong in terms of reliability and validity (Goodenough, 1960 : 406; Vernon, 1965 :122; Behr, 1973 : 80), they are nevertheless used extensively with more than 50% of research studies in education employing them (Good, 1963 : 271).

For the purpose of this research study, the questionnaire (*cf.* Appendix D) is visualised as the most appropriate instrument that best serves the objectives of the study. As the questionnaire is targeted at vocational guidance counsellors and teachers of guidance, they ought possess adequate skills to be able to respond to the questions in a responsible and honest manner. These factors should enhance the validity and reliability of the information and the data-gathering instrument.

4.4 PILOT STUDY

Researchers generally agree that a pilot or trial run is important because it helps the researcher to decide whether or not the study is feasible and whether or not it is worthwhile to continue (Khathi, 1990 : 80).

According to Ary *et al.* (1979 : 83), a pilot study emphasises the following :

It provides the opportunity to assess the appropriateness particularly of the data collection instrument. It permits a preliminary testing of the hypothesis which may give some indication of its tenability, and suggests whether or not further refinement is needed.

According to Borg and Gall (1981 : 101), a pilot study has various advantages which prompted the researcher to use it in the project under study. These advantages, amongst others, are that it:

- permits a thorough check of the planned, statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating the data;
- provides the research worker with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study. Such ideas and clues greatly increase the chances of obtaining clear-cut findings in the main study.

Fox (1969 : 193) like the previous two authors, favours the practice of a pilot study because according to him, a pilot study is designed to provide a trial run of the data collection approach. It may be intended to test out the data collection method or an instrument to see if it is in need of revision.

The pilot study for this research was done simultaneously amongst staff members (ex teachers) at the university, and amongst staff members of a secondary school in Port Shepstone. This was conducted by the researcher himself. After analysing the responses and having informal interviews with the respondents after the pilot study, the researcher was confident that no questions needed to be doctored in any way. The instrument was ready for use at this stage.

4.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Ary *et al.* (1985 : 352) suggests that researchers may find it useful to mail an introductory letter to potential respondents in advance of the questionnaire itself. This alerts the subject to the study rather than overwhelm them with the questionnaire package. In any case, a cover letter addressed to the respondent by name and title must accompany the questionnaire. The cover letter serves to introduce the potential respondents to the questionnaire and “sells” them on responding. The cover letter should include the purpose of the study, a request for co-operation, the protection provided the respondent and request for immediate return.

The researcher did not, however, follow Ary *et al.*'s (1985 : 352) suggestion to the letter, but used their suggestions as a guide in the administration process. An introductory letter was not sent to each respondent, but to the principal of each of the targeted schools. The principals in turn set up meetings between the researcher and the groups of respondents, during their non-teaching time. At these meetings, the details suggested by Ary *et al.* were verbally conveyed to the respondents. These preliminary meetings facilitated a cordial environment that resulted in the researcher, and the project, being accepted without hostility or suspicion. Questionnaires, together with a contact telephone number, were handed to each respondent, and retrieval dates, a week later were agreed upon. The week-long response period offered the respondents the opportunity to respond to the research study at ease and

at their own pace. The completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher on the appointed dates.

4.6 PROCESSING OF THE DATA

4.6.1 Descriptive statistics

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 192) claim that descriptive statistics transform a set of numbers or observations into indices that describe or characterise the data. Descriptive statistics (sometimes referred to as summary statistics) are thus used to summarise, organise, and reduce large numbers of observations. Usually the reduction results in few numbers, derived from mathematical formulas to represent all observations in each group of interest. Descriptive statistics portray and focus on what is with respect with the data. The use of descriptive statistics is the most fundamental way to summarise data, and it is indispensable in interpreting the results of quantitative research.

4.6.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics, according to Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 192), are used to make inferences or predictions about the similarity of a sample to the population from which the sample is drawn. Since many research questions require the estimation of population characteristics from an available sample of subjects or behaviour, inferential statistics are commonly used in reporting results.

In the processing of data in this research, the researcher employed both descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

4.7.1 Limitations of the scope

The researcher recognises that the proposed study focuses on only one delineated aspect of a larger research problem. The scope of the study covers only those secondary schools that were under the control of the previous House of Delegates and Natal Education Department. This restricted scope of the population resulted because other secondary schools in the targeted area have few, and often, no guidance teachers. The study, itself, is targeted at secondary schools in the lower southern KwaZulu Natal region, and not at the whole of the region. The scope is further restricted to secondary schools and not to all schools in the area. The targeted subjects themselves, are restricted to those teachers that have been exposed to guidance contact with pupils and not any other teacher.

4.7.2 Limitations of the design

Schumacher and McMillan (1993 : 572) claims that stating the design limitations illustrates the researcher's knowledge of the threats to internal and external validity in the proposed design. They state further that it is better for the researcher to recognise the limitations rather than claim he or she has the "perfect" design. In light of the preceding statement, the researcher acknowledges that he does not have the "perfect" design, but with the time and resource constraints faced with, the present design is the most convenient and appropriate for the research under study.

4.7.3 Methodological limitations

Methodological limitation refer specifically to validity and reliability of the proposed instrumentation or instrument(s) that have been developed (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993 : 573). The instrument that best served the needs of this study, given the time

and resources constraints, was the questionnaire. The limitations of the questionnaire are listed in section 4.3.4. In spite of these limitations, the researcher found that the advantages of the questionnaire outweighed the disadvantages, for this study. The reasonable safe level of reliability and validity of the questionnaire further supports its use for this project.

4.8 SUMMARY

Chapter four serves to outline the criteria and procedures that the researcher had to consider in the planning of the research. Planning incorporated permission, selection of respondents, the research instrument employed (in this case, the questionnaire), validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the pilot study, how the questionnaire was administered, processing of the data and the limitations of the investigation. All of the above aspects served in the construction of a credible research design.

CHAPTER FIVE

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CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Altogether, the researcher distributed fifty one self-administered questionnaires (*cf.* Appendix D) to vocational guidance counsellors, guidance counsellors and teachers of guidance in fourteen secondary schools located in Southern KwaZulu Natal. At every school, the researcher was afforded the opportunity, through the permission (*cf.* Appendix C) of the respective principals, to have a brief meeting with the prospective respondents. In each case, the objectives of the research project was outlined. This helped motivate all targeted personnel to respond, and hence, there were no non-responses. An analysis of the retrieved data is provided in this chapter.

5.2 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Each of the questions presented in the questionnaire is evaluated independently. A 3-dimensional, separated pie-diagram is used to depict the responses directed at each question. The response percentage of each category is indicated alongside its segmented portion of the pie.

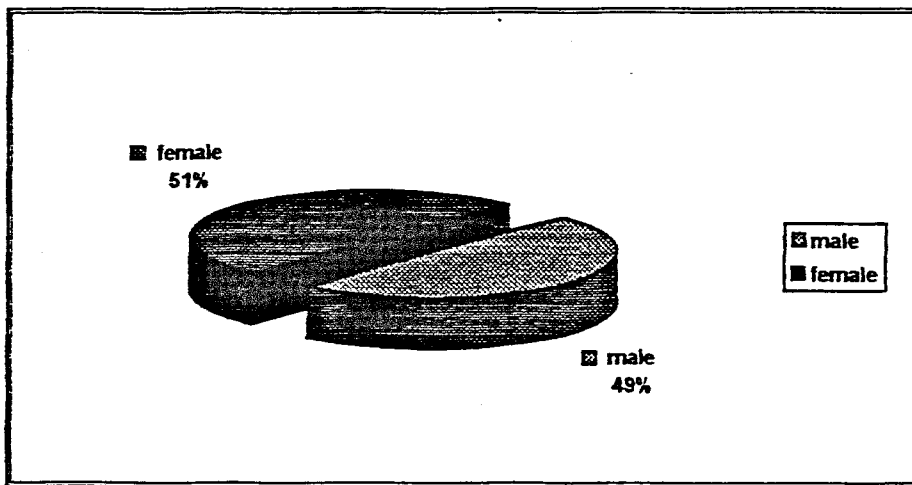
The questionnaire was divided into three sections. In part A, respondents were expected to provide idiographic information. To provide a holistic view, the questions that appeared in the questionnaire, have been rearranged as headings and appear bold and italicised. The diagram quantifying the responses, and a brief comment, follows each question.

The following instruction preceded the questions in section A :

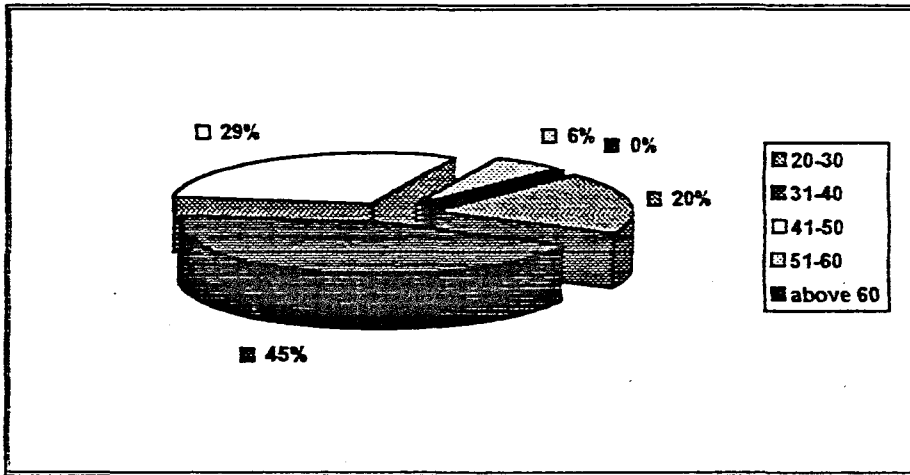
Please indicate your personal details by responding to the following characteristics :

5.2.1 Gender

Fig 1 Gender



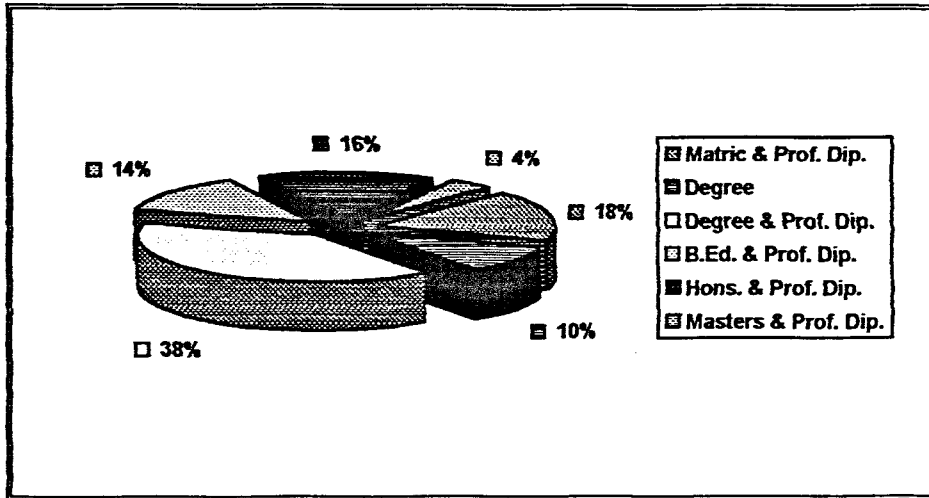
Of the fifty -one targeted respondents, twenty-five were male and twenty-six were female.

5.2.2 Age*Fig 2 Age (years)*

Ten teachers fell into the category 20-30 years, twenty-three into the category 31-40 years, fifteen into the category 41-50 years, and three into the category 51-60 years. There were no teachers of guidance who were older than sixty years of age.

5.2.3 Qualifications

Fig 3 Qualifications



The majority of the respondents were holding one degree and a professional qualification (20), while only two held a masters degree together with a professional diploma. The remaining qualifications are as follows : matric and professional diploma, 9; degree only, 5; Bachelor of Education and professional diploma, 7; and a Honours plus a professional diploma, 8.

The above data revealed that all persons involved in the teaching of guidance, were qualified teachers. Their diverse levels and scope of education level provided responses from a wide range of educational perspectives and backgrounds.

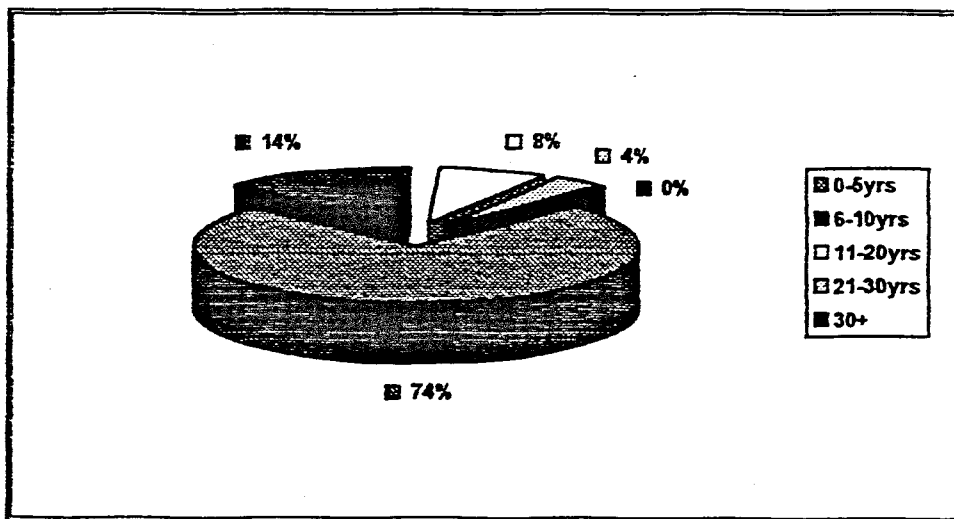
Question 3 provided an annexe which probed the following comment:

Responses to the above included the following: incomplete degree, basic and advanced counselling course offered by school psychologists from the Department of Education, presently studying B.Ed, partly completed honours degree, further diploma in

education (commerce), partly completed B.Comm, BA (Psychology) and B.Ed.(Guidance and Counselling), completing HED this year and B.Ed.(Guidance and Counselling).

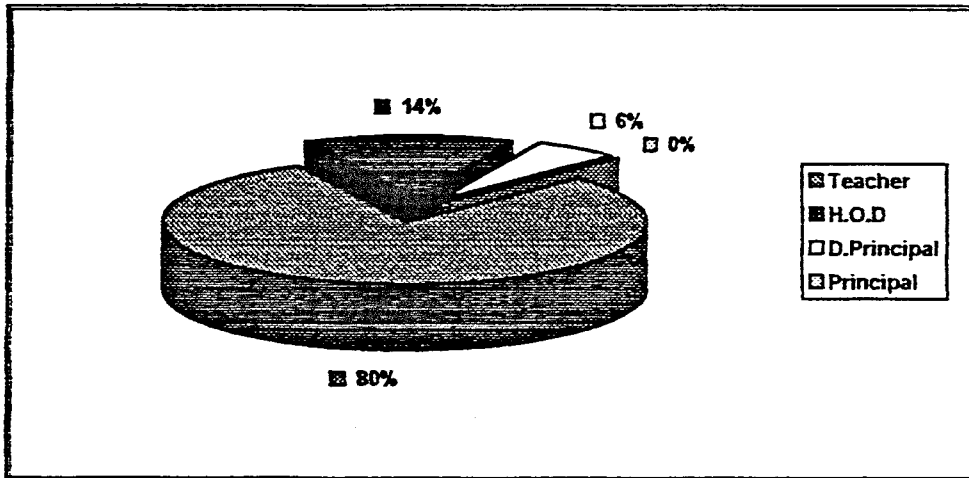
5.2.4 Guidance teaching/counselling experience

Fig 4 Guidance teaching/counselling experience (years)



There were no teachers who have taught guidance for over thirty years which indicates that guidance services were non-existent during those early years of education. The largest number(38) of respondents occurred in the 0-5 year category. Most of the teachers in this grouping indicated that they were not trained as guidance teachers, but were allocated guidance to make up their teaching loads. Numerous schools indicated that guidance services have been marginalised, the services of the counsellor made redundant, and the guidance teaching load distributed to many staff members. It is evident that guidance is not being treated as a specialised service. The remaining teaching experiences were distributed as follows: 6-10 years, 7; 11-20 years, 4; and 21-30 years, 2.

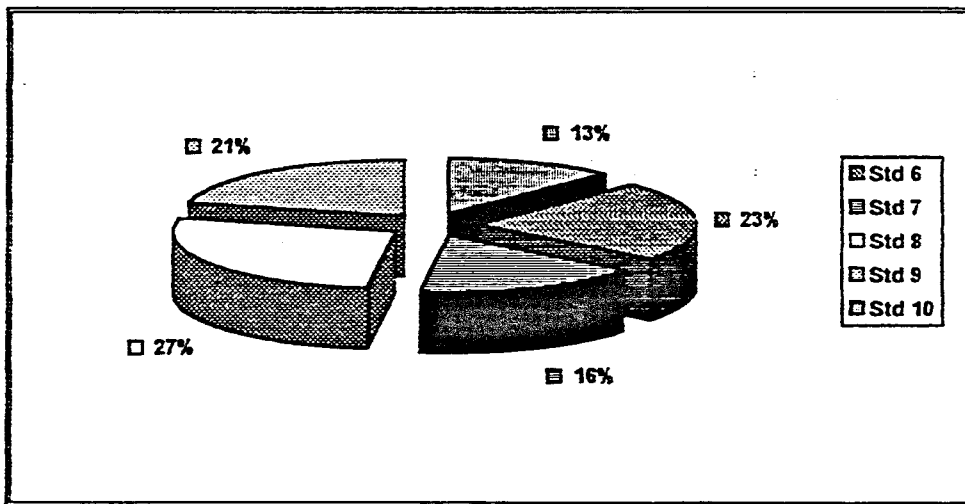
5.2.5 Rank

Fig 5 Rank

The research indicated that in all schools targeted, no principal was involved in the teaching of guidance or in guidance counselling. This is not taken to mean that principals do not counsel. Most principals place guidance and counselling as part of their job function. The guidance and counselling they offer is incidental which is different from the situation where a teacher has to fulfil classroom contact time. However two deputy principals and seven Heads of department claimed that they were involved in guidance and counselling. Forty-one level-one teachers taught guidance more as a “filler” rather than as a specialised subject.

5.2.6 Standard(s) to which school guidance is taught

Fig 6 Standard(s) to which school guidance is taught



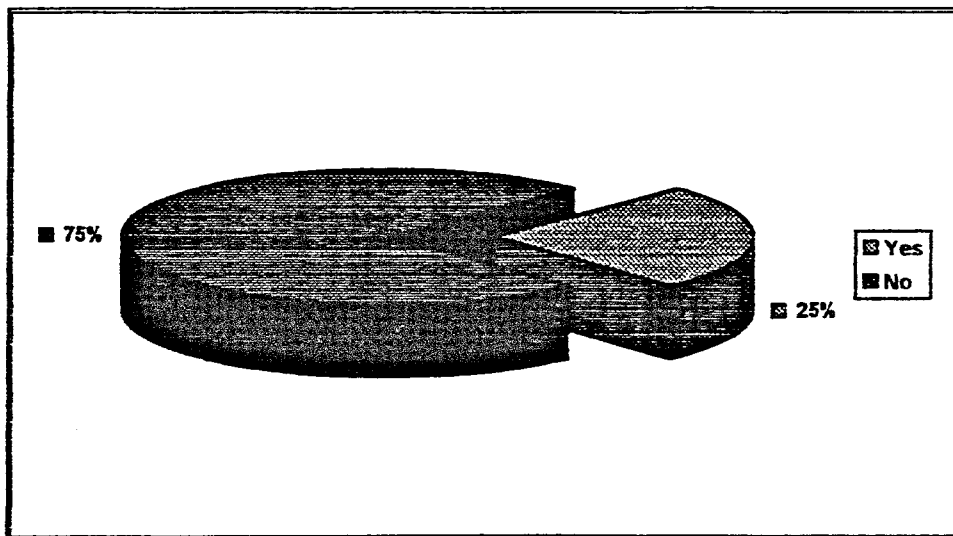
The standards that have the least numbers of teachers are standard 7 (17) and standard 10 (13). This is significant in that it indicates the most crucial years in a pupils life, and hence, fewer, more specialised, more experienced guidance teachers were in charge of these grades. Standard 7 is important because at the end of standard 7 pupils are to choose specific subject groups that they will have to pursue up to standard 10. The choice of subjects is associated with pupils' scholastic abilities and their intended career paths. This is why standard 7 pupils are exposed to the few, most seasoned teachers. The other crucial period of a student's life is standard 10. Qualified guidance teachers are important to these emerging pupils as they need to be educated about, and exposed to, the world of work. The remaining standards, viz. std. 6, std. 8 and std. 9 were exposed to twenty-four, twenty-eight and twenty-two teachers respectively.

In section B of the questionnaire, the respondents were given the following instruction:

Answer the following questions by drawing a cross (X) in the appropriate block, according to your experience.

5.2.7 Qualifications of school guidance counsellors

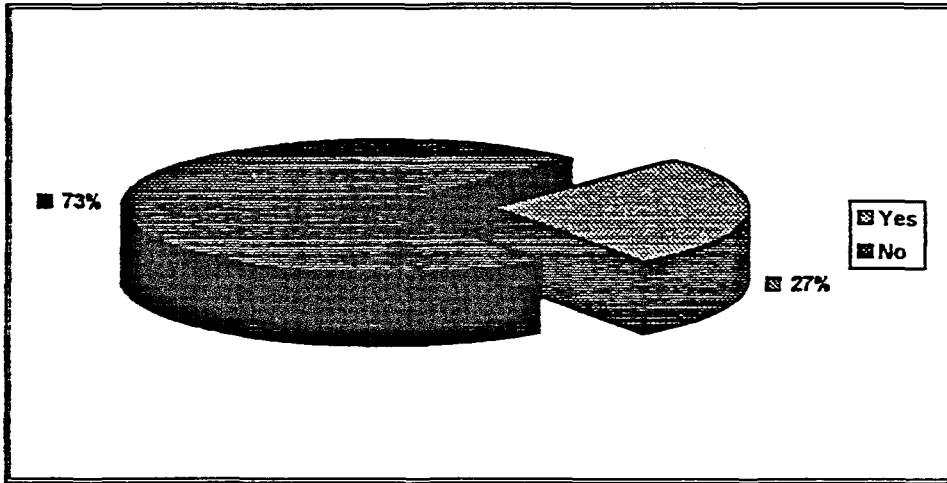
Fig 7 Qualifications of school guidance counsellors



The majority of respondents (38) indicated that they were not qualified guidance counsellors, while only thirteen of them indicated that they were. This response indicates that guidance services are being marginalised in that teachers who are not trained as guidance counsellors are involved in the presentation of the subject/service.

5.2.8 Professional training

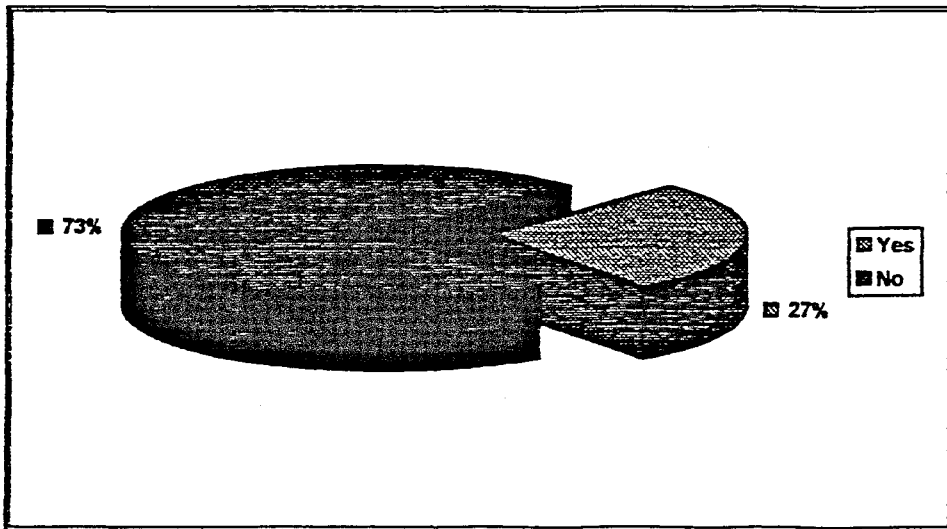
Fig 8 Professional training as a school vocational guidance counsellor



As this research project was aimed at establishing the role of the school vocational guidance counsellor pertaining to a career in commerce, it was the researcher's objective to establish how many teachers of guidance were in fact actually trained vocational guidance counsellors. The data revealed that of the fifty-one respondents, only fourteen were professionally trained vocational guidance counsellors.

5.2.9 Enrichment courses

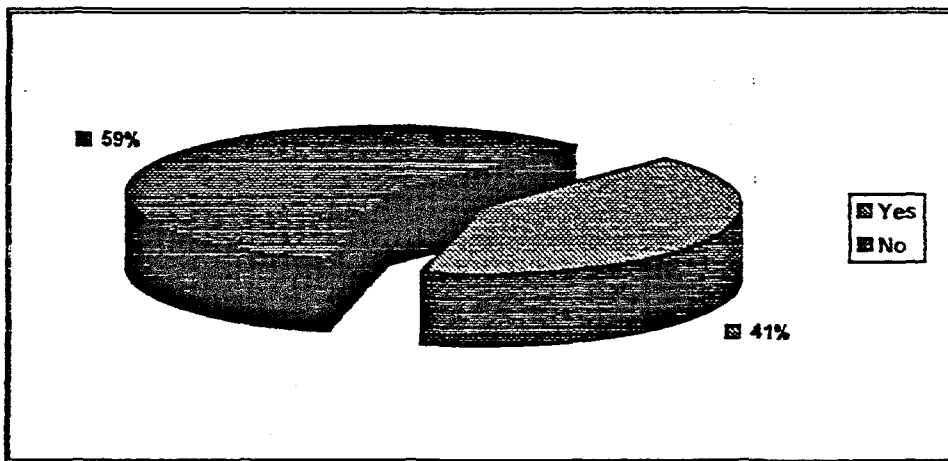
Fig 9 Attendance of enrichment courses



Fourteen of the respondents indicated that they had attended courses in school vocational guidance as recent as a year ago. This indicates that although the guidance service is viewed as being marginalised, in some sectors, teachers are being exposed to further training and enrichment courses. However, the majority of the teachers (37) did not attend any enrichment programmes during the preceding year.

5.2.10 Contact with the commercial sector

Fig 10 Contact of school with the commercial sector regarding school vocational guidance



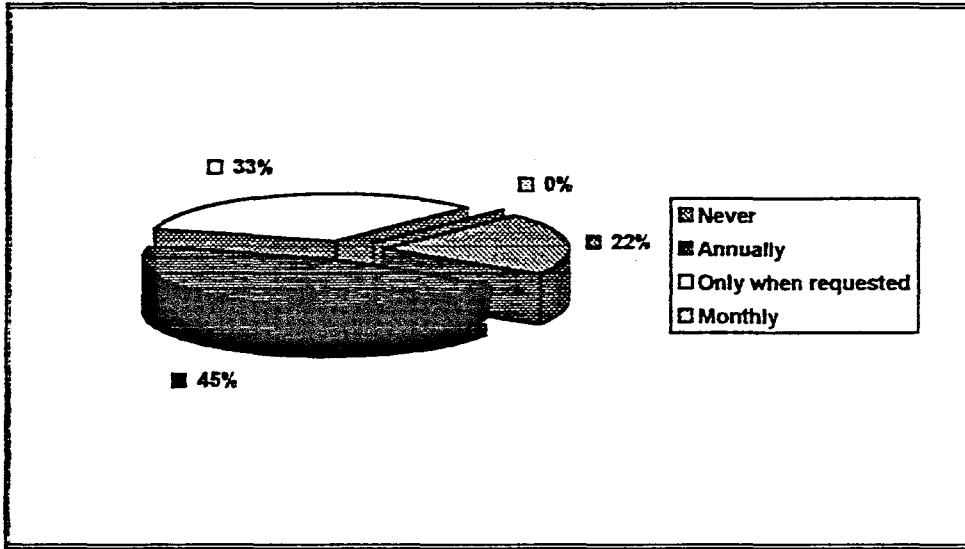
This question was posed to evaluate the extent to which the school vocational guidance counsellor integrated the real commercial workplace into his guidance programme at school. Although only 21 teachers indicated contact with the commercial sector, it serves as a strong-enough indicator that school vocational guidance counsellors are exposing their charges to the commercial opportunities that do exist for them.

It was the researcher's intention to list some of the means and reasons for counsellors' associations with the commercial sector. Some of the responses are listed: provide information on courses offered; information on job opportunities; Spoomet organises a careers exhibition yearly which pupils attend; private colleges and technical schools inform the pupils of new developments; training in the field of commerce e.g. computer courses; Junior Achievement Commercial Competition; provide information

annually and canvass for holiday employment for pupils e.g. Edgars, Hub, etc.; the school invites guest speakers from the commercial sector to motivate them to enter the commercial sector; the school organises career days and exhibitions to expose pupils to the prospects and requirements of the work place; pupils are informed about what bursaries and study grants are available; excursions provide pupils the opportunity of gaining hands-on experiences of the working environment; an accountant is invited to school to talk to the standard 7 pupils before selection of courses are undertaken; do not interact directly with the commercial sector, but via institutions that offer commercial courses; pupils are sent on work-experience programmes to business enterprises in standard 9 and 10; Business colleges visit the school yearly to make pupils aware of training as required by the commercial sector; certain companies embark on recruitment ventures directly with the pupils at school; and, some business-houses send copies of vacancies that exist in their firms to be displayed on the school notice boards.

5.2.11 Career information

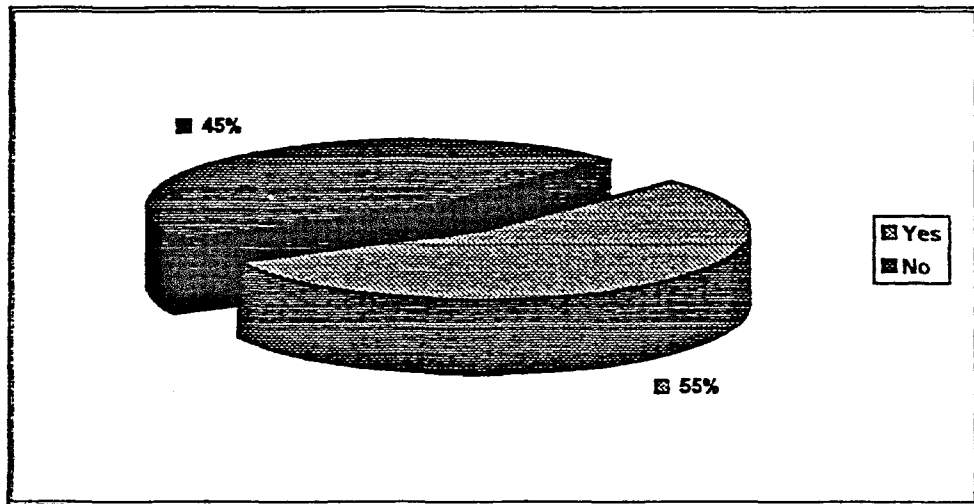
Fig 11 Career information brochures from the commercial sector



The majority of the respondents (23) indicated that they received information annually. This has revealed the constant practise that most commercial enterprises generally reviewed their employment requirements and training programmes once a year and forwarded same to the schools to keep pupils up to date with their latest requirements. This trend follows those of tertiary institutions who update their calendars and prospectuses annually. All the respondents indicated that none of the commercial firms supplied information on a monthly basis. This could be attributed to the cost factor and the lags in the availability of new information. Eleven of the respondents claimed that they never receive any information. This response indicates that some firms do not supply any information to would-be employees. Of the seventeen that indicated that they received information only when requested, many thought it fitting to obtain information on specific careers that pupils were interested in.

5.2.12 Invitations to the commercial sector

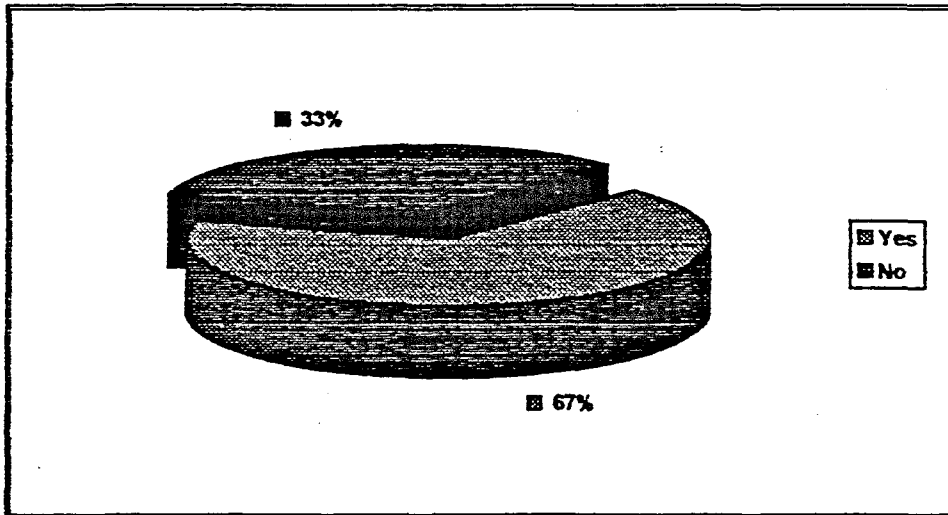
Fig 12 Invitations to the commercial sector to visit school



A slight majority of the respondents (28) indicated that they do invite visitors from the commercial sector. They generally share the opinion that the pupil is motivated more to pursue a career in commerce when they receive first-hand information from their prospective employers. Many of those who answered this response in the negative (23) explained that they generally invited persons from many career backgrounds, and not merely from the commercial sector alone. Some indicated that if they concentrated on the commercial sector alone, they would be presenting a biased career choice to the pupils when it was their intention to expose pupils to a broad spectrum of careers and allow them to make an educated choice.

5.2.13 Excursions

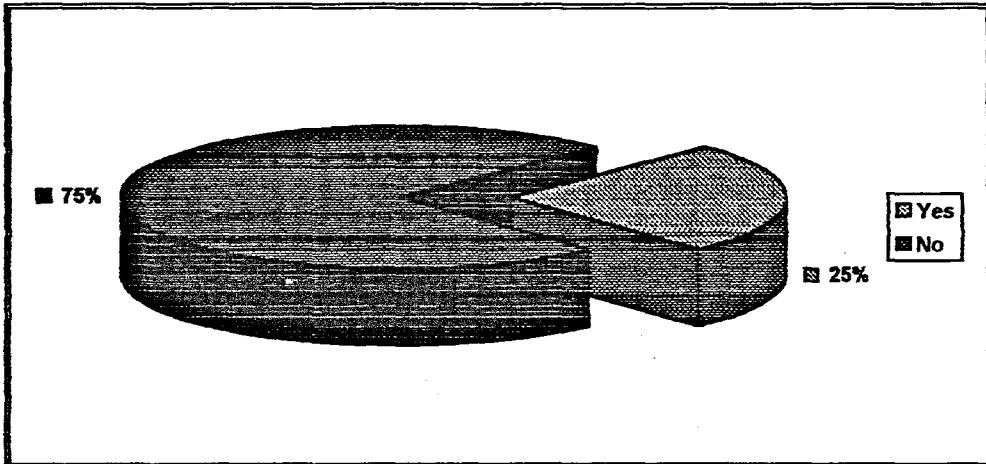
Fig 13 Excursions for pupils to obtain commercial career information



For every one of the seventeen respondents who indicated that they do not arrange excursions for their pupils, two indicated that they in fact do arrange information-gathering excursions to the commercial sector. This 2 : 1 ratio is a positive indicator that the respondents consider the commercial sector to be a life-supporting career opportunity sector, hence they exposed their pupils to this work-environment by means of excursions.

5.2.14 Career exhibitions

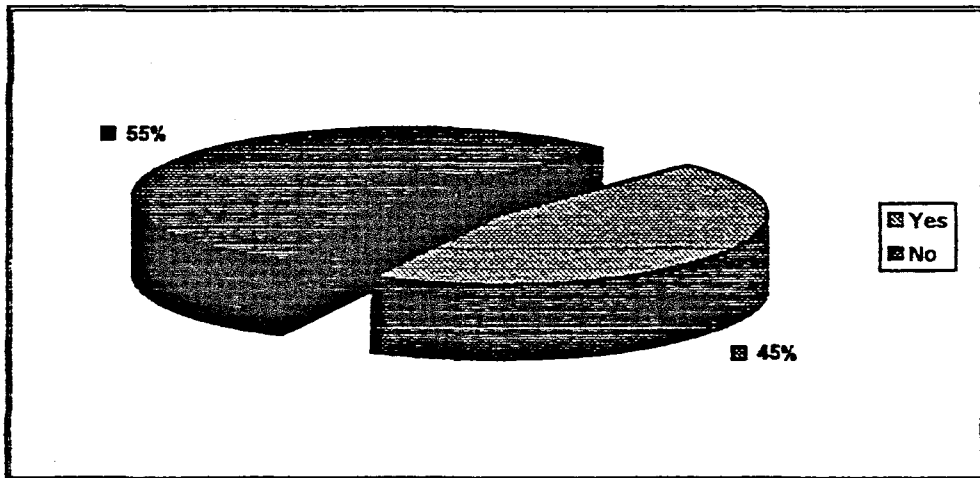
Fig 14 Organising of career exhibitions at school



When one views the large number of respondents (38) who indicated that they never organised a career exhibition at school, one might be tempted to conclude that they do not support the idea. This information must be analysed in the light of the circumstances that these responses were made to fully understand the reasons for such a large negative response to this question. As indicated earlier on (refer to section A, question 4), the large majority of the teachers of guidance, are not trained guidance personnel, but teachers who were given guidance as a filler subject just to make up their teaching loads. Many of them are not familiar with the *modus operandi* of organising these career exhibitions. Also, these events need large scale organisation and preparation, and, as they teach guidance, very often for one year only, they do not have the opportunity of organising a career exhibition. The thirteen who answered in the affirmative, however, reinforce the belief that they see the commercial sector as a good employment sector for their pupils, and hence, organise these exhibitions so that their pupils can make an educated, well-informed career choice in this sector of the economy.

5.2.15 Counselling sessions

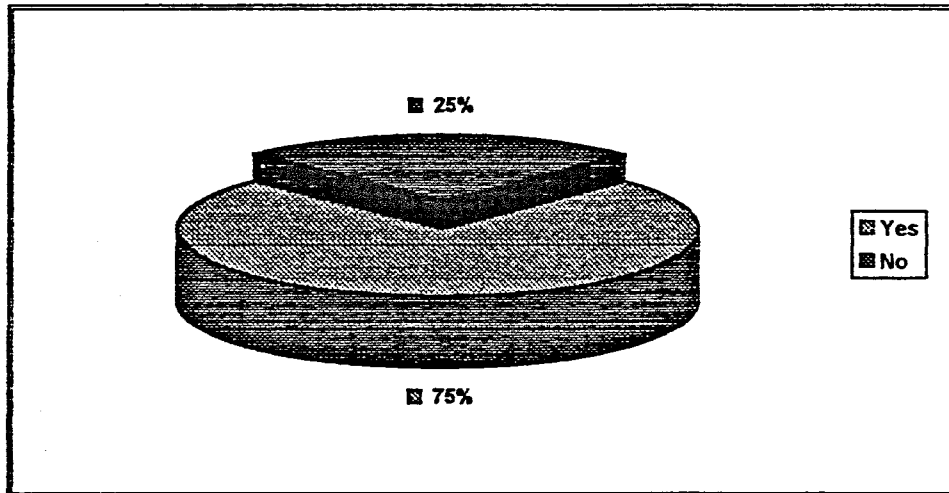
Fig 15 Counselling sessions with pupils with regard to career choices in commerce



Most of the slight majority who answered negatively to this question, maintained that they should not present a commercial-biased career choice to their pupils as it was their duty to best inform the child by exposing him to as wide a range of careers as possible, and thereafter allowing the child to make his own choice. Those who answered positively were convinced that the child had a better chance of obtaining employment in the commercial sector than any other economic sector, and therefore advised their pupils to choose a career with a commercial bias.

5.2.16 Motivating pupils

Fig 16 Motivating pupils to select a career in commerce



Those that responded “Yes” to this question offered the following reasons for doing so:

Commerce plays a major role in the employment of people; commerce can aid in acquiring good business skills; there are greater opportunities for earning money in private enterprises; because job opportunities in certain fields like medicine and law have become limited, it is important for pupils to become aware of their talents and explore such potentials in the world of commerce; the majority of pupils are not academically inclined, hence, a career in commerce can help them to start earning a living and in most cases, on-the-job training can help make them “literate” in that particular field, allowing them opportunities for promotion; the propagation and development of the commercial sector will not only result in job opportunities, but more so, a contribution to the manufacturing sector of our country. This will not only increase the gross domestic product (GDP), but ultimately impact on the balance of payments, the strength of our currency, inflation and the levels of unemployment;

according to market-related research, it is clear that careers in the commercial field, are in high demand; the commercial sector makes up a very large proportion of the employment sector; it is the only sector where the bulk of our school-leavers are employed; pupils can create jobs for themselves, to be sure of an income in the future, and help solve the unemployment problem; when pupils show an interest in commerce only; there are great opportunities in the banking, auditing, clerical and accounting fields; only a small minority of people can become doctors and highly-skilled professionals, the vast majority have to enter the commercial sector; people can become successful entrepreneurs; job-mobility and promotion opportunities are greater; remuneration packages are better than the education or health sectors; opportunities for a stable employment make a career in commerce attractive; we encourage entrepreneurship at our school. We offer shop and office practice and business economics which encourage pupils to start their own businesses; there are greater opportunities in both the formal and secretarial sectors, business development and tourism; and , the commercial sector offers a wide range of job opportunities that can cater for a wider section of our pupils.

Those who answered "No" to this question, cited the following reasons for doing so:

As a teacher of science, I try to motivate and encourage a career in the science and technological spheres where we have massive shortages of skilled personnel; because of the large numbers of pupils per class, I motivate pupils to select careers in different faculties; I feel that pupils need to be technically educated and develop a skill; I motivate pupils to excel in the career they have chosen; I give pupils a broad overview of all careers and allow them to choose for themselves; pupils are advised about their options in various fields; do not want to unduly "mislead" pupils without proper facts and knowledge; to motivate pupils in commerce would probably imply a "biased" approach to career guidance since there are so many fields of study; I am very cautious to motivate them in any specific field unless their aptitude, interests and academic

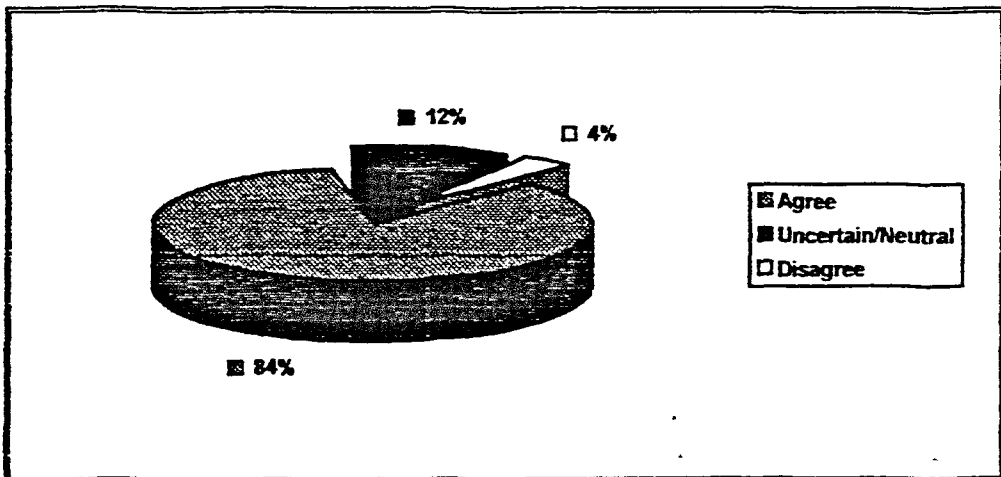
achievement point in a commercial direction, and, pupils need to explore other fields of study such as catering and tourism.

In section C of the questionnaire, the respondents were provided with a grid that represented the 3-point Likert scale and given the following instruction:

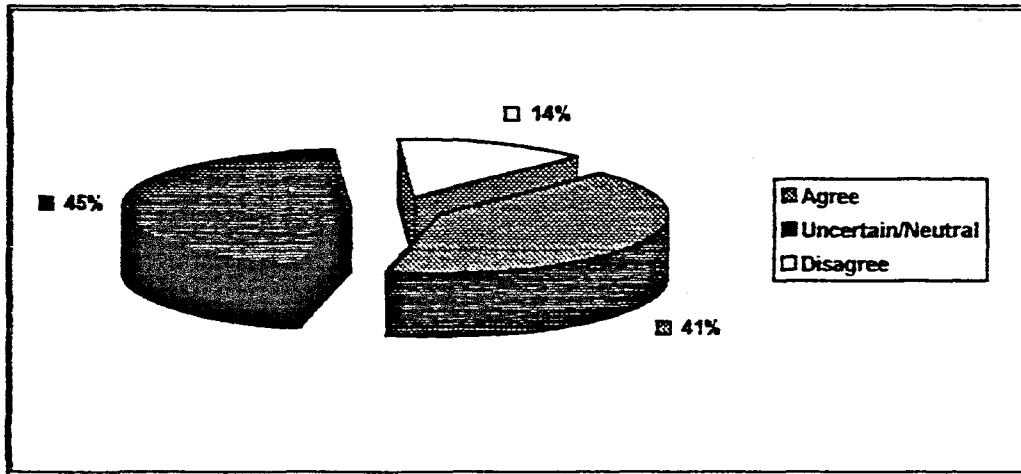
For the following questions, mark a cross (X) in the block of your choice on the 3-point scale according to your feeling about the appropriate response.

5.2.17 Attitude

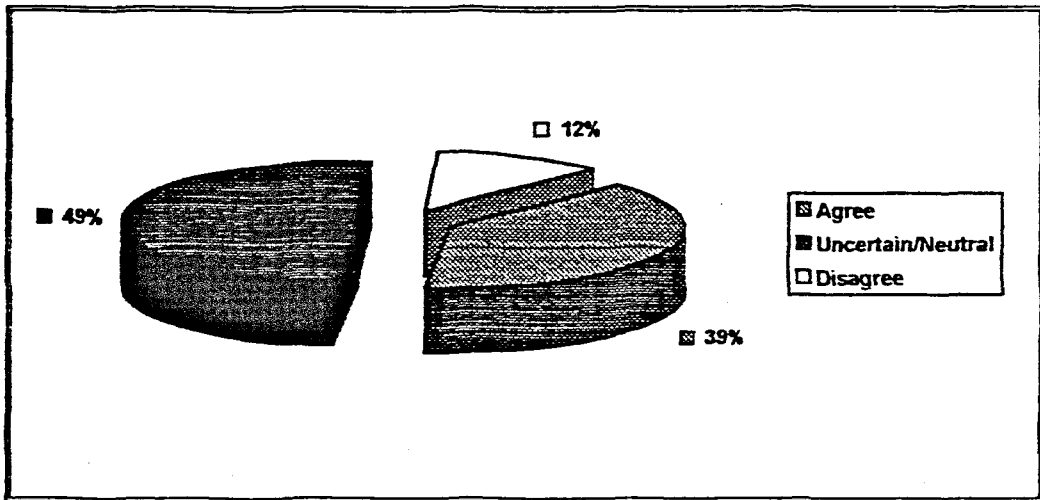
Fig 17 Attitude towards school vocational guidance



The overwhelming majority agreed with the statement which indicates that most of the respondents feel that there is a great need to include guidance as part of a pupils schooling. Only two of those targeted indicated that they disagree with the statement. Of the six that were uncertain, many were “new” to the subject, and had not formed an attitude by the time the questionnaire was administered.

5.2.18 Principals' support*Fig 18 Principals' support towards school vocational guidance*

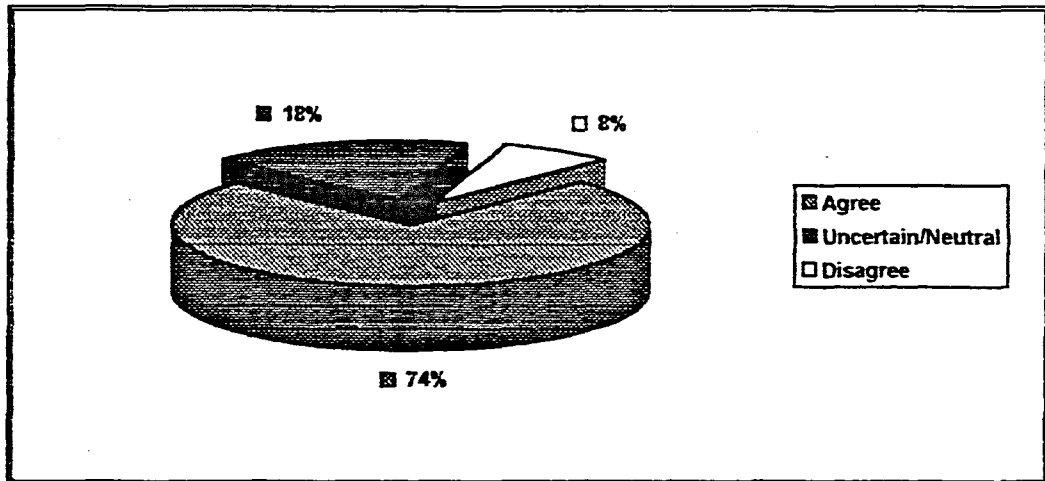
Only twenty-one of the respondents think that school vocational guidance receives the necessary support from principals. This statement indicates that there is no glaring or overwhelming support shown by principals to the guidance service. This is supported by the fact that the majority (30) of the respondents are either uncertain or disagree concerning their principal's support of vocational guidance.

5.2.19 Teachers' support*Fig 19 Teachers' support towards school vocational guidance*

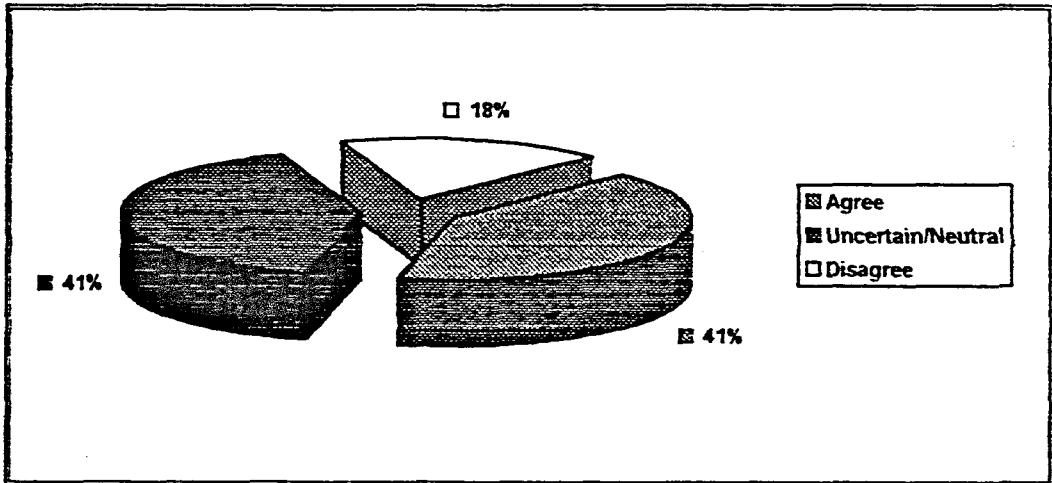
The data received for this response is almost the same as the previous one. Only twenty of the respondents agreed that teachers necessarily support school vocational guidance. However, the majority (31) indicated that they either disagree or are uncertain. In this case, as in the previous one, the respondents perceive that teachers do not offer enthusiastic support for school vocational guidance.

5.2.20 Guidance teachers/counsellors' support

Fig 20 Guidance teachers/counsellors' support toward school vocational guidance



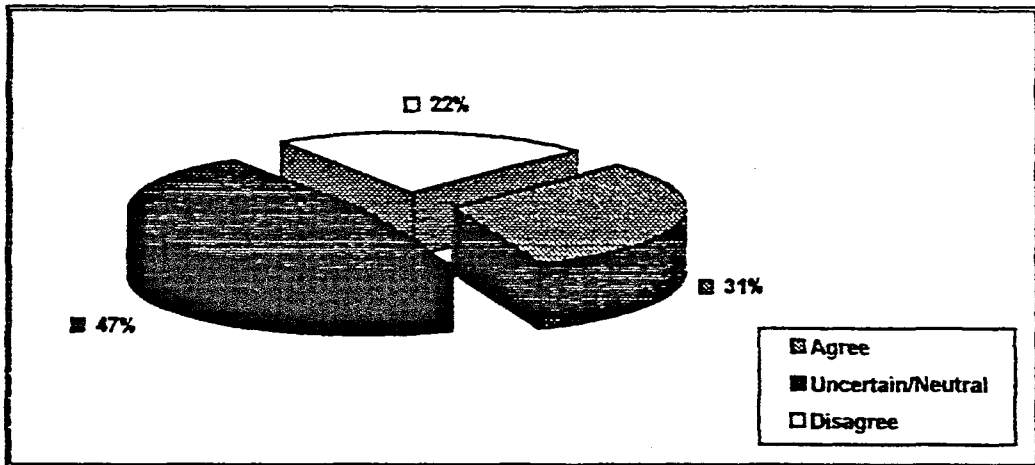
Contrary to the previous two responses, the above data indicates that most of the respondents (38) share the perception that guidance teachers/counsellors offer the necessary support to school vocational guidance. Many of those that indicated uncertainty (9), were relatively “new” guidance teachers and had not formed a decisive opinion on the issue. The four that disagreed with the statement were adamant that the provision of the service at school was a waste of teaching man-power. They were of the opinion that their service could better be utilised in the classroom. Vocational guidance services could be offered as an ancillary service outside of the school.

5.2.21 Pupils' support*Fig 21 Pupils' support toward school vocational guidance*

Twenty-one of the fifty-one respondents agreed that school vocational guidance receives the necessary support from pupils. The nine that disagreed shared the feeling that pupils project an attitude of being disinterested in their future careers and treated vocational guidance as an “optional” subject in which homework and other subject tasks may be completed. An equal number to those that agreed remained neutral concerning pupils’ perceptions on the subject.

5.2.22 Parents' support

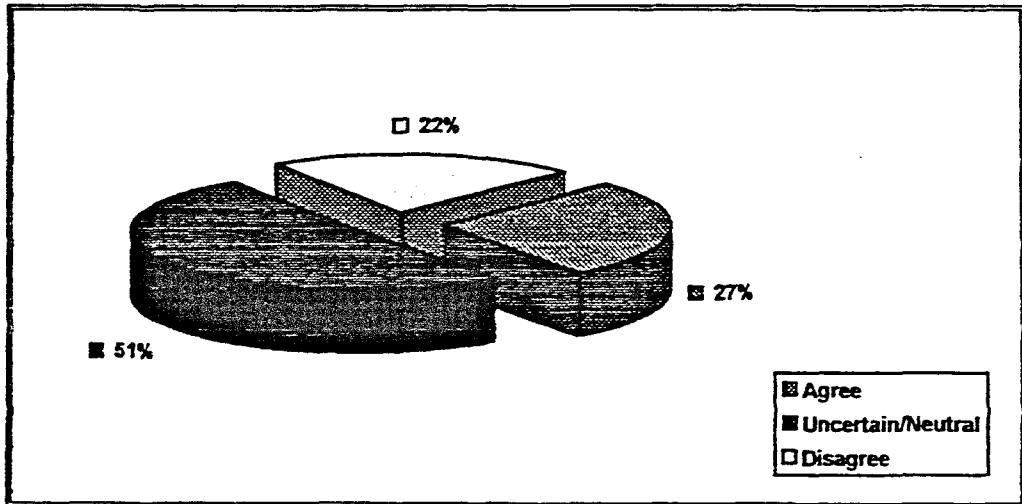
Fig 22 Parents' support toward school vocational guidance



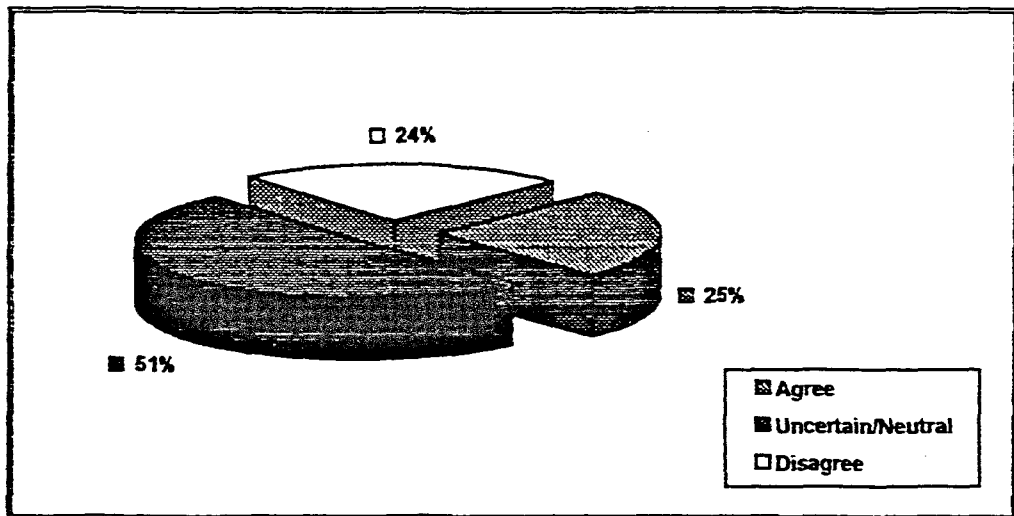
Nearly all of the teachers (11) that disagreed with the statement thought that parents don't care about their children's welfare in general, let alone school vocational guidance in particular, once they are "handed over" to schools. Although more (16) of the respondents indicated that they agreed with the remark, there is no convincing majority in their support. The large number (24) of those that chose to remain neutral on the issue, casts a shadow on their perception of parental support to school vocational guidance. If parental support was strong, the majority would not have remained uncertain.

5.2.23 PTAs' support

Fig 23 PTAs' support towards school vocational guidance



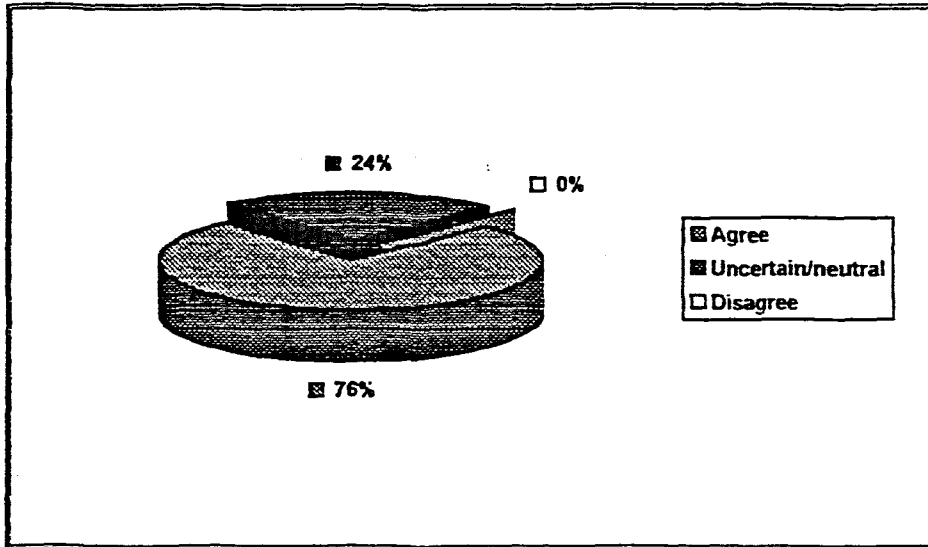
The large number (37) that either disagreed or remained neutral highlights the functions behind the establishment of PTAs. Most of these bodies are established to formulate school policies, rules and regulations and, hence, most of the respondents do not see these bodies showing an active support for school vocational guidance. The fourteen that agreed with the given statement indicate that these bodies are not totally disconcerned about school guidance. However, there is no indication of a strong support for the subject. This response ties up with those of the parents' support analysis earlier on in this section.

5.2.24 SRCs' support*Fig 24 SRCs' support toward school vocational guidance*

The responses obtained in this question links up with those of pupils and PTAs. Like those of pupils' support, the majority either disagree or are uncertain of SRCs support of school vocational guidance. Like the PTAs, the SRCs are actively involved in the formulation of school policy, rules and regulations. Little emphasis is placed on the importance of support to school vocational guidance. In keeping with these attitudes, it is not surprising to find that most of the respondents to this statement, fell into the category of being neutral or they disagreed. Only a quarter of the respondents agreed that it was their impression that SRCs supported school vocational guidance.

5.2.25 Pupils' vocational choices

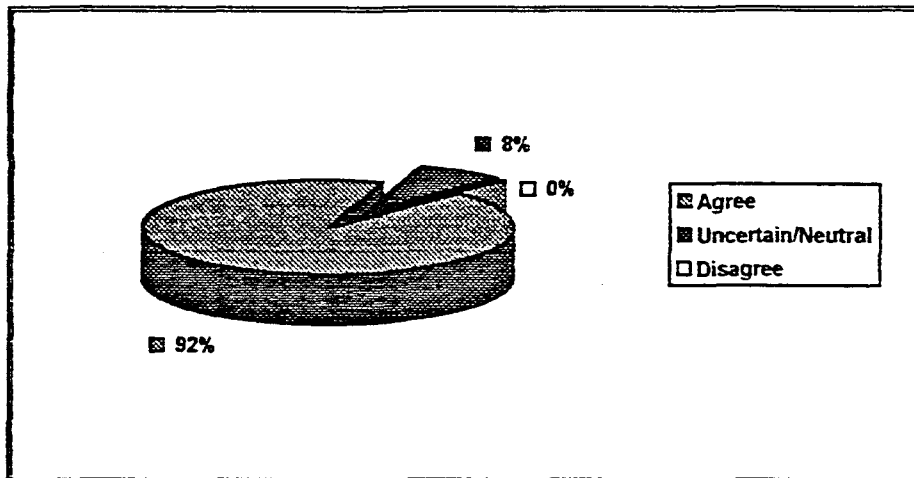
Fig 25 School guidance teachers' contributions to pupils' vocational choices.



The importance of the role of the school guidance personnel in assisting pupils in the choice of their careers, is emphasised by the overwhelming majority (39) who agreed with the statement posed to them. In fact, those that indicated that they were uncertain, were teachers who were “new” to guidance and did not wish to make an inexperienced commitment. It is not surprising to note, that even though some teachers indicated in previous questions that they thought guidance was a waste of time, none of them disagreed with this statement. This lends further support that most of the respondents are constant in their impression that guidance teachers do play a meaningful role in the vocational choices pupils make.

5.2.26 Value of school vocational guidance

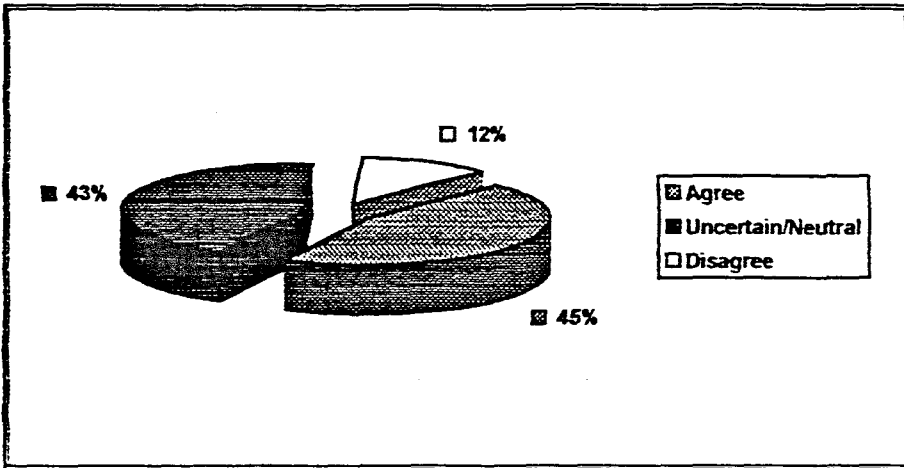
Fig 26 Value of school vocational guidance as a subject



The response to this statement follows the trends of the previous one. The convincing majority of the respondents (47), concur that school vocational guidance as a subject is an advantage to the pupil. The response also reveals that those die-hards, who previously indicated that guidance was a waste of time, either agreed with the statement, or chose to remain neutral. It is envisaged that this change in position, is in fact a sign of support for the importance of vocational guidance in particular, although they may not be in support of general guidance. There were no respondents who disagreed and only four remained neutral.

5.2.27 Aims of school vocational guidance

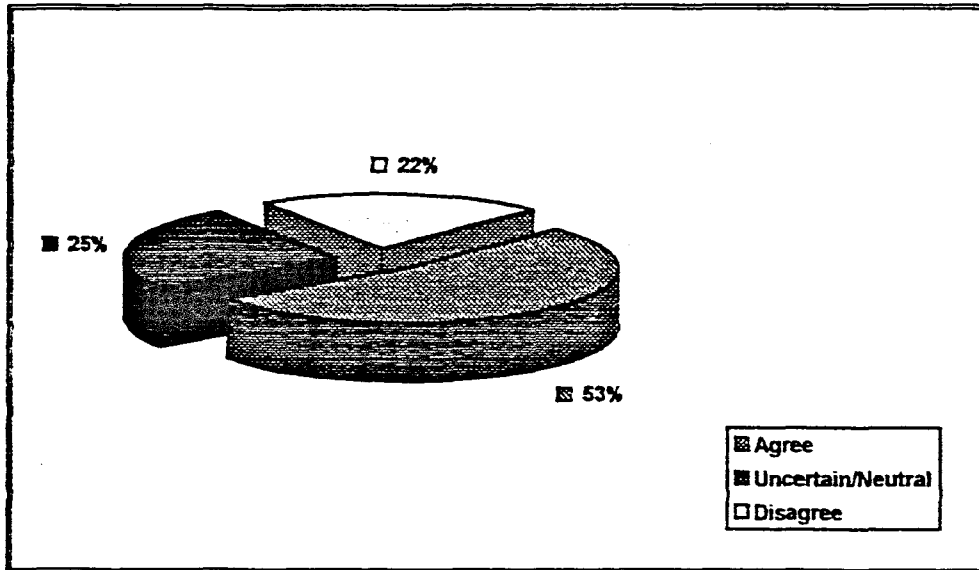
Fig 27 Awareness of the aims of the school vocational guidance curriculum.



It was surprising that six respondents admitted that they were not completely aware of the aims of the school vocational guidance curriculum. It is generally accepted that when a teacher is requested to teach a subject, he is exposed to that subject curriculum so that he may plan and prepare his contact sessions. The large number (22) who indicated that they were uncertain, also invites room for concern. The fact that only twenty-three respondents agreed offers some degree of confidence that the curriculum is available and being utilised.

5.2.28 Pupils' vocational needs

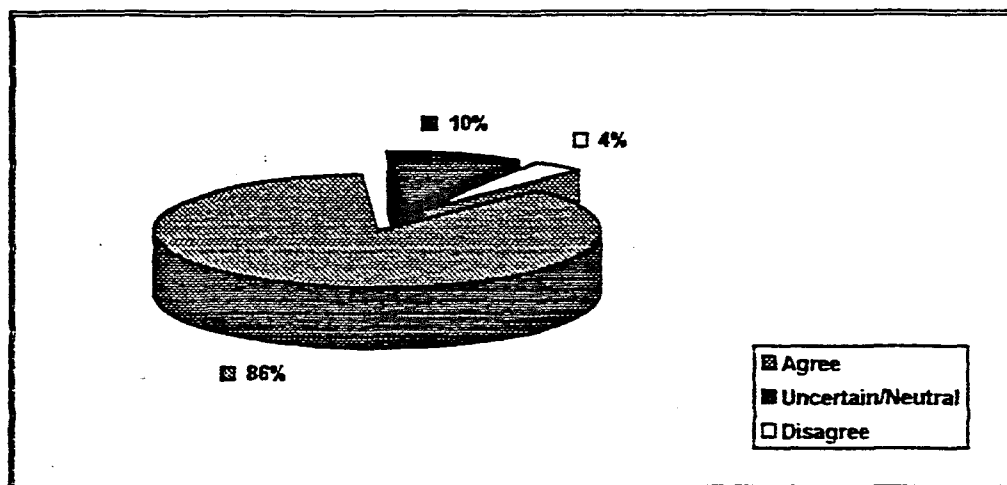
Fig 28 Identification of pupils' vocational needs



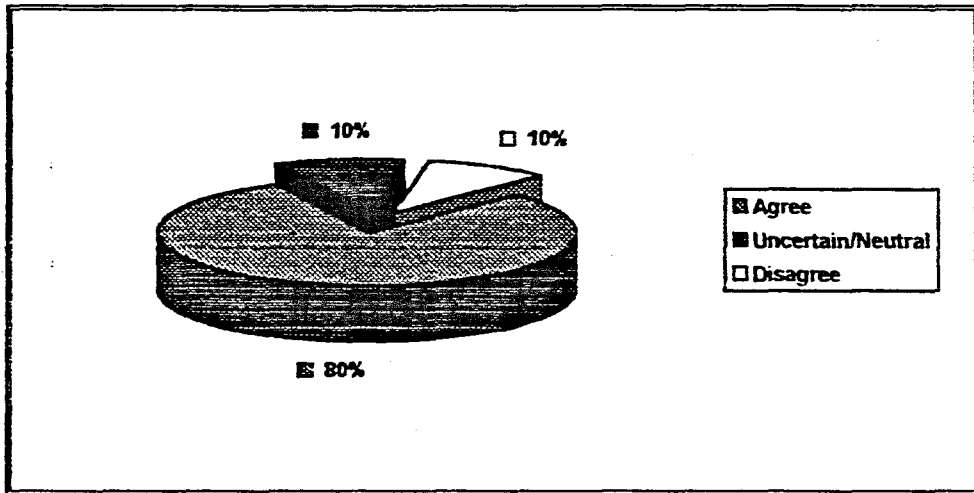
A positive indicator that the teachers of guidance are actively involved is assisting pupils in career selection, is evident in the majority (27) who indicated that they are engaged in the identification of pupils' vocational needs. Once this first phase of identification is initiated, the teacher's involvement becomes a continuous process. A huge question arises as to why such a large number (11 who disagree and 13 who are uncertain) of guidance teachers are not involved in the identification process. This may be linked to the responses of the previous statement, in that, teachers were not fully aware of the school vocational guidance curriculum, and hence, were not involved in the identification of the pupils' vocational needs.

5.2.29 Future employment

Fig 29 The commercial sector as a major creator of future employment



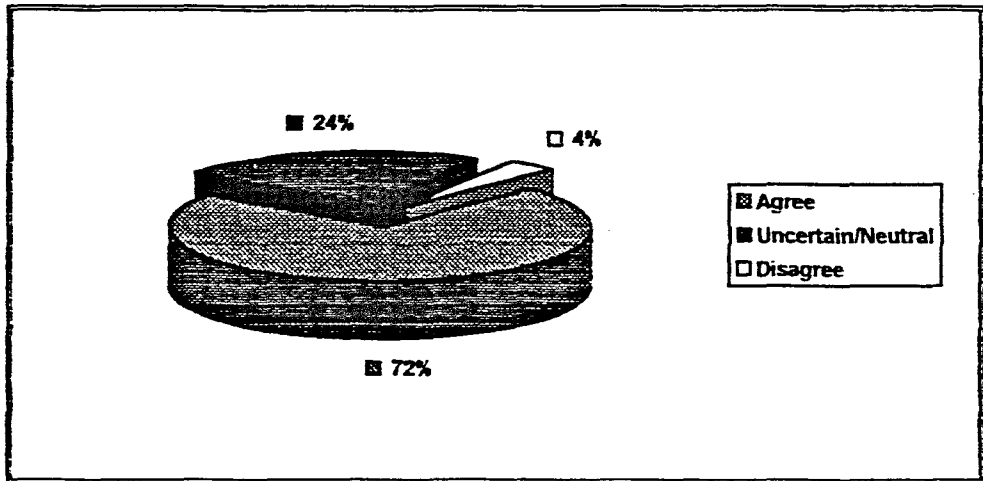
A strong majority (44) of the guidance teachers showed their support to this statement by indicating agreement to it. This response dove-tails with the comments many of them made in response to question 11 in section B. Those that advocated non-interference in pupils' choices and motivating pupils towards careers in science, technology and technical spheres, would be included in the five who chose to remain neutral, or the two who disagreed with the statement. The strong indicator, however, is evident that most of the respondents agree that they perceive the commercial sector as a major creator of future employment for their pupils.

5.2.30 Pupils' future*Fig 30 Pupils' future in the field of commerce*

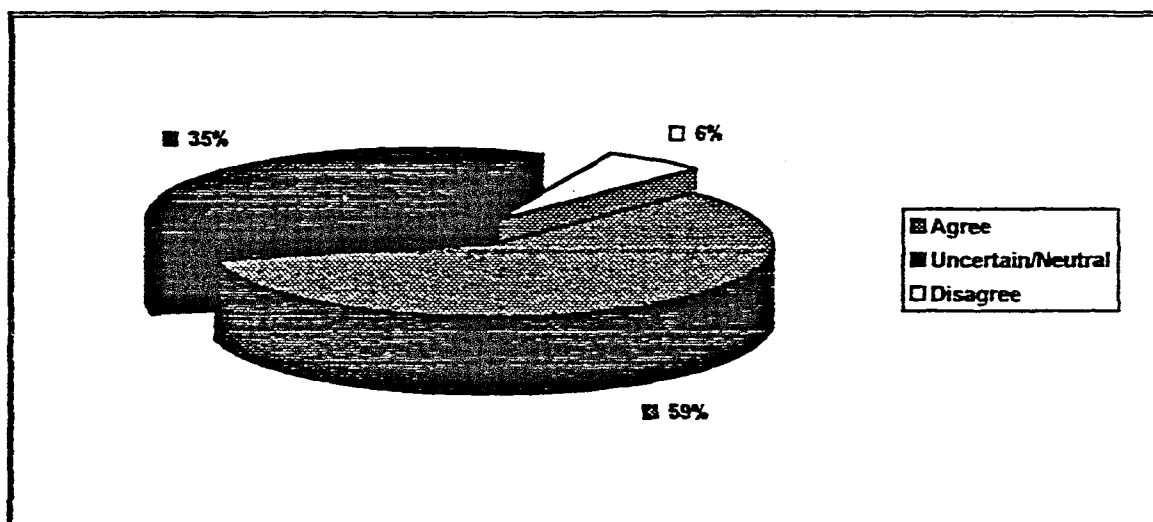
This statement is almost the same as the last one. The basic difference is that “future employment” has been substituted by “real future.” Although the responses to this statement reflect the pattern of the previous one, the majority declined from forty-four to forty-one. This may be attributed to the wider definition of employment implied by the concept “real future.” One respondent who agreed added that “it all depended on the economy.” Those that indicated neutrality remained constant in their response when compared to the preceding statement. A larger number (5 as compared to 2 from the last statement) disagreed, and one respondent commented “not if they are white.” This remark indicates that the respondent predicts that the field of commerce does not provide a real future for “white” pupils.

5.2.31 Job opportunities

Fig 31 Job opportunities in the commercial sector



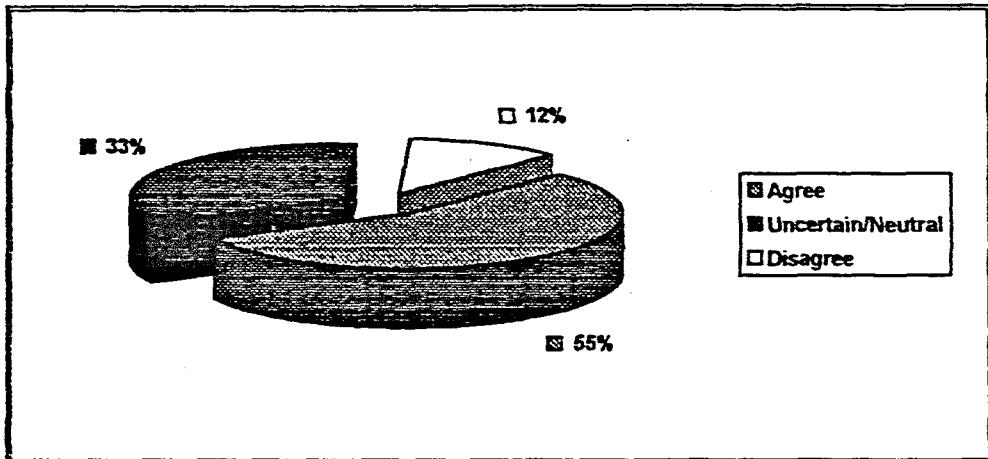
The pattern indicating that the majority agree with the statements supporting positive commercial influences, still prevails, however, the tendency showing a declining majority is also present. Many are confident that more job opportunities will emerge from the commercial sector than any other employment sector, but the scepticism stems from the inclusion of the time-frame, "in the near future." The general opinion is that most South Africans do not feel very confident about "development" and "job-creation" strategies emerging "in the near future." Some respondents cite the high levels of crime, government fraud and embezzlement, union action that tends to raise the cost of production, and the low investment confidence, as possible reasons for their pessimism about the emergence of more job opportunities in the near future. Twelve respondents were uncertain, while two disagreed.

5.2.32 Career prospects*Fig 32 Prospects of a career in commerce*

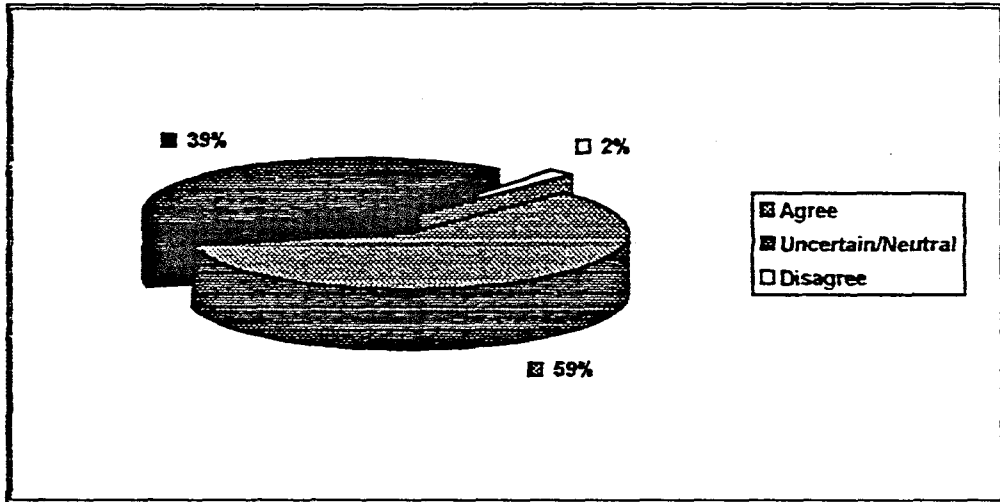
Only three of the guidance teachers indicated that they disagreed with the statement. One respondent in this category explained that a pre-condition was necessary for him to agree, and that is “unless they have their own business.” Although he disagrees, he actually confirms his support by making the pre-condition, which quotes success in one facet of the commercial sector. The number of those respondents that are uncertain (18), however, is gradually increasing, indicating that no clear evidence was available to them. The majority (30) still lies with those that agree, which is indicative of their confidence that their pupils will have the best chance to prosper by pursuing a career in commerce.

5.2.33 Incentives

Fig 23 Provision of incentives to attract pupils into a commercial career



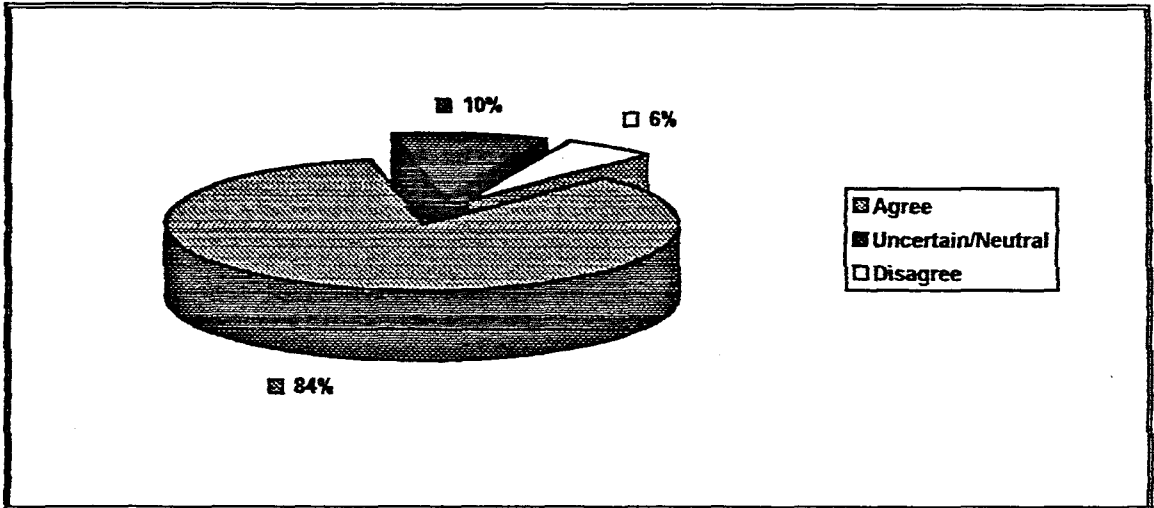
The number of respondents that disagree (6) has risen sharply compared to those that disagreed to the previous four statements. This is because some respondents, who promote careers in science and technology, explain that not only money serves as “lucrative incentives.” They maintain that job satisfaction, doing what one has a flair for, the opportunity for research and development, etc., also serve as “lucrative incentives.” The majority (28) still support the statement. Seventeen respondents chose to remain neutral.

5.2.34 Success in a commercial career*Fig 34 Success in a commercial career*

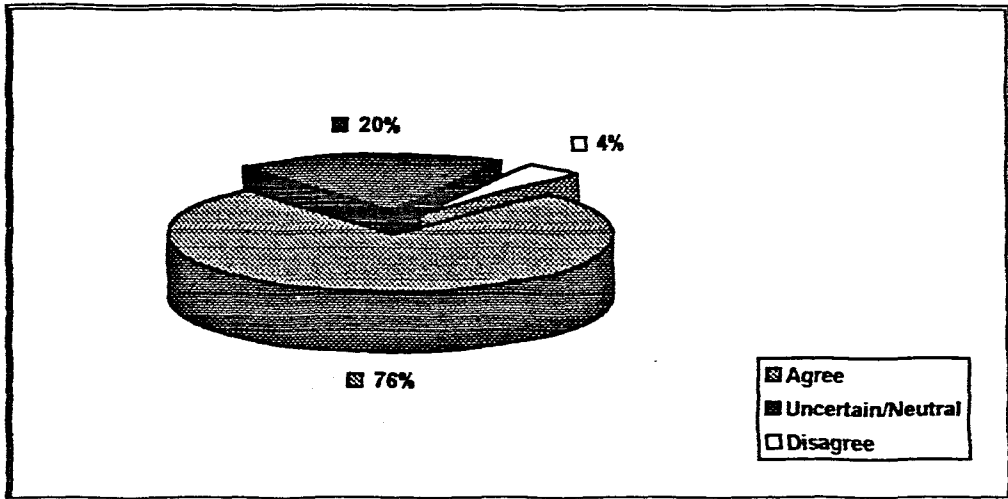
Only one person voiced a strong disagreement to this statement by relating the success of computer giant, Bill Gates, who he claims, emerged as a success in the field of science and technology. There is no argument on that issue, but, his very argument strengthens the case in support of the statement, in that it was via the commercial sector that the related dream became a reality. Although most of the respondents (30) agreed with the statement, a relatively large number (20) indicated that they were uncertain. If success is associated with a money value, then all spheres of employment and success stories are related to the field of commerce.

5.2.35 Career opportunities

Fig 35 Career opportunities in the commercial sector



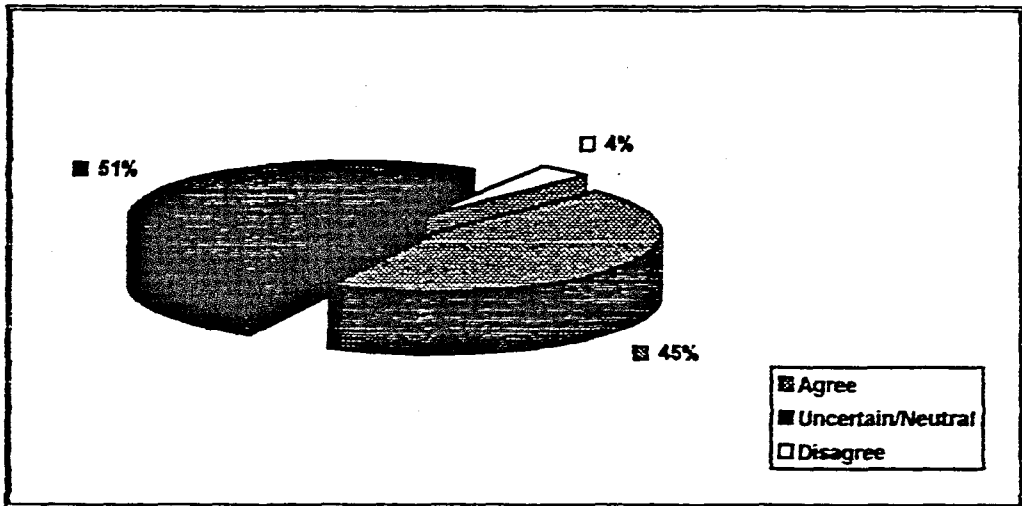
This statement attracted the majority (43) of respondents who indicated that they agreed with the statement. Their response reinforces the generally held opinion that the commercial sector offers a wide variety of job opportunities for persons of all academic and non-academic ability levels. Five respondents took the neutral viewpoint. Of the three that disagreed, one offered further clarification on his response. The respondent claimed that, from a white perspective, he was not confident that there were career opportunities available. He cited that affirmative action policies created an advantage for blacks to have a wide variety of career opportunities in the commercial sector, much to the detriment of their white counterparts. Hence, from a white perspective, he disagreed with the statement.

5.2.36 Pupils' chances of securing a career**Fig 36 Pupils' chances of securing a career in commerce**

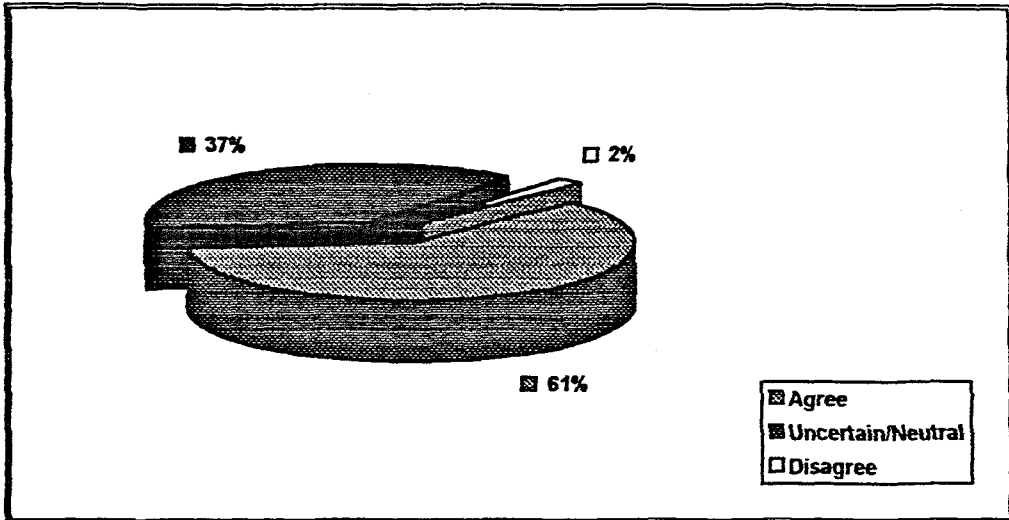
This statement is supplementary to the previous one, and hence, displays almost the same response pattern. The majority (39) agreed with the statement which indicates support to the idea that the commercial sector offers so wide a variety of careers that just about anyone can be actively employed in this sector. None of the ten that remained neutral offered any reasons for doing so, but, both of the respondents who chose to disagree, claimed that in almost every employment sector, persons with different abilities and skills, could be matched to respective careers. They maintained that this characteristic was not exclusively restricted to the field of commerce.

5.2.37 On-the-job training

Fig 37 On-the-job training in commercial careers



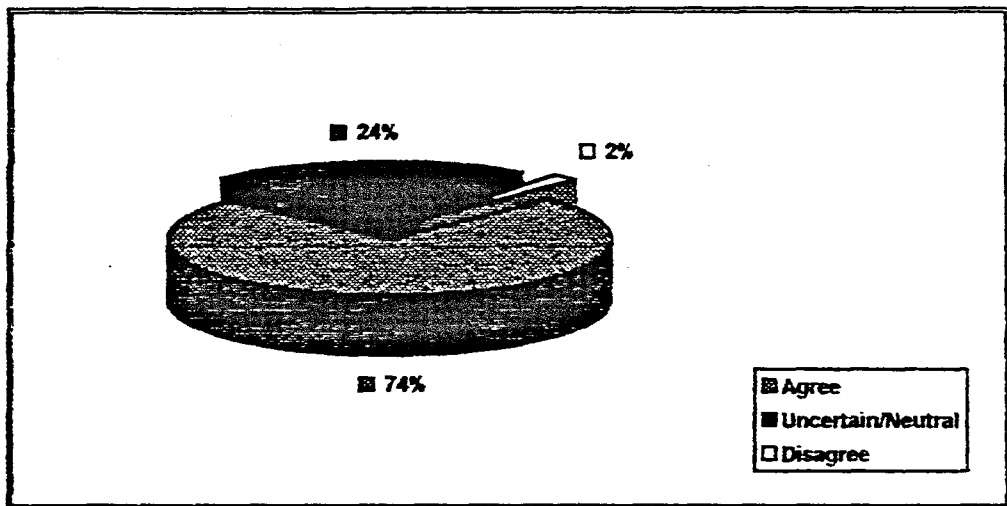
Amazingly, the majority (26) of the respondents emerged from the uncertain/neutral response category. This may be attributed to the fact that many of the respondents were required to teach guidance just as “filler” subjects and not as specialists, and as a result were not too clued up with the extent of on-the-job training offered in the commercial sector. In spite of this, twenty-three indicated that they agreed, which supports the impression that careers in commerce do provide on-the-job training. The two that disagreed mentioned that often, commercial sector vacancies required persons with experience, most especially those at the more senior levels. They did not mention requirements at beginner and junior levels; levels at which most school-leavers enter the work-place. Very often on-the-job training occurs at the lower levels of employment.

5.2.38 Further training*Fig 38 Further training in the commercial sector*

The majority (31) that agreed with the statement, support the belief that workers with initiative, are afforded the opportunity to become more proficient in their jobs by being allowed to embark on further, higher-level training. The one person that disagreed, again stated that this was the tendency in most career sectors. Since this statement, can in many aspects, be linked to the previous statement, the number that remained neutral (19) is significantly close to the number that provided the same response in the last statement. The strong majority that agreed indicate that scope for further training could serve as a strong incentive to attract prospective workers to the commercial sector.

5.2.39 Opportunities and advancement

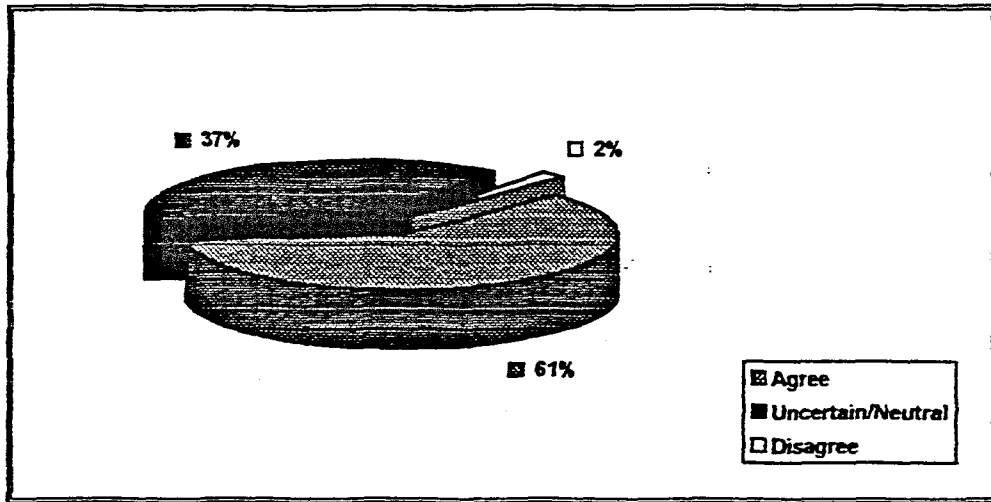
Fig 39 Opportunities for career growth, promotion and advancement in commerce



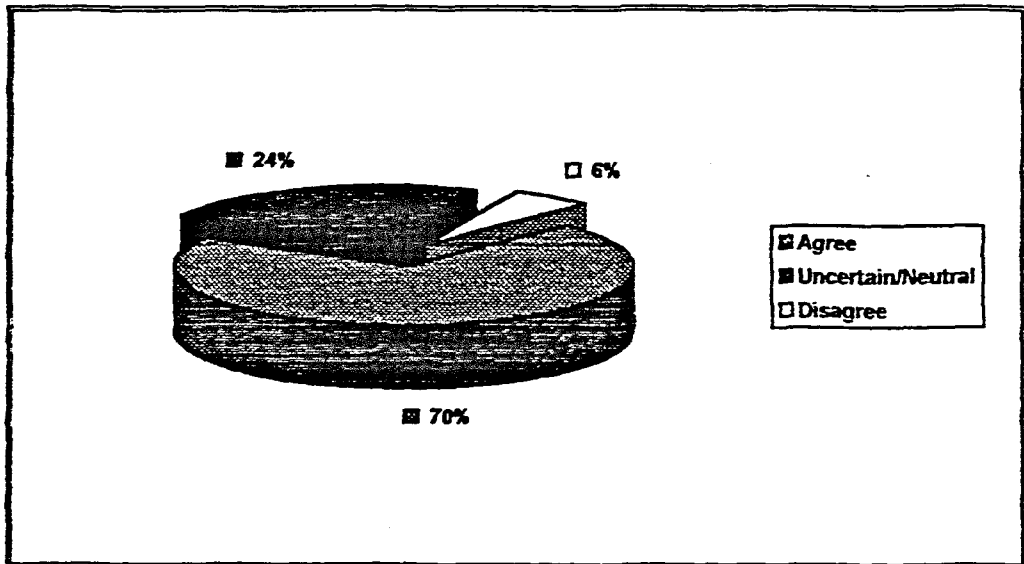
Statement 17 concerns career growth, promotion and advancement, which in many aspects, is almost the same as the ideas generated in statements 15 and 16. It is no wonder, therefore, that the responses received for this statement, almost reflect those of the previous two statements. The large majority (38) agreed, twelve indicated uncertainty, while only one person disagreed. The reasons cited in the analysis of the previous two statements, are also applicable for the analysis of the data obtained for this statement:

5.2.40 Opportunities for entrepreneurs

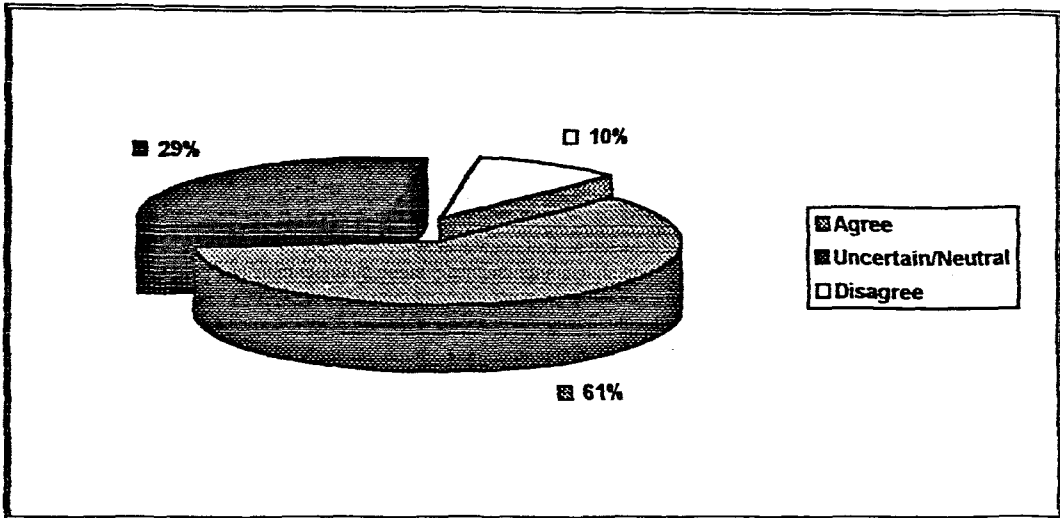
Fig 40 Careers in commerce provide opportunities for entrepreneurs



The one person that disagreed with the statement did not offer any reason why he did so. It would have been interesting to have been exposed to the reason why he disagreed. The large number of respondents (19) who indicated that they were uncertain, indicate that they are not *au fait* with the concept of entrepreneurship and the factors leading to self-employment. This response was common amongst those teachers who merely “filled in” guidance to make up their teaching loads. The glaringly large majority (31) that indicated that they agree, confirm that, very often, careers in commerce lead to self-employment, where workers rise to the status of being entrepreneurs and bosses.

5.2.41 Wealth of the nation*Fig 41 The wealth of the nation and the commercial sector*

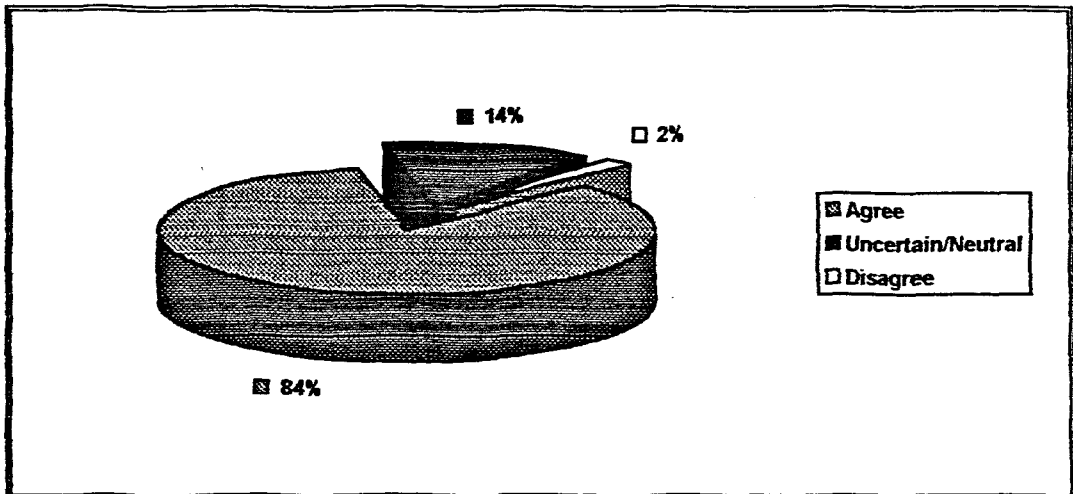
The majority (36) that agreed increased, by five respondents that moved from the “uncertain” response category to support those that agreed. This strengthens the belief that the wealth of the nation, is created by the commercial sector. The numbers of those that opposed this viewpoint (3) had also risen when compared to the previous statement. Two respondents, who were previously neutral, now indicated that they also disagreed with the statement. The disagreeing group claim that the wealth of a country is created by a joint effort by all the economic sectors. This is not denied by the researcher, but, their comments indicate that they in fact do recognise that the commercial sector does contribute to the country’s wealth.

5.2.42 Securing a career*Fig 42 Securing a career in commerce*

It is evident, from the majority (31) of those that agreed with the statement, that most of the respondents remain unmoved in their belief that their pupils have the best chance of a secure and successful career in the commercial sector than any other employment sector. Most of the five that disagree belong to the group of respondents who claim either not to influence the child's choice, or to those who advocate a career with a science and technology bias. Fifteen of the respondents were either uncertain or the wished to remain neutral.

5.2.43 Vocational guidance counsellors' influence

Fig 43 Vocational guidance counsellors' influence in a pupil's career choice in commerce



In this final statement, which carries the statement of the research project, a large number of respondents (43 out of 51) agreed that the school vocational guidance counsellor can be a major influence in guiding pupils to a career in commerce. This result is not surprising as, throughout the other statements, it was evident that many of the respondents favoured the commercial sector to other sectors when it came to the provision of career opportunities. Seven respondents, however still remained uncertain, but the one person that disagreed concluded that “some pupils will not be guided to a career in commerce, come what may!”

5.3 SUMMARY

An analysis of the data retrieved during this study revealed that the majority of guidance counsellors and teachers of guidance concur that the school vocational guidance counsellor plays a pivotal and important role in guiding pupils to careers in commerce. Many of them are unanimous in their belief that the commercial sector offers their pupils the best opportunity of securing reliable employment.

The study also indicated that guidance services were being marginalised in many schools. Often schools do not have guidance specialists and the quota of guidance is distributed amongst numerous teachers, many of whom have admitted that they are not even aware of the curriculum, let alone the aims and objectives. Beck (Luthuli, 1990 : 286) stresses that some teachers and academics should take a more detailed interest in the important field of values education, critically evaluating particular approaches and perhaps developing approaches of their own. This sentiment should be adapted and applied to the teaching of guidance so that it may acquire the important status it rightfully deserves.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This research study was initiated so that more information, debate and attention may be focused on the importance attributed to the school vocational guidance counsellor's role pertaining to a career in commerce. Guidance counsellors and teachers of guidance were solicited to express perceptions on the influences they exerted on pupils in leading them specifically to a career in the commercial sector.

6.2 SUMMARY

6.2.1 Statement of the problem

The problem addressed in this study concerns the role of the school vocational guidance counsellor regarding a career in commerce. Vocational guidance counsellors ought to help a child acquire work-related skills and information in the classroom, thus saving him the time, and sometimes the pain of learning the hard way. By directing this research at the vocational guidance counsellor's role, and by specifically relating it to a career in commerce, much could be done by the vocational guidance counsellor to help children towards embarking on a career in commerce.

6.2.2 School guidance

School guidance and counselling has been and continues to be a dynamic movement. It is important for every counsellor to be acquainted with the broad dimensions of its evolutionary process. A discussion on the aims, nature and scope of school guidance was essential, as an understanding of these facets of school guidance provided a

framework upon which this research is structured. A broader framework on the subject was enhanced by discussion i.a. a historical overview of school guidance, defining school guidance, certain ideological approaches to school guidance, principles underlying school guidance, and the need for school guidance.

6.2.3 School vocational guidance and a career in commerce

Observations by Parson (Shertzer & Stone, 1974 : 24) of young people led to the conclusion that they needed careful and systematic help in choosing a vocation. His idea was to match the characteristics of the individual to the requirements of the occupation. He reasoned that three major steps (man analysis, job analysis and true reasoning) were necessary in selecting a vocation and suggests how an experienced counsellor can assist a young person. The definition of school vocational guidance led to a discussion on the aims, nature and scope of the subject. Careers in commerce are identified and means of obtaining career information are discussed. After an elaboration on the characteristics of a good school vocational guidance counsellor, his role and function were explained with special reference to a career in commerce.

6.2.4 Planning of the research

This study utilised a questionnaire, constructed by the researcher, as the data source. The information sought was not available from any other source and had to be acquired directly from the respondents. When this situation exists, the most appropriate source of data is the questionnaire, as it can easily be adapted to a variety of situations.

With the aim of administering the questionnaire to guidance teachers and counsellors of secondary schools in Southern KwaZulu Natal, it was required to first request permission from the Department of Education. Thereafter, permission was obtained

from school principals and arrangements were made for administering the questionnaire to the respondents at participating schools.

The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding the school vocational guidance counsellor's role pertaining to a career in commerce.

6.2.5 Analysis and presentation of data

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the data collected from the questionnaires completed by *fifty one guidance teachers and counsellors in fourteen secondary schools in the targeted region*, to offer comments and interpretations on the findings. At the outset, an explanation and description was provided as to the methods employed in the categorisation of responses and the analysis of the data. This was followed by the presentation and discussion of the responses to the questions in the questionnaire. A summary of the findings follows in section 6.3.

6.2.6 Purpose of the study

The researcher formulated specific aims (cf. 1.5) to determine the course of this study. These aims were realised through a literature study, together with an empirical survey consisting of a structured questionnaire. On the basis of the aims and findings of the study, certain recommendations (cf. 6.4) are offered.

6.3 FINDINGS

Through the review of literature, general observations, informal discussions, and the use of the principal research instrument, the questionnaire, the researcher established the following:

6.3.1 The majority of teachers involved with school guidance are not trained as guidance teachers

Although school guidance is being taught by teachers who are professionally qualified, not all of them have experience in the teaching of guidance or are trained guidance counsellors.

6.3.2 Where “non-guidance” teachers are involved in teaching guidance, little effort is being made to send them for orientation or training

The majority of “teachers not qualified to teach guidance” have been given guidance to teach so that they may make up their required teaching loads. This being the case implies that guidance is being delivered by non-specialists. In all situations where unqualified guidance teachers were trying to teach guidance, no courses or in-service training in guidance were offered to them so that at least they would have done some justice in the teaching of the subject.

6.3.3 The school vocational guidance services are being marginalised

Of the fourteen schools targeted, only two enjoyed the services of a qualified school guidance counsellor. As mentioned in 6.2.2 above, guidance as a school subject has been allocated to non-specialists, not because they have a flair for or experience in the subject, but merely to make up the teaching loads of teachers. In some schools, the specialist guidance counsellor is given some other subject to concentrate on, and his guidance periods are distributed to non-specialists. This serves as an obvious indicator that the Department of Education is aiming at marginalising the services of professionally-trained guidance personnel, thereby reducing the importance of guidance at schools.

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6.3.4 Although some schools are in contact with the commercial sector, much could be done to increase this contact

When one considers the importance most guidance teachers place on the commercial sector being an excellent provider of future employment for their pupils, the lack of contact with this sector, in some cases, does not support this importance. Some teachers indicated no contact with the commercial sector. This leaves room for concern, but lots of scope to improve the situation.

6.3.5 No school principal was *actively* involved in the school guidance service

The school principal is still considered to be the “master of the ship” and whatever he considers important, he can make its presence felt. In all the schools involved in the research study, there was no indication of a deliberate attempt on the part of the principal to rally support for guidance services. Some principals even express the opinion that guidance is a “waste of time.”

6.3.6 Most guidance teachers do not organise career exhibitions for their pupils

One of the primary aims of education is the preparation of the child for adulthood, which in itself, implies that the child should occupy a meaningful place in society by being gainfully employed. If career exhibitions are not arranged by the guidance teacher for his pupils, little is done to expose them to the possible employment opportunities that may exist to them. The majority of guidance teachers responded that they never organised any career exhibitions at their schools.

6.3.7 The majority of guidance teachers do motivate their pupils to choose a commercial career

There is overwhelming evidence that most of the guidance teachers do consider the commercial sector very important in job-creation for their pupils and as such have given positive support in motivating pupils to enter the commercial sector.

6.3.8 The majority of guidance teachers do not have counselling sessions with pupils to assist them with career choices in commerce

One of the prime objectives in guidance in general and vocational guidance in particular, is the assistance and guidance a teacher offers a pupil to help him choose and select a future career. If the majority of guidance teachers are not involved in this vital service, then the pupils are being handicapped and in fact, are being offered a major disservice.

6.3.9 Most of the guidance teachers targeted agree that they have a positive attitude towards school vocational guidance

Forty-three of the fifty-one respondents indicated that they consider the provision of school vocational guidance an essential and very crucial service that all pupils should have access to. One remains confused as to why these essential services are being marginalised when those teachers involved in the service, who have first-hand experiences in its implementation, consider it a vital service, one that can be of tremendous benefit that could either make or destroy the future of a child.

6.3.10 Most of the guidance teachers perceive that principals do not offer vocational guidance the necessary support

There is no glaring evidence that school principals are optimistic about the value of school vocational guidance services. In fact many teachers are of the opinion that principals are not in support of the service. If they are, there is no strong canvassing for the service from principals.

6.3.11 Most of the guidance teachers perceive that other teaching staff do not offer school vocational guidance the necessary support

There is strong evidence which indicates that many of the secondary school teachers are merely concerned with the delivery of their subject material. It seems that, when they do not support vocational guidance, they are teaching with the intention of passing on the subject knowledge only, and not relating that specific subject to any career or future plans that the child might be aspiring towards. This ideology of goal-less teaching, cannot provide the child with a meaningful, goal-directed education. School vocational guidance provides the link between school subjects and the world of work.

6.3.12 There is a perception that school vocational guidance does not receive the necessary support from pupils

Most of the respondents indicated that they were uncertain or disagreed with the statement that measured their perceptions of pupils support of school vocational guidance. This perception reveals that many pupils are merely going the motion of learning subjects at school without due consideration as to how these subjects can facilitate the acquisition of their desired careers. There is also a strong implication that many pupils have not decided what career they intended to follow and many of the

teachers have expressed that many pupils have decided to “cross that bridge when they got to it.”

6.3.13 There emerges a perception that school vocational guidance does not receive the necessary support from parents

Most of the teachers concur that once the child is at school, many parents seem to leave the child, together with his problems and aspirations, totally in the hands of the teachers. There is no indication of active support and participation from parents in becoming involved in the school vocational guidance programme. Parents tend to divorce themselves from the affairs of the school in general, and school vocational guidance, in particular.

6.3.14 Both the PTAs and the SRCs concentrate on school rules and policy-making and do not get involved with school vocational guidance

There is much debate on the importance of the role of PTAs and SRCs in the running of the school programme, but what has emerged in this study, is that most of the guidance teachers perceive that these bodies do not show active support for school vocational guidance. This sentiment ties up with the concept of “goal-less education” in that these important decision-making bodies have erred by not placing greater emphasis on the school vocational guidance service that will eventually determine the destiny and future of their pupils, children and peers. Not one of these bodies formulate policies on school vocational guidance services.

6.3.15 There are teachers involved in the teaching of school vocational guidance who are not completely aware of its curriculum

This revelation is the most startling of all the findings in that one would expect a teacher of any subject, let alone school vocational guidance, to be *au fait* with the aims

and objects of that subject so that he may plan and prepare his work in an organised and coherent manner. This emphasises the belief that, generally, teachers and principals in most schools are really not treating the school vocational guidance services with the seriousness it truly deserves.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on both the literature study and the empirical findings, the researcher offers the following recommendations which could serve as a catalyst for more research, debate and improvement to the vocational guidance services offered at secondary schools in general.

These recommendations will be discussed in accordance with and consistent to the aims and objectives of the Reconstruction and Development Programme of education and training as outlined by the Ministry of Education.

6.4.1 Training of guidance teachers

(1) Motivation

The study clearly identifies that although teachers are professionally qualified to teach, many of them are inadequately prepared to teach school guidance and/or vocational guidance (cf. 5.2.3 & 5.2.4). Guidance teachers should have the ability, experience and knowledge to mould and guide children towards obtaining a reliable career in the future. Although many teachers have the ability to take part in decision making, in the field of guidance, however, experience and specialisation in the subject, enhances this ability to effectively guide, lead and direct the child.

(2) Recommendations

- Teachers of guidance should be given the subject to teach according to their skills, experience, qualification, ability and their interest in the subject.
- In cases where an inexperienced or unqualified teacher has to teach guidance, all efforts should be made to ensure that that teacher attends orientation courses, seminars or workshops, and, if available, should attend in-service training.
- Where none of the above-mentioned training opportunities exist, specialist vocational guidance counsellors must be invited to hold locally-based, short workshops, in different localities.
- The use of peer training should be encouraged in situations where one qualified or experienced staff member undertakes to guide other unqualified or inexperienced staff members.

It was noted that some teachers of guidance were not completely aware of the aims of the school vocational guidance curriculum. A recommendation could be that at the beginning of each year, all teachers of guidance be made aware of these aims which could be explained, discussed or modified at a special meeting convened for them by staff that are familiar with these aims.

6.4.2 Marginalisation of school guidance services

(1) Motivation

Many of the findings of this study point to the importance of guidance in the life and destiny of a pupil. This is reinforced by Gabers (Visser, 1987 :1) where he claims that there is no doubt as to the importance of career counselling. The career that an individual chooses forms an important part of his identity, personal well-being and inclusion in the community. With this in mind, major harm will be done to the pupil and society at large, if an important service like guidance, has to be marginalised (cf. 5.2.7).

(2) Recommendations

- All stakeholders (pupils, parents, teachers, community leaders, industry, etc.) should rally support and form pressure groups to convince the authorities concerned not to marginalise the service.
- When all efforts have failed, parents, together with local business and industry, should attempt to maintain the service through private sponsorship and vigorous fund-raising.
- Attempts to have vocational guidance become a service offered by the Department of Manpower, should be canvassed for.

6.4.4 Involvement in school vocational guidance

(1) Motivation

Both the empirical and literature studies revealed that there is a greater need for educators (school principals, management, teachers) to become more actively involved in school vocational guidance (cf. 5.2.18-5.2.20). The HSRC report on Guidance reiterated some of the aims of education which match those of guidance. They are summarised by Dobie (1981 : 1) as follows:

- actively ensures the realisation of the potential of the pupils,
- meets the manpower need of the country,
- makes a positive contribution towards the economic development of the country, and
- has as objective, the improvement of the quality of life of all the inhabitants of the country.

(2) Recommendations

All of the above common aims of education and guidance indicates that the two disciplines cannot be separated. It is for this reason alone, that educators should be enlightened that the promotion and encouragement of guidance actually results in the promotion and realisation of the aims of education as well. No education can be goal-directed or meaningful, if it is not incorporated with guidance. With this in mind, all educators are encouraged to lead and motivate for the inclusion of guidance as an

essential and compulsory service by actively incorporating some kind of guidance into the teaching of their respective subjects.

Further to the above, all educators should become actively involved in guidance and counselling. If education is goal-directed, the importance of these goals and the progress pupils are making in trying to reach these goals, should be emphasised and monitored on a one-to-one basis. This calls for guidance and counselling. Even if the service is marginalised, dedicated and concerned educators are recommended to continue the service on an ad hoc and informal basis. Pupils should be able to identify that a service is available and respond to educators for guidance and counselling.

6.4.5 Policy on school vocational guidance

(1) Motivation

PTAs and SRCs tend to concentrate on every other aspect of school life and seem to neglect that facet that is vitally important to the child (cf. 5.2.23 & 5.2.24). None of these policy-making bodies include a policy of vocational guidance in its policy formation. The importance of vocational guidance cannot be overstated.

(2) Recommendations

- PTAs and SRCs must include some policy of school vocational guidance into the policy structure in all schools.

6.5 CRITICISM

Criticism that emanates from this study are categorised as limitations of the scope (cf. 4.7.1), limitations of the design (cf. 4.7.2) and methodological limitations (cf. 4.7.3) which followed detailed discussion in chapter four.

6.6 FURTHER RESEARCH

According to Visser (1987 : 41-45) traditionally, career counselling is done in the clinical practice by clinical or counselling psychologists on a one-to-one basis. The other alternative, is the educational milieu where career counsellors do basic career counselling in the classroom set-up and only those pupils with serious career problems, are referred to the educational psychologist that again sees the pupil on a one-to-one basis. This model has the following implications:

- It is very costly from an economical point of view.
- Only a selected few people can obtain career counselling.
- Only attention is given to pupils with a serious problem with regard to career choice and those pupils who seem to be able to make a choice of their own, are left to their own devices - no thought is given to the correctness of their choice.

This means that most South Africans at present, do not receive appropriate career guidance and have to rely on their own resources that sadly seem to lack a good basic knowledge of the various careers.

6.6.1 Conspicuous areas of problems in the clinical practice

From experience, the following conspicuous areas of problems can be found in clinical practice:

- There seldom is evidence that the person in question has any broad knowledge of the various available careers. This means that no valid decision can be made in any case as a career decision requires basic knowledge.
- It is seldom that pupils who require career counselling have the basic know-how of the process of decision making. That is why most people find it difficult to make a career choice even if four or more alternatives are given to them.
- Often, only pupils who have personality or scholastic problems are referred to the counselling psychologist for guidance in the hope that the primary problem, viz. that of achievement or of behaviour, may be solved. In these cases career guidance, is only secondary.
- Often, it is the parents, and not the pupil in question, that are struggling with the complexity of a career choice for their child.
- In some cases, the parents request career guidance for their children, in the hope of dissuading them with regard to a specific career choice.

These problems lead to the fact that, at present, very few pupils are seen in clinical practices that have no problems other than selecting a career. It is almost as if career guidance is reserved for pupils and grown-ups that are struggling with a multitude of problems. The question is, what happens to all those excellent pupils that rely on their limited knowledge on careers to make their own career choice?

6.6.2 Career guidance needs in a changing South Africa

It is recommended that the following career guidance needs be met in a changing South Africa:

- Pupils must be guided to develop a psychological maturity in order to make a valid career choice. This process starts in the early years of the primary school and continues up to when the pupil makes his or her final career choice in matric. This process is set in motion by helping the child at primary school to get to know himself - his limitations as well as his positive attributes.
- Simultaneously, the pupil must be given the opportunity to start in primary school, to obtain knowledge about the different careers, and which personality attributes they require. Specific attention should be given to technical and mechanical (and commercial, I may add) careers, as those are the people that the South African economic milieu requires. That means defusing possible negativism towards training at a Technicon.
- The pupil must be monitored in order to determine his level of knowledge of himself as well as the realism of the goals he sets himself.
- The pupil must be given the opportunity to talk to people in different careers with regard to the positive as well as the negative aspects of that career - only people that follow a specific career can truly relate its pitfalls and pleasures.
- Pupils should be taught the process of decision making. That in making a decision, a golden rule, is to obtain all the possible knowledge related to the subject and then to make the decision, bearing in mind that the consequences of the decision must also be contemplated.

6.6.3 How can these needs be met from a practical point of view?

From a practical point of view, the following measures should be taken to ensure that career counselling needs in a changing South Africa, can be met:

- The model of a one-to-one person must be modified. Professional psychologists should only be consultants to well-trained career counsellors. These counsellors should be trained to cope with children's career counselling needs on a primary school level, a secondary school level, young adulthood level as well as with people experiencing a mid-life crisis. At least two counsellors must be on the staff of a school and a programme developed by the consultant psychologist, must be followed with regard to each pupil in each standard.
- Short questionnaires should be developed in order to help the child to get to know himself. These questionnaires should be developed in such a way that the child can discover his own attributes while completing the questionnaire.
- The child should be taught decision making processes by confronting him with a decision that becomes increasingly complicated as he grows older in order to teach him to carry the consequences of his own decisions.
- Knowledge about careers should be in abundance by inviting people from all walks of life to talk about their careers to the children (in small groups), giving them the opportunity to explore and ask questions.
- The children should be able to attend career exhibitions in order to keep up with new career developments.

- Parents of children should be actively involved in the “get to know myself” process as well as the career guidance process. This can be done by organising a group of parents to interact with a group of children consisting of their own children and others (all the children should be of a similar age group). The children could then discuss problems with regard to career choice with the parents and the counsellor could be the facilitator.

6.7 FINAL REMARK

We should move away from the traditional model of placing the responsibility of guiding the child in his or her career choice solely in the hands of the counselling psychologist, educational psychologist or school counsellor. This responsibility should be shared by the child himself, his parents, his teachers, his career guidance counsellor, his consulting, counselling or educational psychologist and the community as a whole.

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22 May 1996

The Secretary
KwaZulu Natal Department of Education
Private Bag
Durban
4000

Sir

Application for permission to conduct educational research

I hereby apply for permission to conduct educational research in secondary schools under your control. The research is essential in completion of my M.Ed. degree with the University of Zululand.

The topic of my dissertation is : *School vocational guidance counsellors' role pertaining to a career in commerce*. The research itself will be conducted in secondary schools located in Southern KwaZulu Natal by means of questionnaires directed to guidance teachers and counsellors.

I will ensure that the information elicited from the research will be treated as confidential and I am willing to make a copy of the research findings available to your department if requested to do so.

I have enclosed a brief description of the project for your information.

Thank you



ERG Naidoo

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
AND CULTURE

UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO
NAMASIKO

DEPARTEMENT VAN
ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR

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ENQUIRIES:		REFERENCE:		DATE:	
IMIBUZO:	D P Maharaj	INKOMBA:	A10/29/2/27	USUKU:	
NAVRAE:		VERHYSING:		DATUM:	

Mr E R G Naidoo
c/o Unizul
Private Bag X10
ISIPINGO
4110

Sir

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE TOPIC "THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR PERTINING TO A CAREER IN COMMERCE" AT A SAMPLE OF SECONDARY IN KWAZULU-NATAL

Your letter dated 22 May 1996 refers

1. Permission is hereby granted to you to conduct your research at a sample of secondary schools in KwaZulu-Natal provided that:
 - 1.1 prior arrangements are made with the principals concerned;
 - 1.2 participation in the research by educators is on a voluntary basis;
 - 1.3 the questionnaires are administered during the educators non-teaching time; and
 - 1.4 all information gleaned is treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only.
2. Kindly produce a copy of this letter when visiting the school.
3. The Department wishes you every success in your research and looks forward to receiving a copy of the findings.

A.P. M. M. Q.
SUPERINTENDENT-GENERAL (ACTING)

96-10-23

961003/schvoc/pc

Department of Economics
University of Zululand
Umlazi Extramural Division
Private Bag X10
Isipingo 4110

29 August 1996

The Principal
_____ Secondary School

Sir

Re : *Permission to conduct a research study at your school*

I hereby apply for permission to conduct an educational project at your school. The research is essential for me to complete my M.Ed. degree with the University of Zululand. I have applied for permission from the Education Department to embark on this project.

The topic of my dissertation is : *School vocational guidance counsellors' role pertaining to a career in commerce*. The research proper will be conducted by means of a questionnaire directed at guidance teachers and counsellors. It is hoped that teachers could assist by responding to the survey during their non-contact time so as not to infringe on the pupils' education time. I can reassure you that no question enlisted will be incriminating , sensitive or offensive in nature.

I will deliver and collect the responses at a time that will be most convenient to you.

I seek your earnest co-operation in this matter.

Thank you



E R G Naidoo

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

QUESTIONNAIRE

School Vocational Guidance

and

A Career in Commerce

QUESTIONNAIRE
TO
SECONDARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE TEACHERS
REGARDING SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE
AND A CAREER IN COMMERCE

AIM OF THE INVESTIGATION

The aim of this investigation is to determine what the evaluation, expectations and experience of Southern KwaZulu-Natal secondary school guidance teachers are regarding their role pertaining to a career in Commerce.

TO THE TEACHER

This questionnaire is completed anonymously and will in no way be used to identify you as a teacher. You are therefore asked to be honest in your answers.

In the following questions, please place a cross (X) in the appropriate box which best represents your view.

EXAMPLES

(i) Do you teach School Guidance in Std nine?

Yes

No

After the following question, mark a cross (X) in the block of your choice on the 3-point scale according to your feeling about the appropriate response.

(ii) I enjoy teaching School Guidance

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
X		

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A (*Idiographic information*)

INSTRUCTIONS

Please indicate your personal details by responding to the following characteristics:

1. Gender

Male

Female

2. Age (*Years*)

20-30

31-40

41-50

51-60

Above 60

3. Qualifications

Matric and Prof. Dip.

Degree

Degree and Prof. Dip.

B.Ed. and Prof.Dip.

Hons and Prof. Dip.

Masters and Prof. Dip.

Any other information about your qualifications that you feel is important:

.....

.....

.....

4. Guidance Teaching / Counselling experience: (Years)

- 0 - 5
- 6 -10
- 11-20
- 21-30
- 30+

5. Rank

- Teacher
- Head of Department
- Deputy Principal
- Principal

6. Please mark all the standard(s) to which you teach School Guidance.

- Std 6
- Std 7
- Std 8
- Std 9
- Std 10

SECTION B

INSTRUCTIONS

Answer the following questions by drawing a cross (X) in the appropriate block, according to your experience.

1. Are you a qualified school guidance counsellor?

Yes No

2. Did you receive professional training as a school vocational guidance counsellor?

Yes No

3. Have you attended any enrichment course(s) in school vocational guidance during the last year?

Yes No

4. Is there any contact between your school and the commercial sector regarding school vocational guidance?

Yes No

5. If you answered "Yes" to question 4, please indicate the extent and nature of the contact.

.....
.....
.....

6. Does your school receive career information brochures from the commercial sector?

Never
Monthly
Annually
Only when requested

7. Do you invite visitors from the commercial sector to school, to provide pupils with career prospects?

Yes No

8. Do you arrange excursions for pupils to obtain commercial career information?

Yes No

9. Have you ever organised any career exhibition at your school?

Yes No

10. Do you have counselling sessions with pupils to assist them with career choices in commerce?

Yes No

11. Do you motivate pupils to select a career in commerce?

Provide reasons for your line of action on question 11.

.....

.....

.....

SECTION C

INSTRUCTIONS

For the following questions, mark a cross (X) in the block of your choice on the 3-point scale according to your feeling about the appropriate response.

1. I have a positive attitude towards school vocational guidance.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

2. I think that school vocational guidance receives the necessary support from:

Principals

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

Teachers

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

Guidance teachers / counsellors

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

Pupils

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

Parents

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

PTAs

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

SRCs

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

3. I think that school guidance teachers contribute to the vocational choices pupils make.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

4. I think that school vocational guidance as a subject is an advantage to the pupil.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

5. I am completely aware of the aims of the school vocational guidance curriculum.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

6. I am involved in the identification of pupils' vocational needs.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree
	—	

7. I think that the commercial sector is a major creator of future employment for my pupils.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

8. I am confident that the field of commerce can provide a real future for my pupils.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

9. I feel assured that more job opportunities will emerge from the commercial sector in the near future.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

10. My pupils will have the best chance to prosper in their lives by pursuing a career in commerce.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

11. The commercial sector provides lucrative incentives to attract pupils into that career.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

12. Most of the wealth success stories emerge from humble career beginnings in commerce.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

13. The commercial sector provides a wide variety of career opportunities.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

14. Pupils with different aptitudes, intelligence levels and interests have a fair chance of securing a career in commerce.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

15. On-the-job training is provided in most commercial careers.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

16. Where necessary, workers in the commercial sector who show the initiative to progress, are sent for further, higher-level training.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

17. Most careers in commerce offer the opportunities for career growth, promotion and advancement.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

18. Careers in commerce provide opportunities for employees to become entrepreneurs and thereby be masters of their own future.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

19. The wealth of the nation is created by the commercial sector.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

20. There is a better chance of a pupil securing a career in commerce than in any other employment sector in our country.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

21. I think that the vocational guidance counsellor can be a major influence in guiding the pupil to a career in commerce.

Agree	Uncertain/Neutral	Disagree

Thank you for completing the Questionnaire!