THE RATIONALE AND IMPLEMENTATION OF VOCATIONAL THEORIES AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL

by 580

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DEDICATION

This paper is dedicated to my husband, Charles, who has so generously and unselfishly provided the opportunity for me to continue my education.

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CHAPTER I

THE INTRODUCTION

In the year 1909 Frank Parsons of Boston, Massachusetts, published a book entitled, <u>Choosing a Vocation</u>, which emphasized matching the person to his environment. This publication marked the beginning of the vocational guidance movement. The public assumed responsibility for vocational development of American youth in 1917 when Congress passed the Smith-Hughes Act which enabled the states to provide vocational education at the secondary school level.

Since that time many vocational theories have been developed and volumes have been published regarding the problems of vocational choice and vocational decisions. The theories have been developed with respect to how individuals make their career choices and decisions; some are only "arm-chair" theories while others are built on research.

It has become apparent during the past decade that the need for guidance and counseling at the elementary school level is an urgent one. To satisfy this need, Congress amended the National Defense Education Act in 1964 to provide assistance to the states in setting up and maintaining a guidance program in elementary schools. Among other objectives of guidance at this level is vocational development.

CHAPTER II

THE PROBLEM AND CLARIFICATION OF TERMS USED

While the young child is not yet concerned about his career, he nevertheless is interested in the world of work and often expresses a choice of an occupation even in his pre-school years. This vocational choice is presumably only a fantasy choice, but it points to an early developmental program of readiness for future choices and decisions.

One of the traditions of the United States is that an individual has the right to choose his own vocation. To prepare a child to choose a vocation wisely is not an easy task.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

The problem to be considered in this report is the rationale and implementation of vocational theories at the elementary school level. The body of the report consists of (1) a review of the major theories of vocational development, (2) the implications of these theories for elementary school guidance, and (3) suggestions to implement the broad objectives of vocational guidance at the elementary school level.

The Purpose of the Study

This study was made to focus attention on the value of school's providing a program for vocational development of elementary school youngsters. Studies indicate that an individual's vocational choices are determined by the breadth of his experiences and the attitudes which he develops during the process of growing up. If a child is to be ready to make a tentative vocational choice at the junior high and secondary school level, he must understand himself. He must know his own wants and needs, and he must know about the world of work and the opportunities which are available to him.

The role of guidance in providing the experiences and activities which help to attain a realistic understanding of self and the interaction with environment needs to be defined. Guidance as a coordinating agency must provide a practical, workable approach to the vocational development of a child which can help him to achieve his life goals and assume the responsibilities of citizenship in contributing to the nation's economy.

II. CLARIFICATION OF TERMS USED

Fantasy Choice

Fantasy choice is defined as the translations of simple needs and impulses into occupational goals. Fantasy choices are often unrealistic in terms of abilities and talents; they are nevertheless real choices to the child. ²

Guidance

The concept of guidance is an essential part of the total school program and is concerned with determining and providing for the development of the child. It includes the organized effort of all significant

¹Merle M. Ohlsen, <u>Guidance Services in the Modern School</u> (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1955), p. 341.

²Don C. Dinkmeyer (ed.), <u>Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary</u> School (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1968),p. 338.

adults who are important in this development. It is an integrated, interrelated, and cooperative component of the total educational experience in the life of the child. Group guidance refers to any phase of the guidance or personnel program carried on with groups of individuals rather than between counselor and counselee in a face-to-face interview. 3

Self Concept

The self or the self concept is the person's inner world of ideas, attitudes, values, and commitments—the way he sees himself, and feels about himself (all the meanings he has attached to the word "I").4

Tentative Choice

In the field of occupations tentative choices are based on information one has about his capacities, interests, and values.⁵ The tentative choice may or may not be the ultimate vocational choice, but it is a choice which is made to "try on and see how it fits." It can and often does become a realistic choice.

Vocational Choice

Vocational choice is a series of choices which an individual makes as he progresses through the developmental stage of maturation; the ultimate goal is achieving vocational maturity.

³Margaret E. Bennett, <u>Guidance and Counseling in Groups</u>, 2nd Ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1963), p. 5.

⁴Ruth Strong, Helping Your Child Develop His Potentialities (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1955), pp. 23-27.

⁵Dinkmeyer, op. cit., p. 338.

Ohlsen, op. cit., p. 346.

Vocational Development

Vocational Development is one aspect of an individual's general development, as is intellectual development, social development, physical development, and emotional development. All have distinctive characteristics and common characteristics; all start early in life and continue all through life. 7

Vocational Maturity

Vocational maturity is linkened to mental maturity and denotes the degree of development which can be described in terms of behavior with which one copes with tasks of the particular life stages.⁸

⁷Donald E. Super, <u>The Psychology of Careers</u> (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 185.

⁸<u>Ibid</u>., p. 186.

CHAPTER III

THEORIES OF VOCATIONAL CHOICE

Many attempts have been made to find a rational explanation and some basis for understanding how and why a person chooses an occupation. There is some evidence to support all these attempts; however, there is no conclusive evidence which supports any one theory.

Most authorities agree that it is not possible to match people to occupations by the sole means of tests. Most will also agree that occupational choice is not a single decision, but that it is a number of decisions which are interwoven with the many facets of one's life. Most will agree also that making vocational choices and decisions is a developmental process which occurs over a period of time. These are some of the points of agreement.

Differences seem to center around the what, why, how, and when of vocational planning. What are the factors which influence vocational choice? Why and how does a person choose a particular occupation? When does one become concerned about and interested in the world of work? In the hope of finding plausible explanations to these questions about vocational development, a review of current theories was presented.

I. GINZBERG'S THEORY

In an article, "Toward a Theory of Occupational Choice,"

¹Eli Ginzberg, "Toward a Theory of Occupational Choice", Occupations, 30:491-494, April, 1952.

Ginzberg and his associates hypothesized that the choice of an occupation is a series of mental patterns which reflect a decision made over a period of years. They protested theories which attempted to explain vocational choices as mere accidents or impulses and those which placed exaggerated emphasis on psychological tests of aptitudes and interests even though many of these considered the reality factors in the person's environment. A factor which seemed to be lacking in this latter theory was the inattention to the person's values and goals. It was Ginzberg's belief that one's values and goals were the link between his present activities and his future objectives.

Development of the Theory

In attempting to formulate a theory of vocational choice, Ginzberg and his associates, S. W. Ginsburg, S. Axelrad, and J. L. Herma, ² conducted research in the area of human resources. They felt that instead of a breach between social and psychological forces there was a link. Their conviction was that there was a compatibility between the social sciences, psychology, and psychiatry which should be researched to discover how one makes a vocational choice.

Research was begun during the depression when individuals who wanted to work were not able to find employment. Frustrations of those who were employed and the waste of talents and abilities were noted. In addition to these obvious results, Ginzberg and his colleagues

²Ginzberg, <u>Ibid</u>.

become aware of the effect work had on the interactions among people and on the personalities of individuals. Their research continued with a study of occupational choice and how human resources were conserved. This latter study concentrated on an analysis of talents and performance; relations between an individual's handicaps and performance; changes which were occurring in ways of thinking, living, and working. The framework for the development of a theory of vocational choice which embraced the fields of the social sciences and the psychological disciplines was established.

It seemed apparent that guiding an individual toward a vocational choice was hampered by the lack of a theory or by a poorly designed one. Much reliance had been placed on psychological tests of abilities or interest inventories. The question was, how much reliance was indicated? Although much research had been conducted, no theory had been developed which would explain the many factors that influence occupational decision-making. Some of these factors include one's own individuality, one's needs and values, one's environment, and the opportunities which are open. The assumption was made that occupational choice is the cumulative impact of the many facets of one's life and that it is a series of decisions which are made over a period of time.

Basic Elements of the Theory

A summation of the Ginzberg theory of vocational choice is that vocational choice is a process; the process is largely irreversible;

³Eli Ginzberg, W. S. Ginsburg, Sidney Axelrad, and J. L. Herma, Occupational Choice (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), pp. 185-98.

compromise is an essential aspect of every choice; the foundation for making the ultimate choice is based on one's values and goals.

A process. Ginzberg was one of the first to write about occupational choice as being a developmental process. According to his theory the developmental process begins at birth and may continue throughout a person's life. The individual passes through three periods in the process of deciding his vocation, each of these stages correlating with his maturation.

- 1. Fantasy choice is the period normally before age 11, when the child has the freedom of being what he wants to be--pilot, fireman, scientist, doctor, or astronaut. He need not consider his abilities or talents or whether the opportunities are available to him. His choices are impulsive, changeable, and often unrealistic to those concerned about him. To the child they are real. About the age of 11 he enters the next period.
- 2. Tentative choice usually takes place between the ages of 11 and 17. At the beginning of this period the child becomes aware of the fact that in the not-too-distant future he will need to choose a vocation. He begins to consider his talents, his abilities, his interests, and finally his values. The world of work and his involvement in it become increasingly interesting to him and his thinking is concentrated toward objectively appraising tentative choices on the basis of information about himself and the occupational world. Toward the end of the period he must make a vocational choice which fits his values and will allow him to reach his goals. Tentative choice involves four stages during which

choices are made on interests, capacities, and values. The last stage is a transition period from the tentative to the realistic period.

3. The realistic period is the time of exploration when an individual consciously acquaints himself with the alternatives available to him. He becomes aware that the social and economic structures are significant forces in achieving goals in life. He sees work as a vehicle through which he will adjust to his mature life.

The realistic period is also the stage of crystallization when the individual actually makes his vocational choice. The choice is based on reality and is crystallized when he dismisses other possible choices from his mind and concerns himself with preparing for the vocation he has chosen.

Irreversibility of choice. Ginzberg maintained that once the realistic vocational choice has been made and the individual starts the preparation for a vocation, it becomes increasingly difficult for him to change to a different one. A reason for this is that decisions are made as a result of previous experiences. In other words what we are, how we feel, how we react are all results of our previous life. There is no going back and starting our experiential life over.

The specialized program of study required to prepare for an occupation is a deterrent to changing one's occupation. As a person progresses in his educational studies it becomes most difficult, if not practically impossible, to change from one area of study to another; for instance, from medical to engineering. Other programs might require less of a challenge to change, an example would be a change from business to law.

When one is already established in a vocation, it is less easy to start a new vocational life.

In addition to the difficulty of changing from one course of study to another, there is also the emotional barrier which might and often does prevent a person from transferring from an occupation. If he is courageous enough to make a change, he risks society's disapproval.

Even though he might change because he feels he is not getting the satisfaction of his needs from the occupation, society sometimes puts the stamp of failure on such a person.

The investment of a large amount of both time and money to prepare for and establish oneself in a career is a prime factor in causing one to continue in a particular career rather than abandon it to take on a more personally satisfying one. It is often difficult or impossible to find the time or the money to move in another direction. This coupled with the social pressures which accompany such actions discourages many people from changing their occupational choices once they are made.

<u>A compromise</u>. Americans are fond of saying that America is a free country, that anyone has the opportunity to be what he wants to be; however, one must compromise between one's own interests, capacities, values, and opportunities. All people are endowed with certain mental abilities, personality characteristics. All are also a product of their backgrounds, and all have different opportunities available to them. To make a vocational choice one must compromise between what he wants to be and what is available for him to attain.

⁴Merle M. Ohlsen, <u>Guidance Services in the Modern School</u> (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1955), p. 335.

Evaluation of the Theory

Although there were many during the 1950's who were hypothesizing about how one chooses a vocation, Ginzberg and his colleagues⁵ were among the first to report on the research supporting the theory that vocational choice is a developmental process. That vocational choice is a developmental process is almost universally accepted today.

During an individual's occupational life he probably will change positions a number of times; this change might be within a particular vocational area or it might be a change to a different area. Each of these changes require that a decision be made. One's vocational development and the necessity to make decisions which will achieve his goals do not end when the student makes a choice of a vocation in high school or college. He needs to be capable of making wise choices and decisions all through his life. The premise that vocational development is a lifelong process is a valid one.

The three stages in the development of the theory have been well defined; however, the theory describes only some cases. All people do not pass through all stages. Some make only one realistic choice. It must also be recognized that some people never leave the fantasy stage. There is the "dreamer" who is always quitting his present job and starting his own business. He is thinking no more realistically than the child who plans to be an astronaut with no regard for the capabilities involved or the

⁵Don C. Dinkmeyer (ed.), <u>Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary</u> <u>School</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1968), p. 322.

⁶Roy B. Hackman, "The Problem of Vocational Choice in Vocational Guidance: An Essay," In Counseling and Guidance a Summary View, James F. Adams, (ed.) (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1965), pp. 233-247.

opportunities available in this occupation. If an individual understands and accepts the fact that each person progresses at his own rate and in his own way, much can be gained by recognizing and providing experiences to help the child as he matures.

Ginzberg has valid reasons to support the portion of his theory which deals with irreversibility of choice. It is true that previous experiences influence choice; certainly, previous life cannot be relived. On the other hand, new experiences can be provided in areas of interest. Contact with persons and new dimensions in living often counter-balance previous experiences and make changing easier. In the American society of today where change is so much a part of the existence, not as much social or emotional pressure is experienced by the person who wants to change as was formerly true. It must be assumed, also, that Ginzberg was referring to the professions and those occupations which require long periods of training when he spoke of the irreversibility of choice. 7 Many -- jobs require little or no training except that which is given on the job. 8 An individual can move from one occupation to another quite easily and often with an increase in pay and with greater satisfaction. It would appear that a change could be substantiated if it would enhance or maintain the self concept. Ginzberg's narrow view in this regard parallels that of the knowledge of middle-grade teachers who seem to be more informed about professional occupations than other types.9

⁷Robert Hoppock, <u>Occupational Information</u> (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957), p. 105.

^{8&}lt;sub>Ibid</sub>.

Walter M. Lifton, "Vocational Guidance in the Elementary School," The <u>Vocational Guidance Quarterly</u>, 8:79-81, Winter, 1959.

In making a vocational choice a compromise between what a person wants and what is available to him is sometimes necessary. Too much emphasis, however, on the hypothesis that vocational choice is a compromise can cause an unrealistic setting of goals. To achieve his goals a person needs to view his own endowments and his power to change or adjust to an environment. If an individual has successfully related to his environment in his early childhood, he will have tried out various roles and tested them for reality. By rejecting some and integrating others he will have learned as a child to choose the roles which suit him. The making of a vocational choice will not then be as brutal a choice as Ginzberg describes it to be.

The choice of an occupation is one way of saying to the world, "This is the way I am; this is how I want you to perceive me." Although Ginzberg's theory suggests that each person learn about himself, and his capabilities, and his interests, it apparently disregards the importance of the self concept in vocational development. Ginzberg gives the impression that vocational development is not intermeshed with the total development of the child. Although vocational development has distinct characteristics, it nevertheless must be viewed as part of the general development

¹⁰Donald E. Super, The Psychology of Careers (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 287.

Merle M. Ohlsen, <u>Guidance Services in the Modern School</u>
(New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1955), p. 335.

¹² Eli Ginzberg, W. S. Ginsburg, Sidney Axelrad, and J. L. Herma, Occupational Choice (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 185-198.

and emotional development.

II. HOPPOCK'S THEORY

The basis of Robert Hoppock's theory 13 was that one chooses an occupation to satisfy his needs. Needs are an ever-changing entity. What one needs today is not necessarily his need for tomorrow. A very young man might feel a need for adventure, whereas a more mature young man may need a more stable existence to satisfy his desire to have a family life. A person who is having trouble finding a job will tackle any job in order to be fed when he is hungry; however, when his hunger need has been satisfied, he will seek out a more satisfying job which will fulfill not only his psychological need but his emotional needs as well.

Basic Elements of the Theory

Hoppock presented his theory in the form of ten statements. Dinkmeyer 14 summarized these statements:

- 1. Occupations are chosen to satisfy basic needs.
- Choice begins as soon as the child becomes aware that occupations may meet some of his needs.
- 3. Choices depend on what the child feels he wants and the information he has about himself and the opportunities which are available to him.

There are a number of factors which affect vocational choice. One of these factors is the economic factor which many times dictates the amount of time and money which can be invested before one has to begin earning a

¹³Robert Hoppock, Occupational Information (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957), p. 74-85.

¹⁴Don C. Dinkmeyer (ed.), <u>Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary</u> School (New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., 1968), pp. 309-10.

living. The economic state of the country sets the stage somewhat in the number and nature of employment opportunities which are available at the time one is employable.

Education is a great factor in influencing occupational choice.

Through contact with other social groups, particularly at the college and often at the high school level, a student identifies with a new social group. A student becomes aware of the social and economic needs which can be met by a choice of occupations. Education introduces students to new and different occupations, encourages or discourages their interest in them, and through specific activities provides try-out experiences by which they can anticipate success or failure in a category of occupations.

Psychological factors influence vocational choice by helping the person to know himself; to assess his abilities; to be aware of his limitations, aptitudes, and interests. He can perceive his own needs and can anticipate what he must do to satisfy them. He can view opportunities realistically. Hopefully he brings these into focus and chooses an occupation which fits his needs pattern.

One of the sociological factors which influence occupational choice is the cultural pattern in which a person is reared in addition to the social group with which he currently identifies. As a result some occupations may be excluded or unacceptable to an individual. Many jobs require social skills or contacts which make a certain job a preferred one. An employer might prefer employees of a certain religion, nationality, sex, or race. All of these factors influence vocational choice and need to be considered.

The Theory in Operation

A theory is valueless unless it is operational. Needs and values are varied and complex. The factors which influence vocational choice are many. A theory of occupational choice must offer plausible, acceptable principles for its operation within its framework.

Understanding needs. If we accept the fact that a person chooses an occupation to satisfy his needs, we must then try to understand what his needs are and attempt to help him to relate these needs to his life. The important part is that his goals be attuned to his needs at the moment. The child in the fantasy stage has perhaps a need to feel important; to him a fireman is an important person. He chooses an occupation with which he is familiar and it is a logical choice for him.

The adolescent chooses the occupation of his current hero for he feels the need to identify with someone outside his family. This is one of the signs of maturity. Even though the choice may not parallel his aptitudes or talents, it satisfies the student's desire to stand alone.

By understanding the relation between emotional needs and vocational choices, we may understand better why a person with a great talent in music does not choose music as a vocation. He may value being a good husband and father more than being a musician who is frequently away from home and perhaps has odd hours and possibly an insecure future.

Relating to a self concept. Hoppock wrote that self concepts are needs. If a person views himself realistically, he will choose an occupation accordingly. Perceiving himself as an inferior person, he takes a menial job and often one which is beneath his capabilities. Occasionally,

one chooses an occupation to deny his own concept of self--such is the person who chooses a job above his capabilities so that he will be more like his ideal self.

Explaining choices. It might appear that a choice is an illogical one or that it does not coincide with abilities. However, the choice fills an emotional need of the person. Until he can find a different vocation or job or another satisfying emotional outlet, he will continue in his present setting.

Some people never make a conscious vocational choice. There are the Mozart's who play the piano at four, compose music at seven and find their career more or less chosen for them. Some never find an occupation which meets their needs. Frequently, a vocational choice is not made until a job is offered. In this instance, however, it would appear that general knowledge of self and of the occupation will result in a wise decision in accepting or refusing the offered position.

To satisfy a need for safety, some people accept and hold a steady, uninteresting job. All people are not ambitious. They might want only to make a moderate living, raise a family, and "enjoy life."

In an analysis of their situation, even these people make a vocational choice. They may want a job in sales, in the automotive field, or in a factory which will merely provide the means to attain the truly valued aspects of living.

Hoppock's theory in its most basic form was that "occupations are chosen to fit needs." As has been shown in the foregoing discussion, the ramifications of that simple statement contradict its simplicity, A need

can be satisfied in many ways. A vocation can be the all-important activity which satisfies a need or it may be only a means to satisfy a greater need.

Evaluation of the Theory

There is great support for the need theory and it is important that a person act in ways which will satisfy his needs. Defining a need and then discovering ways in which it can be satisfied is for the most part a complex action.

Needs are not always based on a clear understanding of the self or a realistic approach to the situation. Many needs are quite superficial and relatively unimportant. Jones 15 used the illustration that one might feel a need to own a Cadillac to "keep up with the Joneses" but a real-istic understanding of ourselves and our financial situation may make us be willing to settle for a used Volkswagen. Based on Hoppock's explanation of his theory, the conclusion is that his theory is based on satisfaction of basic needs.

In relating the satisfaction of needs to vocational choice, one must do so in its proper perspective. In the ten original statements of his theory and in the explanations which follow, Hoppock made it clear that occupational choice is not a simple decision. It involves knowledge of the self, information about occupations, and an understanding of the satisfaction of needs through occupations. 16

¹⁵Arthur J. Jones, <u>Principles of Guidance</u>, (5th ed.) (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963), p. 32

¹⁶Robert Hoppock, Occupational Information (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957), p. 74-75.

Hoppock appeared to be concerned only with vocational choice, not vocational development. He did not appear to be interested in the period which precedes making the choice. The conclusion is reached that the theory begins functioning tentatively during adolescence and fully at late adolescence and maturity.

III. ROE'S THEORY

Anne Roe's theory had great implications for the elementary schools since she believed that occupational choice is a developmental program and not a single choice situation. 17 She emphasized early experiences as determiners of vocational choice 18, where, the psychological climate in which a child is raised causes him to develop certain needs, interests, and values which influence his choice of occupations. 19

Basic Elements of the Theory

Dr. Roe based her theory in part on Maslow's hierarchy of needs; however, she was most concerned with what she called the higher order of needs.

The need factor in occupations. Separating Maslow's needs into two parts, Dr. Roe called the two new groups the lower order needs and the higher order needs. Lower order needs begin with the physiological needs of

¹⁷Anne Roe & Marvin Siegelman, <u>The Origin of Interests</u> (Washington, D.C.: American Personnel & Guidance, 1964), p. 4.

¹⁸ Anne Roe, "Early Determinants of Vocational Choice," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 4:212-217, Fall, 1957.

¹⁹ Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956), p. 253.

hunger and thirst and progress to feelings of security and belonging. All of these needs plus those of feeling important and respected can be satisfied by working. Not until these lower order needs are satisfied, however, does the person have the capacity to seek information, understanding, beauty, and self-actualization, which Roe called the higher order needs. Concerning herself with the higher order needs she concluded that early experiences determine the pattern of the psychic energy—the eventual result is that the needs are primarily unconscious ones. The vocational field which is chosen reflects the intensity and organization of these needs and determines the direction the motivation will take. 20

Classification of occupations. To facilitate matching persons with occupations, Dr. Roe has provided a classification of occupations (see Table I), 21 which lists categories of jobs by groups of activity and by levels of performance and personal involvement. As can be seen from the table, this classification divides occupations into eight broad groups. The groups tend to be self-explanatory in that the names of the groups spell out the activity. Examples of service positions are social service and domestic workers (occupations of service to others), those in the organization groups are managerial positions in industry. Outdoor groups hold positions in agriculture, forestry, and similar occupations. Within each group levels of responsibility are arranged in descending order of responsibility assumed. Achievement within these levels is set by needs

²⁰Anne Roe, "Early Determinants of Vocational Choice," <u>Journal</u> of <u>Counseling Psychology</u>, 4:212-217, Fall, 1957.

American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964), p. 6.

TABLE I. ROE'S CLASSIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONS

	Groups		Levels
1.	Service	1.	Professional & Managerial 1
2.	Business Contact	2	Professional & Managerial 2
3.	Organizations	3	Semiprofessional, Small Business
4.	Technology	4.	Skilled
5.	Outdoor	5.	Semi-Skilled
6.	Science	. 6	Unskilled
7.	General Culture		
8.	Arts & Entertainment		

intensity. Interests, aptitudes, and values relate to each group of occupations as do interpersonal relationships.

According to Roe's theory persons in a group have common characteristics that distinguish them from members of other groups. As described above, an attempt has been made to show a relationship between personality factors and job adjustment.

The influence of early experiences. Life patterns are important. They are largely determined by the home situation and the interaction of the child with his parents. A father or mother may display acceptance of the child, avoidance of the child, or emotional concentration on the child. The climate in the early home life causes the child to be people-oriented or object-oriented. Referring to her classification of occupations one who is object-oriented would likely choose an occupation in a service group, a business contact, or in arts and entertainment.

Dr. Roe hypothesized that people of this orientation may have had warm and accepting parents. Early experiences in the home lead to the development of basic attitudes and capacities. 22

The role of interests. Research has shown that those in the same occupational group have congruent interests which are often quite different from those of other occupational groups. Therefore, interests are a major factor in vocational choice. Roe lamented the fact that personality theories do not deal with the study of interests in a way which could be

²² Ibid.

meaningful in a study of occupations.²³ Allport²⁴ stated that as an interest grows it develops a condition of tension which acts as an agent to select and direct whatever is related to the interest. Although the development of interests begins early in life, it appears that interests do not become stable until late adolescence.

The Theory in Operation

Much of Roe's theory was centered around satisfaction of needs with a concentration on higher order needs, a classification of occupations, and the importance of interests in the choice of an occupation.

It appeared that her theory is largely an effect rather than a cause. A child has warm, loving parents, so he seems likely to choose a peopleoriented career. Early familial atmosphere is influential in the choice of
a career. It is important then, to know a child's background in order to
help him choose a career. One would consult the classification of
occupations to ascertain which group and level of occupations would offer
the child the most satisfaction. A functional approach to placing this
theory in operation would be to study the child's background, provide experiences for him to develop occupational interests, help him to discover how
his needs may be satisfied through work, and then assist him in choosing
the occupational group and the level of his involvement to reach his
vocational goals.

²³Anne Roe & Marvin Siegelman, <u>The Origin of Interests</u> (Washington, D. C.: American Personnel & Guidance Association, 1964), p. 3, 4, 61.

²⁴Gordon W. Allport, Pattern and Growth in Personality (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967), p. 237.

Evaluation of the Theory

Dr. Roe's theory that a child's relationship with his parents greatly influences his choice of people-oriented or object-oriented occupations has not been proven. In fact, studies have produced negative results. In 1964 Roe and Siegelman²⁵ found that engineers reported warm, loving parents; this of course, is in direct contrast to Roe's theory. Another study made by Alden Utton²⁶ supported the hypothesis that people-oriented occupations were favored by those who had an altruistic love of people; object-oriented people favored occupations which were more object-or service-oriented. This finding, however, did not reveal that those who worked in people-oriented occupations would recall their early home environment as being warmer than those of object-oriented occupations. Other studies made by Switzer and others²⁷ also failed to support Roe's theory when they made a study of ministerial students and chemistry majors. It seems safe to say that childhood experiences do influence vocational choice ast they do all human development; however, the strength of the various factors--familial, genetic, social, or cultural--have not been measured. 28

²⁵Anne Roe & Marvin Seigelman, The Origin of Interests (Washington, D. C.: American Personnel Guidance Association, 1964), p. 105-139.

²⁶Alden Utton, "Recalling Parent-Child Relations as Determinants of Vocational Choice," <u>Journal of Counseling Psychology</u>, 9:49-53, Spring, 1962.

²⁷D. K. Switzer, A. E. Grigg, J. S. Miller, and R. K. Young, "Early Experiences and Occupational Choice," <u>Journal of Counseling Psychology</u>, 9:45-48, Spring, 1962.

²⁸Rhee Lyon; "Vocational Development and the Elementary School," <u>Elementary School Journal</u>, 66:368-76, April, 1966.

It is possible for occupations to be the medium for achieving both the lower order needs and the higher order needs. In research conducted by Hertzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman²⁹ it was concluded that dissatisfaction is felt by workers because of low pay, incompatibility with other workers, or lack of security which are the lower order needs. Even when these conditions were corrected, the workers were still not satisfied. Only by improving conditions which led to satisfaction of higher order needs were the workers satisfied. Examples of such higher order needs might be contentment on the job itself, type of recognition given to the workers, or the degree of involvement on the part of the worker. From these studies one might conclude that an occupation will probably not be the channel for one to achieve satisfaction when only the lower order of needs are satisfied. It is necessary that the higher order of needs be satisfied also.

People normally like to do what they can do well; abilities and interests show a high correlation. 30 Often a person learns a skill because he is required to do so. Frequently because of this requirement, he becomes absorbed in the activity which then ceases to be a conscious effort. Occurrences of this type are frequent during school life when a youngster is exposed to many areas. It is not an infrequent occurrence in occupational life. Thus, an ability turns into an interest. Interests are changing commodities even as abilities are—they become more stable as one matures and develops.

²⁹ F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, and B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959), p. 66.

³⁰Gordon W. Allport, Pattern and Growth in Personality (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967), pp. 235-236.

In summary, Roe's theory showed the relationship of needs to occupations; needs can be satisfied by occupations. The relationship between a parent and a child is important in the child's choice of an occupation. Roe devised a classification of occupations which arranged them in groups of activity and levels of responsibility. While the classification is a worthwhile attempt to integrate personality factors and job structure, many other factors are important. It is doubtful that a "single bi-polar factor" is adequate to explain how the individual makes his vocational choice.

IV. SUPER'S THEORY

The theory which Donald Super proposed is similar in some respects to the theory of Ginzberg; however Super proposed that a vocation is chosen to implement a self concept. The also included a pattern of vocational development which spans the entire list of the individual and is concerned with stages in this development. He maintained as Ginzberg did that this development is a lifelong process and is largely irreversible. Factors Leading to the Development of the Theory

Although counseling psychologists supposedly were aware in the early 1960's that studies had been reported linking the development of vocational interests to the implementation of the self concept, these writers completely ignored vocational choice and adjustment when they wrote about the self concept. The study by Wrenn of the self concept in counseling and that of

³¹Donald E. Super and others, <u>Career Development:</u> <u>Self</u>
<u>Concept Theory</u> (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963).
p. 1.

Strong and Feder which dealt with the measurement of the self concept failed to relate vocational interests to the self concept. Other psychologists, such as Tyler, Darley and Hagenah, Roe, and Super became most interested in the importance of work roles and the self concept. 32

The increased interest in personality as it relates to educational and vocational guidance has curbed the prewar emphasis of using tests to match persons and occupations. As more research is conducted, it becomes more essential that vocational guidance include experiences and activities to develop self knowledge.

Basic Elements of the Theory

Super described the basic elements of the self concept theory of vocational development thus, "the processes of formation, translation, and implementation of the self concept."33

<u>Self concept formation</u>. The formation of the self concept begins when the infant attempts to find his own identity as a person which, even though it resembles that of others, it is distinct to him. There are five phases in this development—exploration, self-differentiation, identification, role playing, and reality testing.³⁴

As the term implies, exploration is the period wherein one tries himself out--the baby plays with his toes, the young child writes a story.

³² Ibid., p. 1-7.

^{33&}lt;sub>Super</sub>, Ibid., 11.

³⁴Ib<u>id</u>., pp. 11-13.

The self is the object of this exploration. It grows and develops as the individual tries new methods or approaches.

The infant is aware of himself in contrast to his mother. As he grows older he notes the manner in which he behaves in ways that are different from others. This stage is the self-differentiation stage.

Being aware of the differences between himself and others the child imitates and strives to be like those whom he likes and admires. The boy-child identifies with his father who works and with other men whom he sees working; his conclusion is that men and work go together. The girl-child identifies with her mother and with other women who either do not work or who do not place great importance on their work. Thus the boy-child is more apt to base his identification on interests and aptitudes because he has had opportunities to identify with masculine figures who had varied interests and occupations.

When an individual identifies with others he is also playing a role, either in his imagination or in overt behavior. He attempts to see if the role fits, to test the role against how he sees himself.

As one plays the roles of identification, he assesses his abilities, interests, and talents in terms of the success or failures he experiences from the act. This will either confirm or contradict the individual's concept of himself in occupational roles. In other words, he is testing the role for reality as it relates to him.

Translation of self concept into occupational terms. The way that one translates his self concept into occupational goals may occur in several ways. First, in identifying with someone and subsequently playing

the role and testing it for reality, it is discovered that it does not fit; and it is discarded. Another time a person is cast in a role unexpectedly which leads to a feeling of rightness in terms of the self concept. Last, abilities which one possesses may correlate highly with those of a particular occupation. Discovery of this can cause a person to investigate the occupation and perhaps find it to be the one which would be enjoyed. As might be surmised from the above, the translation of self concepts into occupational terms is not usually a single act, but, like occupational development, ordinarily occurs slowly piece by piece. 35

Implementation of the self concept. The self concept is implemented when the person makes his vocational choice and prepares himself to take his place in the world of work. The choice is made as an individual learns to know himself through the process of self concept formation.

Even though there is no empirical research to wholly validate

Super's theory, enough research has been done to make it operational for those interested and concerned about vocational development. 36

Career Patterns and Life Stages

In the 1950's as others were writing about vocational development,

Super and his associates were making a study of career patterns and life

stages as related to vocational development. A career pattern is the

"occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of

³⁵ Super, <u>Ibid.</u>, p. 13.

³⁶ Ibid., pp. 13-14.

³⁷pp. 1-3.

trial and stable jobs."³⁸ The nature of the individual's career pattern is determined by his own individual characteristics, the socio-economic level in which he is raised, and the opportunities to which he is exposed. These "determinants" as Super called them also include the economic, occupational, and technological status of the country, and in particular, his geographical residence. Each person, because of his personal characteristics and the fact that each occupation has distinct characteristics, is able to choose from a variety of occupations the particular job in which he can implement the role he wishes to play.³⁹

The occupational role or the career pattern of a person is chosen in the context of the general development of the individual. Super outlined the following stages in this development. 40

Growth stage: from birth to age 14

Exploration stage: from ages 15-24

Establishment stage: from ages 25-44

Maintenance stage: from ages 45-64

Decline stage: from age 65 on

Super suggested developmental tasks in each stage of the developmental process. The individual must become proficient in one stage before he can proceed to the next stage.

³⁸Donald E. Super and Others, <u>Vocational Development</u>: <u>A Framework</u> for <u>Research</u> (New York: Bureau of <u>Publications</u>, <u>Teachers College</u>, <u>Columbia University</u>, 1957), pp. 14-15.

³⁹ Arthur J. Jones, <u>Principles of Guidance</u> (5th Ed.) (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963), pp. 167-68.

⁴⁰ Super, op. cit., pp. 40-41.

The Theory in Operation

Super conceived vocational development as one aspect of the general development of an individual.⁴¹ It is included with intellectual development, emotional development, and social development. All are distinct, but all have common characteristics and none can be separated from the development of the whole personality.

As a personality develops, a self concept evolves. This occurs as a result of the acceptance or rejection of roles which each person plays to "find himself." Personal factors (intelligence, physical skills, attitudes, and interests) and aspects of the situation in which the person finds himself also contribute to the evolution of the self concept. Broad situational factors such as economy of the nation and industrial-ization will also influence vocational development.

The individual interacts with his environment in determining vocational interest. People respond differently to situations and experiences, and their liking or disliking is a result of satisfactory or unsatisfactory dealing with their environment. The reactions are different because each person is different to begin with. 42

<u>Life stages</u>. As the individual develops his own individuality and is able to define his own concept of self, he passes through stages of development. Although these stages can be viewed in terms of vocational development, they are also applicable to all aspects of life and living. 43

⁴¹Donald E. Super <u>Psychology of Careers</u> (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 185.

⁴² James F. Adams, Counseling and Guidance (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1965), p. 213.

^{43&}lt;sub>Super, op. cit., p. 72.</sub>

For instance, one "explores" to find a mate; he "establishes" and "maintains" a home.

Growth stage (birth to age 14) is the time when the child role-plays and is concerned with his needs in the sub-fantasy stage and in later substages with his interests and capacities.

Exploration stage (age 15-24) is the time when the young person participates in many activities, plays many roles, tests them for reality during the tentative, transition, and trial substages.⁴⁵

During the establishment stage (ages 25-44) the individual feels a tendency to settle down. During the last stages of the exploration stage, he probably obtains a job. Many persons quit these first jobs and look for more satisfying ones. After a few such trials he becomes established and begins to seek stabilization and advancement.⁴⁶

Maintenance (ages 45-64), as the term implies, is the time in

life when one seeks to maintain his self concept, his "place in the world."

He has usually chosen a career and is established in it. He usually does

not feel inclined to explore or try a new one. 47

During the declining stage (ages 65 and on) the individual typically is concerned with getting ready to retire and eventually does so. He curtails his activities and begins to taper off. If a person has

⁴⁴ Donald E. Super and others, <u>Vocational Development</u>: <u>A</u>
<u>Framework for Research</u> (New York: Bureau of Publications,
<u>Teachers College</u>, Columbia University, 1957), p. 40.

⁴⁵ Donald E. Super, The Psychology of Careers (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), pp. 80-128.

⁴⁶Ibid., pp. 129-146.

⁴⁷op. <u>cít</u>., pp. 147-153.

adjusted well in the past, he is likely to view himself realistically in this stage also and integrate his new percepts into the concept he now has of himself. 48

Synthesizing process. Ginzberg wrote of vocational choice as a compromise; Super maintained that the better word is synthesis. 49

Super called attention to the fact that the individual must synthesize his personal needs and his resources on the one hand and the economic and social demands and resources of the culture on the other hand. In other words, it is an interaction of an individual and his environment. If this interaction is at a conscious level, it helps to develop the self concept. If it is at the unconscious level, the person is not aware of what is taking place. Therefore, he does not perceive of himself in the light of the interaction.

The interaction occurs as the individual learns to meet his needs, satisfies his values, finds outlets for his interests, and uses his aptitudes. As he plays and takes roles, he tests them against reality; then he either accepts or rejects them. What he accepts is synthesized and becomes a part of his self concept. Through the process of synthesis he constantly, beginning with infancy, learns to evaluate himself in terms of his environment. Viewed in this light, compromise takes place only when reality testing occurs later than it should and the self has not adequately related to society in its earlier life.

⁴⁸Ibid., pp. 154-161.

⁴⁹ Ibid., pp. 261-289.

Evaluation of the Theory

Super developed his theory very completely and thoroughly. The life stages he listed cover the life span of a person which seems realistic since one does not at any one moment make a vocational choice nor does vocational development stop when the choice has been made.

Vocational development is, as Super stated, a part of the general development of a person's life. It does not occur as a separate entity but occurs simultaneously and is intermeshed with development in other areas.

Super's greatest contribution seemed to be that he saw vocational development as a process of developing and implementing the self concept. His explanation of how the self is formed and translated into occupational terms was clear and appears to be workable. The emphasis he placed on the playing of roles as a means to test for reality and subsequently implementing the self concept was a creditable one and has received much interest and approval from others in the field of individual development.

In an article in the American Psychologist in 1953, Super ⁵⁰ wrote that vocational development is a compromise process. It appeared he had a change of heart in 1956 when he wrote the article "Vocational Development: The Process of Compromise or Synthesis"⁵¹. In this latter article he stated that vocational development is only a compromise if the individual does not begin his reality testing as a very young child as he first interacts with his environment. This appears logical since if one role plays and tests roles for reality as he develops his self concept, he will learn to

⁵⁰Donald E. Super, "A Theory of Vocational Development", American Psychologist, 8:185, May, 1953.

⁵¹Donald E. Super, "Vocational Development: The Process of Compromise or Synthesis," <u>Journal of Counseling Psychology</u>, 3:249-253, Winter, 1956.

synthesize these learnings as the interaction takes place.

In summary Super's theory appeared to be the most all-inclusive, well-developed, and well-defined practical approach to vocational development that has been presented.

CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

In the modern world all, with few exceptions, are expected to contribute. It is essential that everyone, again with few exceptions, work to support himself and his family. 1 That is the American way of life.

If one is to make a satisfying adjustment to the world of work, and to life in general, he must make wise choices and decisions as to what kind of work he will do. Wise decisions presuppose that occupations will be chosen which are in keeping with aptitudes, interests, and values. This is not a single decision, a decision of the moment. It comes as a result of a developmental process which begins early in childhood. Elementary aged children need to prepare to make these important decisions. Dysinger says that "Vocational readiness is as valid a concept as reading readiness."²

Being concerned about vocational readiness and vocational development does not imply that elementary schools supplement their already bursting curriculums to include a new course of study, "Vocational Development" or "Occupational Information." It does, however, suggest that vocational development be a concern for guidance at the elementary school level.

A vocational developmental program at the elementary school level does not assume that a child of this age can relate to his future

¹William H. Van Hoose, <u>Counseling in the Elementary School</u> (Itasca: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1968), p. 83.

²W. S. Dysinger, "Motivation and Vocational Guidance", Occupations, 29:198-201, December, 1950.

development. Teachers will affirm, however, that the child is interested in the world of work³ and accepts enthusiastically the occupational life with which he is familiar. This interest and enthusiasm should be nurtured and built upon.

These factors can be the basis for broadening the child's views about work and seeing himself in relation to areas of work. The child must be provided experiences and activities to form his self concept and translate it into occupational goals. He must become aware of his needs and how his choice of an occupation can help him to satisfy these needs.

In summary, the general implications for vocational development at the elementary level are these:

- 1. Choosing a vocation is a developmental process which begins in early childhood.
- Elementary curriculums do not have to be revised or a new course added to show concern with vocational development.
- 3. Young children are interested in occupations and are receptive to learning about them.
- 4. The core of vocational development is learning to know oneself.

³Goldie Ruth Kaback, "Occupational Information for Groups of Elementary School Children," <u>The Vocational Guidance Quarterly</u>, 14:163-68, Spring, 1966.

CHAPTER V

IMPLEMENTATION OF VOCATIONAL ORIENTATION IN THE ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM

Vocational development in the elementary school might be implemented by a combination of instruction, individual study, and exploratory experiences. Whatever the method, it should relate to the child's world as he views it.

Most authorities include vocational guidance as an integral unit of the guidance program at the elementary school level. Since vocational development has its beginning in early childhood, vocational orientation should begin at the time the child first enters school and continue throughout the time he is in school. Students need more information than that directly related to the work itself. They need to learn about themselves in relation to work and how to choose an occupation which will lead to the kind of life they desire. The program at the elementary level is not one of making a vocational choice but it is rather one of planfulness, of preparation to make many educational and vocational decisions. Experiences and activities must be included so

¹Don C. Dinkmeyer (ed.), <u>Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary School</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, Inc., 1968), p. 311.

²Donald E. Kitch, "Vocational Guidance--How and When," <u>Educational Leadership</u>, 10:364-69, March, 1953.

Margaret E. Bennett, <u>Guidance and Counseling In Groups</u>, 2nd Ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963), p. 271

D. E. Super and P. L. Overstreet, The Vocational Maturity
Of Ninth-Grade Boys (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers
College, Columbia University, 1960), p. 152.

that the child can develop a readiness to make wise decisions.

Unless the program is a planned, defined, and coordinated procedure in the school, it will not attain the objectives of a vocational guidance program. In addition, it must be formulated, established, and maintained with the sanction and cooperation of the administration. The combined effort of staff members and others in the community will be required to reach the objectives of a vocational guidance program.

Objectives of the Program

General objectives of a vocational guidance program at the elementary school level might include:

- 1. To assist the child in developing a realistic self concept.
- To help the child discover and explore his own aptitudes, talents, and interests.
- 3. To stimulate and encourage the child's natural curiosity about work.
 - 4. To increase the child's knowledge about occupations.
 - 5. To develop in the child wholesome attitudes toward work.

Most of these objectives can be achieved by incorporating them into the regular classroom activities.

Developing the self concept. The formation of the self concept is begun at an early age. How the child feels about himself and how he feels others view him influence his behavior and affect the adjustment he makes in his interactions with his environment. The child's family life, the socio-economic status of his family, the educational process, and his

social interactions all affect the image the child has of himself.

To help the child develop a positive self concept the people in his environment should accept him as he is and evaluate him according to his own background. This can be done by listening to him and attempting to understand how he feels. He should be viewed in a positive way, his good qualities emphasized, and asked to do tasks which are within his capabilities to perform. Activities which allow the child to play many roles will help him develop skills to select the ones which are right for him. The child should be given practice in setting realistic goals which he can attain and feel successful. As the child learns about himself, he can realize that he is a unique person who has specific talents, abilities, and interests. He needs training in making decisions, planning for himself, and assuming responsibilities for his behavior.

Discovering and exploring aptitudes, talents, and interests. A child needs to relate his own capabilities to jobs and future goals. He must realize that each person has his own specialties and interests and that each person should use them in the way which will bring him the most satisfaction.

If the school program provided a variety of activities and experiences, the child will have the opportunity of developing new and undiscovered aptitudes, talents, and interests. The school testing program normally includes tests of aptitudes, achievements, and intelligence. The interpretation of test results in a meaningful and definitive way can enable a child and his parents to be aware of his strengths and weaknesses.

Children can also be helped to recognize their own strengths and weaknesses by asking themselves such questions as, Where do I do my best work? my poorest work? From what experiences do I get the most satisfaction? or, In what outside activities do I receive the most pleasure? 5

Occupations and jobs can be studied for answers to such questions as, What do people like best about their jobs? What do they like least? Are there jobs which you feel you would not enjoy doing? What special skills does the job require? and, What things can you do well?

Stimulating and encouraging an interest in work. The child normally has an interest in work when he enters the first grade. This natural interest and curiosity about work needs to be stimulated and encouraged, not stifled.

Schools and classroom libraries should contain books which give a realistic, interesting and relevant picture of all types of occupations at the child's level of understanding. Units of study which include as a primary objective the study of an occupation or those which indicate incidental attention to occupations can be made a part of the regular curriculum.

These fantasy choices should be treated seriously by those in the child's environment since they are real and important to the child. Opportunities for playing roles of the occupations of these choices should be provided. By testing these roles for reality the child should be able to select those which fit the image he has of himself.

⁵Rhee Lyon, "Vocational Development and the Elementary School," Elementary School Journal, 66:368-76, April, 1966.

⁶Merle M. Ohlsen, <u>Guidance Services</u> <u>in the Modern School</u> (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1955), p. 64.

<u>Increasing knowledge about work.</u> While a course in occupations is not recommended for elementary school curriculums, it is suggested that information about occupations be integrated into the existing program.

Many of the social studies units which are taught in the elementary school at the present time are occupation-oriented. An example of one of these types of units is the study of community helpers which is usually taught in the primary grades. Other units, such as those which study people of other lands, teach children how man works and relates to his environment. Most subjects offer opportunities for the alert teacher to increase a child's knowledge about work.

Reading materials and activities in the grades should not be limited to studies of the service occupations in the lower elementary grades and to studies of the professions in the middle grades. A variety of materials are available and should be provided for the child to explore. Teachers should be encouraged to become more knowledgeable about the many opportunities which are available in the world today.

<u>Developing attitudes toward work.</u> Promoting wholesome attitudes toward work implies more than verbalizing about the dignity of jobs.

Certainly there is nothing wrong with doing an honest job of any kind; however, to quite Arbuckle:

Talk about the dignity of all jobs, including that of the garbage man, probably means as little to a child as the suggestions that there is a relationship between that strange ingredient we call intelligence and successful performance as a surgeon....

The garbage man, incidentally, must be getting a bit sick of being used as the occupational example of a fellow who is really doing an honorable job, usually by teachers or writers who

would rather by dead than be a garbage man. 7

School experiences which demonstrate to the child that work can be pleasant foster a wholesome attitude toward work. An example of this might be a group activity in which the child is encouraged to choose a job which is interesting to him and within his abilities. The parallel can then

be drawn that one chooses an occupation according to his abilities and

In school as well as on the job each person must perform duties which may not be pleasant. To make doing jobs such as these as painless as possible, the child should be taught good work habits and study skills. By being helped to establish a pattern of doing his work in school efficiently and quickly, the child can learn that he can have leisure time to do the things he enjoys doing.

It is important for the child to be aware of the freedom a person has in making a vocational choice. Certainly he needs to consider his abilities when he thinks of possible vocational choices. He should also realize that there are many directions for him to take to achieve his goals. He need not feel negative about himself if he fails when proceeding along one path unless he can visualize no other way to achieve his goals. He should be encouraged to meet challenges and feel free to move in the direction that will enable him to satisfy his own concept of what he is or what he wants to become. 8

interests.

⁷Dugald S. Arbuckle, "Occupational Information in the Elementary School," The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 12:77-83, Winter, 1963-64.

⁸Ibid.

The child's attitude toward himself and different occupations is largely the result of parental influence. His vocational choices are determined to a great extent by the attitudes toward work which his parents have. Parents frequently instill in their children the attitude that they should attempt to rise above the economic level of the family, that graduating from college is the only pathway to success. They often motivate the child to base his vocational aspirations on escape from his present environment rather than attraction to a goal which will satisfy his needs and implement his self concept. 10 In a home where the parents have never been fully employed, the child is often brought up in the parent's own image. This is illustrated in the case of the seven-year old child who was prepared to do nothing but "stay at home like mother and get checks from the President each month."11 The guidance program should include provisions for parent conferences or group meetings so that parents can help their children in forming a realistic self concept and a wholesome attitude toward work. This will aid the child in selecting a vocation which will enable him to reach his own life goals.

Program Suggestions for Achieving Objectives.

Creative teachers and counselors can develop many programs which will help the child develop vocationally. Programs should be planned to fit the needs

⁹Anne Roe, "Early Determinants of Vocational Choice," <u>Journal</u> of <u>Counseling Psychology</u>, 4:212-217, Fall, 1947.

¹⁰Walter M. Lifton, "Social Forces and Guidance in Elementary Schools," The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 12:89, Winter, 1963-64.

¹¹Goldie Ruth Kaback, "Automation, Work, Leisure; Implication for Elementary Education," The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 13:202-205, Spring, 1965.

of the children involved and to utilize the facilities available locally.

The following are examples of programs which have been developed and used in a school situation.

School employment service. After hearing an employee of the United States Employment Service speak to them about his job, the fifth and sixth grades of a Detroit school decided to start a School Employment Service. The program was a part of the Developmental Career Guidance Project and the employees of the United States Employment Service assisted in developing and carrying out the objectives of the program.

An in-service training program was conducted to train "interviewers" and students developed application forms, job announcements, forms for replacement of jobs vacated, and a probationary form which was used for those "employees" who were late to work, wasted time on the job, or did not perform their duties properly. Jobs which were filled by the School Employment Service were senior and junior safety squad boys, audiovisual aids, library helpers, service squad helpers, auditorium assistants, and office helpers.

At the end of the school year the project was evaluated by the students and the faculty. Ninety per cent of the faculty felt the program was a good one and was worthwhile, 258 of 278 students were in favor of the program, and "pink slips" had to be given to only two percent of the job holders.

Unit on shelter. In the primary grades units are usually centered

¹²George E. Leonard and Ellen Stephens, "Elementary School Employment Service," The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 15:13-16, September, 1967.

around the home, the school, and the community. A pilot program was conducted in Elmwood Park, Illinois, in which the children studied about shelter. The children were in the third grade and the community is composed of upper-middle to middle class parents who were most interested in the program. 13

Children were shown a film strip of workers in the building trades and they decided to talk to workers in the community who were employed in these occupations. The interviews were taped for use in a report which was presented to the class.

The results of the program showed that the children had developed an awareness of adults as working people, they were able to perceive the advantages and disadvantages of different jobs, and they noted the relation of interest to employment and the enjoyment of working. The children learned the characteristics which were needed for each job and workers impressed them with the satisfaction they felt with doing work well. Because of the relation to reality, the interest was high among the students.

Class meetings. In his most recent book, Schools Without Failure 14,

Dr. William Glasser describes the class meeting type of discussion group.

Meetings of this type could provide the opportunity for students to discuss a subject of importance and relevance to them. It appears that class meetings could be a useful method in vocational development and in personal-

¹³John A. Wellington and Nan Olechowski, "Attitudes Toward the World of Work in Elementary Schools," The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 14:160-162, Spring, 1968.

William L. Glasser, <u>Schools Without Failure</u> (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1969), pp. 122-186.

social relationships in the classroom.

The students and the leader arrange themselves in a tight circle and the students should be made to feel that this is a time when they can express themselves freely. The child's manner of speaking or his choice of words should not be of concern. The leader who is usually the class-room teacher or the counselor is a part of the group. He attempts to keep the discussion going, to help clarify the child's thinking, and to ask questions or suggest topics which the children can discuss. The children also might discuss areas which are relevant to them. Appropriate questions which the leader might ask are:

- 1. If each of you had a million dollars right now, a sum which would be ample for the rest of your life, would you continue to go to school?
 - 2. Do all rich men's sons avoid work?
- 3. What would you do if you were the teacher (or a bricklayer, or the mayor, or the President)?
- 4. If you could do anything you wanted to do, what kind of a hobby would you have?

One of the values which can be derived when the class meeting technique is used is that children learn to express how they feel and they will see how they interact with other people. Problems relating to the children can be solved by the group, thereby developing in the children the responsibility for their own behavior. A further value can be that through free discussion the child's thinking will be clarified.

The programs described above are only samples of the ways which the vocational guidance program in a school can accomplish the objectives of the school program.

CHAPTER VI

THE CONCLUSION

The emphasis in this report was the vocational development of the elementary school child. Four major theories of vocational development were reviewed in an attempt to formulate a theory of vocational development at the elementary school level. The implications which these theories presented for the elementary school guidance program were surveyed and suggestions for implementing a program of vocational development at the elementary school level were included.

The theories of Eli Ginzberg and Donald Super were similar in that both viewed vocational choice as a developmental process which is accomplished as an individual passes through stages in his development. Ginzberg stated that until age seven the child is in the fantasy choice stage and that this stage is followed by the tentative and realistic choice stages. Ginzberg was of the opinion that once a vocational choice is made, it is largely irreversible and an individual must compromise between what he wants to be and what is possible for him to become. Super concluded that the development begins in infancy when the child begins developing his self concept and continues on through the entire life cycle including the years of retirement. As the child searches for his own identity, he plays different roles and tests them against the image he has of himself. He eventually chooses an occupation which implements his self concept. As the person's concept of himself changes, he may and often does change occupations.

Anne Roe felt that the experiences which a person has in his childhood are important in determining vocational choice. The psychological
climate in which a child is raised determines the interests, needs, and
values that influence vocational choice. She also proposed a classification
of occupations, the use of which facilitates vocational choice by relating
personality factors to job adjustment.

Robert Hoppock based his theory on the satisfaction of needs as a reason for choosing an occupation. The individual learns about himself and about occupations and seeks a career which he feels will satisfy his needs. Factors which affect this choice are the economic, educational, psychological, and sociological factors.

From a study of the theories of Ginzberg, Super, Roe, and Hoppock, it was concluded that the guidance program of the elementary school must include plans for the vocational development of its pupils. Students need to learn about themselves and their abilities, talents, interests, and needs. They must be able to see how they relate to work and how the choice of an occupation can lead to the kind of life they desire.

Objectives were proposed for the implementation of a program of vocational development and suggestions were made for achieving these objectives. The statement was made that the program must be a planned, defined, and coordinated procedure in the school and needs the sanction and cooperation of the administration to achieve the goals of the program. A combined effort of school personnel and people in the community is needed to effect and carry out the program plans.

In summary, the theories reviewed seem to indicate that vocational development at the elementary school level is a necessary part of the

guidance program. Children who attend elementary schools need to prepare to make the educational and vocational decisions which they will be required to make as they enter the junior high school.

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THE RATIONALE AND IMPLEMENTATION OF VOCATIONAL THEORIES AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL

by

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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One of the objectives of the educational program of the modern school system is to prepare children for a career and to help them achieve their life goals. Early authorities attempted to match individuals with jobs or were concerned only with assisting an individual in choosing a career. More recent writers viewed vocational choices and decisions as a developmental process which begins early in life and continues throughout the life span.

Many theories have been developed to explain how one makes a vocational choice and achieves vocational maturity. The theories of Eli Ginzberg, Robert Hoppock, Anne Roe, and Donald Super have been reviewed in an attempt to define the processes of vocational development. They were evaluated and considered as to their applicability to a program of vocational development at the elementary school level.

The theory of Eli Ginzberg pioneered the hypothesis that vocational choice is a developmental process which occurs throughout one's whole life. He envisioned three stages in this process, the stages of fantasy choice, tentative choice, and realistic choice. According to Ginzberg the choice is largely irreversible, and for the most part, a compromise between what a person wants to be and what is possible for him to become.

Hoppock determined that one chooses a vocation to satisfy needs. An occupation is chosen based on what the individual knows about himself and the opportunities which are available to him. Factors which affect this choice are the economic, educational, psychological, and sociological factors.

The theory of Anne Roe stressed the importance of childhood experiences in determining vocational choice. She suggested that the psychological climate in which the child is reared determines his interests, needs, and values which influence vocational choice. Roe developed a classification of occupations which she felt facilitated vocational choice because of a relationship between personality factors and job adjustment.

Donald Super, like Ginzberg, concluded that vocational choice is a developmental process which spans the entire life of an individual. He also suggested stages of vocational development which occur as the person develops his self concept. As the child develops, he tests the roles he plays against the image he has of himself. The occupation he chooses is an implementation of the self concept.

The emphasis in this report was vocational development as it relates to the elementary aged child. An attempt was made to evaluate the theories in terms of their usefulness in the vocational guidance program of the elementary school.

The report consists of (1) a review of the theories of vocational development, (2) the implications of these theories for elementary school guidance, and (3) suggestions to implement the broad objectives of vocational guidance at the elementary school level.