Vocational Assessment Centre

Career Guidance Theories
Concepts and Models
# Careers Guidance Theories

## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Theory Overview</td>
<td>1-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary &amp; Key points</td>
<td>8-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differentialism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Holland: Trait &amp; Factor</td>
<td>10-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rogers: 7 point plan</td>
<td>12-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Elis Ginzberg</td>
<td>14-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Donald &amp; Super</td>
<td>16-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structuralism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Roberts: Opportunity Structure</td>
<td>18-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning Theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Krumboltz</td>
<td>20-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person-Centred Counselling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Carls Rogers</td>
<td>22-23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Gerard Egan</td>
<td>24-26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview Models</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Planning &amp; Development</td>
<td>27-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Theories &amp; styles</td>
<td>31-33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation Theories</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Transition and Change Management</td>
<td>43-47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48-53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CAREER THEORY
An Overview

The Collective Definition

‘....a speculative system of ideas explaining something that gives a justification and a framework for thinking and acting in a particular way....’
(CEMTAC)

Theorists observe human nature and then try to explain it. If this is possible then maybe we can predict how people might behave.

What’s the difference between a model and a theory?
In simple terms a theory attempts to explain behaviour and a model offers ways of working with a client and can advocate a particular style or structure of helping.

Some models directly apply a particular theory (e.g. Rodger’s Seven Point Plan applies the Differentialist theory of occupational choice), others combine a few (e.g. Egan’s Skilled Helper Model)

‘There are many theories relevant to careers guidance; they have developed over time in response to changing contexts and can be seen as having varying relevance to today’s clients. What is certain is that no single theory is adequate to explain fully the complex processes of occupational choice and career development that take place in our rapidly changing world. The search continues.’ (Gothard et al 2001:37)

When working with clients in an advice and guidance capacity it is important to be aware of the theory behind what you do in order to give your work a structure and a framework. You can use different theoretical approaches for the different types of clients which you see and you will find that this will help you greatly during diagnostic interviews.

Benefits

- Gives a structure and a framework for the work you do and different approaches that can be used for different clients
- It helps practitioners to ask ‘why’ and ‘how’ particularly in relation to challenging assumptions on which service delivery is based
- It enables the exploration of the relationship between events or models e.g. this could mean considering different models of interviewing
- Theory informs practice and these should help you to better understand your client and develop different strategies and behaviour for individual clients.


**Careers education** is a planned programme of activities which enables individuals to identify and develop a range of transferable skills which will enable them to progress into appropriate learning and work.

**Careers guidance** is a process which involves an in depth interaction/s which explores a range of options and relates them to the client’s needs and circumstances, enabling them to make an informed decision about learning and work.

**Traditional Occupational choice theory**
*(The main theoretical approaches)*

This is a brief synopsis of the theoretical approaches. If you would like to find out more, please refer to the reading list at the end of the text.

Many years ago Professor Kitson advised young people that choosing a vocation is a process involving a careful, rational assessment of the individual and his environment (Journal of American Statistical Association 1952)

Other theorists take a different approach. Here we will examine the three main traditional theories and a few of the more up to date ones.

**Three main theories**

- Differentialism
- Developmentalism
- Structuralism

**Differentialism**

‘Based on differential psychology, these approaches assume that guidance is essentially about a process of rational decision making in which clients are assessed by the 'expert practitioner' and then matched to the 'best fit' opportunity. It follows that the provision of information about the client and the world of work will result in behaviour change (e.g. improved decision making skills).’(NGRF website)

Parsons (1908) is regarded as the founder of the vocational guidance movement and developed the ‘talent matching’ approach which subsequently developed into ‘trait and factor’ theories of decision making. **Trait** refers to a characteristic of an individual that can be measured through testing (e.g. personal attitudes, aptitudes and interests) **Factor** refers to a characteristic required for successful job performance. The third element was a judgement about the relationship between these two.

Rodgers and Holland also assumed that matching is at the centre of this process which is therefore devoid of emotions.

**John Holland’s Theory (1966, 1973, 1985, 1992)** is based on several assumptions about an individual’s personality, interest profile and views about jobs. These factors he suggests affect a person’s occupational choice. He
proposes that people could be categorised into six types and there are six work
environments that are congruent with their personality type. In a guidance
intervention he suggests that a key factor is to help a person to select the
work environment that best fits their personality (See separate sheet)

**Alec Rodger’s Seven Point Plan (1952)** was based on a series of questions
listed under seven headings (see separate handout). He developed these into a
checklist which would be used in a guidance interview to check client’s
suitability for particular jobs, as well as to help them to suggest ideas. It was
also used by recruiters.

The role of careers guidance in this context is diagnostic and prescriptive.
These theories form the basis of psychometric tests, many computer guidance
programmes and many of the questionnaires and inventories used within our
services.

Therefore, although supposedly discredited because of their directive and
simplistic nature (described by Bill Law in 1996 as 'pegs in holes thinking'!!)
and their emphasis on the immediate outcome of the interview rather than on
helping clients to develop long term career planning skills, these theories still
continue to be developed.

**Developmental Theory**

**Ginzberg and Super**

These theories are based around the following assumptions:

- individual development is a continuous process
- this process is irreversible
- they occur in stages throughout a person’s life span
- the result of normal development is increasing maturity

The names most associated with these theories are Eli Ginzberg and Donald
Super.

Ginzberg et al. (1951) proposed three life stages which broadly corresponded
with chronological age

- First came the fantasy stage which lasted up until eleven years old;
- Second, the tentative stage, lasting from ages eleven to seventeen, with
  the three substages of interest, capacity and value;
- Third, the realistic stage, which lasted from age seventeen onwards, with
  substages of exploration, crystallisation and specification. (NGRF
  website)

In 1972 Ginzberg did acknowledge that there may be some variation in time
span for different individuals and that occupational choice is a lifelong process
of decision-making in which the individual seeks to find optimum fit between
career preparation and goal, and the realities of life.

Super postulated a 5-stage model and further developed these ideas. He has probably been the most significant influence on career theory and has been called ‘the father of the modern careers education and guidance movement’. He describes choice and adjustment taking place through the five life stages of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline. This was an extension of Ginzberg’s three life stages which Super felt did not take into account existing body of information about educational and vocational development (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996, p.111). Super (1957) and Super et al. (1961) (see separate handouts)

**Structuralism**

*Ken Roberts’ opportunity structure* was a reaction to earlier work. He looked elsewhere for an explanation of why individuals ‘do’ particular jobs and suggested that transition (into employment) for majority of the individuals is determined by socio-economic factors rather than by the notion of individual choice. These factors include: the opportunities that are available, educational attainment, and social background, all of which impact on educational expectations and career aspirations.

He first suggested this model in 1968 as an alternative to the developmental theories of Ginzberg and Super. He suggested that entry to employment differed in different social contexts.

He suggested the following factors affected occupational choice:

- the home;
- the environment;
- the school;
- peer groups;
- job opportunities.

He challenged the relevance of other theories stating that:

‘An adequate theory for understanding school-leavers' transition to employment in Britain needs to be based around the concept not of `occupational choice', but of `opportunity structure' (Roberts, 1977, p183)

This would obviously make the role of career guidance very limited as he maintained that career choices were limited by people’s access to opportunities.
Other theories

Social Learning Theory
Krumboltz’s social learning theory of career decision making accepts many of the premises of both trait and developmental approaches while emphasising the impact of socio-economic issues. He proposes the following four social-psychological influences on choice: genetic factors, environmental conditions, learning experiences, and performance or task skills. These factors and experiences give rise to ‘self observation generalisations’ – beliefs about one’s own interests, abilities and values – including, for example career interests or perceptions of educational performance. Career choice is the result of access to relevant experiences and the development of decision making skills.

At the heart of Krumboltz’s thinking is Bandura’s Social Learning Theory (SLT), which identified different types of learning experiences.

Mitchell and Krumboltz (1996) developed the Learning Theory of Career Choice and Counselling (LTCC) from the Social Learning Theory of Careers Decision Making (SLTCM) as they felt that the SLTCM only provides an explanation of a person’s career path after it has happened and does not explain what a career counsellor can do to help people manage their own careers. LTCC was a guide to help career counsellors to solve career related problems.

Psychodynamic Theory
These are based on the assumptions that all behaviour including occupational choices are unconsciously determined by experiences and feelings encountered in early childhood.

Compared with other psychological theories there has been little progress with this school of thought, but it has certainly influenced some theorists such as Anne Roe (1956, 1957) and more recently Bordin (1990), Savickas (1989) and Watkins and Savickas (1990) who have been working on ideas fundamental to this theory.

Counselling theories
These theories can have a practical application to careers guidance and can been seen more as interview models. At the centre of this was Carl Rogers’ client centred approach, which stresses the importance of the relationship between the interviewer and the client, particularly in terms of respect, empathy and genuineness (see separate handout). Attitudes and beliefs are the key factor here. The term ‘person-centred’ careers guidance tends to be preferred today.

The most prevalent models these days are Gerard Egan’s ‘skilled helper’ framework, an approach which can be used for helping generally. Egan uses a three stage model of helping: identifying and clarifying the problem (Where I am now?), developing a preferred scenario, (Where do I want to be?) and formulating strategies and plans (How do I get there?) (See separate handout for further details)
Some new perspectives

Planned Happenstance (Mitchell & Krumboltz)
Planned – having arranged the parts
Happen – occurred by chance
Stance – an attitude that is open minded and not averse to risk
This is based on embracing career indecision and turning it into something positive. The client’s attitude of mind is important here to enable to view these events in a positive light.

Positive uncertainty (Gelatt 1989)
This theory moves away from rational, linear decision making and is based on the assumption that:
- the past isn’t always was what it was thought to be
- the future is no longer predictable
- the present is changing as never before

It is therefore necessary to be positive in the face of uncertainty. Occupational choice takes the place of collecting information, arranging it, rearranging it and then choosing to act.

This therefore embraces the idea of positive uncertainty and the client being comfortable and confident with the ambiguity and doubt.

Narrative Theory (Watts & Kidd 2000)
According to this theory the adviser needs to encourage the client need ‘tell their story’ and look for recurring themes. Adviser skills are important here so that he/she can and understand how the client interprets events and if they understand the impact on the action they take. These events will form patterns which represent the individual’s socially constructed view of themselves in the world.
The adviser needs to reflect back how clients have gone about things and create new perspectives.

Community Interaction Theory (Bill Law 1981, 93, 2009)
Law suggests that people make career decisions based on their interactions within their social groups and the feedback they receive about their suitability for particular occupations. Some people can feel trapped by their backgrounds. He extended this in 1996 to include the roles of innate abilities and feelings about career choice but he also suggests that individuals can acquire the relevant skills through training and education.

Career Theory for Women (Taken from article by Jenny Bimrose on NGRF website)
Jenny suggests that the theories that inform practice in the UK are more appropriate to explain the career path of men than women. Women’s career development is often more complex than men’s due other responsibilities they have in their lives (e.g. caring for children or parents). This can often result in time away from the workplace and can cause conflict with occupational
ambitions. Also women are often forced to working part-time to accommodate these responsibilities. Various pieces of research (e.g. EOC, 1999) indicate that:

- women's labour market participation is more restricted than men i.e. they are under-represented in a variety of fields and professions, and enter low paying and low status jobs;
- women’s abilities and talents are underused i.e. they are less likely to advance to higher levels in their occupational fields.
  (for more information see NGRF website)

**Career Theory for Ethnic Minority Groups**
Fitzgerald and Betz (1994) argue career theory does not take into account structural and cultural factors for large groups of the population and therefore may not be relevant for them. They claim that because we have never tried to find out about whether it is applicable for non-white and working class clients, we are don’t know whether these theories work for them.

`It is fair to say that we know almost nothing about the career choice process in the majority of the population: those who do not attend college, are not white, and are of lower socioeconomic status'(Fitzgerald and Betz, 1994, p106).

Fitzgerald and Betz identified the following issues:

- Career Counselling must take place within a cultural context to accommodate different attitudes e.g. career interviews are client centred but this may clash with strong family values held by some cultures

- Avoidance of stereotyping – we must not assume that ethnic groups are homogenous

- New variables need to be incorporated into culturally competent career guidance e.g. racial identity of careers counsellors, use of appropriate language when English is the second language

- Race/ethnicity/gender must all be considered. Ethnic minority women often suffer from double disadvantage – socially and economically. The practitioner needs to be familiar with both women and minority ethnic groups

- Inadequacy of current knowledge
Insufficient research has been carried in this area and the research that has been done doesn't necessarily include the value systems of cultural groups. To address this researchers need to start to identify ethnic group membership. Also practitioners need to increase their awareness of communication styles, family values and language issues amongst other things.
  (For more information see NGRF website).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>Key points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Differentialism</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| John Holland Trait Factor          | • Based on several assumptions about an individual’s personality, interest profile and views about jobs  
• Six types of people, six work environments  
• Have to find best fit |
| Alec Rodgers Seven Point Plan      | • A series of questions under seven headings |
| **Developmentalism**               |            |
| Ginzberg                           | • Three life stages |
| Super                              | • Five life stages |
| **Structuralism**                  |            |
| Ken Roberts                        | • Socio-economic factors affect transition into employment  
• Five factors affect occupational choice |
| **Other theories**                 |            |
| Krumboltz Social Learning Theory   | • Four social/psychological influences  
• Career choice is the result of access to relevant experiences and the development of decision making skills. |
| Psychodynamic Theory               | • Occupational choices are unconsciously determined by experiences and feelings encountered in early childhood. |
| **Counselling Theory**             |            |
| Carl Rogers                        | • Based on the relationship between the career counsellor and the client |
| Gerard Egan Skilled Helper         | • Where am I?  
• Where do I want to be?  
• How am I going to get there? |
| **New perspectives**               |            |
| Positive uncertainty (Gelatt)      | • Decisions aren’t linear and the future is uncertain |
| Planned Happenstance Mitchell and Krumboltz | • Turning unplanned events into something positive |
| Narrative theory (Watts and Kidd)  | • Client tells their story  
• Adviser looks for recurring themes |
<p>| Community                          | • Career Decisions are made due to interactions with |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interaction Theory (Bill Law)</th>
<th>various social groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career theory for women</td>
<td>• Women’s career paths are more complicated then men’s due to other commitments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career theory for ethnic minority groups</td>
<td>• Not enough research on this but advisers need to be better informed about cultural attitudes, family values and language issues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References


http://www.guidance-research.org/

JOHN HOLLAND  
Trait and factor theory

The forerunner of modern career theories appeared in 1909 in Choosing Your Vocation by Frank Parsons. His matching model based upon understanding one’s self, understanding the requirements of the jobs and choice based on a process of true reasoning is still the underlying model for many other theories and career guidance practice. In particular the career education models in many countries strongly rely on the matching idea.

Holland’s theory (1997) is an example of the trait factor theories. His theory is based on several assumptions:

1. An individual’s personality is the primary factor in vocational choice.
2. The interest profile reflects the personality.
3. Individuals develop stereotypical views on occupations (e.g. we see a bookkeeper as punctual, relatively introvert, not sociable etc.) These views shape our opinion on occupations and play a key role in occupational choice.
4. A person chooses an occupation which is congruent with one’s personality and that will let them exercise their attitudes and values. A good fit leads to success and satisfaction.

In his view personality is the result of an interaction between inherited characteristics, which are the key to the development of specific interests, and the activities to which an individual is exposed. Holland recognises that the interaction ultimately leads to the emergence of the personality.

Holland states that most people can be categorised in six types:
- Realistic
- Investigative
- Artistic
- Social
- Enterprising
- Conventional

He proposes that there are six work environments that are analogous to the pure personality types as above. As already pointed out, individuals select work environments that are congruent with their personality type. In the guidance intervention a key factor is to help the person to select the work environment that best fits the personality.

This theory is very popular among practitioners, in particular in North America. This is mainly due to the clarity and simplicity in use, but even more because of the availability if test material and reference material that allows self assessment. Clients and advisers have the feeling that through completing a simple questionnaire they understand it all. They belong to a type and just
have to find, at a crucial stage of change, the appropriate box with the best matching jobs or positions.

This is however, not the reality. Choosing a career is much more complicated than that, and there is not one ‘best box’. There are often changes in a person’s life which cannot always be predicted. However a good knowledge of the interest profile of a client and a good match of personality and work profile are still at the heart of career guidance.
ALEC RODGER’S
Seven Point Plan (1952)

This was devised as a framework for gathering information about an individual, and also as a basis for a job analysis leading to a Person Specification. It was widely used as a tool in systematic selection and applied to vocational guidance in earlier years. Although somewhat outdated now in concepts and approach, some form of plan is useful to ensure a rounded picture of the client is obtained. However the focus of a careers interview now is much more on the client’s needs and goals. Also of course there is much more awareness about equal opportunities and support available for people with different needs rather than being excluding because of them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seven Point Plan</th>
<th>Supplementary Questions (as identified by Rodger)</th>
<th>Possible Questions (as identified by Piggott)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Physical make-up</td>
<td>Has the client any defect of health or appearance that may be of occupational importance? How agreeable are the client’s appearance, bearing and speech?</td>
<td>What health issues might we need to take into account? What is the effect of a particular condition? What physical assets could a person bring to a job? What might be the long term implications of choices based on physique?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Attainments</td>
<td>What type of education has the client received? How well have they achieved? What occupational training or experience has the client had? How well has the client done occupationally?</td>
<td>What aspects of work or subjects has the client really enjoyed? What have they disliked? What qualifications/grades did they achieve? What skills etc. would they want to take forward?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 General intelligence</td>
<td>How much general intelligence can they display? How much general intelligence does the client ordinarily display?</td>
<td>Only relevant if psychometric tests are used. The – how can we match up test scores with client’s own view of strengths and weaknesses?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special Aptitudes</td>
<td>Has the client any marked mechanical aptitude, manual dexterity, facility in the use of words or figures, artistic or musical talent?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Interests</td>
<td>To what extent are the client’s interests intellectual? practical? physically active? social? Artistic?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Disposition</td>
<td>How acceptable is the client to other people? Do they influence others? Are they steady and dependable? Are they self-reliant?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Circumstances</td>
<td>What are the client’s domestic circumstances? What do other members of the family do for a living? Are there special opening available for the client?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ELI GINZBERG’S
Occupational Choice Theory

Ginzberg’s original theory was published in 1951 but then further developed and re-stated in 1972.

In addition to the individual developmental process being irreversible, he stated that compromise was also an essential part of occupational choice.

Process

The original theory stated that we can analyse the process of occupational decision making in terms of three periods:

- Fantasy – up to 11 years old
- Tentative – 11 - 17
- Realistic – 17 years upwards

Fantasy Choices
During the period of fantasy choices the child thinks of an occupation in terms of wanting to be an adult. The choices are arbitrary and without reference to reality.

Tentative Choices
These are divided into interest, capacity, value and transition stages.

- **Interest stage** - pubescent boys and girls first make occupational choices in terms of current likes and interests
- **Capacity stage** - they consider their capacity or suitability for an occupation much more
- **Value stage** - young people first become aware of how their goals and values connect to their occupational choices
- **Transition stage** - individuals start focusing on the reality of work, such as working conditions, length of study and financial rewards rather than primarily subjective factors such as interests and values

Realistic Choices
These are divided into exploration, crystallisation and specification stages.

**Exploration** - the individual tries to acquire information and experience that will help them make an occupational choice

**Crystallisation** - this is where the individual has made an assessment of the internal and external factors and become committed to a career objective, even though some of the details may be still unclear
**Specification** - this stage involves clarifying previous details e.g. during the previous stages a person may have decided that they wanted to be a nurse, but they now decide what kind of nursing and what kind of environment they would like to work in.

When Ginzberg looked at his theory again in 1972 he stated that the process of decision-making was no longer limited to a decade, but could be a process which could go on throughout a person’s working life.

The three principle contributing factors are:
- The feedback and satisfaction gained from the work experience from a person’s original career choice
- The degree of freedom which might occur through changing family circumstances e.g. children growing up
- Pressures which may arise from a job which force people to look for other employment or accept early retirement

**Irreversibility**

In our society we expect people to make career choices, develop and progress within certain timeframes. If this doesn’t happen it can cause financial difficulties and leave the person out of step with their peers.

Ginzberg made the following points:

- If the individual has made a mistake, they may need advice and additional education or training to get back on the right path
- Changing earlier decisions may involve admitting mistakes and failures and may threaten self esteem
- Changing an occupational choice may mean admitting that certain values held dear in the past may not be so important as they previously thought

This later statement from Ginzberg changes the concept in that while earlier decisions shape people’s later careers, so do the continuing changes in work and in life.

**Compromise**

This is about the compromise that people try to make between their interests and values etc. and educational requirements for different occupations. Some things of interest have to fall by the wayside to pursue an aim. People continuously search for the best occupational fit for their circumstances.
DONALD SUPER
Life-span, Life-space Theory

This theory is the result of 60 years of research and reflection. Super considers his theory to be one that can still develop. In his view life-span, life-space theory is a loosely unified set of theories that can deal with aspects of career development and forms a framework for a better understanding of the career development process and career counselling.

Super does not see the matching between the individual and the occupations as a process with ‘one best choice’. On the contrary people have a broad variety of options which may all fit, but the actual choice will depend on individual and their situation.

He believed that self-concept was key to understanding the life-long development of a person. This should be seen as not only the internalised personal view of self, but also the individual’s view of the situation or condition in which they exist. The self understanding and behaviour will always be influenced by the environment. Each developmental stage is characterised by some specific activities and is related to some extent to age. The life stage concept is supported by many authors and research findings, although there may be some discrepancies in the age related to the stages. According to Super we can identify the following stages:

- The growth stage (ages 4 to 14) includes four major career development tasks: becoming concerned about the future (career concern), increasing personal control over one’s life (control), convincing oneself to achieve in school and work (conviction), and acquiring competent work habits (competence).
- The exploratory stage (ages 14 – 24) with the awareness that an occupation will be an essential aspect of life, the youngest adolescent will express their career choices. These are frequently unrealistic and temporary. Through daydreaming and testing non-threatening situations (activities in school, role-playing with peers etc.) the adolescent will develop a better understanding of themselves and of the surrounding world. This will lead to narrowing down choices and making them more realistic. After this initial part of this stage the older adolescent or young adult, depending on their individual situation, will start with a tentative try out of occupations and implement an occupational choice.
- The establishment stage (ages 24 – 44) is related to the encounters within actual experience. The young adult should make his/her place in the organisation secure by adapting to the organisation and performing satisfactorily. The middle phase of this stage involves consolidating one’s position by gaining experience and proficiency. The third task is advancement to new levels or responsibility. This task is not evident and not taken on by many workers.
- The maintenance stage (age 45 to 65) is the stage of concern to continue the satisfying parts of work, holding on to the job by revising and changing. To innovate to avoid routine or to discover new
challenges. This is also the stage of the mid-life question (crisis?) “do I want this for the next 25 years?”

The disengagement stage (over 65) involves the part of life characterised by the separation from the occupation and the retirement. This will lead to a new life-structure and life-style.

This theory therefore suggests that it is important to recognise the environment and the life stages which people are at in order to be able to offer effective career guidance.

A key concept within Super’s theory is the idea that the individual can be given the opportunity to become more self aware, thus enhancing vocational maturity or adaptability.

The concept of career development as a lifelong learning process is widely accepted by practitioners and does support the need for guidance as an ongoing process. The role of the guidance adviser would be to support the clients in considering, exploring, trialling, and developing their self-concept. (counselling in career guidance). It is concerned with the whole person and the view that individuals should be empowered with choices.
KEN ROBERTS
The Opportunity Structure Model
(1968)

Roberts challenged the ideas of Ginzburg and Super regarding the ideology or free occupational choice and suggested his ‘opportunity structure’ model as an alternative to their theories.

He did not suggest that his theory applied to every young person, but that entry into employment is not primarily based on ambition. He maintained that different groups of school leavers are said to have differential ease of access to various types of employment and that different social contexts required different explanatory frameworks.

The factors affecting occupational choice are as follows:

- the home;
- the environment;
- the school;
- peer groups;
- job opportunities.

Roberts feels that understanding transition of school leavers into employment should be based around ‘opportunity structure’ not ‘occupational choice’ (Roberts 1977)

‘As a consequence, the scope of careers guidance was somewhat restricted, since it could not make jobs more rewarding for individuals nor create opportunities for personal growth and development. Roberts’ contribution to careers theory carried with it particular significance because he spelt out the implications for careers guidance practice (1977). These included: how the guidance process inevitably became a matter of adjusting the individual to opportunities available; how guidance should be centred around an individual's immediate problems; and how careers services should concentrate on developing a good information service and more on placement and follow-up. The primary role of practitioners, according to Roberts, was to service the needs of the labour market, rather than to educate, facilitate, or indeed anything else implicated by other theories (Roberts, 1977).’ (NGRF website)

As a result of criticisms from other guidance theorists and in light of further research he revised and expanded his determinants of occupational allocation as follows:

- distance to work was a key issue because the average travelled was three miles due to the cost implications of travel
- qualifications continued to be important, since even low exam grades made a difference in finding work
- informal contacts – this is crucial, since large firms operated as internal labour markets for young people
• ethnicity - race operated as multi-dimensional disadvantage (i.e. housing, education and employment);
• gender was identified as a significant inhibiting factor as the aspirations of girls and women were found to be low and short term
• cyclical and structural factors operating within the economy resulted in a demand for smaller labour forces in which higher skill levels were required. In these circumstances, young people were found to be particularly vulnerable.

The debate still continues.
KRUMBOLTZ
Social Learning Theory

Krumboltz’s theory (Mitchell & Krumboltz 1996) is based on the social learning theory of Albert Bandura (1986) and emphasises the reinforcement theory.

Krumboltz identified four factors influencing career development:

♫ Genetic endowment and special abilities
Some biological inherited factors e.g. race, gender, physical appearance can have an effect on career development. Other factors at least partially influenced by inheritance, including special career abilities e.g. musical and artistic ability and physical co-ordination may also set limits.

♫ Environmental conditions and events
This factor includes all influences that lie outside the control of the individual but that can have an impact on their environment. Some influences may be of human origin (e.g. training opportunities, labour laws, economic situation etc.), others may be due to natural forces (weather conditions, existence of natural sources etc.)

♫ Learning experiences
All previous learning experiences influence the individual’s learning process. Krumboltz though recognises the complexity of the learning process and identifies only two types of learning: instrumental learning experiences (situations in which the individual acts on the environment to produce certain outcomes) and associative learning (situations in which the individual learns by reacting to stimuli, by observing models or by comparing two events).

♫ Task approach skills
These are the skills that an individual uses when engaging in a new task (e.g. work habits, performance standards, perceptive skills etc.)

The reaction of an individual to different learning experiences will lead to consequences which will influence behaviour on future occasions.

In summary this theory is based on the idea that an individual enters a certain environment (the world) with a certain genetic endowment. As the person grows, their behaviour will be shaped by their experiences and what they learn from these. This will lead to feedback from other people which will give an impression of success or failure of the actions. The totality of these reactions will influence the individual whenever choices have to be made and help to lead to successful choices and avoid failure. This learning process is a life-long continuous process because the individual and the environment are constantly changing.

From this theory we learn that career development is a life-long process. The individual’s potential for growth is moulded by the environment and the interaction between it and them. It is therefore important to understand the guidance process from infant school onwards. It is also important to give pupils the opportunity to test their beliefs, skills, abilities etc. in relation to areas
which may be important to career decisions and development. This could include visits to companies, enterprises, internships, school projects etc. Role models could also be useful for giving feedback, i.e. presentations, interviewing people etc.

Krumboltz’s theory has mainly influenced the conceptualisation of career guidance practice; it has had less influence on concrete action plans and guidance activities. However the idea of ‘career beliefs’ has developed which can be related to some extent to ‘self-efficacy beliefs’ (the belief that the result can be attained by one’s own actions), and this can be important to understand the decision making process of some people.
CARL ROGERS
Person-Centred Counselling
1957

Rogers describes what he calls a ‘helping relationship’ as one

“in which at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting growth, development and maturity, improved functioning, improved coping with the life of the other” “It includes almost all counsellor-client relationships, whether we are speaking of educational counselling, vocational counselling or personal counselling”

Rogers considered the following conditions necessary to bring about change:

**Empathy**
empathetic understanding of the client manifested by the counsellor

**Unconditional positive regard**
manifested by the counsellor towards the client

**Congruence**
the counsellor is genuine, in that his/her words match his/her internal feelings

**Empathy**
The ability to understand the client in the very deepest sense, to enter and understand the client’s own world and perceive things as the client does.

In his book *On Becoming a Person*, Rogers says “Real understanding occurs when we.....see the expressed idea and attitude from the other person’s point of view, to sense how they feel and to achieve hid/her frame of reference in regard to the issues being discussed.” He admits that this is not easy to become so in tune with the client that all desire to evaluate or judge disappears.

Empathy is not sympathy, which implies pity and compassion. Empathy requires counsellors to separate their own feelings and needs from those of the client and not be affected by the client’s feelings. Counsellors need to respect their own feelings and keep their professional distance from the client.

**Unconditional positive regard**
Respecting and valuing the client, seeing him/her as a unique individual who has the right to be accepted as such, and seen as separate from the behaviour or the attitudes he/she is expressing.

Rogers says that ‘the major barrier to mutual interpersonal communication is our very natural tendency to judge, to evaluate, to approve or disapprove...” Only by accepting every facet of a client can we provide them with a safe atmosphere in which to experience and deal with their internal feelings without fear of being judged. The ability to be ‘non-judgemental’ is key to this process.
Congruence
When the counsellor shows empathy, respect or unconditional positive regard this must be genuinely felt. The counsellor’s behaviour must match his/her feelings. If this is not the case their true feelings will show through their body language and the message will be ambiguous, preventing clarity and transparency.

Rogers concludes that “The client’s perception of the therapist’s attitudes and feelings is more important than the therapist’s theoretical orientation, procedures or techniques”.

References
GERARD EGAN’S MODEL
The Skilled Helper 1975

Gerard Egan provides a model of guidance which can be used by practitioners. He calls it a ‘Client Centred Model’ and uses the ideas of Carl Rogers (1957) counselling style of interviewing.

A simple explanation of the stages of the interaction is:-

1. Where are you now?
2. Where do you want to be?
3. How can you get there?

**Stage 1 - Help the client to tell their story**
Egan lists and describes the skills, techniques or activities the practitioner engages in to help the client to tell their story honestly and openly.

**Attending**
This means the practitioner giving the client their full attention and communicating their ‘unconditional positive regard’ (Carl Rogers theory) It is about showing they are listening, interested and care about what is being said. This process needs to start immediately the interview begins in order to build the rapport that is necessary for an honest and open discussion.

**Active Listening**
This is exhausting if it is done properly but is essential in order to gain all the necessary information from the client. A large part of active listening involves the non-verbal communication which is displayed to the practitioner and vice versa. It enables inconsistencies to be highlighted when body language does not seem to match what is being said.

**Conveying Empathy**
This has been described as walking in someone else’s shoes, in other words trying to imagine what they are feeling. If the client feels that the practitioner is able to empathise with them they are more likely to express all their needs enabling a full picture of their skills and experience to be built up so that the most effective advice can be given. The practitioner needs to be able to convey that they have understood the underlying issues and feelings that are being expressed. Summarising may be used to help with this.

**Questioning and Probing**
Some clients may need encouragement to disclose information about themselves. Open questions are useful for this and probing questions may be used later on in the interview to get more details.

This stage of the interview should involve the client doing most of the talking with the practitioner asking occasional questions, clarifying and summarising.
Challenging Blind Spots
Some people may not be aware of their own strengths or weaknesses, or may misinterpret things that have happened. In order to help them move forward they will be encouraged to look at things from different perspectives. These are some of the viewpoints that Egan suggests need to be challenged:-
- Not taking ownership of problems – the situation is always caused by someone else
- Treating problems as insoluble and being defeatist
- Mistaken interpretation of events
- Game playing (Eric Berne – Transactional Analysis)
- Not seeing the consequences of one’s actions
- Reluctance to move from discussion to action

Find Leverage
When the client has expressed their situation, more than one issue may emerge. It may not be possible to work on all of them during one interaction because of time restraints, so Egan suggests that the practitioner should help you to decide which have priority. The practitioner will probably ask the client at this stage what they hope to get out of the interview.

Stage 2 - Developing a preferred scenario
The practitioner will try to get the client to think freely during this stage and not to set too many boundaries. It may be useful to brainstorm ideas, even if they appear to be unrealistic, there could be something similar that would be appropriate or other ways of doing things that could be discussed. The client will be encouraged to say ‘I can’ rather than ‘I can’t’.

Choose some possibilities and turn them into goals
Egan says that this is moving you from ‘What you want’ to ‘What you really want’. Much of this stage is about discussing achievable goals.

Committing to the new goal(s)
Egan suggests that goals need to be:-
- Appealing - it is a more attractive proposition to get something rather than give something up. e.g. It is more attractive to consider getting more qualifications which will help you get a better paid job than giving up some of your social life to do it.
- Owned by the client - the goals must be set by the client who must be comfortable with them.
- Prioritised - taking into account competing demands on your time and energy.

Challenging
The practitioner may challenge goals which are unrealistic or which the client seems not be committed to. There may be issues here that will have to worked on.
**Stage 3 - Consider possible options**
The practitioner will try and help the client to see how to get from where they are now to where they want to be. This may be done by discussing routes into different jobs, or giving examples of how other people have gone about it or by giving information.

**Choose the ones most suitable**
The client will now need to evaluate the options against their own values and criteria and determine if they are:

**REALISTIC** - do they have the resources (ability, motivation, support etc.) to achieve it?
**ACCEPTABLE** - does it fit their values?
**APPEALING** - is it sufficiently attractive to motivate them to achieve their goals?

**Making Plans**
Egan calls an action plan ‘An overall programme with specific milestones to evaluate progress’
There may be psychological barriers to achieving the goals which have been set as well as material ones. The adviser will help to anticipate these and therefore plan how to overcome any barriers.

Action plans are a useful tool to focus the client’s mind going to achieve their goals and what the priorities are. They are not set in tablets of stone and can be modified if things don’t go to quite to plan.

It is important to have timescales and that these are realistic or clients may become demotivated by trying to achieve the impossible. The practitioner will help with this and may suggest that a further interview to review the progress of the action plan.
INTERVIEWING MODELS

The various theories discussed lead to guidance models providing practitioners with a frame work to operate within and apply different approaches to their work.

Alec Rodger's 7-point plan was used as a model which underpins the trait-factor theory. Alec’s model provided a formula for careers interviews, with a checklist covering variables such as the person's attainments and circumstances before looking at careers suited to that individual. However as previously stated Alec Rodger’s 7-point plan is mechanistic and divorced from client’s individuality and hence is not popular with guidance practitioners.

Obvious practical extensions of the above model within careers guidance are computer assisted guidance (a career test such as Adult Directions or the free career test for career choice Career Steer) and psychometric tests. Psychometric tests include ability tests (measures of potential or optimal performance, usually covering verbal, numerical and spatial capability), aptitudes (more specific ability tests indicating potential to do well in particular work areas, e.g. secretarial, computer programming, sales).

Interest inventories (similar to a career test) ask for preferences before matching the personality to possible areas of work; a direct extension of Holland’s theory these are also the foundations of computer-aided guidance.

Developmental models draw on the human development theories. (Super & Ginzberg) These are seen as more attuned to individual needs. Key development tasks are achieved at particular stages as part of career maturity. Examples of developmental application is the DOTS model and Tol Bedford’s Model (F.I.R.S.T.)
The DOTS model concentrates on Self-awareness ('who am I?'), Opportunity awareness ('where am I?'), Decision learning ('what will I do?') and Transition learning ('how will I cope?):

**DOTS Model of Guidance**
Bill Law and Tony Watts 1977

**Self awareness**
In order to make well informed career decisions people need to be aware of their natural skills and abilities. A good careers education programme will encourage students to explore these. During a guidance interview the adviser can raised the client’s self awareness by questioning and other resources.

**Opportunity awareness**
To make an informed choice it is necessary to know what the options are. Students will carry out research activities during their careers education programme in order to explore these opportunities. The information which is provided during a guidance interview enables clients to consider all the available opportunities before making a decision. Some clients may prefer to do their own research.

**Decision making**
People have a range of decision making styles and being aware of these can help them to make a rational, well considered choice. (See handout on Decision Making)

**Transition skills**
The need for guidance tends to occur at times of change in people’s lives. How transitions are dealt with is very important in enabling people to progress positively with their lives. (See handout on Career Transition)

**Well Informed Realistic Decision**

Knowledge, skills & attitudes make decisions

Knowledge, skills & attitudes to implement decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>= engaged</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>= locate opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>= can make decisions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>= apply</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>= self awareness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>= handle selection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>= opportunity awareness</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>= handle outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>= reappraise plans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tol Bedford’s Model (F.I.R.S.T.)**
Bedford produced a report in 1982 ‘Vocational Guidance Interviews Explored’ (Department of Employment) and suggested a model for guidance interviews

KB July 12
with secondary school pupils. Central to this framework is an initial diagnosis of the stage reached by the client at the start of the interview. This is assessed along five dimensions, using the mnemonic FIRST (see below). Progress made during the interview is assessed along the same dimensions, and each dimension is viewed as contributing cumulatively towards the goal of vocationally-aware planning, which in case of school leavers is defined as being fully prepared for the transition from school to work. Hence it can be seen as a fairly sophisticated framework for the assessment of client development.

**Focus** How far has the client narrowed down options?

**Information** How well-informed is the client about his/her options

**Realism** How realistic are the chosen options (are the suitable for the client? How available are they?)

**Scope** How aware is the client of the full range of options available?

**Tactics** How far has the client worked out the practical steps needed to achieve his/her goals?

The fundamental interviewer skills and techniques, which Bedford refers to as the ‘process’ aspect of the model, are seen as comprising seven distinct stages or set of activities which should take place during the interview and a diagnosis of the needs of the client based on the stage they had reached in their decision making (The Content). And felt that **two** were of particular importance:

**The Process**

1. Establishing the broad purpose of the interview
2. **Create a friendly, encouraging atmosphere**
3. Gather information from the client
4. **Identify client’s needs**
5. Give information to the client
6. Summarise the progress made during the interview
7. Clarify the next steps to be taken

The seven activities can be used to explore the above questions to determine where the client is in the decision making process.

Person-centred approaches derived from Carl Rogers Theory tend to focus on the relationship between the counsellor and the client and on developing individuals through self-awareness. Emphasis here is on the ability of the individual to make conscious and responsible decisions. One such application of this theory is Egan’s ‘skilled helper’ model. (See pages 24 - 26)

**Summary**

Historically guidance has progressed through a series of stages which have reflected different views of careers. In the first stage guidance was seen as making recommendations about job choices; in the second it was viewed as a facilitative activity, promoting learning about self and situation; most recently
it has become more concerned with helping individuals develop the skills for lifelong career management, so that they are able to shape their own careers within a changing labour market.

Different approaches to the interview reflect this progression of guidance. For example trait-factor approach focuses on occupational choice, while person-centred approaches see the interview as more facilitative of lifelong career development. Super’s later writing is in more line with the career management view of guidance.

Practitioners should be aware of these differences so they can adjust their approach to suit the needs of individual clients in different contexts.

References


Bedford, T. (1982a) Vocational Guidance interviews

Egan. G (1990) The Skilled Helper (4thed), Pacific Grove


CAREER PLANNING & DEVELOPMENT

A definition of career planning

‘a conscious process in which individuals feel empowered to make and implement well informed realistic decisions about their careers and manage consequent transitions’ (CEMTAC).

Before planning can take place the individual must be willing and ready to make that change.

There are three phases to helping clients to develop and manage their career plans explained below this was developed by Careers Scotland:

Phase 1

Creating the preconditions necessary for guidance to be effective:
- Effective communication
- Negotiate an agreed way of working together
- Agree the purpose of the interview

Phase 2

The career practitioner explores how the client is career planning, establishing the quality of the client’s career planning and identifying issues that affect the client’s capacity to make and implement well-informed and realistic decisions.

Phase 3

In this phase, the practitioner and client identify the range of means available for addressing their needs, taking into account the preferred learning style and level of support required.

Certain needs may be addressed within the interview, for example, the need for reassurance, challenging certain assumptions and stereotypes (for example around LMI and stimulate career exploration and develop career planning skills) and providing a method for making decisions.

Those needs that cannot be immediately met are recorded in an action plan along with the means of addressing these. Any referral or advocacy should be agreed and supported where necessary.

Below shows a he career planning continuum (CPC) originally developed by Nottingham Trent University. This can be used as a diagnostic tool to explore and help diagnose actual career planning needs.
The Career Planning Continuum

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Being ready and willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Understanding and owning rational method for decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Deciding – by using the decision making method to gain and organise sufficient insight about self and opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Locating appropriate opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Approaching opportunity providers effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Managing selection process(es)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dealing with selection outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Taking stock of career planning in the light of consequent/subsequent transitions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LMI can be used at all stages of the CPC but the three most significant stages within the model are:

- Self awareness
- Opportunity Awareness
- Taking stoke/coping with change

CAREERS EDUCATION

A definition of Careers Education and Guidance

‘Interventions designed to enable individuals to make and implement well informed realistic decisions about their careers (pathway through life) and manage consequent transitions’

Aims of Careers Education and Guidance

- To help students to understand themselves and their abilities
- To encourage them to investigate careers and opportunities
- Create effective career planners and decision makers
- Enable students to gain meaningful employment or progress their education or training further

A programme of careers education and guidance will enable people to become more self aware, explore the opportunities that are open to them, make well
informed career decisions and be able to carry them through and manage the transitions in the career. Career planning is part of this process.

The National Framework for Careers Education and Guidance (2003) states that students should:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Understand themselves and what influences them</th>
<th>Self Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Investigate opportunities in learning and work</td>
<td>Career Exploration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make and adjust plans to manage change and transition</td>
<td>Career Management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The design of careers education programmes in schools and colleges is based on the DOT’s model.

References

www.guidance-research.org
DECISION MAKING

Guidance is about ensuring that people have the skills and the information to make a decision, and then helping them to carry it through. There are lots of theories about decision making styles. Below are two suggested styles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Buck and Daniels 1984: 3 Styles</th>
<th>Arroba 1977: 6 styles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rational</strong></td>
<td><strong>Logical</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pros and cons are weighed up,</td>
<td>Coldly and objectively appraised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and the individual makes a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>systematic decision based on</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>these. There is a personal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sense of responsibility for the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intuitive</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intuitive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on emotions and feelings.</td>
<td>Based on a sense of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The individual makes instinctive</td>
<td>rightness or inevitability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choices which can be impulsive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependant</strong></td>
<td><strong>Compliant</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denial of personal responsibility</td>
<td>Based on the perceived expectations of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for decision. Follows the wishes</td>
<td>others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of others and projects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsibility on to others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional</strong></td>
<td><strong>Hesitant</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on subjective preferences or</td>
<td>Unable to make a decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feelings</td>
<td>which is therefore postponed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We tend to assume that decision makers are rational, but in practice this is often not the case. For example, family and friends can play a large role in influencing our decisions. We tend to react to circumstances, rather than plan
ahead, and we are easily influenced by media portrayal of careers, ‘glamorous’ or otherwise

What stops us making a decision about careers?

**Callanan and Greenhaus (1992)** suggest these possible barriers:

- Lack of knowledge of one’s own abilities
- Lack of knowledge of one’s own interests
- Conflict between two or more attractive possibilities
- Conflict between two or more unattractive possibilities, not all of which can be avoided
- Conflict due to a potential solution having both attractive and unattractive features
- Lack of specific company or labour market information
- Lack of confidence in, or familiarity with, decision making
- Lack of knowledge about what people in a particular occupation actually do.

**Adams, Hayes, Hopson’s Cognitive Decisions matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DECISION MAKING</th>
<th>PRO-ACTIVE</th>
<th>RE-ACTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>DECISION AVOIDANCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• change the situation so that a decision does not have to be made</td>
<td>• deny a decision exists</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• achieve all other alternatives</td>
<td>• procrastinate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• planned procrastination e.g. wait for more information before deciding</td>
<td>• fatalistically assume something will turn up</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• fantasise that some unlikely event will happen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• cost/benefit analysis of alternatives</td>
<td>• ‘go with the flow’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• seek information from others</td>
<td>• flip a coin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• create requirements to eliminate alternatives</td>
<td>• ‘gut feeling’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• match self to opportunities</td>
<td>• ‘just do it’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Model for Decision Making

1. Become aware of the need to decide
2. Clarify issues
3. Generate options
4. Assess options
5. Make a decision
6. Implement decision
7. Evaluate
LEARNING THEORY AND STYLES

Theories of Learning
As in any other learning environment there are various theories about how people learn in a career related setting.

The Behaviourist approach:
‘learning through direct or indirect association with the environment’ (Skinner, Pavlov)
This theory is mainly concerned with observable behaviour. It is suggested that all behaviour is the result of a stimulus response reaction no matter how complex and that all behaviour is also learned from the environment by conditioning. In other words giving feedback whether positive or negative, will encourage the learner to change their behaviour. If the feedback is positive the behaviour will be repeated, but if it is negative then it is unlikely.

Positive feedback can be verbal, such as ‘that’s great’ written a really good C.V.’ or ‘I’ve seen a really positive change in your behaviour, well done!’ then of course there are more tangible rewards such as certificates at the end of courses or promotion at work.

Cognitive approach
These theories are based on understanding and building on previous learning. Unlike rote learning which is just surface learning without any understanding of the underlying concepts. Learning is not remembering but it is about processes the information based on previous learning experiences. New neural connections are established within the brain which can be utilised in the future when other learning takes place. This type of learning is also called ‘constructivism’. The cognitivist school believe that learning takes place by doing and asking students challenging questions which will help them to make sense of what they are doing.

Social Cognitive Learning Theory
This approach is sometimes called a bridge between the cognitive and behavioural approaches. Bandura suggests that people learn through observing others’ behaviour and attitudes and the outcomes of that behaviour. This approach emphasises the thinking processes and an individual’s belief system which develops through different social contexts and the reciprocal interaction between these factors. Therefore learners can actively shape their own lives by reflecting, observing, being aware of their feelings and the impact of their actions on their environment.
Social cognitive learning theory was developed by Lent, Brown and Hackett (1994) which built on Bandura’s Social Learning Theory.
Bandura identified three major types of learning experience:

1. **Instrumental** - which results from direct experience when an individual is praised or punished for some behaviour
2. **Associative** – this comes from direct experience and reinforcement, when previously neutral events become associated with an emotionally laden stimulus
3. **Vicarious** - learning new skills and behaviours by observing others or through books, films or television

Bandura believed in ‘reciprocal determinism’, which means that the world and a person’s behaviour are caused by each other. Behaviourism on the other hand states that environment causes behaviour. Later Bandura considered personality as an interaction between three components: the environment, behaviour and psychological processes.

**The Humanist approach:**
Learning through empowering and liberating the learner to take responsibility for their own development (Rogers)
These theories of learning tend to be highly value-driven and hence more like prescriptions (about what ought to happen) rather than descriptions (of what does happen).

- They emphasise the "natural desire" of everyone to learn and through learning change your own concept of yourself
- The learner needs to feel comfortable and discuss new ideas and not be threatened by external factors
- That learners need to be empowered and to have control over the learning process.
- Therefore the teacher relinquishes a great deal of authority and becomes a facilitator.

This school is particularly associated with Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, John Holt and Malcolm Knowles. Also as Kolb emphasises experiential learning, he could also be included Kolb among the humanists as well as the cognitive theorists.
**Experiential Learning**
This theory refers to how people interpret their own experiences and modify their behaviour as a result of it. In order to learn from an experience we must reflect on it, determine what worked or didn’t work and plan how we are going to do things differently the next time. And so the process repeats itself. This was first suggested by Dewey but later developed by David Kolb.

**Kolb’s Learning Cycle**
*(1984)*

- Concrete Experience (doing/having the experience)
- Plan active Experimentation (planning/trying out what you have learned)
- Reflect on Experience (reviewing/reflecting on the experience)
- Conceptualisation (making conclusions/learning from the experience)

Kolb suggests that we learn from experience, but in order to do this we must reflect on what we have learned, draw conclusions on what was effective and what didn’t work and then plan how we will do things differently next time. It is vital that practitioners are reflective in order to grow and develop but it is also really for a client to become reflective so that can manage their own lives and careers and learn from their own experiences.

A learner can start at any point in the cycle, but the stages need to be followed in sequence. Difficulties arise when people try to avoid a stage and then find difficulty learning.
Learning Styles

Honey and Mumford devised learning styles based on this cycle. They argue that each stage in the cycle requires us to work in a different style, but Coffield found no evidence that these learning styles would necessarily stand on their own, but needed to be followed in the sequence above. and Mumford tried not to stereotype learners and believe that they should work on their weak styles to improve their learning.

Tell me and I will forget. Show me and I may remember. Involve me and I will understand’ (Confucius)

Active Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Like:</th>
<th>Don’t like:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| • To work in the here and now rather than looking at what happened in the past or at wider implications  
• To have a go even if they get it wrong  
• To do practical tasks  
• Short sessions with plenty of variety  
• To be in the limelight and to lead  
• To have fun to respond to difficult challenges | • A passive role(listening, reading or watching)  
• Working on their own(writing or homework assignments)  
• Repetition(practising over and over again)  
• Having to follow instructions precisely  
• To follow a methodical structured programme with no uncertainties or challenges |
### Reflective Learners

#### Like:
- To think before they act
- To prepare thoroughly
- To watch others and find out how things should be done before trying for themselves
- To be given time to think over what has happened
- Researching and going deeply into things

#### Don’t like:
- Being forced into the limelight e.g. role play
- Having to take action without planning ahead
- Being expected to obey instructions without fully understanding the reasons
- Being rushed
- Not having time to do a thorough job

### Theoretical Learners

#### Like:
- To see the whole picture
- To from theories and see concepts and models
- Ideas to be presented logically
- Clear structure and objectives
- To be intellectually stretched
- To be able to discuss theories and concepts with other theorists
- To use systems and methodical approaches
- Analytical discussion

#### Don’t like:
- Unstructured activities that have not been explained and where there is no apparent reason for doing them
- Activities where methods seem unsound or unproven and not planned or structured
- Not being given clear instructions or guidelines
- Subjects or fellow learners who appear uninteresting or not as intelligent as them
- Dealing with emotions and feelings

### Pragmatic Learners

#### Like:
- To see how things will work in practice
- To try new ideas and solve problems
- An early opportunity to try out what they are learning
- Being advised by a coach or a mentor

#### Don’t like:
- To learn about something that is not relevant to their current situation or role
- Theory that does not appear to take into account the reality of the situation
- Being asked to do something
mentor who is experienced in their field
- To watch demonstrations, be given models and techniques
- To see the relevance of their learning to their work or their roles

without a clear explanation or guidelines
- Too much discussion around the point
- Political obstacles to an obvious solution

Source the One to One Toolkit Julie Cooper and Ann Reynolds (2008)

Visual, auditory and kinaesthetic (VAK) Learning Styles

This system of learning suggests that we all have different preferred styles of learning. Again we stated above we don’t have a stable preference for one style, but may be a mixture of styles and this may vary on different days. Bearing this in mind it is obviously important when delivering a group session to learners that as many different methods of teaching are used as possible to accommodate all learning styles. Also when delivering a guidance interview it is necessary to present the information in as many different modes as possible.

- The visual approach will involve diagrams, videos, leaflets etc.
- The auditory approach will involve verbal explanation and discussion
- The less common ‘kinaesthetic’ or ‘tactile’ approach is hands on where ideas are acted out such as in a role play.
(See separate handout)

References


Gravells A. (2008) Preparing to Teach in the Lifelong Learning Sector, Learning Matters

Cooper J. and Reynolds A. (2008) The One to One Toolkit, CareerTrain Publishing

www.businessballs.com
www.guidance-research.org/
http://www.learningandteaching.info/learning/humanist.htm
www.learning-theories.com/social-learning-theory-bandura.html
http://phobias.about.com/od/glossary/q/cognitivethedef.htm
http://www.simplypsychology.org/behaviourism.html

KB July 12
MOTIVATIONAL THEORY

Definition of Motivation

‘…..to give reason, incentive, enthusiasm or interest that causes a specific action or certain behaviour. Motivation is present in every life function. Simple acts such as eating are motivated by hunger. Education is motivated by desire for knowledge. Motivators can be anything from reward to coercion’
http://ezinearticles.com/?Definition-of-Motivation&id=1567108

‘Motivation is the fire from within. If someone else tries to light the fire under you, the chances are it will burn very briefly’

Clients who experience low levels of motivation often present challenging behaviours and responses that require practitioners to re-think and re-evaluate how they can best work with these client groups. Clients can come to an interview with different levels of commitment. Two groups of clients with low motivation have been identified as reluctant (Egan, 1998, Okun, 1997) and resistant (Egan, 1994, 1998).

Sally Wilden & Jenny Bimrose wrote an excellent paper on this topic, (Dealing with reluctance and resistance, NGRF website), suggesting the implications for practice and also how an adviser might deal with unmotivated or resistant clients.

Motivating factors are also implicit in many of the theories mentioned in the Career Theory Overview

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

A major influence on motivational theory has been Abraham Maslow who was a humanistic psychologist. His theory is based on the fact that most human beings needs their basic physical and emotional needs fulfilled before they can achieve their full potential. Although he avoided the word ‘spiritual’ he did introduce psychology to the process and the concepts of truth, goodness, beauty, unity, transcendence, aliveness, uniqueness, perfection, justice, order and simplicity. These values he called ‘B-values’.

Before Abraham Maslow, the psychological world was awash in behaviourism and psychoanalysis. Maslow changed this focus by popularising psychological humanism. Famous people like Abraham Lincoln became the subjects of study instead of people with mental health issues. One of Maslow’s most important contributions to psychology was his theory of human needs, developed in the late 60’s. This theory explained that human needs were hierarchical in nature.

Maslow was perhaps the greatest humanistic psychologist and died of a heart attack on 8th June 1970. Many of his books and papers were written towards the end of his life. He believed that people are not merely controlled by mechanical forces or unconscious instinctual impulses of psychoanalysis, but
should be understood in terms of human potential. Also that most humans will strive to reach the highest levels of their capabilities and wisdom. Maslow called people who had achieved this ’self actualising’.

He set up a hierarchy of needs. The animal or physical needs were placed at the bottom, and the human needs at the top. This hierarchic theory can be seen as a pyramid, with the based occupied by people who are not focused on values, but just staying alive. For example a person who is starving dreams about food and thinks about food and nothing else. Each level of the pyramid is somewhat dependent on the previous level for most people.

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs includes five levels:

1 **Physiological Needs** including oxygen, food, water, warmth, protection from storms etc. These are the strongest human needs and if we are deprived of these we will die. When these are satisfied however we will move onto the next level.

2 **Safety Needs** - felt by adults during emergencies and periods of disorganisation in the social structure, such as widespread rioting. Felt more frequently by children who often display signs of insecurity and need to be reassured to feel safe. Once we feel safe we will be able to devote ourselves to relationships.....

3 **Love affection and belonging** – these needs are about not feeling lonely or alienated, to feel that we are accepted and are part of a group. We need to feel that we belong to a family, group, tribe or religion and that we can give and receive love and affection.

4 **Esteem Needs** – the need for a stable, firmly based high level of self respect and respect for others in order to feel satisfied, self confident and valuable. If these needs are not met we feel inferior, weak, helpless and worthless.

5 **Self-actualisation Needs** – Maslow describes self-actualisation as an ongoing process. Self actualising people get involved in causes outside their own skin. They are devoted to something which is very precious to them. In the past this would have been described as a vocation or a ‘calling’, something which the person was born to do. A musician must make music, an artist must paint and a poet must write. If these needs are not met, the person feels restless, on edge, tense and that there is something lacking. Lower needs may produce a restless feeling, but here it is much easier to find the cause. If a person is hungry, feels threatened, unloved or lacking self esteem, the cause is apparent. It is not always clear what a person wants when there is a need for self actualisation.
Maslow believes that the only reason that people would not move through the needs to self-actualisation is because of the barriers placed in their way by society. For example, education is often a barrier with an imposed idea of culture. On the other hand respectful and enlightened teaching promotes personal growth.

Maslow gave psychology an appreciation for values and thus forever linked psychology and religion. Goodness and the other B-values are generally found in the personal goals of every religion.

Maslow’s theory applies to all human beings, but the concepts could easily be incorporated into the school curriculum. The steps of the educational process which he outlines in his book could relate to a citizenship or personal development programme in schools running alongside a structured programme of careers education. These are all values and concepts that we would want children to develop to be well rounded human beings able to manage their lives and careers.
Hertzberg's Two Factor Theory of Motivation

Herzberg analysed the job attitudes of 200 accountants and engineers to find out the reasons for positive and negative feelings at work.

From the results of this research he suggested a two-step approach to understanding employee motivation and satisfaction:

**Hygiene Factors**
These are based on the conditions, environment and atmosphere at work which can all make employees feel dissatisfied.

Hygiene factors can include:

- Company policy and administration
- Wages, salaries and other financial remuneration
- Quality of supervision
- Relationships with other members of staff
- Working conditions
- Perception of job security

**Motivator Factors**
These are based on an individual's need for personal growth. When they are present they actively create job satisfaction. If they are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and work harder.

Motivator factors can include:

- Status
- Opportunity for advancement
- Gaining recognition
- Responsibility
- Challenging / stimulating work
- Sense of personal achievement & personal growth in a job

There is some similarity between Herzberg's and Maslow's models. They both suggest that needs have to be satisfied for the employee to be motivated. However, Herzberg argues that only the higher levels of the Maslow Hierarchy (e.g. self-actualisation, esteem needs) act as a motivator. The remaining needs can only cause dissatisfaction if not addressed.

Advisers need to consider what factors would motivate your client and consider occupations and opportunities that include these motivators if at all possible.
References


http://tutor2u.net/business/people/motivation_theory_herzberg.asp
CAREER TRANSITION AND CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Definitions of Transition

‘a passage or change from one place, or state, or act, or set of circumstances to another’
(Oxford English Dictionary)

transition is any event or non-event, that results in changed relationships, assumptions & roles
(Schlossberg, 1995)

‘the period of adjustment that begins when the possibility of a life change is first perceived by the individual and ends when adjustment to the new situation has taken place’
(NTU)

Transition is basically about change in any area of our lives, but we need to consider the impact that transition events have on our clients, many of whom will come to us when there has been a transition in their lives. People deal with changes differently: some thrive on it but others are terrified by it. It is well known that change is stressful even when it is positive. Our role as advisers is to help clients to be aware of these transitions, minimise the stress and make them into a positive experience.

Some major transition events:

- Parent’s divorce
- Divorce
- Bereavement
- Moving house
- Starting work
- First relationship
- Leaving school
- Leaving university
- Retirement
- Redundancy
- Marriage

Adams, Hayes, Hopson’s Classification of Transition and Life Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictable</th>
<th>Unpredictable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary (Chosen)</td>
<td>Involuntary (Imposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage (but not in all cultures)</td>
<td>Leaving school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lottery win</td>
<td>Redundancy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adams, Hayes & Hopson (1976) developed a model that relates more to how people deal with crises. They proposed a broad model of a transitional cycle
with seven phases. This represents a cycle of experiencing disruption, acknowledging its reality, then testing & understanding oneself & incorporating changes into ones behaviour. Self esteem varies across these phases and appears to follow a general pattern (also across cultures), although people seldom move in a progressive and orderly fashion and may move both forward & backward.

![Career Crises and Transitions](image)

Taken from NGRF website

‘The Transition Cycle, adapted from Nicholson & West (1988) provides a more flexible approach to the stages of work-role transitions. This can also be applied to situations where young people are entering a new place of learning or training. Underpinning the model are assumptions that although the stages are distinct, there is a strong interdependence & what happens at one stage has a powerful influence on the next. It is also argued that cycles can recur & have a cumulative effect, so if people experience failure or dissatisfaction at early stages, this can lead to cycles of disaffection. And also the opposite; that successful transitions will work to increase confidence and success.’
**Transition Cycle**  
(Nicholson & West 1987)

- **Preparation:** Expectations, desires, resources
- **Stabilisation:** Commitment and effectiveness
- **Adjustment:** Personal change and developing relationships
- **Encounter:** Copying making sense of things


**Transition during adolescence**

Adolescence is a period of transition between ‘childhood’ and ‘adulthood’. During this period young people may delay entry into the labour market by staying in FE or HE or by being unemployed. The reasons for this are complex but may include:

**Level of self confidence**
Lack of self awareness and confidence in making the ‘right’ decision

**People**
Family and peers have a big influence at this age. If there is no access to successful adult role models it can be difficult for young people to make a good career decision

**Experiences**
Ease of access to varying experiences including work and leisure. Also a good careers education programme with work experience and the ability to try things out.

Consider how Ginzberg and Super’s Life Stages theories offer an explanation for natural transition points occurring in people’s lives.
Change Management

‘Nothing endures but change’ Heraclitus (540BC - 480BC)

Unfreeze, Change, Freeze
Kurt Lewin

Kurt Lewin proposed a three stage theory of change commonly referred to as Unfreeze, Change, Freeze (or Refreeze). A lot has changed since the theory was originally presented in 1947, but the Kurt Lewin model is still extremely relevant and many other more modern change models are actually based on this one.

Stage 1: Unfreezing

This stage is about getting ready to change, understanding that change is necessary, and getting ready to move away from our current comfort zone.

People react differently to this stage, some needing deadlines to motivate change and others just procrastinating. If there is no deadline then the motivation is less to actually make a change.

This stage is all about weighing up the 'pro's' and 'con's' and deciding if the 'pro's' outnumber the 'con's' before action is taken. This is the basis of what Kurt Lewin called the Force Field Analysis. If the factors for change outweigh those against then people are more likely to carry it through. In a careers situation this is sometimes enforced when for example a person is made redundant or there is a big change is their job role.

Stage 2: Change - or Transition

Kurt Lewin was aware that change is not an event, but rather a process and he called that process a transition. He described this as ‘the inner movement or journey we make in reaction to a change’ This second stage occurs as we make the changes that are needed are move forward to a new situation.

That can sometimes be easier said than done as people are often unsure or even fearful of something new. Imagine trying to make a total career change after you had been in a job for twenty years or going to university with all the new experiences that would involve. People learn a lot about themselves when they are going through this process and will need your support and encouragement as an adviser to pave the way for them.

Stage 3: Freezing (or Refreezing)

Kurt Lewin refers to this stage as freezing although a lot of people refer to it as 'refreezing'. This stage is about establishing stability once the changes have been made. The changes are accepted and become the new norm. People form new relationships and become comfortable with their routines. This can take time and as an adviser you would have to decide how you could do this most effectively within your job role being aware that the aim would be to empower
your client to be able to effectively manage change for themselves in the future.

This part of the model has been criticised as it is said by some researchers that in the modern world there is no time to spend on this. Other theories tend to suggest more flexibility at this stage.

‘Lewin's concern is about reinforcing the change and ensuring that the desired change is accepted and maintained into the future. Without this people tend to go back to doing what they are used to doing. This is probably what Kurt Lewin meant by freezing - supporting the desired change to make sure it continues and is not lost.

More modern models of change, such as the ADKAR model, are more explicit about this step and include Reinforcement as one of their phases. I've also read this final step of freezing referred to as the lock-in effect. Establishing stability only happens when the new changes are locked-in.’

Just be aware that the change process doesn’t necessarily have an end point but can be a constant journey involving lots of stops and starts.

**The ADKAR model consists of five sequential steps or actions:**

1. **Awareness of the need for change.**
   Why is it necessary to change? This step will have been successfully completed when the client fully understands why change is necessary. This may be obvious if the change has been forced upon the client, such as redundancy, but other situations where perhaps the client is unhappy in their job because it’s too demanding for them may be more difficult to handle.

2. **Desire to participate in and support the change.**
   This can only occur if the first stage has been successfully completed. The adviser needs to point out the positive consequences that could occur as the result of change.

3. **Knowledge on how to change.**
   This is where the adviser can really help the client with their up to date knowledge of occupations and the labour market. How to change is the transition between the old and new situations.

4. **Ability to implement required skills and behaviours.**
   In the ADKAR model Ability is the difference between theory and practice. This is where the adviser needs to encourage the client to be realistic about what opportunities are appropriate for them.

5. **Reinforcement to sustain the change.**
   This final stage of the model is an essential component, but advisers need to be clear about their professional boundaries and how much support they can give once a change has occurred. It may be that they need to refer on to another agency to ensure that the changes can be maintained.
References


Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers of Group Dynamics", Human Relations, Volume 1


http://www.guidance-research.org/