A STUDY OF THE CAREERS INDUSTRY

by

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SUMMARY

The study considers major elements in the variety of organisations and occupations which link the occupation and education structures by providing advice, counselling and information for the individual.

The development of theories of occupational choice and counselling theory is shown to be reflected in radio broadcasting and in the services offered by independent agencies as well as in the work of careers officers and careers teachers.

The results of surveys of careers officers and careers teachers in Surrey are discussed. These people were found to have widely differing views of their functions but, in general, both groups emphasised the importance of careers work in schools and of serving the interests of individual clients.

From literature studies it is suggested that the effectiveness of guidance and counselling styles is dependent upon the motive or orientation of the client seeking help. As counselling and careers education become more complex they seek to reduce the dependence of the individual on informal community influences. The degree of ease with which influences on job choice can be controlled is likely to be inversely related to the extent of that influence.

There is little evidence on which to gauge the careers industry as an integrative force in society. However, as it develops, elements in it are seen to be subject to the same structural processes which facilitated its emergence.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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PREFACE

The structure of this study is determined by the nature of its subject - the careers industry.

For the purposes of this thesis the term 'careers industry' refers to the variety of organisations and occupations which link the occupation and education structures by providing advice, counselling and information for the individual. This may be by the specific aim of aiding him to make the choice and selection of a job or by a broader service which has the same purpose.

It is postulated that the traditional mechanisms for developing occupational expectations and choice are proving inadequate in a differentiated society and new agencies have emerged to co-ordinate the functions which the traditional means are unable to fulfil. Because of this emphasis on the part played by formal careers advice and information in the development of the job horizon, the organisations dealing purely with placement have been excluded from the definition of the careers industry on the assumption that the job horizon has been determined before the individual actually approaches them.

The situation leading to the growth of careers advisory practice and associated services will be discussed with a view to indicating whether they are integrating the education and occupation spheres, are exploiting the difficulties of transition which the individual faces, or neither.

Several overlapping, but not quite synonymous, terms will be used; for example, 'career' and 'job'. The former has more middle class overtones suggesting more of a commitment and life style than the 'job' which implies a more instrumental, short term association with a particular occupation.
The terms 'placement', 'guidance', 'advice', 'counselling', and 'information' reflect different emphases along the directive/non-directive continuum of relationships between the careers practitioner and the young person. Historically, the first four terms may reflect, in order, the emergence of the elements of demand which the careers industry has sought to serve. These are: the effective element of demand involving the young person actively looking for jobs, asking for help; deferred demand, which includes those people who would ask for help if it existed, or if they were aware of its existence; and latent demand consisting of the group which may at some later date have problems, but at the moment has no apparent need for the services of the careers advisory industry. The interplay between the emergence of these elements of demand and of the supply of specialist careers advisory occupations, agencies and supporting ideologies will be examined.

We shall see how a situation arose where a demand had been created and those same factors which created the demand served to produce the sources from which the supply services were drawn. We shall see how the careers industry is a microcosm of the larger society reflecting, and subject to, the same forces which led to its creation viz changes in the industrial and occupation structure, in school organisations, in the family, and the growth of specialisation and professionalism.

As a framework for these discussions alternative hypotheses deriving from the work of Smelser¹ and Collins² will be examined.

According to the first hypothesis the emergence of the careers industry is seen as part of the process of structural change. Smelser identifies three typical structural changes that occur in society as a result of technological, agricultural, industrial and ecological changes.
1. Structural differentiation, or the establishment of more specialised and more autonomous structural units.

2. Integration, or the establishment of new co-ordinative structures as the old social order is made obsolete by the processes of differentiation.

3. Social disturbances which reflect the social tensions created by the processes of differentiation and integration.

Taking the growth of the careers industry as the dependent variable, Chapter One will discuss the various features of structural differentiation in the realms of economic, familial, social stratification and value systems which have created a need for its development. Chapter Two will examine the sources of the theories and ideologies of careers practitioners concerning occupational socialisation and job choice. Chapters Three, Four and Five will trace the evolution of vocational guidance practices which emerged to meet the requirements of certain situations and the threads of thought and activity from a broad range of disciplines on which they drew.

The later chapters also examine, through case studies some major existing services and agencies – careers teaching, the Careers Service, and the media – at the interface between the school leaver and the world of work.

According to Smelser's theory, development proceeds as an 'interplay between differentiation (which is divisive of established society) and integration (which unites differential structures on a new basis). Paradoxically, however, the process of integration itself produces more differentiated structures.' The various branches of the careers industry will be examined to see if they show signs of such differentiation. This is to be expected since the people who are working in the careers industry are members of the total society and as such are subject to the same differentiating processes as their clients.
The literature on innovation and marginality would suggest that members of newly emerging occupations were, more than normally, on the periphery of their previous disciplines and professions. This theory will also be examined.

An alternative to the functionalist approach would be that individuals are not able to form satisfactory job horizons and are becoming discontented with their job choices due to a move toward a contest mobility system where large scale opportunity is demanded to aspire to a small number of elite jobs. In this case the careers industry could not perform an integrative, co-ordinating and stabilising function and must have some other reason for its existence - possibly exploitative.

Collins, in his theory of educational stratification, rejects the view that increased pressures in education are due to the increasing requirements of the work task. The increasingly widespread and specialised education requirements for employment are seen as being greater than those necessary to accommodate the mild trend towards a reduction in unskilled jobs and an increase in highly skilled ones and the results of upgrading in job requirements due to technological change. He contests the view that formal education is the only, or the best, means of providing required job skills and produces evidence to show that the level of education is not related to production among samples of several occupational groups. The primary function of the school is seen as the provision of sets of values and shared activities either for potential members of the dominant elite culture, or to instil into potential lower and middle level employees a general respect for those elite values and styles. The values instilled would depend on the type of education establishment attended and the community for which it catered.

This theory and its implications are expanded elsewhere but at the moment suffice it to say that, within
this sort of framework the latent functions and potential implications of the careers services and agencies take on a different complexion to the integrating role discussed previously.

The concluding chapter will assess the advantages and disadvantages of the two approaches and will suggest a further model for assessing the effectiveness of careers advice.
CHAPTER ONE

Features in the Growth of the Careers Industry - Employment, Education and Structural Change

1.1 Introduction

There is a stage in an individual's life when play and learning give way to labour as the prominent activity. In times of social and economic stability, with slow technical change, or when work was carried on in small scale organisations, close to the home and of a nature determined by the available local resources the move into work would be prescribed by family tradition, the type of community into which the child had been socialised and the influence of surrounding workers and industry with which he identified. The norms and social relationships internalised by him might be fairly readily transferable to those required on the job.

Advice, counselling and information on careers has always been available to the child in an implicit and informal form through family and neighbourhood influences. These traditional influences in occupational socialisation are still very dominant but there is increasing evidence to suggest that they are not functioning well in that individuals are not able to form satisfactory job horizons and are becoming discontented with their job choices. There are also signs of an inability to cope with the changing circumstances of the occupational structure.

Knowledge of the nature of a job which any individual can acquire through social relationships is limited, although the scope may be growing. The focus of his occupational aspirations is being diffused and the stability accorded by an occupational identity is weakened. Such changes are giving rise to an increasing need for formal careers advice and information. Accompanying ideological changes regarding the meaning of work, the purpose of education and the economic importance of the relationship
between education and industry have also affected the growth of "the careers industry".

The trend in the written laws and declared policies of our society is toward equality of opportunity, rationalisation, and instrumental relationships. The individual is freed from the constraints of ascribed careers but, while he is aware of his freedom to choose, structures which facilitate career achievement become increasingly necessary.

One could posit a model whereby any individual in a society with a fully rationalised structure may be defined in terms of instrumental, rational relationships. Society appears to be moving towards this 'ideal type' today. Legislation attempts to ensure that an individual's emotional, instinctive feelings for another do not interfere with the requirements of their explicit relationship. Examples of such legislation include the Sex Discrimination Act, the Race Relations Act and the Chronically Sick and Disabled Persons Act. The increasing official disapproval of the non-quantifiable elements in personal assessment must have implications for the work place. These may be manifest in detachment, alienation and an instrumental attitude to the job and/or the creation of opportunities for those who might otherwise be barred. In the development of counselling and other social work there are signs that even the means of compensating for the effects of this rationalising tendency are being organised and made more explicit.

In discussing differentiation this chapter will demonstrate briefly how differentiation of roles in the occupation structure is the result of: technical innovation, changes in the organisation of industry, which in turn is partly due to improved technology and partly to changes in social and political demands; changes in population distribution characterised by urban living and attendant changes in the styles. The attendant role of education will be examined and the relationship between education and industry.
The Changing Nature of Occupations

In discussing the changing nature of occupations it might be as well to determine first what is meant by the term.

Education is a statutory requirement for all citizens of this country between the ages of 5 and 16. After this age the manner in which the individual should fill his time is not stated by the law of the land. Such an explicit directive is unnecessary since the implicit laws of economic and social survival serve to ensure that most people take up occupations i.e. that they engage in some fairly continuous activity which will render them rewards or relieve them from pressures, whether financial or otherwise, which make that activity worthwhile.

Vroom\(^4\) has suggested five motivational bases for work:

1) **Monetary reward**, including wages, pension funds and other financial or practical inducements.
   
   Several studies have revealed that work is more than a means to monetary ends. Morse and Weiss\(^5\) asked people if and why they would continue working if the monetary necessity were removed. Of the 80% who would continue, two-thirds gave positive reasons for doing so such as the interest, enjoyment and self-respect derived from it. That such feelings exist is further evidenced by the sense of loss often felt in the years succeeding retirement.

2) **The expenditure of mental or physical energy**
   
   The assumption is that human beings require a certain amount of exercise and seek it in leisure pursuits if the opportunity is lacking in their job.

3) **The production of goods and services**. This is based on the work principle that man is gratified when he is able to master or alter the environment by efficient use of muscular and intellectual tools. It might be supposed that people with particularly strong needs for creativity will be frustrated by a great many jobs in modern industry. Neff\(^6\) argues, however, that

'only when the process of automation proceeds so far that
his connection with production becomes entirely attenuated, does the worker feel utterly useless'.

4) **Social interaction** Most jobs involve interaction with other human beings whether as customers, clients or colleagues, bosses or subordinates. The nature of the relationships developed on the job and the length of time they span can make them some of the most rewarding social interactions an individual can experience.

5) **Social status** Occupations serve as perhaps the best indicators of social status, whether at the popular level whereby the party guest immediately places another on the social map on learning his occupation, or at the scientific level, for example, in census data and market research analysis. As well as earning the respect of others the possession of a job is a source of self esteem which is greater with relative freedom from constraint, relative authority and responsibility and the degree of opportunity for social interaction.

6) **Self fulfilment** To Vroom's five motivational bases for work is added a sixth. The work ideology of contemporary society encourages the young worker to anticipate that work will be his most important social function through which, in Maslow's view, he will achieve self-actualisation and fulfilment.

The concept of occupational differentiation is essential to all studies of social stratification and of intra-, and inter-, generational mobility in western industrialised societies. When a number of individuals engage in specific work experiences in a set pattern of human relationships they may be said to share a degree of corporateness and consciousness which may be termed an occupational identity.

With the separation of work from the family and the pursuit of different norms in the two environments the ascriptive orientation of a worker has given way to achievement orientation. A life style closely associated with work and the likelihood of inheritance of both these
factors by the next generation is being superseded by the assumption that the worker has achieved his position by accomplishment. It is less likely that his occupational identity will be discernable from his life style. This tendency is by no means complete, however. Whether in recruitment to traditional family trades, or among professions and institutions which select their personnel from particular education establishments or social strata, ascriptive factors can still be recognised. Even in these instances, ascriptive factors may be recognised to operate in recruitment to the initial occupation after which it is more expected that the individual's career will progress as a result of his own accomplishments.

The separation of work from the family, and the close relationship between the occupation system and stratification system emphasises the conflict for groups such as women and the unemployed whose occupational role is not clearly defined. This problem is experienced particularly by the adolescent. In an address at Nottingham in 1967 Musgrove highlighted the problem caused by postponed occupation or specialist choice, that the adolescent is prevented from arriving at an occupational identity, upon which our culture places so much emphasis. "For most men and women work and occupation provide a focus for the organisation of personality. The adolescent who enjoys a protracted liberal education is denied this focus." In Super's terms, in entering an occupation a person has the opportunity to implement a concept of himself and in getting established in an occupation he achieves self-actualisation.

As well as forming the major routine activity in adult life the adult occupation is that for which much earlier schooling and occupational experience is regarded as a preparation and is a major reference point for the individual in retirement.

To summarise, occupations represent one set of statuses in society. They are differentiated in terms of financial
reward, power, social prestige and privilege. How an occupation is regarded in terms of its worth and value is important in job aspiration and career behaviour.

As will be shown in Chapter Two ideology and social organisation help in the choosing of occupations by individuals. Many occupations are so structured that recruitment is controlled by current practitioners. Factors external to the job to do with personality, neighbourhood, economic climate, educational and social development also serve to define the limits within which the individual can choose his occupation. However, due to the influence of modern media the adolescent is able to acquire vicarious experience of a number of occupations which may be presented in a distorted and/or glamourised way. As well as the danger of misconceptions forming as a result of these sorts of influences the possibility also arises that the individual will develop job aspirations and expectations which are unattainable, whether because the educational requirement is too high or because he would not possess the appropriate culture and values to be accepted into that occupation. In addition, in the words of Lee Taylor the sheer multiplicity of occupations, even in the freest, most open-class society tends to negate effective aspiring and choosing of occupations due to the absence of societal or occupational mechanisms for communicating to the potential aspirants the wide range of occupations that are consistent with individual interests and abilities.

One of the main causes of occupational differentiation has been identified as the change brought about by technological innovation. Taking Hall's definition of technological change as 'any alteration in the equipment utilised to perform work' and acknowledging that these alterations are in the direction of increasing mechanisation and automation it can be seen that the trend is towards less physical labour on the part of humans. Even where
the goals or finished products of an organisation do not change, the alteration of the work process leads to necessary change in the social and technological organisation surrounding it.

The annual reports of British Labour Statistics confirm that the country's occupational structure is undergoing a process of change.

**T.1.2.1 Number of Employees (thousands) by Industry Order**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selected Industry</th>
<th>1948</th>
<th>1958</th>
<th>1968</th>
<th>1974</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, forestry etc.</td>
<td>823.6</td>
<td>624.0</td>
<td>425.0</td>
<td>403.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and quarrying</td>
<td>884.1</td>
<td>861.6</td>
<td>505.9</td>
<td>346.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance, banking and finance</td>
<td>425.9</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>674.6</td>
<td>1100.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive trades</td>
<td>2019.7</td>
<td>2554.1</td>
<td>2828.1</td>
<td>2706.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leather, leathergoods, fur</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>64.5</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>20,270</td>
<td>21,818</td>
<td>23,152</td>
<td>22,927</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Reports of the Manpower Research Unit indicate the fluctuations within industry. For example in the mid-sixties the majority of metal industries expected a reduction in the proportion of skilled craftsmen required and construction firms forecast an upward trend in requirement for carpenters, joiners, electricians and heating and ventilation craftsmen accompanied by a decline in the number of plasterers, bricklayers and painters.
So not only does the trend towards a higher proportion of the population being employed in the service industries continue but also the nature of jobs within sectors of industry change as industrial processes alter. In some cases new skills, sometimes more demanding skills have to be learned, in other industries the skill level is drastically reduced by the introduction of new machines. Old jobs become obsolete, new jobs are created. Industrial processes change as technical improvements are made, but also the goals of industry change in response to alterations in demand for goods and services. Industry can actively influence demand through its ingenuity in devising new products and its investment in publicity. But changes in social and political data also have profound influence on production and investment. Allen gives as examples—the rise in per capita income, the change in income distribution, changes of taste resulting from new forms of education and means of communication, changes in age distribution and the implementation of government policy.

It can be seen, therefore, that the individual may be expected to acquire several different skills and engage in several different occupations during his working life. While for some jobs the demand is for higher skills which take longer to acquire, at the same time the risk of their becoming obsolete is increasing.

The increasingly large investment required to install and maintain the technical processes of industry has strengthened the development of large organisations specialising in the production of particular equipments or services. As well as this mild trend toward the aggregation of jobs they have become more highly specialised. The scope of any one job in terms of its contribution to the finished product is limited as is the extent to which the layman can understand the nature of the work involved. The worker is then identified more by his occupational label, the prestige attached to it and the organisation for which he works than by the skill with which he does the job.
The evolution of work through the stages of mechanisation and automation has aroused attempts among employees to protect the skilled trades and their occupational autonomy when confronted with technological change. This is as much true of engineers and doctors as it is of industrial workers. When a skilled man's job is subdivided into elementary tasks he recognises a threat to his social status and attempts to retain it. Deprived of initiative and participation workers direct claims towards a share in the products and administration of their job and towards a higher standard of living.

Trade unions work towards recognition of their status rather than skill. They seek continuity, a progress of occupational life and the advantages and guarantees sought in a notion of career. Occupational associations tend toward the professional idea of a continuing acquisition of skills and pressure for continued training or recycling for their members when faced with job obsolescence. This idea of the working life being adopted as a vocation can be consolidated through legal measures which seek to secure social advantages.

About a quarter of the US work force can be said to be in careers as distinct from jobs and the proportion is increasing. Wilensky argues that careers are a major source of stability in modern industrial society. They enable recruitment and motivation of able people. The availability of prospects creates a willingness to train, to educate and to achieve. Individual career patterns are becoming more discreet with several stages but at the same time aim to achieve greater stability in rewards.

An individual is more able to develop expectation of a career plan when in stable employment. It is a paradox that the individual seems in a more dependent relationship with regard to his locality when insecurity of employment prevents him from distinguishing his own future from that of the area. When in stable employment he can escape from
this dependence and develop expectations which transcend the existing situation. Workers in stable employment are potentially the most mobile yet, are often the youngest and the people most strongly urged to remain with their firm.

The instability of the occupation structure is one of the major arguments for the view that personal, educational and vocational guidance are interdependent and that their major object should be to prepare and enable the individual to face and overcome crises in his life by making his own decisions about his future with the help of as many facts and alternatives as are possible being made available to him by experts.

While there will always be a place for the service which helps the school leaver to choose which job he will take when he leaves Hughes suggests that careers advice in the nature of an expanding economy is likely to be ephemeral. The important decisions will be taken in relation to a person's specialisation rather than to the particular job on which he will embark. Hughes argues that choice of specialisation may be just as important as that of job and should be postponed as long as possible in order to keep the maximum number of options open.

As Americans have found and as a number of British writers such as Blang are emphasising 'it may be of greater economic value to provide as general an education as possible and to postpone specialisation as long as possible leaving vocational training to be done on the job.' The dangers of this practice coupled with longer formal education lie in a conflict between lack of occupational identity and a society whose structure is so dependent upon occupations.

With regard to the relation between career advice and structural change it can be seen that a service geared to preparing the individual to accept and cope with alterations in his working and personal life might facilitate the
acceptance of changes in the economic and technical spheres. Alternatively a system which emphasises selection and educational tailoring of individuals to fit the nation's needs might rigidify.

1.3 The Role of Education

The growth of formal education may be seen with the change in the occupational structure as part of the differentiation of roles which were previously the concern of the family. While home and community are still the most important setting for social experiences for most of the year the child spends more of his waking life in the school than he does with his family. The education system therefore also plays an important part in developing the skills and attitudes which will shape the child's character and with which he will enter adult life. A vast literature discusses the manner in which home, school and community influence the development and choice processes of the young. Brief reference is made to this in Chapter Two. Here, we shall discuss the place of education in a differentiated society.

The role of education in preparing and distributing individuals into occupations is indisputable. Occupations, in turn, are major determinants of social status which, as numerous studies have shown, is related to educational achievement. Educational achievement is therefore, one of the major means of achieving upward social mobility. Research has shown that people see perhaps the major objective of schooling as being the teaching of things that enable the pupil to get as good a job as possible. The Schools Council (1968) showed this to be much more the case among pupils and their parents than among their teachers who generally rejected the achievement of vocational success as a major object of education. The authors comment 'it is evident therefore that conflict and misunderstanding may arise between the short term viewpoint of parents and pupils who are concerned with starting work in the immediate future and the long term objectives of teachers...
who see their responsibility as preparing pupils for the whole of their future lives.

Both groups would seem to have the child's career interests at heart; the parents are concerned that he should acquire as good a start as possible to his working life, and the teachers that he should be able to cope not only with his immediate situation but with future ones as well by self improvement through education. The latter view could be described as 'the pursuit of education as a means to an end. But these distinctions, often made, would seem to be interrelated since the motive behind education for its own sake is self improvement as is the motive behind regarding education as a means to social and economic ends.

The amount and nature of education received and its distribution in the population has important implications for the occupational system although Vaizey observes that there is no definite proof that the education system contributes to economic development. 'One has to be careful to separate arguments about education for all from arguments about education for key groups.' It is indisputable that at least a small sector of the population should have access to the highest levels of education and skills if technological progress and hence economic growth is to be maintained.

Blau et al have suggested that the return on the investment in education for the individual and selection for the employer is greatest for someone who is educated up to pre-degree level after which the law of diminishing returns operates. Similarly it has been shown in America where subject specialisation occurs much later than in this country that the range of occupational alternatives is probably greatest at the time of high school graduation. Before that period it is limited by the lack of education. Afterwards it is limited by specialisation. Continued education, therefore, actually sets limits on the potential occupation for an individual.
There is long standing controversy over the optimum form which education should take for occupational preparation. In view of the probability that the individual will pursue several different jobs during his working life the case is put for postponed specialisation and a protracted general education to give as broad an educational base at as high a level as possible. On the other hand the demands of industry and the professions for higher and more specialised skills with ever increasing formal qualifications apply pressure, particularly on the potential scientist or technologist, to specialise in these subjects at an early age.

Collins rejects the view that increased pressures in education are due to the increasing requirements of the work task. The increasingly widespread and specialised education requirements for employment are seen as being greater than is necessary to accommodate the mild trend towards reduction in unskilled jobs and increase in highly skilled ones and the results of upgrading in job requirements due to technological change. He contests the view that formal education is the only or the best means of providing required job skills and produces evidence to show that level of education is not related to production among samples of several occupational groups. The primary function of the school is seen as the provision of sets of values and shared activities either for potential members of the dominant elite culture, or to instil into potential lower and middle level employees a general respect for these elite values and styles. The values instilled would depend on the type of education establishment attended and the type of area and community for which it catered.

With ascription as the basis of selection in all organisations educational requirements are seen as reflecting the interests of whichever groups have power to set them. Because of the existence of a relatively contest mobility
school system in the United States there is a popular demand for education in order to gain entry into the elite status culture. But because the existence of a small number of highly skilled jobs fosters demand for large-scale opportunities to acquire these positions there is a general raising of educational requirements for occupational entry and an accompanying dilution of the status value of education.

Although the causes are disputed it is a fact that the educational requirements of occupations are increasing. In a less than full employment situation this may be due to a two way process - as educational levels increase the standards of applicants for jobs increase and it takes more qualifications to obtain the position. Miller and Form comment 'The belief that each step reached in the educational ladder is at the same time a step taken toward a higher status, better paying job has stimulated greatly the aspiration for white collar jobs. It explains why so many young people expect to avoid manual labour and why they often look with disdain upon manual workers.

An increase in the availability of information on careers which would increase the population's awareness of the best jobs might be supposed to create discrepancies between job aspirations and jobs actually acquired. American research has presented a fair amount of evidence to sustain this view but authors such as Veness have shown that British adolescents are very realistic and there is little discrepancy between fantasies, expectations and achievements. The difference between the US and UK experiences might be explained in terms of ideas of equality of opportunity and contest mobility which in turn may also be related to a longer tradition of careers advice. In Britain it might be the case that in a more explicitly ascriptive sponsored mobility system the willingness of applicants to apply is more in line with the readiness of selectors to accept a wider range of applicants.
There is some evidence to suggest that the trend in the structure of British education away from the explicitly selective systems of the last few decades to a comprehensive school system may enable many pupils to achieve an academic success that would have been virtually impossible for them in a selective secondary school. There are some indications that in such a system pupils tend to stay longer at school. The raising of the school leaving age to 16 is, in a sense a public recognition of the importance of education even if its purpose is not quite agreed upon.

In the face of changes in the meaning of occupations, sometimes in their loss of meaning for the individual due to fragmentation, subordination and the loss of occupational initiative, workers tend to limit their level of aspiration and expectation and transfer it to a dream of another future for their children and stress the importance of education and specialist advice which they cannot give.

As the Schools Council report shows most parents and pupils attach great importance to the vocational function of schools not only in equipping the child with qualifications but providing information about the various possibilities available and enabling him to assess which are the most suitable.

1.4 The Relationship between Education and the Occupation Structure

Industrialists and educationists are coming round to the idea of seeing a good careers advisory service as a protection of the nation's investment in education.

While in theory it should be possible to change people's occupations during their working lives as the demands of industry change, several factors may impede such a transfer. Different occupations require different skills and areas of knowledge but even where a high degree
of skill transfer exists not only social factors come into play but also institutional ones such as the assistance by professional associations and trade unions that certain tasks can only be performed by workers possessing recognised formal qualifications.

In the long run the labour supply is much more flexible. Adjustments to the labour force can be made by increasing recruitment into expanding occupational groups and cutting back recruitment where employment prospects are declining. Securing any adjustment in this way takes time and the extent to which manipulation of this sort is acceptable in terms of individual fulfilment must be in doubt. Yet failure to anticipate the future demand for various categories of labour could result in there being too many workers in declining occupational groups and too few in expanding areas. From the national standpoint this impedes economic growth and for the individual it increases the risk of redundancy and of having to change careers in the middle of his working life.

This brings us to the question of balance between the manpower requirements of the state and the satisfaction of individual career requirements. It cannot be assumed that by increasing breadth of education and knowledge of careers we would all end up in jobs of our choice which perfectly match our skills and abilities. On the assumption that a good fit between aptitude and jobs is possible Lisa Klein, in a Fabian pamphlet 'The Meaning of Work', speculates that too careful selection may give rise to problems of meritocracy. She continues 'If people are so carefully selected that only the dullest do the dull jobs and the weakest are at the bottom of the ladder, we may stop producing troublemakers, and this could be a dangerous state of affairs .... there is something to be said for having someone around who keeps management on its toes and anxious to forestall the next spot of bother.' But the stages and numbers of employee pegs and employer's holes do not automatically correspond. The whole philosophy
of manpower research is based on this assumption—that an imbalance exists between the demand and supply of labour.

Manpower planning can be approached from two perspectives.47

(a) The derivation of education goals from the needs and demands of industry

The ultimate aim is to have an occupational structure that fulfils the occupational requirement where each individual's potential is maximised in a way which best serves the industrial requirements.

It cannot be taken for granted that only one occupational structure will fulfil the ultimate production requirement. Blaugh et al.48, in their study of educated manpower in industry, were unable to establish optimal educational requirements for jobs but were able to show both that the same occupation is staffed by people of varying educational background and experience, and also that no particular education experience requirement stands out as obviously appropriate for each occupation.

The Robbins committee49 (paragraph 133) rejected approach (a) as being impracticable. Several factors other than those under state control influence individual career choice and indeed individual career potential. It would be difficult to 'tailor make' educational products for the occupational structure.

Even if it were possible to determine occupational requirements this would have to be done at least ten years in advance in order to design a suitable education system. If the training of educational personnel is taken into account this time lag increases considerably.

(b) The analysis of the industrial consequences of particular education policies

In this case one might attempt to determine what output would emerge, or could be made to emerge under optimum conditions, from a labour force of given educational or occupational characteristics. Here the time dimension
is at least in favour of the planner in that the factors influencing occupational choice whether formal or informal are all known and existing well before the educational product enters the occupation structure.

As shall be shown in Chapter Two the education and career choice process and the occupation structure are interdependent since intergenerational and community influences are important factors in education and career development.

Blaug et al put the case for treating labour like other capital. A firm makes an investment in its labour force in much the same way as it makes investment in its physical capital. Through training and experience the investment in labour is maintained rather in the way that machinery is serviced, 'the firm is just as likely to want its trained labour to leave it as it is to give away its machinery'. The firm will also need to plan its use of labour over time to an increasing degree as the labour force acquire longer terms of contractual service. On the individual's part he is investing a commitment to the firm in terms of his career, his adaptation to it and to its requirements.

Planners are faced with finding a compromise best fit between the best education policy for the individual and the best employment structure which can be achieved — each taking the other into account.

Manpower forecasts should help to increase the flexibility of the labour supply. Using them it is possible, Hayes suggests,

(a) To anticipate change and engineer it in such a way that many of our new labour requirements can be satisfied with the existing skills in the labour force.

(b) To anticipate change and establish the re-training facilities necessary to assist workers to move into new occupations; or alternatively
(c) To anticipate change and concentrate recruitment effort so as to attract sufficient school-leavers and other new entrants into the labour market into the appropriate occupations. This final possibility is one which is worthy of special consideration within the context of vocational guidance. Yet the ideology behind it, one of guidance and directive counselling is not one which all careers practitioners would accept.

In practice manpower forecasts tend to be arrived at by two different approaches. Firstly, by projecting past and present employment trends into the future. This has the danger that it might reflect trends in labour supply rather than demand. The second approach involves estimating the national product over the required period and the proportion of this which will be produced by each sector of industry. As well as consulting the effects of technological developments on employment trends analogies can be made with the occupation structure of other nations whose development is similar to that to which the country aspires.

In the same way that any one occupation can be performed by people with a number of education mixes, goods and services can be produced using a labour force composed of any of a number of different occupational mixes. Rather than increasing the number of his employees to increase his output the employer may prefer to increase their skills and call in training staff or he might step up his research and development. The business of forecasting future employment in different sectors of industry is, therefore, fraught with difficulty.

Manpower forecasts are not infallible but in view of the importance of the problems they try to solve are reckoned to be useful indicators of future trends if certain goals are to be realised. Hayes (1969) showed
how the Dainton Report taking account of the 1965 Triennial Manpower Survey called for an increase in recruitment of scientists and technologists and yet an OECD report (1968) showed that this country had too many technically qualified people for the work available.

Other government reports have also been produced with the aim of improving education services for the individual and at the same time taking account of projected manpower requirements. The Swann Report\(^5\)\(^1\) (HMSO 1968) also cited the need for a general increase in the availability of more scientific and technical expertise. At the same time the need for more general courses in higher education was stressed in order to allow more flexible individual career patterns and the development of life styles not totally dependent on work skills\(^5\)\(^2\).

Robbins listed among the aims of higher education not only instruction in skills suitable to play a part in the general division of labour but also to promote general powers of mind, the advancement of learning and the transmission of a common culture and standard to make cultivated men and women. The need for an increase in skills and versatilities is again emphasised. Taking an international perspective on educational investment the Robbins committee claimed that if ours falls appreciably below that of other nations then in the long run general earning power will be affected to a worse degree than if the original outlay had been greater.

So, educationists recognise the effect of the changes which have occurred in the employment structure and shall occur in the individual life style. They stress the need for a broader based education, postponed specialisation and emphasis on individual development and expression through integrated courses.

Industry has also recognised the need to develop favourable attitudes to flexible career structures if the best use is to be made of manpower resources. This was the thinking behind a CBI report on careers guidance
published in 1969⁴⁴ which underlined the importance to the economy of making the best possible use of the nation's talent. The report examined all existing careers guidance services, public and private, in order to see how they could be improved in industry's interests. It proposed the establishment of a National Careers Guidance Service to help individuals of all ages cope with and anticipate job obsolescence in a positive fashion before it becomes a threat, and also to help them find employment most suited to their personal needs, abilities and potentials and to make a choice of career on the basis of informed advice.

They stressed that on no account should the careers services go beyond advice into direction of labour manpower projections being presented as information rather than guidelines for the individual. It is interesting to note that while reports produced by educationists on future education policy do look to manpower projections for guidelines the careers services are not expected to implement a similar policy by industrialists.

It can be seen that the balance between increasing the freedom of the individual to act by giving him information and advice and limiting it by too much directed guidance is a delicate one to maintain. The manner in which the two spheres, industry and education, have participated in the development of the careers services will be discussed in detail later.

1.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined the complex nature of occupations and their relationships with education systems. It has also outlined some of the problems of devising an appropriate educational response to manpower needs. In further chapters the implications for teaching methods and the development of new specialisations among educationists to meet the situation will be discussed.
2.1 Introduction

Osipow\(^1\) notes that 'what the counsellor decides to do when confronted with career choice questions depends upon the estimate he has of the source of the problem and the precise nature of its behaviour correlates. The remedy he applies to the situation will be chosen in terms of what he thinks is needed to correct the situation.' In other words his work and the way he tackles it will be based on his theory of occupational choice because this determines his interpretation of the problem.

Before discussing the workings of the careers industry, therefore, it is necessary to appreciate the theories on which careers work is based and according to which careers practitioners claim to operate. Examination of models of the choice and selection process which had been put forward should help to explain how the agencies of the careers industry were able to develop and become part of that process.

The various theories of vocational guidance from which some practices derive owe much to studies of the mechanics of decision making. Study of the elements influencing decisions should enable practitioners to identify the stage in his development at which the client would most benefit from their services and the best form of approach. We shall see in later chapters how, as it has developed, the careers industry itself must be identified as a factor in the model of influences on job choice.

Some models of influences on job choice, particularly early ones, were deterministic, posed by exponents of the square peg, square hole philosophy. Career choice was seen as a decision to be made once and once only.

Other models posit that bearing in mind the desired future when considering present choices at every stage of development makes the possibility of attaining that future more likely, i.e. all factors are controllable. A desired end is achievable.
Most careers advisory services presuppose the second proposition (with perhaps the exception of the V.G.A. see Chapter Three). In later chapters it will be shown that careers advice started to be practised at the most easily controllable point and is spreading from there. It should be noted, however, that the controllability of a factor is probably in inverse proportion to its degree of influence on career choice.

Butler describes occupational choice as 'a complex function of sociological, psychological and cultural influences which operate within and are structured by prevailing economic, educational and labour systems'. This is a very broad description which could almost equally apply to any social action. Theorists in several disciplines have aimed to define the nature and extent of the major influences relevant to an individual's choice of occupation. Since such a choice is an integral part of life experience it is unlikely that all conscious and unconscious elements in its development could be identified. Rather, people have sought these features common to individuals in similar occupations; those factors which limit and qualify possible choice; or others have attempted to describe a framework of choice development, locating the stages at which different factors are of prime importance to the individual's projected choice.

Writers on occupational choice theory have tended to classify the different approaches used by theorists under five main headings:

i) the need reduction model,
ii) the trait-factor, or talent matching, model
iii) the social structure model,
iv) the complex information processing model,
v) the probable gain model.

Most of the work done on occupational choice can be seen as contributing to the developmental school of thought which sees it as a continuous process of decision making and influence. This school draws upon features of all five
approaches and will be discussed after the trait factor model the inadequacies of which it helps to reveal.

2.2 Theories of Influence - Need Reduction

This approach is one adopted by some psychoanalysts and child psychologists. During the first third of this century it was suggested by psychoanalysts that occupational choice may be a response to the need for libidinal gratification, although this is a difficult theory to demonstrate. As Butler comments, 'if basic occupational choices are subject to such sub-conscious controls, then individuals may be imperious to constructive attempts at canalising interests into new areas'.

Anne Roe's work is central to the need reduction approach and is consistently quoted in current guidance literature. She sought to relate experience of early childhood to attitudes, abilities, interests and other personality factors affecting job choice. She offers a set of hypotheses in which genetic elements are seen as limiting the degree of development of certain skills (e.g. strength) rather than directly determining positive forms of expression. Special attributes are developed as a result of automatic, involuntary expenditure of psychic energy. The directions in which this involuntary development will occur are a result of early satisfactions and frustrations in relation to basic needs. She refers to Maslow's hierarchy of eight basic needs which man seeks to satisfy in the given order -

i) physiological needs,
ii) safety needs,
iii) needs for belongingness and love,
iv) need for importance, respect, self-esteem, independence,
v) need for information,
vi) need for understanding,
vii) need for beauty,
viii) need for self-actualisation.
If a need is not satisfied as it appears it will intensify to become an unconscious motivator. Higher order needs will be expunged if hardly ever satisfied. Such treatment of lower order needs will cause them to become dominant and restricting motivators preventing the appearance of higher order ones. Needs for which satisfaction is delayed will also become unconscious motivators; the extent of such motivation being dependent upon the strength of the need the value placed upon its satisfaction and the length of its delay.

Experience in coping with these needs will lead to the eventual pattern of psychic energies which is the major determinant of dominating interests and abilities. Roe posits that 'the intensity of these (primarily) unconscious needs, as well as their organisation, is the major determinant of the degree of motivation as expressed in accomplishment'.

According to this theory the attitude of parents towards their young child is of prime importance in determining his future life. These may take the form of overprotectiveness, an overdemanding attitude, rejection, neglect, a loving or a casual attitude. Such attitudes may reflect an emotional concentration on the child, avoidance of him or regular acceptance. One of the first effects of parental attitude is to direct attention either towards people or towards non-people - whether animals, plants or objects.

Roe presents a model relating parental handling and adult behaviour patterns in which she relates parental handling in early childhood to eight occupational groups - service, business contract, organisations, technology, outdoor, science, general cultural, arts and entertainment. An individual may work at different levels, from unskilled to top managerial, within these groups. The level attained must be affected by the need intensity and motivation, within, Roe allows, the limits set by socio-economic background and intelligence.
Hagen conducted an empirical test of Roe's theory and found that career is not solely dependent upon the atmosphere in which the child is reared. Among his sample the incidences of home atmosphere corresponding to career choice according to Roe's predictions were no greater than could be expected by chance. He suggests that she may not have chosen the occupational groups in her model with sufficient care to ensure that the groups used allow for only certain personality types and not others. As chosen by Roe most of the groups were sufficiently wide to include jobs allowing for a wide range of vocational orientations and personality types within each. However certain trends should have been observable for obviously 'people oriented' jobs such as service if Roe's hypotheses were true.

This field was further explored by Barbara Nachman (1960) who looked at members of three professions: the law, dentistry and social work to see whether they had appreciably different childhood experiences. She worked on the basis that different jobs emphasise different personality characteristics and provide different opportunities for the expression of impulses, the satisfaction of needs and organising one's dealings with the world.

The central characteristics of the legal profession cited were - 'the prominence of verbal aggression, a concern with human justice, the exercise of a privileged curiosity into the lives of others'. Social work involves 'having to forego the expression of aggressive feelings, concern for the spirit rather than the letter of the law, and a renouncing of curiosity as a source of personal gratification'. The dentist has little need for a skill with words compared with manual dexterity, he is able to do aggressive things without having hostile feelings, has no concern with justice and no curiosity although he has to look into the mouth.
Lawyers and dentists more often had strong fathers than social workers, for whom the mother was often a dominant character likely to have a job outside the home. Dentists were more close to their fathers, both physically and emotionally, than lawyers who may have been influenced by a strong male figure other than the father. The parental care of dentists emphasised physical well-being more often than intellectual nurturing and there was a slightly more frequent teaching of tool usage in their homes. The dentists' families were more often described as conventional, conservative, formally religious and politically inactive and they tended to emphasise submission to authority and impulse repression rather than impulse channelling. Lawyers more frequently reported self-disciplining and with social workers learned to read at an earlier age than dentists. There was definite evidence of severe deprivation before the age of two in the histories of social workers more often than for the other two groups. Discipline by invoking a regard for the feelings of others and instilling an ethic of consideration for others was also more frequently experienced by social workers.

Bordin, Segal, Wernstein and others conducted similar studies regarding the personality characteristics of members of different occupations. Bordin, Nachmann and Segal later put forward a matrix of Basic Need Gratifying Activities for a sample of three occupations which associated characteristics of the jobs and the manner in which the individual becomes involved in them with impulse gratification and anxiety reduction in relation to a number of psychic dimensions and body zones.

Bearing in mind that recall maybe coloured by the subject's current values the result of these studies must lend weight to the arguments of those stressing the importance of early childhood and family attitudes in influencing occupational choice.
Another study relating personality types to the development of interests is that of Hudson. In looking for differences between people who chose to study science and non-science subjects at school he distinguished between convergent and divergent types of personality. Hudson administered I.Q. tests to his sample with both verbal and non-verbal sections. The boys with a physical science bias tended overall to do rather better than those taking arts subjects. These results seemed to suggest that the I.Q. tests had an inbuilt bias towards the scientist in that the question tended to be designed to expect a single correct answer. The I.Q. test did not seem to measure imaginative intelligence well. On a division the convergers tended to score high on I.Q. tests and low on open ended tests; for divergers the opposite was true.

A need for a sense of security is characteristic of the convergent personality who chooses to confine himself to a depth study of a narrow range of technical topics. School science is non-controversial, and, in the main, assumes that every problem has one correct solution. The convergent personality would correspond more to Roe's 'people oriented' type and would be attracted to the ambiguous and wide ranging world of the arts where definitions are not universally agreed upon nor are answers universally accepted.

These observations indicated trends rather than exclusive relationships and were not necessarily true in individual cases. Hudson suggests that the development of convergent and divergent characteristics may be a function of personality and intelligence, and affected by environmental influences. Typically a converger might come from a strict puritanical home, a diverger from a more permissive environment.

The need reduction theorists accept that people have different interests and abilities and choose jobs, or are selected for them, accordingly. In order to explain these
differences they have studied personality and development. Early experience, particularly in relation to primary needs is regarded as being of great importance in determining the directions in which energies will be channelled.

Roe's theory is an attractive one which stimulated thought and research in the area of personality development and vocational choice. A major contribution of this type of work and empirical studies like Nachmann's is that it has helped to emphasise to counsellors trained in psychology the importance of taking home background and early socialisation into account when assessing the individual's vocational requirements. Consideration is given not only to parental behaviour but sibling relationships, the social and economic position of the family and its effect on the development of interests and abilities. These influences will be discussed briefly below.

The basis of the need reduction model is that workers choose the jobs most likely to satisfy their needs. Any test of such an hypothesis is likely to becompounded by the fact that the personalities of members of an occupation may be modified by its particular characteristics and emphases. The emphasis on developing and practising certain skills while others lie dormant may lead to people in the same jobs sharing more similar characteristics than they did on entry.

2.3 Theories of Influence - the trait factor approach

Also referred to as 'talent matching' or 'attribute matching' this regards occupational choice as a matching of the subject's characteristics with those of jobs. The theories which come under this general heading have become more sophisticated as understanding of the factors involved in vocational choice has increased.

In its basic form the trait factor approach reflected the early practice of vocational advice or guidance both in Britain and the United States. This was based mainly on the work of occupational psychologists who, at that
stage had tended to classify jobs according to the characteristics required by employers emphasising skills and qualifications. The advisers reasoned that if they were to help their clients to find jobs they should try to match their special abilities with those demanded by the employers. They therefore sought ways of objectively measuring clients' assets by means of tests. As Davies^11 notes, skills and abilities were relatively easy things to assess. But from the earliest years of the vocational guidance movement it had been recognised that more than just a matching of abilities was involved in job choice. Frank Parsons, in 1908^12 wrote that it consisted of three phases "(1) a clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and their causes; (2) a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensations, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work; (3) true reasoning on the relations of these two groups of facts". The necessity of taking into account needs, as reflected in interests, values, as reflected in ambitions, was recognised then although the extent to which this was acknowledged in practice was minor but has been increasing ever since. This will be discussed more fully in the following chapter.

The above quotation from Parsons may be taken as a statement of the general attribute matching approach. Several criticisms have been levelled at it both for its theoretical inadequacy and its practical implications.

(a) It assumes that a straightforward matching of an individual's abilities and interests with the world's vocational opportunities can be accomplished, and once accomplished, solves the problems of vocational choice for that individual. That is, if the individual had sufficient and accurate understanding of himself and of the employment situation he should be able to make an adequate occupational choice. The approach poses an ideal model of attribute matching and does not explain how an individual acts when ideal conditions, i.e. total
job information and self knowledge, do not operate.

Holland suggests a modification of the basic trait factor approach which takes into account external influences on job choice and the effect of inadequate information. He divides job entry into type of occupational environment and level of entry. By using interest inventories to provide information on personality traits – values, attitudes, needs, self-concept, preferred activities, and sources of threat and dissatisfaction, Holland identifies six major occupational environments. Each individual has a hierarchy of preferred environments and the more definitely is one preferred the easier is occupational choice and the less is it influenced by external factors such as vocational opportunity.

Level of job entry is seen as a function of intelligence and self-evaluation both of which, Holland suggests, can be defined by intelligence tests and status scales. He identifies education, socio-economic origin, family influences, a need for status and self-concept as the chief determinants of self-evaluation. Accurate self evaluation is achieved by accurate self knowledge. The term self knowledge refers to a person's ability to make discriminations among potential environments in terms of his own attributes.

In sum, Holland sees occupational entry as a function of interests, intelligence and self-evaluation all of which may be measured. These traits are influenced by a variety of social structural factors.

(b) The trait factor theory assumes that vocational choice is a rational process. Slocum suggests that occupational decisions are not often made rationally. The information necessary to assess the range of occupations appropriate to the individual's aptitudes and interests is not systematically brought together to enable rational decision making. He hypothesises a continuum of rationality with decisions ranging from those made purely on impulse to those which may be regarded as
fully rational'. He asserts that the degree of rationality involved in the process could be greatly improved.

(c) It assumes that people will choose a job which involves activities they enjoy and that consequently people in different jobs will have correspondingly different interests.

E.K. Strong was responsible for a large amount of work on the measurement of vocational interests. The interests of various occupational groups were ascertained and occupational interest profiles created. Against these an individual can compare his own profile. Strong's research indicated considerable stability of interests after 16 or 17 years of age. So the difference of interest with job has been demonstrated but it is small in relation to the variation of interests within occupations. Miller and Form note that 'there is a high measure of agreement among most people, irrespective of occupation, about the relative attractiveness of different activities'. Therefore if people base their occupational decisions on matching interests and abilities with those required by the job it follows that a vast number will be unable to satisfy their choice.

(d) The talent matching model does not differentiate between choice and preference. Strong demonstrates how jobs actually entered may differ from those preferred as a result of social and economic pressure, lack of knowledge, personality, ability and opportunity, for example. Hilton, studying teachers, found that while there were common interests some would have preferred not to be teaching.

(e) It does not identify when, and under what conditions the occupational decision is made. Developmental theorists, in particular, would regard this as an important criticism. Practitioners wishing to improve, or in other ways influence the decision would also regard these points as essential.
(f) It does not identify the alternatives considered. This point is made particularly by Hilton although it might be argued that the talent matching approach provides no worse a basis for comparing alternatives than any other model. 

(g) When he comes to make a choice according to the talent matching approach the individual may find that the range of occupations open to him is limited by his past decisions, the implications of which he was not encouraged to explore.

(h) It implies that vocational matching is a once only process and neglects the possibility of changing jobs, characteristics, individual needs and priorities. It assumes that stabilisation of choice coincides with job entry and that no other influences are going to have an appreciable effect on the factors which are the basis for job choice.

This is partly due to the approach's foundations in the early 20th century psychological assumption of the inflexibility of human characteristics. The individual was thought to be 'strictly controlled by his biological inheritance and by his genetic constitution'. Consequently talent and personality were assumed to be fixed characteristics. Dawes comments that the talent matching procedure 'does scant justice to the extent to which he (the client) can acquire the qualities which the job requires of him, given that his interest is maintained and that he is properly trained.

(i) The attribute matching model does not explain what the individual bases his self-assessment - present attributes, expected attributes, actual attainments, expected attainment or possible attainments in ideal circumstances. This follows from the last criticism in that it allows for more flexibility in the individual than the model does.

(j) The practical application of talent matching enables the client to find the job which will most suit his
present characteristics and will therefore be easiest and quickest to master but will not necessarily be the most interesting and satisfying. Dawes notes that following such selection methods does ease the employers training problems, however.

Most of the above criticisms highlight the atheoretical weakness of the trait factor approach and are made by adherents of the developmental self concept theory. They highlight features which this approach does not explain and theirs does. Exponents of the trait factor approach might counter these arguments by saying that if they can measure all the attributes, needs and motivations of their clients then the nature and reasons for their development are unimportant in the job choosing process. Clearly, if this is the case this sort of vocational guidance does not need a counsellor but a consultant to administer tests, interpret them to the client and provide them with the necessary job information.

An approach very similar to this is actually employed by a non-profit making agency in London which has developed its own tests for measuring the attributes of clients. From the test results it is thought possible to tell an individual career to which he would be most suited and in which he would be most happy. The consultants are proud to say that their approach is totally directive and because of the nature of the tests once administered their results will hold throughout a lifetime. 'Aptitudes remain substantially the same for the whole of a person's lifetime after the age of 15. Thus vocational guidance is only required ONCE. The results can then be used to assess the suitability or otherwise of any job at any time in the future.'^{20}

As will be shown in the Chapter Five the practice of vocational guidance began at the point immediately preceding job entry and has progressed gradually backward to assist in the earlier stages of the developing choice process. Behind this development is a desire to improve
the adequacy of the choice, and implicit on it is the tendency to formalise and establish more control over the influences on career choice.

If one adopts the talent matching approach, however, it is not necessary to know how and why a person comes to have his traits in order to match them to an appropriate job. This reflects a static view of the guidance function with no regard for its potential as a mechanism for change.

2.4 The Nature of Choice Development

As the inadequacies of the trait factor approach were revealed people came to see career choice as one stage in a continuing process of values and attitude development which begins at conception and during which a number of decisions are made with career implications.

We must pause in the discussion of factors influencing job choice to examine theories regarding the nature of choice development which are now accepted by careers practitioners. Acceptance of developmental theories necessitated giving more attention to theories of occupational choice which stress external influences.

It was not until the 1950s that this recognition was incorporated into general theories which sought to discern general patterns in the processes by which occupational preferences develop with age and experience. Several writers have sought to identify stages in the process of choosing a job.

Ginzberg sees occupational choice as a process developing over about ten years as a result of childhood and adolescent experiences ending in a compromise between interests, capacities, values and opportunities. He identifies three periods of occupational choice - the fantasy period, typified by the desire to be an adult, the tentative period, beginning at the age of eleven when choices are determined largely by interests, then by aptitudes, then by values, and thirdly, the period of realistic choices in which exploratory crystallisation and specification phases succeed each other. O'Hara
and Tredemann tested the role of interests, aptitudes, and values in influencing tentative occupational choice on a sample of four year groups at a large school. Congruence between these attributes as objectively tested and as estimated by sample members increased with age. This indicated a developing classification of understanding. While the research showed that interests did develop in congruence relatively quickly in the earlier years, the interest period, there was no corresponding aptitude and value periods since congruence of these attributes increased continuously. In addition they pointed out that while the subjects' talk may indicate that one area is dominant this may not correspond with the quality of their progress in the spheres.

Super later expanded on the vocational development idea. His theory dismisses the trait factor approach. While acknowledging that people differ in their abilities, interests and personalities and that each occupation requires a particular pattern of such attributes he considers both qualifications and requirements to have tolerances wide enough to allow individuals a variety of occupations and some variety of individuals in each job. The factors which an individual considers when choosing his job - vocational preference, competence, the social and economic environment, and his self-concept - change with time and experience. Thus choice and adjustment must be regarded as a continuous process.

This process is seen as a series of life stages - growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. Within the exploratory stage are the fantasy, tentative and realistic stages described by Ginsberg, and the establishment stage can be divided into trial and stable phases.

Career patterns begin on entry to the first job whether temporary or permanent, trial or stable. The nature of the career pattern in terms of number, sequence and duration of the job as well as level attained is dependent upon the parental socio-economic level, mental ability, personality and exposure to opportunities.
An adequate vocational choice depends on a congruence between the individual's self-evaluation, or self-concept and reality. Super says that choice development can be guided by help in the process of maturation of abilities and interests and aiding reality testing and the development of the self-concept. Job choice is an implementation of the self concept which is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes, neural and endocrine make-up, opportunity to play various roles, and evaluations of the extent to which the results of role playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows. A compromise between individual and social factors, self-concept and reality is achieved through role playing whether in fantasy, in the school, or through part-time jobs and other real activities.

Satisfactions will depend upon the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits and values.

Cotgrove and Fuller emphasize the fact that developing a self-concept and choosing an occupation are not distinct processes but the projection of self into the latter feeds back and influences the former. In addition, through a process of anticipatory socialisation perceived future occupational choice will play a part in the developing occupational identity and reinforcing the likelihood of choice as the individual internalises and identifies with the values of the future job. They also point out that it might not be possible to implement the self-concept and maintain a satisfactory identity in a job. For most people a significant role and satisfaction must be sought in other activities.

Tiedemann follows the Ginzberg and Super tradition in putting forward a theory of decision making which identifies stages in the process. He contends that his model may apply to several aspects of life involved in facing problems and resolving them by adjustment to a new situation. Educational specialisation, marriage and changes in family life are examples, as well as job choice. He also
puts more emphasis on the interplay between stages in the decision process.

Each problem has an anticipatory period, an implementation period and an adjustment period. These are subdivided into stages of exploration, crystallisation, choice, specification, induction, transition and maintenance. The individual may make tentative forays along the sequence, find that he is unable to dissipate doubts and return to an earlier stage. He will remember earlier considerations and experiences when considering new action. He may be in different stages of several decisions at any one time, each influencing the other.

Hilton attempts to identify the circumstances in which a person comes to make a decision by using the notion of cognitive dissonance. When inputs from the environment cause events to be at variance with expectations then discord occurs in one's perception of the world and his role in it. When this reaches an intolerable level the individual seeks to reduce it. When the counsellor recognises such a situation he should aim to help his client reduce the dissonance whether this involves a change of goals, of values, or, perhaps, postponement of a decision, although this may only be possible in the short term.

Jennifer Haystead looks at job choice from a different view. She feels that rather than testing rational models of choice it is more useful to look at the actual situation and examine the forms of rationality people exhibit. She presents a model of awareness contexts which depends upon awareness of choice, knowledge of job requirements, knowledge of job characteristics, and of the individual's characteristics. The degree of awareness, 'open', 'partial' or 'closed' context has consequences for final job choice and entry. The type of awareness context existing depends on the stage at which the individual and his advisers, parents, friends, teachers, careers advisers, potential employers and so on are aware of the existence of alternatives, the range of job knowledge
which these people possess, and the extent and type of consideration given to self analysis.

If we are to understand the way in which choices are made by particular groups and thus account for job entry Haystead concludes that we must examine the amount of consideration given to choice by groups in varying social structural positions.

Almost all the developmental theories of decision making give weight to social structural factors in developing interests, abilities and personality characteristics as well as in limiting the contexts in which choices can be made and alternatives identified. Some, Ford and Box\(^2\) for example, argue that it is sufficient to accept value orientations as given without seeking their determinants. Most practitioners however have come to look more closely at the socialisation process and its effect in determining occupational choice and levels. They therefore look to the work of writers who take the social structure approach to explaining job choice.

2.5 Theories of Influence – the social structure model

Broadly this approach emphasises the influence of social and economic forces on the individual's development. They are seen as influencing and defining his abilities, interests, aspirations, expectations and vocational opportunities.

Few writers would reject the contribution of structural factors but the degree of influence attributed to social forces is disputed as is the extent to which they are beyond control.

It is possible to relate the various approaches to two of the central concerns of sociology –

The system perspective, concerned for the problem of order, which sees the individual on the receiving end of the social system, internalising constraint thus legitimating it. Straightforward application of the talent-matching model would appear to correspond to this view. If 'playing' the system is not possible for the individual then knowledge
of the external influences on choice development has no implications for the practice of job entry provided that the resulting personality characteristics are appreciated.

The action perspective, centres around the problem of social control and sees society as the creation of interaction between actors. Actors may control situations in order to achieve desired future situations and will act according to their view of the situation.

Both perspectives are ideal models which must be set against the real situation. It can be seen that the degree to which practitioners adhere to one or the other point of view, and indeed the extent to which guidance services are structured to accommodate either of these ideologies has important implications for the nature of the service provided and its development.

The extreme deterministic view in which the individual has no freedom of choice is rarely seriously defended in the guidance literature. It would deny the right of such literature to exist.

Only slightly less extreme is the view that while essentially all factors influencing job choice are uncontrollable and career choice is a decision made at the time of job entry, the choice can be improved by an accurate knowledge and understanding of these factors. Guidance could be deemed as having an information function here.

Another approach of a similar type is often referred to by vocational psychologists as the 'accident approach'. Often used in autobiographical accounts it describes occupation choice as resulting from chance. A high proportion of careers officers interviewed in the study discussed in Chapter Six referred to the chance or accidental factor when describing how they entered careers work although the fact that they think they have a job to do would surely indicate that they do not seriously subscribe to this as an adequate explanation for career choice or at least not a satisfactory one.

Hopson and Hayes do not doubt that chance does
operate in such cases of occupational choice but see it
as a factor reinforcing trends already in existence.
'In explaining their occupational choices as accidents ... most people mean that they were affected by an unplanned exposure to a powerful stimulus. But there are countless such occurrences in everyone's life, and the important question is why are some of these stimuli responded to while others are ignored.

Keil, Riddell and Green see job entry as a process characterised by the individual's experience of and adjustment to a variety of formal and informal influences. Informal influences emanate from the family, neighbourhood, school, peer group and contacts with job and industry; and formal influences through institutions such as the school teacher and the Youth Employment Officer.

Most studies reveal the much stronger effect of the informal influences. Carter and Jahoda showed that only the placement function of the Youth Employment Officer was valued by young people to any degree. The change of emphasis from 'vocational guidance' to 'counselling' by Careers Officers may reflect a change to exploring the nature of informal influences on an individual in assessing his suitability for different forms of employment.

Indirectly occupational choice may be affected by factors which influence crucial educational, social and economic moves by the individual who may not consciously consider their job implications.

Frazer has observed a relationship between environment and school attainment which is usually closer than that reported for environment with intelligence. Parental education, occupation status and income, and low family size correlated positively with educational achievement. Kirschoff also identified the connection between father's occupation and educational expectation.

Carter's Sheffield study noted that while parents were generally ill-equipped to advise on choice of work and frequent discussion on the subject only occurred in
about a third of homes, nevertheless home atmosphere orientates children towards particular levels and types of employment. Some boys were reinforced in their job choices by the knowledge that a job could be arranged through parental influence.

Participants in a study by Hill rated a parent as the single most helpful adult in career choice. Veness gave parents second rating, friends also came high among the sources of influence.

The family is also a major element in the transmission of values to children against which occupational characteristics may be compared. The school environment is also influential - Clements, investigating the features which attracted or repelled children to/from jobs observed that those at secondary modern schools rated economic security and good prospects more as an attractive factor than grammar school children, presumably because this was taken for granted by the latter group. In the same study family and neighbourhood came below 'interest' and 'attributes of the job' among influences on job choice by children. Of course, much of the continuous subtle influence on choice would not be perceived as such by subjects. Douglas studies revealed the effects of different social background on children's achievements. Glass also observed a relation between the occupations of parents and children. Ferguson and Cunnison noted a high correlation between broken homes and job change. Herford, however, on his evidence speculated that a broken home where one stable parent remains may be less disturbing than a home where stresses between parents reflect on the child.

If nothing else, the social structure must be seen as the context in which both practitioners and clients are operating. Hilton describes the social structure model emphasising 'the mobility provided and the limits imposed by the various social structures through which an individual's career carries him'. Becker and Strauss
likens such structures to a set of escalators which may 'detour desired positions, change speed or branch into several directions. Escalator paths and the range available are limited by the environment and the individual's position in society. His problem is to choose which path to take and when to change to another one. He may have to meet stringent conditions before he is able to get on the escalator. Once on, the probability of achieving the expected goal is high.'

The dangers of guidance counsellors adopting the social structure model exclusively and basing their practice upon it lie in the acceptance of social facts; data, and trends which have been found from large samples and shown to apply in the general case under particular conditions and applying them to individuals who may or may not be in the same circumstances but whose chances of behaving according to the predictions of social data are increased by the counsellor's attitude. Such application of the general rule to particular cases will reinforce the general rule and may lead to reification and a more static, differentiated society. The model denies the existence of a wide range of job choice for most individuals and does not acknowledge that obtaining and processing large amounts of occupational information about a large number of alternatives will arise as a problem for most individuals.

It can be seen that for a guidance counsellor to accept this model he must also accept that the importance and scope of his job is limited. He may, however, recognise the model but not accept it and see his industry as a mechanism for change working against societal forces by helping clients to raise their aspirations and seek to devise new strategies to achieve them. For a goal to be achieved the individual must have access to learning structures for acquiring the appropriate skills and opportunities structures which will enable him to discharge his prepared role. Careers educationists may see themselves as having to provide a normative mechanism
of institutionalised means to enable him to acquire the strategies for achieving his goal both in terms of the skills in self-evaluation, role playing and occupational knowledge as well as the practical skills which will enable him to perform his task. If the goal of a satisfying job cannot be achieved then the client may be saved from the anomie consequences by direction into another activity as a means of fulfilment.

2.6 Theories of Influence - the complex information processing model

A counsellor who does not choose to accept the more deterministic aspects of the social structure approach may choose to base his work on the complex information processing model which assumes a more open view of society in which the individual's choice is limited only by his capacity to handle information about the alternatives. His strategy in this situation would be to consider those alternatives which appear to lead to most satisfactory outcomes. In such a situation the information processing function of a careers practitioner would be of major importance. The counselling function - helping the client to discriminate, for example, between his aspirations and expectations, would be of less importance since actions are assumed to be rational.

2.7 Theories of Influence - the probable gain model

This assumes that an individual will act in order to maximise economic returns. This assumes that an economic rationality governs both the choice and selection processes. Exclusive adherence to this model has little practical relevance there being little evidence that people act in this fashion. However, some credence is given to this explanation of human action given that other factors may be equal.
2.8 Discussion

We have seen how people concerned about job choice developed various models of decision making methods and of the influences on job choice and selection. In most formal careers advice was not a factor, in others it was identified as a minor one. In a desire to improve eventual choice and selection it was necessary to identify the influences, having done so it was apparent that most were informal, implicit and uncontrollable on anything but the largest and long-term scale. But, if career choice were to be improved it was necessary to have factors which could be controlled and hence improved. The schools were an existing means of formal socialisation to which young people were exposed for a long period of time and in which they were supposed to acquire many of the mental and physical skills required to perform jobs.

There are two extreme models of influences on job choice. One regards all influences as beyond the control of the individual consequently career choice, which is no real choice, is not a big decision capable of much improvement. The other view considers that, by bearing in mind the desired future when considering present choices at almost every stage in one's development, the possibility of attaining that future is more likely.

In looking at the models it might be worth rating the factors influencing job choice according to their degree of controllability, either directly or indirectly by the individual. We may see that career advice started to be practised at the most easily controllable but least influential point and is spreading backwards into adolescent life. Controllability of a factor is probably in inverse proportion to its degree of influence on career choice.
SCHEMA OF THE PROCESS OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE AND SELECTION

Occupational Entry

Preference hierarchy Expectancy hierarchy
Perceiving individual

1. Immediate Determinants
   Occupational information
   Technical qualifications
   Social role characteristics
   Reward value hierarchy

2. Sociopsychological Attributes
   General level of knowledge
   Abilities and educational level
   Social position and relations
   Orientation to occupational life
   ( Its importance, identification, with models, aspirations etc. )

3. Personality Development
   Educational development
   Process of socialisation
   Effects of available financial resources
   Differential family influences

II Socioeconomic Organisation
   Occupational distribution and rate of labour turnover
   Division of labour
   Policies of relevant organisations (Government, firms, unions, etc.)
   Stage of the business cycle

III Historical Change
   Trends in social mobility
   Shifts in industrial composition
   Historical development of social organisations
   Changes in level and structure of consumer demand

Social Structure
   Social stratification system
   Cultural values and norms
   Demographic characteristics
   Type of economy
   Technology

Physical Conditions
   Topography
   Climate

* From Blau et al
CHAPTER THREE
Developments in the Vocational Guidance Movement - Theories and Practice

3.1 Introduction

This chapter, with Chapter Five, will show how two main forms of careers advisory practice in Britain have evolved from different sources - academic and administrative and how, as the careers industry has become established and its practitioners begin to legitimate their function the scope of the mainstream of practice which is common to both evolutions is strengthened and the more extreme practices at either end of the spectrum are neglected.

In over simplified terms, a theory of careers education and advice evolved out of general educational and psychological academic theory, from the early 1900s in the USA. Concurrently, as the education system introduced more young people to a theoretically wider range of potential jobs, the demand for help in job placement and talent matching became apparent. Practising teachers and employment officers sought to meet this need.

There are generally accepted to be three main types of guidance or counselling available today - vocational educational and personal or social counselling. This is a distinction which counselling theorists are loath to accept and which counselling practitioners would claim to be impossible to maintain if they were able to do their
jobs effectively. Nevertheless in this country their functions are administratively separate — vocational guidance is the job of the Youth Employment Service, educational guidance that of the school, and personal guidance that of other specially trained professionals.

T.D. Vaughan defines vocational guidance as follows:

"In its simplest expression, vocational guidance means helping people to choose work in which they will be reasonably contented, and successful within the limits of their abilities. More ambitiously, it involves the idea of guidance towards a career which will be completely absorbing, to a life that will be fulfilled by work — in short, a vocation. In both cases, vocational happiness requires that a person's interests, aptitudes and personality be suitable for his work."

This seems to be a definition which would be accepted by most people working in the field today but some would have serious reservations and qualifications to make. Indeed Vaughan's subsequent comments serve to qualify this first paragraph. In particular, he notes that 'vocational guidance as a continuous process cannot be separated from personal guidance'.

3.2 Guidance Theory and Resulting Practice

The theories underlying guidance practice have followed a trend evident in the history of medical practice, law enforcement and other agencies of societal control. Initially the problem of job choice was identified and dealt with at the point of leaving education and needing a job, the crucial moment, which tended to be regarded as an event in isolation. Gradually as job choice and decision making became identified as a continuing process practitioners sought to delve into the client's past and to become part of the developmental process in order to effect and affect the stages in choice formation. The parallel with medicine and law enforcement is seen in the increasing emphasis on prevention as opposed to curative work.
The way in which a counsellor will affect the nature of a client's decision will depend on the theoretical base from which he works and the degree of skill with which he is able to pursue it. It is apparent that guidance is a means which can serve several ends. In one sense it is implicit in our understanding of formal education even if all would not go as far as Ben Morris:

'The primary function of education in any society whatever is to produce a measure of social conformity among its members sufficient to guarantee the continued existence of the society's culture.' But present day counsellors have a more limited view of 'guidance' and think of it in counselling terms as a process of facilitating the efforts of individuals to realise their potential for personal happiness. Morris would add to this 'and for social usefulness'. The guidance practitioner may be a counsellor, mediator or interpreter in facilitating his client's progress through society.

When the counsellor also teaches, as in the case of most careers teachers in this country, much American theory would argue that there is a basic conflict between the two roles. The teacher who usually functions as instructor and assessor may be unable to successfully alter his role to one of a neutral non-critical listener.

Guidance practice exists between the theoretical poles of acceptance of the client's dependence in his relationship with the expert and the acceptance of his capacities for self determination. Total acceptance of the latter would seem to deny the need for a consultation.

3.2.1 The Directive Counselling Approach

This presupposes that the counsellor-client relationship is a teacher-pupil one. It assumes that the counsellor has superior knowledge, experience and social or organisational skills which enable him to give advice to the client and help him to overcome the problems
which prevent his normal adjustment to society. In order to tailor his advice to the individual student the counsellor is concerned to establish the nature and causes of the subject's problems. This is achieved through the collection of information about the student and his performance on various scales, followed by an assessment of the characteristics of the problem. Strategies adopted to deal with the client's difficulties may include direct advice, attempts at persuasion or merely explanation of a situation which may require either a change in the individual, his environment or in his attitudes.

Provided that the student and the counsellor are in agreement over the desired goal and have shared values, beliefs and priorities this system may have much to recommend it incorporating as it does some very positive elements. However, guidance requires adequate knowledge of a child's development and may be wasted at a time of major choice if his previous experience renders him incapable of demonstrating his true powers on assessment. The client is dependent upon his counsellor for interpretation and guidance and is thus not shouldering the full responsibility for the outcome of the consultation. Where the specialised knowledge of the expert is the crucial factor in determining the client's course of action the expert may be accused of manipulation and a move towards technocracy.

The element of determinism in matching an individual's profile to the job profile has to be recognised. Reinforcement of the status quo and maintenance of stability in the occupational structure is likely when job recruits are most like those already in the jobs. This could reduce the opportunity for originality and innovation within jobs. It is not surprising that these scientific methods which have the appeal of being objective and unbiased are favoured by
bureaucracies which can themselves tend to rigidify and to lack flexibility.

The directive approach is adopted by the Vocational Guidance Association, an organisation with a fairly long history in terms of independent careers advisory agencies. The Harley Street offices were visited by appointment in February 1973. The offices are large and furnished in a plush and solid style. Tidily arranged unthumbed copies of 'Country Life' provide the only reading material for waiting visitors.

The VGA was founded in 1954 by C.R. Pyle, a former civil servant who had made a study of selection techniques while working in an Organisation and Methods department. He had observed the need for objective testing and developed his own forms of test with the co-operation of interested groups of industrial executives. The Association concentrates on individual testing and guidance. The client takes a series of tests lasting about two hours, the results are computed and numerical scores are obtained which are presented on three graphs indicating personality characteristics, occupational interests and aptitudes expressed as percentiles against the norm.

The test results are then examined by a consultant who, in interview with the client, explains the implications of the graphs 'so that what is virtually an X-ray of the client's particular pattern of abilities, actual and potential, is revealed. The consultant then shows how this inevitably points to a particular career, or to a small related group of careers.' (This quotation is from the consultant who explained the work of VGA to me.) The methods of job entry, required qualifications and recommended courses of action are then discussed.

Following the interview the client receives a report including the test results and the consultant's recommendations and he is entitled to call again for
follow-up advice without further charge. By the nature of the test any further advice would be based on the same information.

Most of the tests used were devised by Pyle and his colleagues although the Kuder test, published by the Science Research Association of Chicago is also used. There is little doubt that the Association is totally convinced of the merit and success of its methods. Clients are usually private individuals, only rarely have they been sent by employers. About 4,000 people are dealt with in a year by six consultants, some of whom are part-time. Each sees about three clients a day. The primary aim of the service is to give vocational advice and careers information is only given when incidental to this. Consultants received their job knowledge from the information services of the Careers Youth Employment Executive (CYEE), the Public Schools Appointments Bureau (PSAB) and similar agencies.

The consultant interviewed seemed to relate all emotional stress and personality disorders which he encountered to the client being in the wrong job. When pressed he agreed that he would refer those he considered to be ill to the appropriate specialists although this was outside his range of experience.

None of the consultants is a trained occupational psychologist. At the time of the visit, one was a retired headmaster, one a knighted Vice-Admiral, another a former engineering tycoon, a fourth, also a knight, was an ex-member of the Civil Service Commission. The specialised knowledge required for the job is achieved through in-service training and they do not make assessments and consultations entirely on their own for about two months.

There is no systematic follow-up of clients and the Association has not done any research into the effect of its work or the characteristics of clients.
Although the claim is that people from all walks of life are served it is very likely that the vast majority of the Association's clientele is drawn from the middle class. There is no age limit on clients. Advertisements for the service appear in the 'small ads' columns of the quality press and clients also come on recommendations from their friends and schools. The costs of the consultation, the background of the Association and its imposing address all lend support to the supposition that the clients are disproportionately drawn from public schools in the London area.

Whatever criticisms are levelled at the directive methods of vocational guidance practised by the VGA it must be acknowledged that the Association has survived for twenty years and retained the sympathies of some august and hard headed bodies.

The practice of directive counselling techniques corresponds most closely to the trait factor, or talent matching theory of occupational choice. The tests used by the VGA would appear to be very similar in purpose to those of Strong who devised tests to assess objectively aptitudes, attainments, and vocational interests. These latter measures are matched against established occupational interest profiles. The former tests helping to indicate whether the subject could succeed in the job as well as be interested. Strong's research indicated a stability of interests after the age of 16 or 17 years suggesting that for any individual the test result would vary little after this age. It is evident that this practice does not require a counsellor for execution since total reliance is placed on matching test scores to job information.

The personal interview could be eliminated and the process entirely mechanised through the use of a computer continually fed with both elements of data. But straightforward batch matching has limited value
other than for placement and for producing a list of relevant job opportunities for the client. This is the function of the Department of Employment's Professional and Executive Recruitment Service and a similar system (CAPS) devised by the Standing Conference of Employers of Graduates. While these two systems depend on actual job vacancies, a system devised in Leicestershire for use in the schools aimed to parallel data about specific pupils with general occupation information. If the information in the data banks is regularly updated these systems, while limited in scope, do have advantages of speed, accuracy, and comprehensiveness.

As a guidance tool the on-line computer has more of a future since it enables the individual to interact with the computer output experimenting with different self images and their career implications. The danger is that the controller of the computer system has total power of decision over matching traits to job characteristics. Such systems are in operation in the United States, some include a programmed learning process which enables a student to explore course options and implications at his own pace.

3.2.2 The Client Centred Approach

At the other end of the scale from the directive approach is the 'client centred' counselling approach which gives the client the dominant role in the relationship and sees the counsellor as a lens through which the client may perceive a clearer understanding of his own attitudes and feelings. The focus is on the individual rather than his problem, emphasis is placed on his emotions rather than reasoning and little attempt is made to delve into past causes of problems. The counsellor accepts the differences in character and values between himself and his client and makes no attempt to change them. He avoids expressing his own views.
The aim of the consultation procedure is to unravel the client's feelings and problems in order that he achieves a better understanding of his position and is able to re-orient himself and devise a strategy to cope with his new perception of his character and capacities.

The essence of this system is the neutrality and non-response of the counsellor. Schmidt and Strong\textsuperscript{10}, in a study of student reaction to observed interviews conducted by counsellors with differing levels of experience demonstrated that their assessment of which qualities make a good counsellor by no means corresponded with the accepted view. The passive non-response approach was interpreted as lack of interest and ill-preparedness on the part of the counsellor whereas a lively demonstrative personality showing an active interest in his client and his history was favoured. The authors conclude that expertise is only useful if it is perceived as such by the client.

It could be hypothesised that the most successful counselling arises out of a coincidence of orientation on the part of counsellor and client rather than as a result of a particular type of approach. That is to say that a client will only benefit from a service if he recognises it to be useful and this will depend on his expectations of, and motives for, approaching the guidance counsellor. A client with an instrumental reason for entering into the relationship may be the most receptive to directive counselling whereas one who requires an expressive form of relationship may achieve better results in a non-directive framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Client Motive</th>
<th>Directive</th>
<th>Non-directive</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>+ result</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressive</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2.3 Eclectic Counselling

Boy and Pinell identify a third type of counselling which falls between the extremes of the directive and client centred approaches and is based upon a variety of methods and theories of guidance. Eclectic counselling, as it is called, seems to acknowledge the differences in approach required by different individuals and deems no single set of techniques to be universally applicable. Methods are chosen which are most suited to the purpose of the interview - the clinical approach of ability assessment and information provision or the client centred approach to give the pupil the opportunity to explore his feelings and problems. The ultimate aim is to enable the client to assess his problem and the various options open to him to deal with it.

The eclectic counsellor may adopt the client centred approach until the problem has been identified and then take over in a directive manner in order to bring about a solution. This method is open to criticism in that the client may lose faith in his adviser due to the inconsistency of his approach and the eventual tendency to recommend approved courses of action.

Eclectic counselling has adapted guidance techniques evolved in the academic sphere to the requirements of the practical world of employment and placement where advisers are constrained by time and financial considerations. In this sense it represents an attempt to conceptualise the mainstream of practice drawn from the two sources of academic theory and pragmatic practice referred to at the start of the chapter.

3.2.4 Independent Agencies

Information was collected on the procedures used by careers advisory agencies operating in 1973 outside the publicly provided services of the local education authorities and the Department of Employment. The evidence from careers advisory agencies for the National
Youth Employment Council (NYEC) working party in 1970 was made available for this study. The Advisory Centre for Education had made a telephone survey of other agencies. The information from these two sources was put on a check list and all the bodies were contacted by post and asked to verify and add to the information on a check list provided. Three of the organisations, ACE, NIIP and VGA were also visited. Attempts were made to contact other bodies thought to provide careers advice for young people but these were fruitless.

Several of the more established bodies in the field of advice and information are registered educational charities. One of the purposes which the law allows a charity is that of "the advancement of education". This is a wide reaching phrase encompassing such activities as the teaching of specified (but not necessarily very specific) subjects for the public benefit, the education of special sections of the public, and the provision and support of educational institutions. Research is not deemed charitable for its own sake but qualifies if it educates, either directly (by benefiting the researcher) or indirectly (for example where it is intended to add eventually to the sum of knowledge).

Within the general category of educational charity the non-profit making careers organisations differ markedly both according to their primary functions, methods and even basic ideologies. This last point can be illustrated by quoting from the publicity material of two of the advisory services.

"Vocational guidance now furnishes an accurate and reliable assessment of individual qualities and work study has added a careers factor analysis enabling these two to be matched into the right job for every person. There need be no more guesswork." (VGA)

"Most people can adjust to a number of different occupations; careers counselling helps them to understand that the idea of the 'perfect niche' can be misleading and that people may find satisfaction in more than one occupation in their lives." (NIIP)
This group of agencies reflects the two strands in the evolution of guidance practice: out of psychological theory, in the service offered by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology and the Tavistock Institute for Human Relations' Unit for Career Development and Institutional Change; and out of attempts to widen, and make more widely known, the employment opportunities available, in the services offered by the National Advisory Centre on Careers for Women (formerly the Women's Employment Federation), the Independent Schools Careers Organisation, (formerly the Public Schools Appointments Bureau), and management consultants such as Russell, Ewbank and Partners.

The table below summarises salient points from the agency study. All the agencies investigated used interest tests or questionnaires, some also used aptitude, personality and intelligence tests. All interviewed their clients, three offered interviews without the backing of tests as well as with, therefore the conclusion drawn earlier that faith in tests should negate the need for counselling does not apply in practice. But the extent to which counselling is an exploratory and creative process as opposed to being an assuring and supportive supplement to the tests is difficult to determine. The bodies which appeared to recognise that a course of interviews may be required had a set charge for subsequent consultation — the Tavistock Institute and the NACCW. The NIIP wrote 'we regard vocational guidance as a decision-making process that takes place over a period of time and, because of this, clients are invited to arrange supplementary interviews, free of charge, when the need arises'.17 Several other bodies held this view. This contrasts with the VGA who, while allowing a subsequent consultation, held to a philosophy which never expected it to happen. It is rare that more than two interviews were offered for the advisory fee and there is little to indicate an approach similar to the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency (1973)</th>
<th>Founded</th>
<th>Educational Charity</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Clients Minimum Age</th>
<th>Advisory Staff</th>
<th>Postal Service</th>
<th>Placement with VG</th>
<th>Clients Per Annum (1975)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advisory Centre for Education</td>
<td>1960 EC</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Cambridge)</td>
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*Notes to Table 5.1*

Minimum Fee for full consultation £5.
Maximum fee for full consultation £29.
Average fee for full consultation £18.

Fees often varied according to age of client.

Specific requests that individual fees should not be quoted in the text were made.

Independent Schools Careers Organisation formerly Public Schools Appointments Bureau.
client-centred counselling described earlier for which continuity of relationships and access over what may be a long period are essentials.

Such an approach presupposes a difficulty to be overcome which may be related to job seeking, whereas, it may be argued, the majority of people, beyond having a problem of job choice, have no especial difficulties barring its solution. However, the peculiar difficulties felt by the client must play a part in motivating him to pay for specialist help in the form of the advisory agency - which is offering a consultancy service for referral by the 'general practitioners' in the schools. Career Analysts' evidence to NYEC working party included the remark 'We would like to develop contacts with the Central Youth Employment Executive (CYEE) and Occupational Guidance Units (OGU). We would also like to develop more contacts with career teachers. We feel that many people can usefully be helped by them but that our services are for particularly difficult people who need more time. It is also available so that parents and individuals can turn to a completely independent source. Many feel that in going to the YEO (Youth Employment Office) or Appointments Board as well as the OGUs the advice they are given either reflects what they have said they want to do or is given to direct them into known vacancies.' NIIP also remarked 'We would like to act as a referral agency for careers requiring a fuller assessment than the YES can at present offer.'

That more is not done by these 'specialist' independent agencies in the way of counselling over and above the interview which interprets test results indicates their strong reliance on tests. Whether this is out of conviction in their merit over 'in depth' counselling or because of the impracticality of charging for such a course is open to question. Certainly those agencies visited were confident in the success of their procedures, consequently there would be little
incentive to adopt the other course especially when quantifiable results help to justify expenditure and convince clientele.

Of the independent bodies investigated, those specialising in careers advice and operating as private firms mostly seem to have developed since 1970 and those which offer it as a special extra service, while they have been established longer, seem to have developed this side of their work in recent years. The latter group includes ISCO, the Tavistock Institute, NACCW and the management training consultants. ACE and the NIIP also come into this category, the primary function of the former being to act as an education pressure group. NIIP no longer gives vocational guidance.

3.3 Discussion

The expectations of clients and the economic limitations upon the scope of practice and detailed job knowledge available to independent practitioners serve to restrict the range of vocational guidance available from them. Most adopt a mixture of testing and interview techniques.

As theories of the process of occupational choice have developed to indicate its dynamic nature and the wide range of influences involved, so the need to serve the school pupil with aid in developing his understanding of his own character and the nature of his job has been emphasised. This long term 'vocational guidance or counselling' is only practicable in the context of the education system rather than on a private consultancy basis. The officers of the Careers Service, or the new wave of school counsellors could approximate to the specialist consultant role if this philosophy is pursued. If, however, the general public does not recognise the merit and value of such work (if any is demonstrated) then it is likely that the independent agencies will always find a market. Their objectives appear to be more clearly
defined than the public service. Rather than having a joint responsibility to young person and employer, the former is the only client of these agencies. They are more likely to give the client what he expects of their service - a clear cut written assessment and definite recommendations for action.

The work of the public services providing careers advice to young people is discussed in Chapters Five and Six.
CHAPTER FOUR

Careers Information, An Auxiliary to Guidance Practice

4.1 Introduction

The recent expansion of the publicly provided careers advisory services has been accompanied by the emergence of more commercial bodies professing similar aims both to provide vocational counselling and/or job information. The independent counselling bodies have been discussed above, some of these also provide job information. Other companies deal mainly, or solely, in the provision of information about jobs and educational courses both for the individual reader and for use by practitioners in the careers industry. Notable in the field have been the Cornmarket Press, Dominion Press, and Educational Explorers Ltd., with the 'My Life and Work' series which exemplifies the traditional sort of careers information which presents and describes occupations individually.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss, through case studies, the nature and objectives of careers information and possible relationships with fashions in guidance theory. The case of broadcasting is taken here as an example of careers information provided for the individual but also, obviously, serving as an auxiliary to the work of the careers adviser. The work of ACE, a body providing information for the consumer - parents and pupils, of the Careers Research and Advisory Centre and of the Schools Council Project to devise material for the aid of careers teachers will then be discussed.

Chapter Two has discussed many of the theories of occupational choice. Common to almost all of them is a recognition of occupational information and an individual's capacity to handle it as a limiting factor in the choice process. Whatever their standpoint few theorists neglect
the importance of occupational information to occupational choice. Examples in Appendix A.1 illustrate this point.

Discussing adjustment to working life rather than occupational choice Keil et al., in their review of current work note that the formal agencies which use and provide careers literature 'are relatively ineffective in comparison with informal influences'. However such literature is a crucial part of the agency work. Hopson and Hayes note 'In the past many vocational guidance practitioners tended to furnish the individual with information about a number of occupations and present him with a series of externally generated criteria to be used in evaluating these alternatives. Examples of such criteria are: which occupation offers the best prospects for advancement, which occupation is most secure, which occupation is most highly paid either now or in the future, and so on. All too frequently these criteria reflected the needs and values of those who transmitted them rather than the needs and values of the people at whom they were directed. The relevance of such criteria for particular individuals was rarely questioned.'.

The nature of the occupational information which should be provided is a contentious issue. Much information has been criticised for presenting a picture of the individual as an economic man describing his economic relationships at work and neglecting the social and psychological aspects of occupations.

A definition of occupational information which would seem widely acceptable to theorists and which has been used on both sides of the Atlantic is that of Shartle: 'occupational information is herein considered as accurate usable information about jobs and occupations. It includes facts about occupational trends the supply and demand of labour, and training facilities.'.

As well as providing this form of occupational information the media also produce material for careers practitioners whether for their own consumption or for
their use in careers training programmes such as the Schools Council Project.

Experiments and innovations in the field of occupational information have tended to expand the traditional concept of careers information into one of careers education which, 'while it includes knowledge of the basic facts about employment, must also concentrate on helping young people to understand fully the world of work, to form a realistic assessment of themselves, to acquire the necessary skills for decision making and to develop sufficient social competence to cope with the varied situations in which young adults find themselves in the world of work.' In other words the young people are helped to try to generate their own criteria for evaluating alternatives based on their self assessments.

Most of the theories of vocational choice discussed in Chapter Two recognise the part played by unquantifiable (chance) factors and informal influences as well as direct exposure to career information. It might be supposed that in an attempt to reduce such factors, more emphasis would be placed on occupational information designed to help the individual make the best use of his abilities.

The theory that better information leads to better choice was behind many early developments in the contribution of publishers and broadcasters to the careers industry. Since that time the ideas behind developments in this field have become more sophisticated, being very much influenced by the thinking in careers education generally. Careers education is a much broader and more complex field than careers information and obviously presents a wider market with both educators and educated requiring a variety of services.

The organisations involved in servicing careers education place their emphases on different aspects of the work. Some are based upon output (ends) rather than process (means). In this case servicing careers work tends
to be their primary purpose while their methods might vary eg publishing, test development, advisory work, running courses. Others rely on a single medium (eg publishing or broadcasting) and a variety of outputs, including material for careers education. In practice, most independent agencies have varying degrees of emphasis on process and purpose. For example, the BBC does employ the publishing medium, still and moving films as well as radio and TV broadcasting to achieve its purposes in careers education. Consequently the contributions of agencies to the careers industry overlap to differing extents.

There still exists among practitioners of the careers industry a certain vagueness over their general and particular purposes and requirements. It may be supposed that there is a corresponding vagueness as to their general purposes among the agencies serving them and therefore that this represents a certain inefficiency. As needs become more closely identified and demands more specific, it may be expected that, to succeed, organisations will have to specialise in particular areas of their work relinquishing those functions which are performed better by their rivals. Inevitably some aspects of the work will suffer by being costly and too troublesome to run for the expected return. These aspects may become more exclusively the preserve of government run agencies.

In so far as the individual is in some way taking a step towards career choice in his choice of counsel - be it subject teacher, careers teacher, neighbour, parent, or friend - he is, to a certain extent, limiting choice by the information medium he chooses to consult.

The role played by broadcasting is discussed below.

4.2 The Broadcasting of Careers Information by the BBC

Before discussing the specific contributions of the broadcasting companies to careers work we should briefly consider the effect of everyday exposure to general
broadcasts of television and radio.

This could be said to correspond to the informal advice and information which the young person gains from contact with friends, neighbours and family in that it is incidental and implicit rather than directed and explicit. However, it should be remembered that while what the young person gains from his acquaintances are differing views on experiences of the 'real' situation, once removed, what he acquires from the television are the stylised views of producers, actors, playwrights and journalists of what may or may not be the 'real' situation.

Against this must be weighed the argument that through the medium of television the young person becomes aware of the existence of jobs, life styles, industries, and places of which he would not have been aware had he been dependent solely upon his neighbourhood and kinship contacts. The relative frequency of our exposure to broadcast portrayals of occupations compared to contact with the 'live' version may have an important effect on our perception of that occupation. This is speculation. It is not necessarily the job or the aim of entertainment programmes to portray reality and accuracy and we should not expect it but it is as well to bear in mind the potential of the media as a force in social change when considering the role of the media in careers education because it is a role of which those working in the field are not unaware.

The three duties of the BBC which are laid down in its Charter are education, information and entertainment. The Corporation discharges its duties both in terms of educative material which is available in the main services and in the specifically designed material for schools and adult education broadcasting.

The BBC claims to have no educational purposes of its own but seeks to reflect those of the educational world within the limits of the broadcasting medium. Briggs noting that one of the BBC's objectives was the progress of civilisation, comments that the crude distinction between
'entertainment' and 'education' was never acceptable to the corporation. Rather, the distinction was drawn between the educational effect of programmes specifically designed as 'educational' and the educative influence, potential or actual, of the whole range of the BBC's activities. In both these forms it was felt that the BBC could make life 'much more interesting and enjoyable than it otherwise would be'.

In the 1920s, the early days of broadcasting, the influence in the BBC of the Presbyterian ethic of self improvement through education epitomised by Lord Reith, and the general post war feeling that an 'educated democracy' was desirable led to education being given a high priority from the start. Indeed, some of the major figures in the formulation of education policy in the first part of this century were actively involved in administration of the BBC between the wars, H.A.L. Fisher, Sir Henry Hadow and Mary Somerville among them. Wireless had attracted people endowed with some of the best brains and vision in Britain. Educational radio has always been regarded as a perfectly proper field for the best people to operate. The potential of educational broadcasting for firing the imagination was very quickly recognised and as early as 8th October 1926 Stobart had suggested the formation of a 'Wireless University'.

In late 1924 220 schools were listening to broadcasts. Within three years this number had increased to 3,000. By the beginning of the second world war nearly 10,000 schools were regularly listening to at least some of the 35 school programmes which were being transmitted weekly. The wireless set and the images which it presented to the pupils was one of many aids being brought into the schools as part of the 'revolution of educational aspiration and ambition associated with the widening of curricula, the use of experimental teaching methods and the relaxation of purely external discipline'.
Long before audience research became an established feature of general broadcasting the schools broadcasting department recognised the need to identify its audience, their needs and the circumstances under which the broadcasts would be received. The essential elements of the system which backs up the broadcasts to adolescents today have their origins in the very early days of broadcasting with the recognition of the need to study broadcasting from the receiving end. In 1927 a study of Kent schools collected opinions from teachers and children, both by way of questionnaires and observers in schools and from comments made at teachers' conferences. The report confirmed the effectiveness of the broadcasts in imparting factual knowledge and stimulating interest. It was also felt that they supplied information and ideas beyond the scope of the ordinary teacher. As well as stimulating the pupils the broadcasts served to interest both teachers and parents. In February 1929 the BBC set up the Central Council for School Broadcasting from which the present day School Broadcasting Council for the United Kingdom originates and under this body a body of experienced educational broadcasters built up together with an extremely efficient system of collaborating with the listening schools.

A sign of this collaboration was the publication of illustrated booklets to accompany the broadcasts as well as constant reappraisal of language and subject matter as a result of regular feedback in the form of teachers' reports. As well as relying upon written reports from teachers the Council employed and still employs a team of Education Officers who liaise with the schools and training colleges advising them on the best ways of using the material and seeking to define the educational objectives which the broadcasts should reflect.

While seeking to cover topics which are of most interest and use to the listeners the BBC prides itself on its independence from government interference or
other undue outside pressures. In the choice of topics for careers broadcasts, an indication from the government that, for example, the country could do with help to boost recruitment to the police force would not bring forth any direct response from the School Broadcasting Council. Ideas for programmes come from within the department and are influenced not only by the perception of the demand and interest among the audience, but by the extent to which coverage of such a topic would be fulfilling the overall objectives of the service and primarily whether, however intrinsically worthwhile the subject, it could be made into an interesting programme and something extra would be brought to the subject by the use of radio which would otherwise be missed.

A feature of the BBC's independence is its policy of maintaining a balanced picture in schools' programmes where opinions are expressed. Preferably each programme should achieve this but otherwise it is necessary to have a series balanced as a whole. Contributions to this balance may come not only from the broadcasts but from the supportive literature, film loops and discussion topics which form an integral part of the pupil's lesson.

Whereas the provision of regular careers information has been a relatively recent entry onto the curricula of most schools (if it is there at all) it has had a place in Schools Radio broadcasts almost from the earliest days. The service offered has generally reflected much of what is best and progressive in mainstream educational thinking without being so far ahead of what may be regarded as typical schools work that it is unacceptable. In reviewing the scripts of careers programmes which have been presented over the past forty-five years it is possible to see reflected in them the changing attitudes, both to education generally and careers education in particular.13

Two talks were given in September 1928 on the educational world entitled 'The Public Schools' and
'The Universities', but the first series of careers talks began in the autumn of 1930. Intended as additional to the normal school curriculum these talks were broadcast between 16.05 and 16.25 to children willing to stay after school to listen. Subjects covered in the first series included:

- **Agriculture**: a talk given by Major Walter Elliot;
- **Nursing**: a talk given by Viscount Knutsford;
- **The Sea**: a talk given by Captain Armitage RN, RNVR Rtd;
- **The Land; Social Service; Insurance and Catering**.

These early broadcasts were scripted talks delivered by the authors. Each speaker had a style of his own but on the whole the talks were of a practical nature, informative, describing the job, its advantages and satisfactions, the qualifications required for entry and often ending up on a religious or vocational note. It would appear from some of the scripts, for example, the talk on Agriculture by Major Elliot, that the speakers assumed their audience to be younger versions of themselves, educated in the public schools and, although likely to have to begin work getting to know the practical aspects and muddy boots, capable of acquiring capital and eventually owning a farm.

A tone of paternalism is strong in these early scripts (Captain Armitage begins 'Good afternoon, my lads, listen to my yarn of the sea') and, successful as they have been themselves, there is a tendency for the broadcasters to view their respective occupations through rose-coloured spectacles and to present them in a similar light. Today radio broadcasts have a very much less evangelical approach reflecting the counsellors duty to give as much information on the disadvantages as on the advantages of jobs.

The topics covered by the schools talks quickly became more proletarian as the idea became established and possibly as the audience broadened. The second series of weekly talks in the spring term of 1933, covered salesmanship, engineering, air transport, office work,
nursing, government service, catering, printing, clothing and civil engineering.

By autumn 1935 an entirely different audience was obviously being catered to with talks on such careers as: waiter, shorthand typist, bookseller's assistant, bricklayer, hairdresser, ladies' clothing machinist, post office engineer, wireless factory hand, grocer's assistant, laundry maid, lorry driver, local government employee.

By the outbreak of war a wide range of careers had been covered in the primary and extractive industries, engineering and manufacturing and services such as transport, catering, laundry and the retail trade. In 1939 talks were still being offered under the general title 'Careers for Girls' and tended to include the traditional limited range of jobs - Nursing, Physical Education, Domestic Science, Dressmaking, Civil Service and Secretarial work.

The war can be seen to have had a liberating effect on the acceptability of women in a number of occupations if we can judge from the much broader range of topics covered in the 'Careers for Girls' series broadcast in a Women's Magazine programme in 1946. These included Business Training, Journalism, Teaching, Physiotherapy, Librarianship, Art in Commerce and in Schools, Pharmacy and Dispensing, Domestic Science, Advertising, Photography, Civil Service, Occupational Therapy, Receptionist.

It is only in the 1950s that one can begin to detect a gradual change towards the view that the 'first place for boys and girls to look isn't the situations vacant but at themselves'. As well as providing straightforward information and job descriptions the programmes seek to encourage the listener to project himself into the job and to question his suitability for the work. The scripted talk gives way to structured discussions and playlets in which the hero, or heroine, is followed through the stages of leaving school, job applications, training and eventual success in his or her chosen vocation. Difficulties and moments of despair are featured alongside the triumphs.
and satisfactions.

An indication of the way the broadcasters' thoughts were turning is given by the titles of two talks given (not specifically to children) in 1949. Alec Rodger (who devised a major plan for assessing young people used in the Careers Service for many years) spoke on 'How Psychology helps in Choosing a Career' (9/2/49) and D.V. Glass presented 'Social Investigations Today - What Becomes of Clever Children' (20/5/49). Rodger's influence soon appears in the school programmes. In the programme he presented in September 1952 'What kind of work shall I do?' it can be seen how the children were being encouraged to know themselves and develop their self concepts.

It is probably true to say that there have been at least as many careers features in the general broadcasting time as in schools broadcasts. 'Children's Hour' ran a very successful 'I want to be ....' series of playlets from March 1952 to March 1959. Woman's Hour also ran regular features on careers during the fifties and early sixties.

One of the principal post war series for schools has been the 'World of Work' which began in September 1950. Several of the programme titles appear at regular intervals throughout the run of over 15 years, but the general flavour of the programmes gradually changed over the years from jobs and job contentment to an emphasis on the student and his career decision. Even the earliest programmes of the series showed a marked change from the standard job description which characterised the pre-war talks. Broadcasting techniques had advanced, and the listening pupil audience was sufficiently sophisticated to accept a variety of methods of communicating information and ideas. Sound effects, recorded interviews, dramatised excerpts and discussions featured in the 'World of Work' broadcasts from the beginning. A programme on 'Shipbuilding' broadcast on 26th January 1951 included such techniques as sound effect of a shipyard and scripted dialogue. The audience learned how a ship is built but was told nothing about
working conditions. The assumption behind the programme seemed to be that job satisfaction derives from identification with the product. Other programmes tried to delve a bit more deeply. Alec Rodger's discussion with young workers broadcast 8th December 1950 covered such topics as why they entered their jobs, the training they received, their likes and dislikes and a rating of factors which they considered to be important in a job.

Throughout its programmes the BBC was conscious of putting over almost wholly middle class attitudes, in middle class accents and phrases. The Central Council for School Broadcasting was particularly conscious of this. In 1938 an Inspector of Schools criticised the middle class points of view adopted in the English History scripts noting that 'our history is for the children of the workers'. Perhaps in careers broadcasts more than in any of their other programmes the Council had to face this problem and if they have not overcome it they have at least made 'one part of the community aware of the existence of other parts'. Very close collaboration with schools enables producers to know their audience well. Whenever possible producers go into the schools to listen to pupils talking and to learn about their problems. Rita Udall, producer of the 'World of Work' and 'Learning about Life' series in 1972 was adamant that it was not her task to talk to young people when they meet. Young workers are brought into the studio and engage in unscripted discussion on their work and its problems.

One might say that whereas the early broadcasts assumed the questions and sought to give the answers the current trend is to pose questions and stimulate enquiry leaving the provision of the answers up to the pupil, his teacher and family and other sectors of the careers industry. Mrs. Udall's programmes are intended to be integrated into planned sessions and used as and when required. Now that schools may be expected to be equipped with tape
recorders it is no longer necessary to prepare a script which is to be heard 'live' from beginning to end. The producer is therefore not restricted to exposing the listener to the limited number of concepts which it is possible to absorb in the programme time. The teacher is expected to tape the broadcasts and use extracts from them as required, preferably for use with discussion groups. Television can more efficiently present job description and dramatised situations.

The changing state of careers education in the schools has undoubtedly affected the nature of the contribution which broadcasting can best make. Constant monitoring of the situation in schools has meant that the School Broadcasting Council has been able to keep pace and adapt the style and content of their output accordingly. In terms of the development of guidance practice the radio can be said to have developed from flat reportage and job description to contributing to the more complex counselling function.

In order to illustrate the changes in content of radio programmes which have occurred an analysis was done of the subjects of the 'World of Work' broadcasts over the years.

The tone of the series was set in 1950 in the very first programme presented by Alec Rodger entitled 'Measuring Yourself for a Job' and the second, 'Meet the Youth Employment Officer'. Over the years, interspersed at regular intervals between the programmes featuring descriptions of jobs and industry were 'What is a Good Job?', 'Square Peg in a Round Hole', 'What are Good Working Conditions?', 'Choosing a Career', 'First Days at Work', 'The Young Worker and his Budget', 'Health and the Young Worker', 'Leisure' and 'Boredom'. By the early 1960s the summer term's broadcasts were devoted entirely to programmes of this type with titles like 'Living at Home', 'Acting Your Age', 'Minding Your Own Business', 'Do Manners Matter?', 'Advertising and You', 'Save or Spend', 'Leisure', 'Hobbies', 'Adventure'.

If we divide the programmes offered into four main categories:

A. Those dealing with a specific career or industry.
B. Those dealing with general work problems.
C. Those dealing with problems specific to career choice.
D. Those dealing with general life problems.

we can see how the balance has changed over the years.

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<tr>
<td>63-64</td>
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</table>

Data for half this year unavailable.

It should be noted that the nature of the programmes classified in Category A has changed from being mainly ones covering specific jobs and industries such as 'Meet the Baker' and 'Shipbuilding' to more general topics such as 'Working Out of Doors' and 'Night Workers'. So, over a decade the number of programmes actually dealing with a career or industry as a main feature dropped by over fifty per cent. Indeed those programmes which could still be said to cover this area did so by looking at work from the perspective of a particular characteristic which young people might consider important in their anticipated job.
The 1972/73 series of The World of Work deviated so much from the original format that it was impossible to compare it with its predecessors in the same categories. It was a two term series trying to meet the needs of non-academic pupils who will leave school at 16 years old. The aim is to sharpen the pupil's 'self awareness' and develop his 'self confidence so that he can adjust to and develop in the working situation in which he finds himself'.

As the producer has written 'The broadcast will reflect some of the positive strands in careers teaching such as attitudes to work; information about opportunities; the processes of finding and getting a job as well as some of the conditions and problems of working life. The programmes contain very little about job description since much of this can be done at a local level by visits to places of work; by having outside speakers visit the group and answer questions; by the use of television, film and filmstrips and by having ex-pupils return to talk about their jobs either singly or in a careers forum.'

Radio careers broadcasts concentrate today on doing what they do best: dealing with attitudes and feelings. Television, which is now generally available in schools, but which cannot be recorded by the school so readily or cheaply, has to a large extent taken over the job description function, together with the published material which accompanies the programmes.

4.3 Advisory Agencies Providing Information

Tony Watts of CHAC describes two ways of approaching careers work.

(1) The adaptive philosophy which accepts individuals as they are and helps them to cope with existing situations.

(2) The radical approach. This view, to which he subscribes, aims to raise individual's aspirations,
to help them to acquire skills to make decisions and determine their own lives. This view would seem to be shared by most of the innovators and leaders in the Careers Education movement, among them the people working on the Schools Council Education and Guidance Project, in ACE and among the ranks of researchers and officers of the Youth Employment Service. CRAC sees its task as an educational one not as helping the job slotting process. They seek to promote and develop non-directive counselling and to aid the young person to develop this self-understanding.

4.3.1 Advisory Centre for Education

Instrumental in ACE's inception in 1960 was Dr. Michael Young, empirical sociologist and activist, who had been working for the Consumer Association and its publication 'Which' for about a year and was beginning to see the advantages in having a similar consumers' group monitoring the educational services in the country. He met Brian Jackson in Cambridge and together they set about launching the Advisory Centre for Education. Initially the aims were 'to create a self-aware body of educational "consumers" and to provide them with the independent information necessary to make educational choices'.\(^\text{15}\) The focus of the service was its publication Where, copies of which were distributed to subscribers and which provided and still does provide ACE's chief source of income.

The nature of the magazine's distribution and of its subject matter ensures that the membership of ACE is almost entirely middle-class. Initially, as its title suggests, Where aimed at enabling parents to make choices about their children's education on the basis of the best information which could be provided. Since then the aims have grown far from this original ideal. While deriving its support from the middle class ACE has sought to inform, advise and stimulate the majority of the British public through press coverage of its research and articles,
through education shops and the formation of a number of groups set up to improve areas which ACE identifies as being of special concern.

The emphasis is less on the right to maximum free choice (although it is acknowledged that this is not unimportant) but on issues arising from the fact that the 'majority of parents have little or no choice in the school their children attend'. The existence of private education does allow the prosperous minority a choice in education, but as the ACE Progress Report 1960-1970 noted 'arguably this freedom ... diminishes the opportunities of the less prosperous majority by taking out of the state system pupils, parents, teachers, and resources which could be of more benefit to all if kept within it. And inside the state system it can be forcibly argued that parental choice, by itself, simply leads to the better-educated parents choosing the better schools for their children, and so establishing an even more resilient form of inequality.'.

As well as seeking to inform and educate the better-educated parents who constitute its membership, therefore, ACE tries to minimise the inequalities to which this might lead by pursuing several projects aimed at making its expertise, advisory and information services available to the less privileged majority of parents as in for example the provision of education shops. Figures published by ACE indicate that compared to the composition of their membership the class composition of visitors to the education shops is much less biased in favour of the professional and managerial classes. Compared to ACE members the shop visitors were less concerned with choice of school or type of education than with problems within the school concerning school work, exams and the eleven plus.16

This is the line which ACE seeks to pursue, placing less emphasis on choice of school than choices
within the schools about subjects, careers, involvement, discipline specialised services and so on. With such a general recognition of the general inadequacy of services in almost all areas and levels of education the latent conflict between the interests of its members and the more altruistic aims of its founders is unlikely to interfere with ACE's activities for some time yet.

It cannot be said that ACE was formed in response to public demand although the founders felt that they were responding to a public need. Only by providing a service which patently had not existed before but seemed to be useful could ACE indicate its right to existence. The public was made aware that it needed ACE. ACE, by virtue of its expertise and accumulating knowledge (derived partly from its membership) felt able to identify specific areas of educational waste or inequality of which the public should be made aware. It had set itself up as a watch dog for a public unused to, and unfamiliar with, the complexities of an ever-changing educational system.

In his article in Where 35 (January 1968) Brian Jackson has implied that, in the area of career choice as well, despite the fact that the general position regarding aid for this process in schools was rudimentary, there was 'no widespread dissatisfaction with it from either parents or pupils'. The Schools Council Enquiry of that year, however, highlighted preparation for careers work as being one of the functions of the school which parents and pupils felt to be most important. 17

Studies of students carried out through the sixties also uncovered a great deal of dissatisfaction with the advice and information (or lack of it) which they had received while at school. 18

It is true that much of the dissatisfaction expressed was retrospective which may account partly for Jackson's feeling that little dissatisfaction was being expressed by parents and pupils to the schools. In other words there
was inability to recognise the problem not only on the part of the schools but also of their clients. Jackson explains it thus 'a partial explanation is that the most articulate and ambitious body of parents and pupils aim for higher education after grammar school. The career question is postponed. Of course each educational step narrows the final choice. Nevertheless the feeling that careers guidance at 16 to 18 is not all that crucial must be recognised as a fact.' This may be seen as a criticism of the schools or of the society which supports them for stressing values which support educational goals as ends in themselves rather than being means to furthering life opportunities and experiences. Whether or not he meant this Jackson went on to describe how careers work in public schools was very much more established and effective. Its success was 'almost entirely due to the fact that it is built on a strong existing system of social connections'. Here, then, the values of those supporting the public schools; the parents and former pupils, were more sympathetic to careers work of some kind in that education was possibly regarded more as a means than as an end in itself.

Perhaps more extensive than specific criticism of careers work in schools were the growing complaints during the sixties about the lack of advice and guidance in schools regarding educational choices which had to be made at several stages during the pupil's school life and which, ultimately affected his career choice. Because the need for help in making these educational choices was most immediate those having to make several of these choices appeared to be receiving most attention. Hence, Jackson wrote in 1968, 'the striking thing about careers guidance in English schools is that it is overwhelmingly a service for the academically successful. The most privileged pupils - university students, public school boys - receive the most adequate service. The least privileged pupils - secondary modern boys and girls
leaving at 15 - receive very little'.

There would seem to be two ways of looking at careers work and education. Educating for education's sake puts no obligation on the educator to provide a full careers service merely to make available good information on which to base educational choice. If, however, education is regarded as a means of achieving other goals, societal or personal, then a service which enables the individual to make the best use of his education as well as choose which type of education most suits him is necessary. The corollary to this is, of course, that educational services would be tailored to meet the requirements of the desired goals.

4.3.2 Careers Research and Advisory Centre

Early in the sixties the feeling was very much that the better informed an individual was the better would be his choice. Thus at this time the emphasis was very much on improving the standard and extent of information available to young people faced with choices. The most able and most wealthy had the greatest number of decision points during their academic careers -

- which secondary school to attend;
- which O level subjects to study;
- which optional subjects to study;
- which A levels to attempt;
- what form of higher education to apply for;
- which subject to study;
- at which institution.

It was in response to the needs of people having to answer these sorts of questions that CRAC produced its first publication.

The Careers Research and Advisory Centre was set up in 1964 by Adrian Bridgewater, Tony Watts and one other who had visited various schools and come to the conclusion that there was a need for a non-profit making organisation free from allegiance to industry
to provide good objective information in the careers and higher education field.

Watts had been editing *Which University* and all three were products of the British University system. It was perhaps natural, therefore, that they should begin to publish information on the area they knew best. In addition it was the era of the Robbins Report, the early days of the UCCA scheme and university expansion was at its height. Not unexpectedly the response to their invitation to schools and appointments boards to subscribe to the new publishing house came largely from public schools and grammar schools. Between 300 and 400 bodies subscribed in that first year for a subscription of 10 guineas each.

The emphasis in the early years, therefore, was very much on catering for the upper ability ranges and university entrance candidates. As well as the factors already mentioned there were other reasons for choosing this group. Choices at this end of the scale tended to be made on the basis of information which applied nationally and for which there was a national market. The university and college entrance systems were becoming formalised and codified. The mechanisms of personal recommendation and maintained social contact were giving way to a larger scale, more impersonal machine which called for a new expertise. People needed to be trained in "UCCA-manship", and directories and digests were issued to guide both advisers and advised through the system.

ACE and CRAC differ in several important respects. The former is very much more of a political pressure group aiming to inform and involve people, to initiate action to improve existing situations, and is only partly concerned with careers work. The target for its advice is the general public with particular reference to the middle class parents who comprise its
membership. The targets for its action are the government, educational establishments and the education professors. ACE first argued the case for a National Association of Careers Teachers and subsequently helped to bring it about. CRAC is a less active body aiming to provide materials and courses for use in schools and by careers advisers probably more than for the general public although both markets are catered for. As interest in advice and guidance has grown so the focus of CRAC's effort and attention has shifted. Economic pressure for maximisation of manpower resources as well as political and social pressures has led to a demand for greater equality of opportunity and a structure allowing for increasing mobility both in the spheres of education and occupations. There has been a demand for a broader curriculum which will produce flexible and autonomous individuals who are less dependent upon circumstances but more fitted to cope with them.

Watts notes that 'concern with equality of opportunity has brought with it a recognition that the school must act in a positive way to broaden the occupational horizon and aspirations of socially-deprived pupils'.

The implications of such a policy must be extremely far reaching. This must be a recognition of careers work as an agency of social change as well as a response to it. The introduction of careers education into the curriculum may be seen as a means of ideological and educational change as well as a response to it. However, as has been noted above, the conflicts which might result from such policies have yet to manifest themselves so inadequate and lacking in direction is most careers work as yet.

The development of a flexible 'careers education' approach aimed at the younger secondary school pupils, say 15-16 year olds, has meant that CRAC could expand from publishing pure information, digests and directories
and seek to provide educational materials for use by careers teachers in seeking to stimulate the pupils' thoughts about themselves and their occupational futures. They have a specialised product — careers information and auxiliary material and have been able to diversify the means of production and widen their market. The latest material is aimed at the less able groups as it includes careers games, and is sold to schools for class use rather than to individuals or parents for use in the home. This echoes the pupil's pamphlets provided by the BBC to accompany the 'World of Work' broadcasts. Most CRAC publications are written by specialists engaged for specific purposes.

Although not politically oriented in the way of ACE, which acts as a ginger group seeking active involvement by its members and others, CRAC claims to be able to perform some functions which a government agency or a body like the BBC could not do. According to British tradition the government cannot comment on University courses, advisory agencies and so on. The extent to which a government agency should be involved in publishing textbooks and information is also questioned.

4.5.3 Government Involvement

The government has been a major source of careers information for many years working through the Careers Service, the schools and the Industrial Training Boards. In the early 1970s the Central Youth Employment Executive was distributing 500 items every year to Careers Offices and schools in England, Scotland and Wales, their complete distribution list numbering approximately 15,000. Not all items were distributed to schools, some went just to careers officers.

As well as their own information the CYEE distributed recruitment literature from professional organisations, industries, individual companies and the Industrial Training Boards. They reserve the right to
refuse to distribute badly misleading literature. Volumes such as the CRAC yearbook which is annually revised in co-operation with the CYEE are also distributed.

The Schools Council has also been concerned with developing class material for use by careers teachers. Their Careers Education and Guidance Project set up in 1971 had as its prime objective 'the production of classroom materials designed to shift the emphasis in careers work from an information-giving process to the active creation of and pupil-projection into experiences and problems analogous to those met in working life'. Such procedures are already used in the teaching of most other curricular subjects such as geography, English, technology and home economics. The project sought to stimulate the real world in the classroom and to provide preparatory evidence for pupils of actual work experience.

Prompted by the evidence of the 1968 Enquiry that 55% of Headteachers felt that more should be done to provide information on careers, that 47% felt that preparation for work was inadequately covered and also the prospect of a higher school leaving age, the project sought to develop a range of materials, for all ability levels in the 13-18 age range, which would arouse interest which would lead to an understanding of careers, gained by an active and participatory experience. By combining this form of activity with a study of the organisation method and types of courses for careers education the project aimed to become a national resource centre for careers education, containing not only its own products but also a full range of books and other materials produced elsewhere.

The project team was led by Kevin Devine a former Senior Careers Advisory Officer and consists of three teachers, a careers officer, an industrialist and
an artist/designer. Materials produced by the team were tried out in 50 pilot schools situated throughout England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Clustered around these schools also using the materials but being studied less intensively are associate schools. Together these groups can form local units some of which are considering producing material with local relevance which may be incorporated into the project. In all 180 schools were involved in trying out material for the Foundation Course in the year 1971-72. The medium chosen to achieve the objectives of the project is a newspaper which they have called 'Framework'. It has a low cost, can serve a variety of interest and ability levels, contains a variety of visual stimuli and has mass appeal. The articles are intended to be used as starting points for lessons.

The project was financed by a grant of £75,000 plus £60,000 from industrial and other organisations.

4.4 Discussion

Agencies supplying information about occupations have followed the trend observed in careers guidance practice of broadening the scope of the work in varying the method of approach according to age and ability levels of the consumer. The emphasis has changed from presenting the job information and inviting the individual to decide whether he suits it to encouraging him to examine his own capacity and subsequently seek a job which suits that.

Career education aims to raise the level of occupational awareness among young people, has opened up a new market and requires completely different teaching aids to the informative guides and leaflets intended for use by individuals without specialist help.
CHAPTER FIVE
The Development of a Public Careers
Guidance Service for Youth in Britain

5.1 Introduction

Careers guidance practice began at the interface between school and work assuming a fairly directive approach and being little more than a service geared to aid job placement. The trend has been towards an eclectic, non-directive approach which starts with the client still several years away from entry into work and having very diffuse motives and expectations of the service. Associated with this trend has been the changing organisational base for the work. The move into an increasingly school centred approach has led to the development of the specialist careers teachers.

Strong guidance practice was established rather earlier in America from which so much theory comes. In part this may be due to the greater amount of time and money available, part may be due to the fact that America has a tradition of comprehensive education, delayed specialisation and a prevalent ideology of equality of opportunity which highlights the need for advice and guidance into work. Our more explicitly stratified educational and social structures may have delayed the emergence of a similar system here.

Even today, in Britain, vocational guidance would seem to be a formal means of advice to which to resort if the informal mechanisms dependent upon one's social and economic circumstances do not prove satisfactory. It is less regarded as an efficient means of using the nation's talent and educational services than as a substitute or supplement for the more informal and intangible processes which influence personal development. There seems to be much more of a relationship between policy, services and theory in the United States than in Britain where theory owes much to America, and policy and
services owe very much more to developments in educational and employment administration.

The US guidance movement was founded in 1908 by Frank Parsons whose Vocation Counselling Bureau encouraged the establishment of vocation counselling in several Boston schools. Similar action was taken in schools in other parts of the country.

At this time the work had little relation to school curricula or work in vocational training or mental health. Government support for counselling grew rapidly during the years of economic depression and in 1936 the National Youth Administration was founded to provide employment for young people. This soon began to offer educational and vocational guidance as well. Later this became a junior division of the National Adult Employment Service. In 1938 the US Office of Education established a unit for guidance in its division of Vocational Education and from then on the practice of doing the bulk of counselling work in the schools was encouraged.

Both theory and practice came to recognise the need to consider vocational, educational and personal counselling together and by 1950 the National Vocation Guidance Association officially recognised Mental Health as one of its aims.

The situation has since developed to a point where counselling is available in elementary and secondary schools with a ratio of about one counsellor to every 400 pupils. However, the coverage is not yet universal.

So, in America, although the vocational guidance movement began outside the state school system, guidance soon became primarily the work of the school counsellor and only recently has the US Employment Service started to expand its Youth Services Program.

The dilemma of policy makers has revolved around the two perspectives on education which affect the attitude to careers guidance. Galbraith describes them in economic terms 'if education is viewed as a consumer
good, it is the privilege of every individual to pursue the curriculum of his choice. Everyone has a right to an arts degree if that is the preferred and fashionable course of study. But if education is a form of investment, then planning of educational output becomes desirable, and even imperative. In 1958 the American National Defense Education Act which allocated funds for strengthening school guidance services singled them out as a major facilitating mechanism to achieve the most efficient use of the nation's talent. By providing individuals with help in making the most of available education and employment opportunities, progress towards the objectives of manpower planners with either view of education could be achieved.

In Britain, as in America, the agencies concerned with careers advice have developed out of the two spheres of education and employment. They represent the practical response to a need for guidance and advice to school leavers on choice of employment recognised by school teachers and social workers and a need to organise the labour market to respond to industrial and social requirements, promote mobility and reduce unemployment.

The Careers Service (formerly the Youth Employment Service, Y.E.S.), the main body charged with the responsibility of providing vocational guidance exists essentially outside the schools. Its officers, trained in vocational guidance, although employed by the Local Education Authorities, visit the schools as outsiders.

In recent years a new group—the careers teachers—has emerged in the schools.

The Careers Officers working for Surrey County Council, and careers teachers in Surrey schools were studied as part of an attempt to discover more about their role in helping people to make career decisions. The time of this study, 1971–72, was a very turbulent one in the careers guidance world as the careers teachers were beginning to establish an occupational identity and
the careers service which did not have a uniform structure throughout the country was under review. In addition the school leaving age had just been raised and the comprehensive movement was well under way.

In order to place the studies, discussed in Chapter Six, in perspective it is necessary to outline briefly the growth of careers guidance practice in England. Until 1950 government reports and legislation contributed to the circumstances which created the identity of the careers officer. The following years consolidated the careers service and saw a critical examination of the role of the teaching profession in guidance practice.

5.2 Pre-War Development

The Youth Employment Service developed not so much in response to public demand but out of the late nineteenth century tradition of social reform and welfare and the middle class desire to improve the lot and guide the destinies of the working classes.

The service emerged at the same time as several schemes developed to provide a structure which would enable a young person to be moulded into an acceptable member of society, i.e. acceptable to the initiators, administrators and backers of the movements. Other such organisations included the Youth Service, YMCA, YWCA, Scout and Girl Guide movements as well as several types of school. All these movements aimed to produce some ideal form of citizen aiming to encourage and develop certain characteristics and suppress others.

At the beginning of the century voluntary committees were set up in some areas to help and guide children into worthwhile skilled occupations and apprenticeship schemes. Leading participants in this voluntary work were teachers, school attendance officers, school managers and social workers. One such body was the London Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association set up in 1902 which
by 1909 had affiliation with eighteen similar bodies in London as well as similar bodies existing in the provinces.

As Heginbotham points out guidance was the main purpose of these schemes, help in finding employment being secondary. Over and above both these the focus was undoubtedly on the provision of a service for young people - school leavers and young workers. The guidance and placement functions defined the nature of that service rather than it being primarily a guidance and placement service which happened to be limited to young people.

The problem of occupational choice and the need for guidance was seen as being specific to school children and leavers. This may help to explain why, rather than being the first stage in the development of an all-age guidance service the Youth Employment Service has grown away from the adult employment agencies and towards the education sector. The responsibility for administering the guidance services has increasingly become that of the Local Education Authorities.

Throughout the history of the Y.E.S. in some areas the service has been run by local authorities and in other areas by the central ministry. Only in 1973 were moves made to make administration of the service mandatory for local authorities.

The local authorities assumed responsibility for the provision of all secular education at elementary and secondary levels in their areas in 1902 and by 1910 had also taken upon themselves responsibilities for safeguarding the 'physical and moral' welfare of the children in their schools. This was one of the many reforms of the last Liberal government which began the extension (which continued into the 1920s) of a wide variety of administrative responsibilities to local government under the direction of central government.

G.M. Trevelyan, in 1922, wrote that local government 'is looked on now, not merely to remove public nuisances, to supply sanitation, lighting and roads, but to act for
the personal benefit of the individual citizen'. It can be seen that once public bodies act in a positive way to benefit members of the community (i.e. as well as providing 'freedom from', endeavour to provide 'freedom to' do something), they are, in part, formalising one of the integral tasks of a society viz:- to socialise its youth into the kinds of adults which would be acceptable to the dominant group of the dominant generation.

Under the 1909 Labour Exchanges Act the Board of Trade set up Labour Exchanges subsequently termed 'Employment Exchanges'. Because young people were recognised as having special problems from the start a number of these had special Juvenile Departments for placing boys and girls in employment and in many cases Juvenile Advisory Committees were attached to the Juvenile Departments.

After 1910 a proportion of the LEAs decided to exercise the powers given them in the Education (Choice of Employment) Act which allowed LEAs to make arrangements, subject to the approval of the Board of Education, for assisting children up to the age of 17 in the choice of suitable employment 'by means of the collection and communication of information and the furnishing of advice'. The age limit was extended to 18 in 1918.

As a result of consultations in 1911 and pursuant memoranda and circulars the Boards of Trade and Education were of the opinion that, in areas where the local authorities were exercising their optional powers, the Board of Trade would deal mainly with the registration of applicants for employment and bring applicants into touch with employers who had notified vacancies. The Boards would deal with the placing side of the work and local authorities would deal more with the task of advising juveniles and their parents and helping them select suitable occupations with the help of school and medical records.

It was recommended that the work of the Education Authority should be done through sub-committees which had
representatives of industrial as well as educational experience. These, preferably, also administered the continuation and technical schools and would monitor the progress of children after they had left school. Voluntary workers were involved in this. In particular the voluntary work of teachers in placing children in employment was acknowledged and was to be formalised through the notification of work to a Central Office. Close co-operation between Education Officers and Labour Exchange Officers was proposed.

The LEA sub-committee was to advise the Board of Trade on the management of Exchanges in respect of juvenile work, to co-operate with the Labour Exchanges in registering and selecting applications of juveniles for job vacancies, and to ensure that suitable vocational advice and information was available to boys and girls before and after leaving school. The officer of the Labour Exchange would work with employers calling their attention to the service, registering vacancies and submitting suitable applicants.

Not all education authorities took up the option offered by the Choice of Employment Act but where they did, since their role was one of 'advising' the Ministry of Labour on juvenile employment matters, tensions tended to arise. The authorities were reluctant to share responsibility with a government department to which they were not otherwise directly answerable.

By 1920 it was apparent that this scheme of co-operation was not working successfully in a number of areas. Lord Chelmsford was therefore appointed to inquire into 'the difficulties which have arisen in giving effect to the Joint Memorandum of the Presidents of the Board of Trade and Board of Education,...and to make recommendations as to the arrangements which should be made for advising and assisting young persons in choosing and obtaining suitable employment, regard being had to the Education Act 1918 and the Unemployment Insurance Act 1920'.
His report concluded that the co-operative arrangements should cease and that if an authority chose to exercise its powers under the 1910 Act it should undertake all the work with regard to young people including placement in employment, relations with employers and the administration of unemployment insurance for boys and girls up to 18 years of age, since this work was intimately connected with the finding and retention of suitable employment. He saw no reason why one agency should perform the work any better than another.

The difference in perspective of committees concerned with the needs of industry and those concerned with education had been identified as a possible cause of conflict in the implementation of the 1911 Act. In 1926 a report was published by the Committee on Education and Industry whose brief was 'to inquire into and advise upon the public system of education in England and Wales in relation to the requirement of trade and industry, with particular reference to the adequacy of the arrangements for enabling young persons to enter into and retain suitable employment'. The term 'young person' referred to those between the compulsory school attendance age of 14 and 18 years of age.

The Committee concluded that one department should have central control over dealing with choice of employment for young people thus avoiding delays through referral between departments and attendant inconvenience. The Ministry of Labour, having control over industrial policy and administration of employment insurance was deemed to be the appropriate body although at a local level the education authorities might continue to work in the area of vocational guidance. The Ministry made it clear that the authorities could develop their service in their own way without necessarily conforming to the procedures laid down for their own staff in the area where Exchanges had direct responsibility for the task.
From this time until the 1939 war concern was focussed on the desirability of every juvenile who could benefit from vocational guidance coming to the attention of the Juvenile Employment Service. It was considered that the payment of unemployment benefit provided the required contact. This was not wholly successful because for many years there was a gap between the minimum school leaving age and the age of eligibility for the benefit and some people never claimed the benefit or came to the service for help in finding jobs.

5.3 Post-War Consolidation

By the end of the war the increased strategic importance of many industries had led to the requirement that the employers notify vacancies to the Employment Exchanges and the Juvenile Employment Bureaux. These had to approve the employment of young people in those jobs usually through the issuing of an introduction card. The statistical requirements of policy makers were becoming clear. Similarly the implications of industrial policies required constant attention on the part of those responsible for training programmes and academic courses as well as pupils requiring individual guidance.

Following the report in 1945 of the committee chaired by Sir Godfrey Ince which considered the measures necessary to establish a comprehensive juvenile employment service the work of the education authorities in youth employment was controlled and indirectly strengthened by a series of measures. Scottish authorities were given the opportunity to take up the service and all LEAs opting to do the work were required to provide the service for their entire areas thus tidying up some administrative tangles. A Central Youth Employment Executive (C.Y.E.E.) was established by the Ministry of Labour to determine policy, examine and approve the work of the Education Authorities, set standards for and inspect staff training, recruitment
and accommodation, to disseminate information and promote and encourage research. The Executive also provided the Secretariat for the National Youth Employment Council (NYEC) and the Advisory Committees for Scotland and Wales which were established by the Employment and Training Act 1948. The Act provided for the reimbursement to local authorities of 75% of the expenditure incurred in providing the service as approved by the C.Y.E.E.

Government now had powers of quality control over the LEA service and with a central body having a concern for staff training the way lay open for the development of a professional identity for people working in the Youth Employment Service. After the 1948 Act many local authorities opted within the time allowed to provide the service and the tendency was for the areas of more dispersed population to leave the task in the hands of the Ministry. Subsequent boundary changes altered numbers but before the next administrative change 132 out of 163 authorities in England and Wales provided their own service representing 85% of young people. This was almost twice as many authorities as had previously operated their own service.

A nationwide career structure for officers was thus developing although Ministry staff, in accordance with policy, only spent a period of their working lives in the Youth Employment field. A specialised service had been able to emerge through the recognition by successive governments of the special problems associated with the transition from school to work and the fact that it does not fit neatly into the main stream of either education or labour administration but rests on the margins of each.

Once central control had been decided upon, the Youth Employment Service working at a local level under either direct Ministry control or the Education Authority entered a period of consolidation. Gradually knowledge and expertise was built up but essential weaknesses in the structure of the services remained and became increasingly apparent as
other moves occurred in education and employment policy. The expansion of the higher and further education sectors, the growth in the size of schools and the numbers of children remaining at school beyond the age of 15 with the prospect of a higher minimum school leaving age highlighted the requirement within schools for some form of vocational guidance. The change in approach to educating the less able, making the curriculum more realistic and relevant to their everyday lives as prompted by the Newsom and Brunton reports expanded the scope for improving the job knowledge of older children.

In 1965 the Department of Education and Science published 'Careers Guidance in Schools' which highlighted the significance of these developments. 'With the increasing use of optional courses there is some possibility that vocational decisions may be made almost inadvertently at the ages of 15, 14 or 16, or in changing from school to school or from school to further education.'

The report provided illustrations of careers guidance practice in schools. The procedures were shown to have grown empirically and unevenly. The report provided a spur to schools to improve careers work, the extent and scope of which varied greatly throughout the country. Some secondary schools, as the Newsom report had observed, still had no careers teachers.

From the early part of the century teachers were involved in the voluntary committees set up to provide advice for school leavers. The first reference to the 'careers master' who in addition to ordinary teaching work, has the responsibility for assisting pupils obtaining employment appeared in 1932.

The occupational associations began to provide publications and advice for these teachers and gradually more schools adopted the practice. The Ministry of Education first introduced a short course for careers teachers in 1959.
'Careers Guidance in Schools' acknowledged that few teachers had direct experience of commerce and industry and were inevitably more familiar with advice on further education. More courses and conferences to systematise the methods of enlarging the teacher's knowledge of employment opportunity were called for and it was hoped that, in this context, the Youth Employment Service could perform a liaison function. It was acknowledged that 'school cannot themselves provide or oversee the whole of the transition from school to work' and that the school's main job is to help young people to form a 'broad picture of occupations within their range'. The knowledge and experience of the Youth Employment Officer and careers teacher were regarded as complementary and both necessary for an advisory and information service. The general position in schools was that the YEO came into the school shortly before pupils were about to leave and interviewed them having had a chance to assess their ability, aptitudes and interests from information previously provided by pupil, parent and school.

Shortly after this pamphlet the report on the future of the youth employment service was published produced by a working party of the National Youth Employment Council chaired by Lady Albemarle12. It was felt that the Youth Employment Officer should become more intimately involved in the careers work in schools establishing earlier and more flexible contact with pupils. The DES pamphlet had also called for a flexible approach. The Albemarle Report stated 'we identify this changed relationship with the school as one of the main issues facing the service'.

Endorsing the view that the roles of careers teachers and YEOs are complementary the report stressed the need for the YEO to be available to advise on the job implications of all educational as well as career decisions and to be on hand to help with the occupational input of the careers programme in the school. Responsibility for
running such a programme, however, should rest with the careers teacher as the expert educationist. The importance of improving the guidance and counselling skills of the YEO was stressed and support given to the professional training courses.

The report dealt in detail with the types of school leavers, their differing requirements and the implications for the development of the service. Leavers going directly into employment, those with the opportunity to enter part-time further education, those going into higher education, and young people under 18 seeking to change jobs would all benefit from the YEOs specialist knowledge of training and employment opportunities whether directly through individual interviews, via collaboration with school staff in the preparation of the school careers programme, or through contact with parents. It was noted that the YES had still to cope adequately with the large numbers of young people entering colleges of further education. In addition the YEO should liaise with the staff of such colleges and employers to assist in co-ordinating training and job opportunities.

Considerable importance was attached to the local liaison by the YES between employers and educationists particularly in interpreting their respective viewpoints. Disadvantaged sections of the juvenile population, e.g. the handicapped, delinquents, the less able, immigrants, required special help in finding suitable employment.

The Albemarle Committee reviewed in detail the recruitment and training of Youth Employment Officers, both in LEAs and the Ministry Service. Despite earlier recommendations by the Piercy Committee in 1951 for a year's training and agreed minimum qualifications for admission to the YES, training courses for recruits to local authorities were by no means universal. The rapid expansion in the Service after the 1948 Act and again in the late 1950s to cope with the 'bulge' of school leavers
meant that officers possessed a wide range of backgrounds and qualifications. The variety of experience was welcomed but further action to ensure that new entrants attended full-time courses without financial hardship was recommended, possibly by the establishment of trainee posts. Where possible, existing untrained officers should be given the opportunity to take training.

While the training of Ministry YEOs was uniform and fairly satisfactory it was regrettable that experienced officers were often promoted out of the service. The Committee did not consider that there was a case for changing the dual provision of the service at local level but thought there was a case for extending the age limit for clients from 18 to 21, particularly in view of the raising of the school leaving age to 16 in 1971 and the increasing number of young people going into further and higher education.

5.4 The Debate Over the Future of the Youth Employment Service

Following the Albemarle Report the debate concerning the future of the YES gathered momentum particularly in view of the forthcoming reorganisation of local government due on April 1st 1974 in England and Wales.

The next National Youth Employment Council advised the Secretary of State in 1968 that the dual system of administration of the Service should be terminated and recommended that detailed consideration should be given to the possibilities of providing an education based youth employment service.

The Confederation of British Industry made its main contribution to the debate in 1969 with the report of its working party on careers guidance. The report, which aimed to assess the effectiveness of the existing careers guidance services in meeting industry's needs, identified an uneven provision of service with serious gaps and
inadequacies. I recommended a comprehensive all-age
guidance scheme within which the separate elements could
work in partnership.

In many respects the report was in accordance with
the mainstream of contemporary guidance opinion, emphasising
that it should be a continuous process throughout education
and employment aiming to develop fully the abilities and
interests of the individual, and that under no
circumstances should guidance go beyond advice into
direction into employment.

Strong improvements were recommended in the college
and university guidance services, particularly in relation
to personal interviews as opposed to information provision.
Willings' study of university students illustrated the
situation at about that time. He found that most students
were not reading the subject best suited to their interests
and aptitudes. Misconceptions about a career in industry
were evident. A third of final year students would not take
the same subject again. Schofield (1967) in a study of
1000 students in industry discovered one, of the 32% who
had received careers guidance, who was at all satisfied
with the guidance he had received.

Lord Boyle (1971) observed a tendency for different
groups concerned with 'guidance' to keep to the specific
problems arising within their own respectively spheres.
There was little evidence of the 'careers guidance' process
being regarded as a continuous one, over the transition
from school to higher or further education, and thence into
work.

The CHI envisaged a National Careers Guidance
Service representing both educational and industrial
interests and operated by them all but ultimately
responsible to the Department of Employment and Productivity
which would co-ordinate and oversee the service. As
education and training was of increasing importance in
adult life an age limit dividing an education oriented
youth service and an employment oriented adult service
was not considered desirable.
A high professional standard for staff was advocated with regular in-service training to acquire a working knowledge of industry and keep abreast of technological and occupational changes.

By now the terms Careers Service and Careers Officer were replacing the 'Youth Employment' tag which, it was felt, over emphasised the placement function of the service. Legal sanction of this change of name depended on amendments to the Employment and Training Act.

The NYEC which worked from 1968-1971 considered the dual system of administration of the service and in 1970 in the report 'At Odds', suggested a service for all people up to the age of 22 and students beyond that age which would be operated mandatorily by LEAs. However, a minority, spearheaded by Professor Lady Williams, considered the existence of two services divided by an artificial age limit would be wasteful and inefficient and advocated a national all-age guidance service. Professor Williams resigned over the issue. She accepted that work in the schools needed strengthening but questioned whether, in a divided service, there was a future for the Youth Employment Service. In her view the age group for which the YES was organised was diminishing - the school being essentially the province of the teachers. Raising of the age limit would not remedy the situation as adolescents were maturing and marrying earlier. There was little justification for separating the first two years of working life from the remaining sixty-three. She hoped that the Occupational Guidance Units set up by the Department of Employment in 1966 would expand to incorporate specialist divisions for young people, and other special groups thus embodying and strengthening existing expertise. Such an arm of the Manpower Service would, by the variety of its scope and the numbers required, 'offer a rewarding career which would justify the rigorous training needed by its officers'.

Following the issue of the Department's consultative
document 'People and Jobs' the NYEC supported a mandatory LEA service with an 18 age limit or up to first degree level for those in full time education. The Council set up a working party to examine the relationships between the YES, University Appointment Boards and other agencies offering vocational guidance of placement services.

'People and Jobs - A modern employment service' reviewed the present employment services provided by the Department. Emphasis was placed on improving and expanding the advisory aspects of the service and improving placement services for professional and white collar workers.

'Into Action' published by the Department of Employment in December 1972 contained recommendations made to the Secretary of State by a working group on the future structure of the employment services. The new arrangements outlined reflected the recommendations of 'People and Jobs' that local authorities would be responsible for careers and employment work for all young people in education and on leaving school or college. Afterwards they will normally become the responsibility of the Employment Service.

But flexibility and cooperation between local authorities and the Employment Service are to be the keynotes of the new arrangements and young people who have just entered employment will be free to choose which service to use.

These sentences caused some consternation in the Youth Employment world as no definite statements about government intentions for the YES had been declared and urgent representations were made expressing anxiety that precise proposals for its future had not been announced.

 Interested bodies had submitted evidence which was included in the Fourth Report from the Expenditure Committee session 1972-73 - Youth Employment Services. Again the existing situation was reviewed and the arguments for and against a mandatory LEA careers service and an all-age service were discussed.
In favour of incorporation of the YES into a general employment service were the Association of Officers of the Ministry of Labour (AOML), Ministry of Labour Staff Association, National Union of Students, Union of Shop, Distributive and Allied Workers (USDAW), and the Whitley Council (staff side). The evidence of the AOML reflects this view. They accepted that LEAs are best equipped to continue and develop advisory work in schools but argued that there was no sensible point of transfer from a youth employment service into the adult service. They raised the arguments of the waste and duplication of effort as well as the fact that confusion among employers and young people over which urgency to approach could be avoided with a continuous service. It would also mean that contact was established the moment young people entered the employment market.

USDAW noted that not unnaturally Youth Employment Officers and their professional association were concerned that standards would fall if the service reverted to the Department of Employment and Productivity. But the grounds for a separate youth advisory service were mainly historical in that it had developed prior to the adult one. On logical grounds one major section of the employment system could not be excluded. Employers were more likely to react favourably to the National Manpower Services Commission.

Lined up in favour of a mandatory LEA service were the Inner London Education Authority, the Association of Municipal Corporations, County Councils Association, the Society of Education Officers, and the Institute of Careers Officers (ICO). This group considered that flexibility in the application of an age division between the youth service and that provided by the Department could overcome a lot of waste and confusion. Their concern centred on the need to avoid administrative distinctions between vocational and educational guidance which required close co-operation between careers officers and schools. Officers in a specialist service were committed to their
job and did not relish the prospect of the work being regarded as part of a general career in the Department of Employment.

The Expenditure Committee took this latter view and observed that 'the service provided by local authorities might be 'patchy' but we feel that the objection would lose much of its impact if the training of careers officers was made obligatory on the local authorities employing them and if the number of careers officers was increased'. They recommended that LEA provision of a YES should be mandatory.

The 'People and Jobs' proposal that the limit for the service should be after the first job was not supported since it was considered that the first jobs may well be experimental and formed part of the decision making process with the self understanding yet to be achieved. The special needs of the disadvantaged were also considered in this respect. The age division of 21 was therefore recommended thus allowing the YES time for follow-up of special cases and a hope was expressed that flexibility to extend this in particular cases would be exercised.

The report recognised that trained careers teachers were an essential part of a mandatory service and that they should exist in every school, able to call in psychologists and other specialists as well as working closely with the Careers Officer. The problem of drop out in higher education led the committee to question the present standard of career and educational guidance in schools for sixth formers and they recommended that subject specialisation be delayed as long as possible thus leaving the maximum of career options open to the pupil. In concluding they noted that it was 'surely illogical that while considerable resources are devoted to the education of a young person less than 1% of the amount is available to ensure that he gets the best possible advice and greatest possible help in making full use of the education he has received'. It was also proposed that the
75% government grant of approved expenditure to the local authorities should continue.

Government proposals on Employment and Training followed the Expenditure Committee report and these were outlined in the White Paper Cmnd 5250. A Manpower Services Commission was created to assist people to select, train for, obtain and retain employment, and for assisting employers to obtain suitable employees. The new local education authority would have a duty to make arrangements to provide a vocational guidance service for people attending educational institutions and an employment service for people leaving them. These authorities would have a power, but not a duty, to provide this service for other people thus giving the ability to maintain contact with special cases.

Thus a dual system was still to exist in the border area between the juvenile and adult service and criticisms that two agencies might be contacting employers about the same jobs were made by the ICO.
CHAPTER SIX
Careers Teachers and Careers Officers

6.1 Occupational Groups

At the beginning of Chapter 2 it was noted that, as they developed, elements of the careers industry itself might be seen to be influencing occupational choice. Careers teachers, careers officers and others might well prefer to be seen as 'facilitating' rather than 'influencing' career decisions. But their work can only be justified if, indeed, it does have some effect.

Pupils in the lower ability ranges have been more likely to see a careers officer than the more able who go on to further education. Officers are reported to be of more help to 'working class' than to 'middle class' pupils. An American study, by Sheppard and Belitsky, of adult blue collar workers found that those who used the public employment service were in most cases characterised by relatively low achievement values. Herford found the YEO to be a major agent in placing young people in employment 27% using this method compared with 25% obtaining jobs through relatives. Maizels investigation of young people in Willesden (1960-63) revealed that 45% were placed in their first jobs by the YEO. The secondary modern school leavers used the service more intensively than did others.

Studies do not indicate that teachers or officers, through guidance, have a major influence on job choice. Only a tenth of sixth form boys in Butlers' study felt they had been influenced in their job choice by a teacher, and careers masters were the least influential of all. Carter and Hill both had similar results. Carter (1962) observed that the careers master is often in charge of a senior form so his pupils come into more frequent contact with job information. This was seen as reinforcing a tendency in children from lower forms to associate 'careers' as opposed to 'any old job' with the top class.
A 1968 survey of 2,100 sixth formers who replied to a questionnaire in a magazine revealed that only 5% considered that their careers teacher had been the major influence in their career plans compared to 'reading' (28%), parental views (23%), and 19% mentioned the influence of somebody already in the field of their choice. Only about 4% mentioned the influence of the YEO. More of those children citing the YEO and the Careers Teacher came from comprehensive, secondary modern and technical schools than grammar and independent schools where the influence of the head teacher was stronger. It is likely that this sample was biased towards the grammar and independent schools. Over three-quarters of the respondents reported that they received some career advice at their schools although many attached little worth to it.

Before discussing the two groups, careers teachers and careers officers, a brief discussion of the general characteristics of occupational groups follows with particular reference to innovatory occupations.

It is doubtful whether the full criteria for a 'profession' as identified by Goode will be achieved although both groups are assembling more 'professional-like' characteristics. Fundamental professional characteristics according to Goode are:

1) **Prolonged specialised training in a body of abstract knowledge**

   The knowledge must be founded in abstract principles in which both employers or clients as well as practitioners have faith. Access to the knowledge and creation of it should be under the control of the profession through the design of curricula and the examination system. Outside the recognised channels access to the knowledge should be beyond the control of the layman.

2) **A collectivity or service orientation**

   The actions of the professional should be motivated by the needs of his client as perceived by the practitioner.
The ethic of service to the client should override self interest even when commitment to that ethic may involve hardship in terms of a prolonged training and financial loss through adherence to the ideal.

'The fully fledged profession' Goode writes, 'can claim the right to be final arbiter in problems under its jurisdiction by referring to its codified knowledge, over which its mastery is greater than that of any other group. If the problem itself is not generally recognised, and the fund of knowledge for its solution not developed, it is hard to know even in what sense or for what an occupation demands autonomy?

If we regard professionalisation as a process followed by most occupational groups although few are destined to achieve the 'end state' then we must acknowledge that each group has an 'initial state'. Wilensky\textsuperscript{10} cites five stages in the process (1) the emergence of a full-time occupation; (2) the establishment of a training school; (3) the founding of a professional association; (4) political agitation directed towards the protection of the association by law; and (5) the adoption of a formal code. Goode identified similar characteristics of groups striving towards professional status. Johnson\textsuperscript{11} points out that these stages may not be applicable outside America and he advocates avoiding looking for professional characteristics, examining instead the circumstances in which people in an occupational group attempt to turn it into a profession.

In considering the creation of new occupational groups in the careers industry it is supposed that the new groups will attract more than the usual number of marginal people. They will be attracted by the chance to establish themselves in a new industry which does not have established codes, values, standards and recruitment 'types'. These people may have been on the margins of other industries and spheres of interest who were not totally committed to those interests, maladjusted to them or who, through being on the periphery were looking outwards and were more aware
of the need for, and possibilities of, the new occupation.

The concepts of 'marginality' and the 'marginal man' as originally employed by Park and later by Stonequist and others were used to describe circumstances arising out of a lasting contact between two cultures one of which is dominant in terms of power and reward. The weaker is the marginal culture. According to Stonequist there is sufficient incompatibility between the two or more groups to render the adjustment to them of the marginal man difficult or impossible.

Kerchoff and McCormick widened the theme viewing the marginal man as one whose reference group differs from his membership group, in that the group with which he identifies does not acknowledge his membership and assigns his status to a lower prestige group.

If this perspective is applied to occupations it can be seen that almost every prestigious group will have associated 'marginal men'. Stonequist envisaged these people as the crucibles from which new groups emerge - 'It is in the mind of the marginal man that the cultures come together, conflict and eventually work out some kind of mutual adjustment and penetration'.

'\textbf{The practical efforts of the marginal person to solve his own problem lead him consciously or unconsciously to change the situation itself.}'

Grace has commented upon the marginality of some school teachers. It was considered that occupations at the interface of the spheres (rather than cultures) of employment and education may exhibit marginal characteristics. After the conclusion of this present study Hendry (December 1975) identified marginal features in the profession of the physical education teacher who often acted as an informal counsellor to pupils, and in performance of his job interacted with rather more non-teachers both within and beyond the school environment.
The theme of marginality was explored further in the study of careers teachers reported in the next section. The scope for the professionalisation of the occupations of careers officer and of careers teacher were examined in the light of their progress so far and the practice and opinions of their members.

6.2 Careers Teachers

Teachers in general lack several of the widely accepted criteria for professional status - esoteric knowledge, professional authority and independence. Working within a bureaucratic environment they do not control recruitment, training, or the conditions of service of their job. Neither are they able to select their clientele. As a loosely organised group the occupation does not have sufficient disciplinary power to enforce ethical codes. Leggatt See achievement of professional status in a bureaucracy as impossible although professions which already have such standing may be able to retain it in such an organisation. He identifies primary factors inhibiting the development of teaching as a high status profession (such as the law). These are the size of the group, the large proportion of women, the relatively low social class origins of members, its small measure of autonomy and the segmentation of the group. Such factors lead to the secondary characteristics of a high turnover rate, a low degree of commitment, and low prestige.

Within teaching it may be supposed that some teachers have a higher degree of status than others. Grace notes that some teachers experienced vulnerability and conflict feeling that their subject and teaching role were under valued. This was particularly true of teachers of marginal subjects such as woodwork, technical/commercial studies, domestic sciences etc. Musgrove and Taylor have suggested that a secondary school teacher's self concept is very much bound up with his subject.
As careers teaching is only now becoming a fully recognised role in every secondary school and is only beginning to acquire a career structure of its own it is to be expected that its ranks will include people involved through a variety of circumstances.

The teacher who has some of his time allocated to careers work may be considered to be lower down the status scale in that he may well be dealing with less able pupils who will not be pursuing further education. He will have little or no training for the work and will be working with someone from outside the school (the Careers Officer) with a greater claim to expertise, and he will have little time with his clients who may anyway have unclear expectations of his role. He may also consider that if he can be spared from teaching his specialist subject this reflects on his competence as a subject teacher.

However, he may acquire more autonomy over careers work than over his other duties. He may become the guardian of confidential information of a non-educational nature imparted during a counselling session, and may have a chance to develop skills which will be unique within the school and which are perceived as important by parents and employers if not by his reference group - the other teachers.

If careers teaching is to develop in status it is to be expected that the negative elements would be reduced and the positive aspects developed. Thus the careers teacher would seek to expand the time available for the work, extend it throughout the school and acquire more training and skills in careers guidance.

Gracesuggests that despite the development of new organisational settings and a wider range of educational objectives relatively high levels of role conflict and low levels of job satisfaction may exist among teachers of the peripheral subjects as compared with, for example, the high status and security enjoyed by teachers of maths, science and foreign languages which are precise academic subjects.
One of the hypotheses to be tested in the careers teachers study was that teachers in these relatively marginal positions in the school would be more likely to occupy the role of careers teachers than others. This was based on the reasoning that the 'practical and creative arts' are more obviously identified with occupational skills than academic subjects. Also, as Grace notes, the less able groups, those most likely to be leaving school directly into employment and therefore in the minds of many most obviously in need of careers advice are regarded as being better at these subjects and able to spend more time on them.

Rodknight's 1968 study of careers teachers did not support this hypothesis, observing a general bias towards the more purely academic subjects in all schools. She also found that over two-thirds of careers teachers had no work experience prior to teaching. Indeed Rodknight's evidence of careers teachers teaching traditional subjects might support the view that teachers with an established position may be more prepared to risk embarking on a new venture than someone already in a marginal position vis-a-vis the school. Rodknight's sample was drawn from careers teachers responding to a survey in the 1968 Annual Guide to Careers for Young People produced by CRAC in co-operation with the NUT. 843 schools responded, 80% of which had sixth forms.

Nevertheless for this present study it was hypothesised that people would be most drawn to careers duties who, whether through past experience or contacts may have a foot in both the industrial and education worlds and may encompass elements of both in their frame of reference. Their motivations for doing the job may arise from being in a position in which they are particularly aware of the needs for such work whether through special contact with parents and young people beyond that of their colleagues, or past experience and observation of the results of a lack of adequate careers preparation.
As has been observed, an association with early leavers, low status subjects and non-academic spheres could, in certain climates of opinion, handicap the development of careers teaching if the work is not valued by school and parents. Alternatively careers teaching might benefit from association with high status elements in the school in these circumstances. Gerald Bernbaum notes that of 21 specified tasks that which headmasters were most likely to delegate was 'advising pupils about careers' (35%) followed by 'advising sixth form about university entrance' (32%).

Lip service is paid to the importance of careers work by almost all heads yet many structural difficulties would seem to exist in schools. Several studies have highlighted the lack of material provision and timetable time for the work. For the development of careers teaching it is advantageous for a teacher of high status to attribute a major importance to the task.

It might be supposed that schools which rely not only on parental goodwill but financial support from that quarter would attach a higher importance to careers work than others. The Schools Council Enquiry into school leavers showed careers work to be rated very highly by parents of early leavers and one would expect this sort of concern to be felt even more strongly by the upper middle class parents supporting private schooling.

Several small studies of careers work in the schools give an indication of the amount of time involved. The Schools Council Enquiry found 87% of schools had a member of staff designated as a 'careers teacher'. This compares with 83% from King and Easthope's 1970 study, 94% from the 1971 DES study of maintained schools and at least 76% but not more than 95% (dependent on non-response bias) shown by the Schools Broadcasting Council (SBC) Study of 1970-71. Reasons given to the SBC for not having a careers teacher related to size and the lack of available
staff. Some small schools depended entirely upon the services of the Careers Officer.

A CRAC/NUT survey of 843 schools, an AMA survey of 737 schools, both in 1968, and a CRAC study of 234 schools in 1970 all found that more than half of secondary modern schools figured careers work on their timetables. This was supported by the DES survey of maintained schools which yielded similar figures for fourth year timetables.

T.6.2.1 Other studies: Percentage of each school type featuring careers work on the timetable

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>39 (79% some 4th years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The existence of time set aside for careers work cannot be taken as the only indicator of a school's commitment to careers guidance. The point was made to Moore that timetabled guidance was wasteful of pupils' time since groups with different interests and abilities were involved in exercises which to some were apparently irrelevant. 10% of the McIntyre sample did not require curriculum time. Reasons quoted to the SBC for lack of timetable time centred on the pressures of examination subjects which must be given priority.

The expectation that independent schools would place a high priority on careers work would not appear to be borne out by existing studies. This may be due to a difference in approach in that they appear to make far more use of the independently provided advisory agencies such as ISCO and NACCW. The SBC report observed that in many of these schools these two bodies had taken over 'many, if not all, the functions of careers teachers and the YES'.
Other ways in which the work is pursued within schools includes extra-curricular activity through visits to work places, careers exhibitions, and evenings at the school for parents and pupils to meet employers and hear about jobs. The provision of a careers room with information available and in which individual and group discussions can take place is also common. 38% of schools in the DES study had no rooms for careers work but over two-thirds discussed careers education at parents meetings.

Because of the variety of ways in which pupils can be acquainted with careers education the question of whether such a universal topic can be designated as a separate subject must be considered.

Typically a careers teacher with little time, few facilities and a great deal of work will only be able to do crisis work with school leavers, pass on what information he has at his disposal and prepare the way for the visit of the careers officer. Concern will centre on the practical problems of job seeking. It was hypothesised that with an increase in time allocated to careers work and more recognition of his function the careers teachers will have more commitment to modern counselling theory and to the broader problems of careers work. Once established the job may attract people with a different background.

The functions which should be performed by the careers teacher do not seem to be universally agreed. The Schools Council reported that half the schools studied did some placement work but the majority were advising pupils on suitable careers. Only a few thought this task was a job for the school without co-operation from the Careers Officer. Two-thirds, however, considered preparation for working life as the function of the school only. Placement and follow-up of progress after leaving school were more often considered to be the officer's function.

The mainstream of progressive thought as expressed by government reports, the National Association of Careers
Teachers and the Vocational Guidance Research Unit at Leeds places emphasis on the advisory, non-directive role of the careers teacher and, particularly in schools, on the continuous, broad based approach to assisting pupils to achieve a clear understanding of themselves and their capacities as well as the world of work.

There is little official backing for careers teachers adopting a directive role and helping to place pupils in jobs.

After reviewing the existing literature and from informal discussions it was decided to concentrate the 1971 study on discovering more about careers teachers, their backgrounds and position in the school, the place of careers work in schools and the teachers' interpretation of this work. Since careers teaching was a newly acknowledged occupation it was hypothesised that careers teachers would include those on the periphery of the mainstream of school work, perhaps having more contact with and experience of the world outside school. It was supposed that the group would be less likely than other teachers to have had a parent in an academic job thus having a less education oriented background and possibly being more aware of problems of transition and liaison between education and industry.

It was difficult to test these hypotheses since, as Rodknigh has observed, very little comparable control information about teachers generally existed. However the results as they apply to the careers teachers in Surrey are presented as a contribution to the understanding of an important element in the careers industry.

6.2.1 The 1971 Survey of Careers Teachers in Surrey

A postal questionnaire was devised and piloted among participants from outside the county at the 1971 NACT Annual Conference. 153 secondary schools in Surrey were approached, the addresses being obtained from the yearbooks of the Surrey Education Committee and various
public, private and independent school associations. The list was then checked against the mailing list of the Teaching Centre at the University of Surrey. In each case the questionnaire and accompanying letter was addressed to 'The Careers Teacher'. After an interval of two and a half weeks a reminder was sent to those from whom no reply had been received and a further request for a reply was sent after about three more weeks. Of those from whom some reply was received twenty schools were for various reasons not considered to be applicable to the study; several of the smaller private schools had been closed or moved out of the area, others were new schools with young pupils and no careers teachers, others simply did not have a careers teacher or anyone else able to answer the questionnaire. Four replies were definite refusals on principle and five more were worded in an ambiguous fashion such that it was not possible to determine whether the writers were refusing to take part in the survey or that they felt it was not applicable to their school.

No reply of any kind was received from 39 schools. One can only guess at the reason for this on the basis of the replies received - closure, amalgamation, no careers teacher, lack of time, lack of sympathy with the purpose of the survey. The results are based on 85 replies representing a response rate of at least 65% of those schools for which the survey was applicable.

The questions centred around three main areas -

(A) The careers teacher himself, including his past experience in academic and other fields.
(B) The methods, time and facilities used in careers work.
(C) The careers teacher's view of his job.
(see Appendix B)

Unfortunately, but perhaps inevitably, reactions to the questionnaire were mixed. Two people specifically commented on its design - one very favourably, one very critically. (The latter, judging by his answers, had
misread several of the questions but this in itself must be regarded as a criticism of the design.
Understandably, a few people did not answer all the questions either through lack of time or inclination. Disagreement with possible functions of a careers teacher, one or two people only agreed with certain statements, possibly preferring to ignore others rather than disagree.

6.2.2 The characteristics of careers teachers

1. Position in school

Of those replying a high proportion had a senior position within the school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T.6.2.2 Position of Careers Teachers in Schools</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy head, second, senior, housemaster/mistress</td>
<td>25(\frac{1}{2})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of department</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other post with Special Responsibility Allowance</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not a post carrying SRA</td>
<td>8(\frac{1}{2})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100 (N = 85)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Of the 50 who were in charge of a form, 42 had a form in the 4th, 5th or 6th years. In the grammar schools they were mostly 6th form teachers, in the independent schools, mainly 5th and 6th. Understandably in the secondary modern schools most were 4th form teachers.

There were more male careers teachers in secondary modern and comprehensives than expected according to proportions in the sample. Those with a higher position in the school were also more likely to be men. This may
simply reflect the prevailing situation. Careers teachers in modern schools tended to have a higher status in the school than expected. Of those teachers not heads of department but in receipt of an SRA a greater number than expected had volunteered for the careers duty.

Table T.6.2.3 shows the percentage of careers teachers teaching each subject group and those subjects they had studied in further and higher education.

T.6.2.3 Subjects Taught and Studied by Careers Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects Taught</th>
<th>At present %</th>
<th>At some time %</th>
<th>Subjects Studied %</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social (other)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational (other)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Careers (full time)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(The fact that many studied education is omitted.)

In answer to the question 'when people ask you what you teach, what do you say', a third gave replies which included the topic of careers although this usually took second place to their other subjects. Several volunteered that they specifically mention 'careers' because it is a useful bridge between the two worlds, is a useful topic of conversation and helps to establish contacts. It was also noted that once careers was mentioned the 'shop' was open.

2. Previous experience

T.6.2.4 Academic qualifications of Careers Teachers (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education diploma/certificate</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject qualification</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational qualification</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The proportion of the sample who were graduates was far greater than for all secondary school teachers at the time nationally (~ 28% men and women, 40% men only\textsuperscript{51}). This is also reflected in the fact that a higher proportion held high graded posts in schools. Over twice as many as the national proportions in secondary schools were heads of department and above.

Two-thirds of the sample had experience in at least one job before entering teaching, the vast majority for at least a year. Over 20% of the careers teachers had had other work experience for a total of 12 years or more. They covered a wide variety of occupations ranging from Accounts Clerk to Warehouseman, Colonial Service to Cataloguing. Most frequently mentioned were the Armed Services, various forms of administrative service and skilled technical work. Only eight of the sample had teacher fathers and only two of these had had work experience.

3. Professional memberships

21% of the sample were members of their local careers association or a similar body. 24% were members of the National Association of Careers Teachers which was founded in 1969 and 23% belonged to associations concerned with their special subject (e.g. Historical Association) and two-thirds were members of one of the teacher unions.

4. Entry into Careers Teaching

Two-thirds of the respondents took up careers teaching as a result of being asked, three drifted into the job in some other way (conscripts). The rest volunteered including one who applied for an advertised post (volunteers). There were no marked differences in manner of recruitment according to age or length of time doing the job, or percentage of time spent on careers work. 28% had been doing the work for two years or less (cf Redknight 15%).
5. Careers training

Although 70% had attended at least one course in connection with careers teaching only four (5%) had attended courses the total duration of which was over four weeks.

Some respondents appeared to be including attendance at careers conferences in their replies about course attendance. The most often attended courses were run by the DES, of just over a week's duration, and the University of Surrey evening course.

The national picture of training for careers teachers up to 1967 is given in T.6.2.5. 28.4% of courses on careers guidance attended by teachers between 1964 and 1967 were organised by less traditional bodies such as CRAC.

| T.6.2.5 Percentage of careers guidance courses attended by teachers 1964-1967 |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|
| DES                             | 6.0             |
| Schools Council                 | 0.9             |
| LEAs                            | 36.7            |
| Universities                    | 9.6             |
| Colleges of Education           | 0.9             |
| Teachers Professional Associations| 7.8             |
| Special Subject Associations    | 9.6             |
| Other organising bodies         | 28.4            |

100  n = 218

Source: Statistics of Education - Survey of Inservice Training for Teachers HMSO 1967

6.2.3 The Practice

Recognised careers departments existed in two-thirds of the schools. In answer to the question 'How many teachers are involved in careers work' the
answers were as follows:

**T.6.2.6 Numbers of teachers in school involved in careers work**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of People Involvement</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Just me</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five or more</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is likely that those citing several people were placing a looser interpretation on careers work than others.

**Time available**

There would seem to be some evidence to support the suggestion that the lower his position in the teaching hierarchy of the school the greater is the percentage of time a teacher can spend on careers work. Over two-thirds of the teachers below head of department status spent more than 20% of their time on careers work whereas fewer than half of the department heads did so and two of these were heads of careers departments. Only a quarter of heads, deputy heads or senior masters spent more than 20% of their time on careers work and none of these over 40%.

There was little evidence to suggest that the careers teacher in one type of school was likely to spend more time on careers work than in another. But careers work was more likely to be done by a high status teacher in comprehensive/modern and independent schools than in the grammar schools, none of which had a careers teacher over head of department status. Job description and school size may be important in explaining this difference although no obvious relationship was observed between time spent on careers work and size of the school or size of the 4th year.
Of the time available in the week prior to completion of the questionnaire the largest proportion (30%) was devoted to contact with individual pupils and about 17% each to contact with employers and parents, preparation work and classwork. The vast majority considered that time spent per week on careers duties varied over the year.

Financial aid

Three-quarters of the sample received a specified amount of money or what they considered necessary towards expenditure. A further 16% thought that what they got was insufficient. The rest did not have a budget at all.

A third of the respondents had secretarial help although two-thirds said they needed it.

Procedures

Table T.6.2.7 shows the ratings given by careers teachers to various procedures which may be used in the course of careers work. It will be noted that audio-visual aids come low on the list.

T.6.2.7 Careers teachers ratings of procedures used in careers work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Very helpful</th>
<th>Helpful of little help</th>
<th>Of doubtful value</th>
<th>Not Used/Replies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Requested individual interview with careers teacher</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4/81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routine individual interview with careers teacher</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11/81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class/Group work</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21/80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talks</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4/83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview with Careers Officer</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work visits</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Careers Conventions</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films/strip</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio/TV</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological testing</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 151 -
### T.6.2.8 Ratings of Possible Functions of a Careers Teacher (Answers to Question 43)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible Functions of a Careers Teacher</th>
<th>Percentage of those expressing an opinion</th>
<th>Total (100%) Replies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Dis-agreement</td>
<td>Mild Dis-agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) To acquaint pupils with a wide range of information about careers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) To encourage and assist pupils to relate knowledge of their abilities and achievement to career opportunities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) To encourage endeavour and foster ambition within known limits of ability.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) To encourage the pupil to further his education within the limits of his ability.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) To guide the pupil toward the sort of job to which he is suited</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) To teach the pupil to make his own decisions about his life.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s) To provide the careers officer with background information on the pupils in the school.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) To help the pupil come to terms with himself.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) To acquaint parents with an appropriate range of career possibilities.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## T.6.2.8 Ratings of Possible Functions of a Careers Teacher (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible Functions of a Careers Teacher</th>
<th>Percentage of those expressing an opinion</th>
<th>Total (100%) Replies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Dis-agreement</td>
<td>Mild Dis-agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q) To encourage and assist parents to seek specialist help for vocational decisions when judged necessary.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) To help the pupil find the job he is looking for.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) Educate and advise parents on how to aid pupils to make decisions about their occupation future.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r) To fully prepare the pupil for his interview with the careers officer.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) To help the pupil find a job with a secure future.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) To ensure the pupil has a job when he leaves school.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) To try to fill known vacancies with pupils from your school.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) To encourage parents to make the final decision about their child's career in all cases.</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) To encourage parents to let the school make the decision.</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.4 The Careers Teachers View of the Job

Table T.6.2.7 shows the agreement ratings with several possible functions of the careers teachers which were stated on the questionnaire. They are listed in order of overall agreement.

It will be noticed that the phrases most agreed with are those dealing with the provision of information and assisting with discovery. A guidance laden function A3(b) was also heavily supported. There is less agreement with functions concerned with job seeking and placement and which place the responsibility for career choice with people other than the pupil himself.

The five functions over which opinion was most divided are given in Table T.6.2.9.

T.6.2.9 Functions over which opinion was most divided in Question 43

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Division</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n) To educate and advise parents on how to aid pupils to make decisions about their occupational future.</td>
<td>19 / 58</td>
<td>(25/75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) To help the pupil find the job he is looking for.</td>
<td>25 / 61</td>
<td>(29/71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) To help the pupil find a job with a secure future.</td>
<td>43 / 39</td>
<td>(55/45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) To ensure the pupil has a job when he leaves school.</td>
<td>53 / 36</td>
<td>(59/41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) To try to fill known vacancies with pupils from your school.</td>
<td>69 / 17</td>
<td>(80/20)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It will be noticed that, except for (n) they all indicate involvement with job placement work. The reaction to the four placement functions (c, j, g, d) were examined in more detail to determine whether the teachers differed significantly in other respects.
Table T.6.2.10 shows that the two strongest placement functions (g) and (d) were supported more by 'volunteers' than by 'conscripts'.

T.6.2.10 Method of recruitment by view of placement functions

(i) Function 43g. To ensure the pupil has a job when he leaves school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>(Non-committed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>9 (21%)</td>
<td>11 (42)</td>
<td>6 (6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscripts</td>
<td>33 (78%)</td>
<td>15 (58)</td>
<td>11 (11)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Function 43d. To try to fill known vacancies with pupils from your school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>(Non-committed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>14 (27)</td>
<td>5 (42)</td>
<td>7 (7)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscripts</td>
<td>37 (73)</td>
<td>7 (58)</td>
<td>13 (13)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Careers teachers were asked to express an opinion on several statements relating to careers work in Question 46. In theory there should have been a strong negative correlation with the ratings of 43d and of 46f (see Table T.6.2.10). There was a stronger relationship between 46f and 43d than between 46f and any of the other functions but it was not as marked as might have been supposed (-0.289).
### T.6.2.11 Other Opinions of Careers Teachers in Response to Question 46

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Total Disagreement</th>
<th>Mild Disagreement</th>
<th>Don't Mind</th>
<th>Total Replies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Careers teaching should be a full-time job</td>
<td>22 (78)</td>
<td>8 (75)</td>
<td>28 (75)</td>
<td>(75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) The provision of advice is a job for specialists</td>
<td>24 (79)</td>
<td>4 (77)</td>
<td>33 (77)</td>
<td>(77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) The main job of the careers teacher should be to provide information</td>
<td>9 (75)</td>
<td>4 (75)</td>
<td>13 (75)</td>
<td>(75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Job placement is not the task of the careers teacher</td>
<td>30 (76)</td>
<td>10 (76)</td>
<td>40 (76)</td>
<td>(76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Pupils should not have to maintain personal contact with representatives of local industry</td>
<td>56 (79)</td>
<td>20 (79)</td>
<td>76 (79)</td>
<td>(79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) A careers teacher should not have to aim at well-paid jobs</td>
<td>20 (75)</td>
<td>10 (75)</td>
<td>30 (75)</td>
<td>(75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) If he has the ability a pupil should be encouraged to continue in full-time education regardless of his own inclinations</td>
<td>21 (75)</td>
<td>8 (75)</td>
<td>29 (75)</td>
<td>(75)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The four functions from table T.6.2.8 involving placement were placed on a Guttman scale, those agreeing with them being given a high rating on the scale.

People who agreed with three or four of the placement functions were rather less likely than others to relinquish careers teaching than take it up full time.

T.6.2.12 Careers Teachers' Commitment by Attitude to Placement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Placement Scale</th>
<th>% Disfavour</th>
<th>% Favour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Give up</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rather more 'placers' came from the larger schools and 'volunteers' were more often placers than might have been expected from the proportions of volunteers and conscripts in the sample.

T.6.2.13 Careers Teachers' Recruitment by Attitude to Placement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Placement Scale</th>
<th>% Disfavour</th>
<th>% Favour</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscripts</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table T.6.2.14 shows that conscripts were more likely to give up the job than volunteers - 76% compared with 48%.

T.6.2.14 Careers Teachers' Commitment by Method of Recruitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% Give Up</th>
<th>% Full Time</th>
<th>(Non-committed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers (48)</td>
<td>11 (52)</td>
<td>12 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscripts (76)</td>
<td>38 (22)</td>
<td>12 (9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Though numbers are small and the variables chosen may not be independent it appears that those with ambitions for careers teaching as a speciality are looking to take on the whole range of careers work to the extent of impinging upon the traditional work of the careers officers. This is illustrated by the fact that there was a relatively marked correlation \( r = 0.418 \) between wishing to take up careers teaching full time and disagreeing with the statement that 'it is not the job of the careers teacher to maintain personal contact with representatives of local industry'.

The more time they devoted to careers work the less strongly did careers teachers agree that information provision was their main task. There was a positive correlation \( 0.38 \) between wishing to pursue careers work full-time and time spent on the work.

(Salient correlation coefficients and other tables are given in Appendix C. None of the coefficients exceeds 0.539 but all those quoted exceed 0.33 and it should be remembered that they were calculated for factors with a five point scale. Had the agreement scale been a two point one it is to be expected that the coefficients would have been higher.

As table T.6.2.9 shows respondents were almost equally divided on the question of whether or not careers teaching should be a full-time job. Further light is thrown on this division in the answers to the question 'Faced with the decision of either relinquishing your careers work altogether or taking up careers teaching full time, which would you do? and why?' The most frequently mentioned reason (36 times) for relinquishing careers work was that the teacher's main interest and training lay elsewhere.

Several people making either choice expressed a reluctance to see a situation in which a careers teacher would not be acquainted with the pupils in any other capacity.
'Careers teaching is not a full-time teaching exercise and can only be done when a fuller knowledge of the scholars as individuals can be gained through the daily contacts and teaching contacts with them. Careers teaching as such would be an avid exercise, careers advice and guidance is far more satisfying.'

'Careers only would mean one didn't know one's pupils in any other character.'

'It is impossible to do careers work without a good degree of involvement in school work as a whole.'

'My business is to teach. A good teacher who knows his pupils can advise and direct incidental to teaching.'

'A careers teacher who does not teach a curricular subject is just one more careers officer. Close developing knowledge of the boys is essential.'

The above comments were made by those who came down on the side of relinquishing their careers work. Some of these comments were coupled with remarks like:

'Careers teaching, as such tends to become a form of empire building.'

'Careers at schools can become a hideaway for indolent teachers.'

'Teachers can make their subject relevant to the world but not vice versa.'

Similar views on the desirability of mixing ordinary teaching and careers work were expressed by some of those plumping for full-time careers work. Implicit in some of these replies is the assumption that careers teaching does not involve
regular classroom contact with pupils.

'I should be reluctant to give up teaching as I feel you get to know and understand your pupils if you teach them in a depth which no careers interview can offer you."

'I consider a careers teacher should teach part of the time, this improves the real knowledge and assessment of the pupil. If a careers teacher were full-time he/she would be like a careers officer, dependent upon second hand assessment and therefore less efficient and probably less acceptable to the pupil (better the devil you know)."

'....full-time would cause one to lose touch with the children.'

The importance and amount of the work tended to sway these people to their choice despite these reservations. As might be supposed, there was no evidence of a desire to build 'empires' in the answers although one person mentioned that careers work appealed to him because it was a growth industry, continuously developing. Indeed, one person who would have given up his careers work rather than pursue it full-time mentioned that there was no evidence of a future policy of a firm career structure for careers teachers.

Of the few who felt unable to answer this hypothetical question several gave the necessity of careers work being combined with ordinary teaching as their reason.

Answers to this question were often influenced by the circumstances of the school in which the teacher worked - its size, or its lack of a suitable person to teach their regular subject.
6.3 Careers Officers

6.3.1 The Survey and Background

A study of careers officers in Surrey was conducted in 1971 and 1972. It consisted initially of discussions with the national training adviser, and the county Principal Officer followed by a short questionnaire to each Careers Officer to obtain background information about training and experience. About half of the COs were then interviewed and on the basis of these interviews a second questionnaire was devised and sent to all probing their attitudes towards the job. There were 36 officers in the county, some were unable to participate in the first investigation, others in the second stage of the study. Reasons for non-participating included absence from work, there were no outright refusals. However some did not provide answers to every question posed and the sample size varies for different factors investigated. The effective sample size for most purposes was thirty.

While the study was being prepared K. Roberts' study of the Youth Employment Service 'From School to Work' was published so the second stage included questions similar to those asked in his study of Careers Officers on Merseyside. Both studies are of local authority run organisations. Since their completion this form of careers service is now mandatory. Descriptions in the section are contemporary with the study.

There were 2,000 careers officers in the country in 1971 with a total budget for the service in 1971/72 of £7-8 million. This compares with an estimated £10 million spent on advertising in the Armed Forces.

The careers officer operates within a bureaucratic structure. The broad outlines of the organisation of his work, and overall objectives are determined by the CYEE.
which (up to 1973) worked either directly through the Ministry officers in 20% of areas and through the agreed plans of the local education authorities on which expenditure has been agreed and for which 75% ministerial grant is paid.

Within each local authority the careers officers are led by a principal who apportions priorities, time and responsibilities to his staff.

As well as the authorities themselves, advisory bodies at national and local level serve to represent the interests of the community to the professionals. We have discussed some of the reports of the National Youth Employment Council which concerned itself both with the work and the structure of the Service.

Roberts, working in 1971, before the reorganisation proposals of 1973 observed that 'the docility of its formal advisory bodies, combined with the insulation of the service from political and market forces, has meant that pressures from outside have never been sufficiently strong to lead to any major reshaping of the YES'.

Certainly consolidation was possible in the 1950s and 1960s. The numbers of officers in local authority service expanded rapidly after the 1948 Act and again in the late 50s to accommodate the post-war children who were approaching school leaving age. The Albemarle Committee recognised the problems this posed with regard to maintaining standards of qualification and training.

The CYEE with responsibility for research and, from 1961 with the YES Training Board, for training, was developing technical aids (such as occupational interest tests, information indices) and promoting the theoretical understanding behind the work. Their pressure on authorities helped to lower the caseload of officers thus increasing the scope for developing neglected aspects of the work.
T.6.3.1 Posts and Caseloads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Young People Reaching Age 15</th>
<th>Total No. of Posts</th>
<th>No. Engaged Mainly on Advisory Work</th>
<th>Staffing Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>788,000</td>
<td>1,523</td>
<td>1,592</td>
<td>566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>733,000</td>
<td>1,611</td>
<td>1,473</td>
<td>498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>736,000</td>
<td>1,826</td>
<td>1,575</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>729,000</td>
<td>1,971</td>
<td>1,703</td>
<td>428</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Caseloads are not a good indicator of work since they are dependent on the depth at which work is done but the fact of their reduction has given the opportunity to work at a less superficial level or concentrate more on improving contacts with industry.

The generally recognised objectives of the Service are:

(a) The provision of job information for young people and their parents.

(b) The provision of vocational guidance for pupils during the latter stages of their school careers.

(c) Helping young workers to find employment and assisting employers to recruit suitable young workers.

(d) Reviewing the progress of young people in employment in order to provide further advice and help if necessary.

The emphasis given to each of these aims has varied over the years. Before the war most work was done outside the schools in the field of placement into jobs. A model for the service produced by the Ministry in 1934-36 cited only two forms of co-operation required from schools: a written report on every leaver, and the chance to interview children immediately before leaving.
As education and employment opportunities increased the YEOs focussed more attention on the schools and objectives (a) and (b). This accords with the now accepted decision making theory seeing job choice as a process with several stages prior to crystallisation. The placement function not only declined relative to the other aims but, as Roberts notes, by the late 1960s the percentage of school leavers placed in employment by the service has actually fallen. The expertise claimed by the YES was in the field of counselling and vocational guidance. Key areas for content of the professional training courses identified by the YESTB in 1972 were Education, Principles and Practices of Guidance and Counselling, and the Study of Employment and Training.

The YES involvement with central and local government, and the Education and Employment Departments gives it sufficient strength and flexibility to guarantee its survival and enable its officers always to find a function which will justify their existence.

It was considered unlikely by those responsible for the overall training objectives that the increase in school and teacher-based careers work would reduce the CO's workload in school. The view was more that the small amount of work which was being done merely exposed the untapped work areas in schools waiting to be tackled.

Training The YESTB with responsibility for training the 80% of officers in the LEA service liaised with five training establishments offering one year full time courses leading to a Diploma in Vocational Guidance at Swanley (Kent), Manchester, Birmingham, Reading and Strathclyde. The latter two being University Departments. The CYEE, responsible for training Ministry YEOs, ran shorter courses of 1-4 weeks at Birkbeck or in Scotland. The implications of a mandatory LEA service were that courses would also be started at Newcastle and Glamorgan.
with a doubling of the intake at Birmingham. These would help cater for the extra LEA officers required, the likely growth in further education work, as well as the 5% per annum increase required to keep pace with the growing school population as a result of ROSLA, and the 10% annual drop out of COs from the service. Within broad guidelines details of the course syllabus are left to the individual departments.

In 1971/72 80% of entrants to training were graduates. The previous appraisal (date unknown) had shown a 40% graduate intake to courses, many of the rest having teaching or other professional qualifications. With the change in background of recruits and the increasing likelihood that if the service became entirely under LEA control, they would have similar motivations and career orientations, the CYEE and YESTB recognised the need to make the courses more suited to the new standard of recruits and the changing role of the Service. In January 1972 the minimum qualifications for places on full-time courses leading to the Board's Diploma examination were raised. Only exceptionally would candidates without a recognised degree, diploma, certificate or teaching qualification be admitted to the course.

It was considered inappropriate for the COs to go into schools only as industrial experts; they should develop their counselling expertise as well working jointly with the school. The directive elements in the counselling techniques taught in the fifties and sixties were now being dropped in favour of a perspective which viewed the prescription of jobs as immoral. Pupils would be helped to sort out their own plans, cope with the aspirations of parents and the school and understand the expectations of employers.

Roberts' Merseyside study and the Surrey study confirm that younger and newer COs are more likely to be graduates with less other occupational experience
than their older and senior colleagues.

T.6.3.2 Comparisons between Graduate and Non-graduate COs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date of entering service*</th>
<th>Graduates</th>
<th>Non-graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up to 1960</td>
<td>(32) 8%</td>
<td>(55) 68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960 and after</td>
<td>(68) 92%</td>
<td>(45) 32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage with no previous full-time experience

(53) 33 (3) 15

In brackets = Merseyside study Other = Surrey study

*In Surrey study if entry was firstly into clerical grades this date is taken.

Non-graduate recruits above the age of 27 and of the right calibre are still welcomed to the Service, if rather rare. The loss of the older officers might alter the perspective and impoverish the range of experience of the Careers Service. Several of the older officers possessed university diplomas in social sciences or social administration and they were just as likely to hold the Diploma in Vocational Guidance. Over two-thirds of the officers had had one year's professional training.

Aja's investigation in the early 1960s of the daily work of a sample of YEOs who had been in the Service for up to five years found that only 6% of the sample had so far not got a recognised academic or professional qualification of any sort. 44% had attended university, mainly taking degrees but also taking diploma courses. 13% had teaching experience. Two-thirds of the Surrey sample had attended university courses and 25% had teaching experience.
T.6.3.3 COS Qualifications by Age \( (N = 30) \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>20-29</th>
<th>30-39</th>
<th>40-49</th>
<th>50-59</th>
<th>Over</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma Vocational Guidance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Diplomas and Professional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T.6.3.4 Types of Jobs Previously Held (\%)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Surrey (1971/72)</th>
<th>Aja (1964)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social work</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Government/Civil Service</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry/Commerce</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No information</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The recruitment of officers from the ranks of clerical staff in the Service which was quite common according to Heginbotham in the early 1950s and before is now a very rare occurrence.

Senior members of the service participate in the structuring of training courses and syllabi through their professional association, the Institute of Careers Officers, formerly the National Association of Youth Employment Officers, which is represented on the Training Board.

The profession, therefore has some control over the quality of training. Recruitment is also influenced in so far as the Principal is able to advise the local authority, and through direct representation by the group to the Ministry. In general all interested bodies have been in accord in seeking a year's full time training for entrants to the Service without financial hardship to the individual concerned. Overall concern over
conditions of employment is the province of NALGO which leaves the professional body more able to concentrate upon improving the quality of the service offered.

6.3.2 Practice and Opinions

In general careers work is operated from small bases situated in towns throughout the authority area. In Surrey there are fourteen offices. Each has a small clerical staff, but as the complement of COs and the scope of the work increases, the amount of time spent by seniors administering the service itself also increases. District and Area posts have been created beneath those of the principal and his deputy. The development of specialist functions dealing with the handicapped, the older leavers and so on provides other opportunities for improving salaries above the basic grade. Thus throughout the local authority system a career structure is emerging and becoming more stratified.

The Merseyside study revealed difficulties in extending co-operation with the schools beyond the traditional school talk and interview for imminent leavers. The officers, conscious of the inadequacy of this approach regarded the institution of a timetabled careers programme incorporating talks, group and individual discussions and work visits as their primary professional function. This it was felt had not been achieved partly through lack of time to devote to this task but also because many schools would not allow careers officers to provide more than the minimum service of a single talk and interview. In theory the administration of the service and the schools by the one authority should ease co-operation but 71% of the Merseyside officers complained that the schools were obstructing their endeavours to develop vocational guidance work. While strongly supporting the development of effective careers teachers in schools the function ascribed to them
by the careers officers would be mainly an administrative and supportive one leaving vocational guidance and counselling to the experts.

In Roberts' study 92% of careers officers expressed the view that every school leaver ought always to receive individual advice from a careers officer and 83% that no-one other than a careers officer should attempt to offer individual vocational guidance. Of those expressing an opinion in the Surrey study only 35% and 56% respectively agreed with the above views. However 88% did agree that the provision of advice is a job for specialists.

In both studies the samples were small so the differences in opinion may not be as great as the percentages at first indicate. The difference may reflect more co-operation between schools and the Careers Service in Surrey than in Merseyside, or that the former group perceive less of a threat to their position as careers guidance specialists.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinions of Careers Officers</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (N = 25 or 26)</td>
<td>% (N = 85)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Don't Mind</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Don't Mind</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) It should be the job of the teacher to circulate careers literature to pupils.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) It should be the job of the teacher to provide the CO with background information on the pupils in the school.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) The teacher should organise visits to places of work, group discussions, film shows and introduce visiting speakers.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) The CO should possess overall responsibility for the development of careers work in schools.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Planning and organisation of careers work in schools should be the joint responsibility of teacher and CO.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Ultimate responsibility for organising careers work within the school should reside with a member of staff.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) The offering of individual vocational advice and guidance to the pupils should always be left to the CO.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Every school leaver ought always to receive individual advice from a CO.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opinions of Careers Officers (continued)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (N = 25 or 26)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Don't Mind</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)</td>
<td>It is essential that the CO has access to individual pupils well before they complete full-time education.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j)</td>
<td>The provision of advice is a job for specialists.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k)</td>
<td>Careers teaching should be a full-time job.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l)</td>
<td>Job placement is not the task of the careers teacher.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (N = 85)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Don't Mind</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j)</td>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l)</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When given the opportunity to question vocational guidance specialists in Surrey this investigator could not resist establishing whether their job decision had been a considered and deliberate process.

Only half of the officers had wanted to enter the careers service before they knew that a vacancy existed. In the interviews the phrases 'I entered by pure chance' or 'by accident' occurred frequently. Theorists tell us that nobody enters a job by accident. Probing revealed that the person had usually decided upon a job with an educational or social service orientation and happened upon an advertisement for a job in the careers service. The job is so varied and flexible that it is not surprising that they only became aware of what it involves after further enquiry or, in some cases, after recruitment.

Although three-quarters considered that they could more or less do their job as they thought it should be done almost all referred to constraints. Most frequently mentioned were lack of time, money and support services which was attributed by some to a lack of prestige and public recognition of the importance of the work. Three people referred to problems of gaining access to schools.

The Surrey group of COs was asked what qualities a good careers officer should have. The answers reflected their strong service orientation. Patience, tolerance, empathy, sensitivity and the ability to get on with people were mentioned by almost all. Widely cited also were the qualities of versatility and adaptability. The ability to communicate both facts and enthusiasm was also widely mentioned as were a 'reliable memory' and physical fitness.

Most liked by COs were the counselling and personal contact elements in their work. The area which they felt was most neglected and which should be developed more involved contact with industry and developing knowledge of job opportunities, although it was noted that in some cases 'a passport' seemed necessary to get into the workplace. A quarter of the subjects considered that too
much time was spent on administrative work, nobody felt that too little was done in this field.

Aja's study revealed that 20% of a YEOs time was spent in schools compared to 3% in factories, and 52% in the bureaux. 20% of the time was accounted for in travelling and meals. According to the type of work guidance, placing and reviews accounted for only 30% of the time and administration and the payment of unemployment insurance - 37%.

In answer to the question 'what improvements would you like to see in the Careers Service from the point of view of making your own job more attractive?', the need for more staff in order that case loads could be reduced was most frequently mentioned. More time would then be available for dealing with individuals and the existence of more support staff would relieve the CO of the burden of much clerical work. Better pay, a better career structure, better holidays and subsidised housing were factors mentioned referring to the actual conditions of employment. A surprisingly small proportion, only a quarter made reference to these conditions of employment. The point was made that if a CO is to work on level terms with heads of colleges and school departments and with employers he should be receiving a comparable salary. Worries about housing costs and having to support a family on such low pay were felt to be a real handicap to the proper pursuance of the CO's job.

Improvements mentioned by more people referred to the job structure and content. Three people felt that the Careers Service should become part of a National All-Age Guidance Service or said they would like to work with a much wider age spectrum.

With regard to schools, some wanted their work to be more schools based while others wanted the schools to do more work and allow them to work more as outside consultants on the basis of information provided by the schools.
While one person advocated temporary attachment of careers officers to the adult service another suggested their qualifications should be interchangeable with teachers so that they could act as careers teachers for a time. Some of those advocating that the work should be more school based saw no future for the careers service in its contemporary form and looked for more integration with the education system and support from senior education officers.

It is apparent that an officer’s view of the service and its future will be related to his own interpretation of his role. Those studied were asked to rate the four objectives of the service referred to earlier in What they considered to be their order of importance. Overwhelmingly ‘the provision of vocational guidance for pupils during the latter stages of their school careers’ was regarded as the most important objective. Only one person rated any function as more important than this although seven felt there were others as important. ‘Reviewing the progress of young people in employment in order to provide further advice and help if necessary’ was regarded by most as the least important.

Overall slightly more importance was attached to the provision of job information than to the placement of young workers. The placement function received no votes for first place but all but two ranked it as second or third in importance. Most spread were the ratings for ‘the provision of job information’. This was ranked last or equal last by as many people who ranked it first or equal first. Many took the view that if an individual receives adequate vocational guidance he should be competent and confident enough to seek out job information and vacancies on his own initiative. Half of the officers felt that it was the job of the careers teacher to make careers literature available to pupils. The one person who rated the provision of information higher than guidance justified this by remarking that ‘in the interview situation, well
presented comprehensive information is top priority. You can't attempt to guide until both parties have all the facts available.'

By a ratio of 3:1 it was considered that careers officers are, or should be, experts according to the dictionary definition. His expertise was considered to be in the field of occupational information and counselling skills arising out of his neutral position and years of experience. One officer, expanding on her negative answer wrote, 'my interpretation of "an authority" is one who has a deep and detailed knowledge of a narrow field. The CO's field is wide. I do not see how the possession of 'a skill' by itself can be sufficient to meet the term 'authority'.'

6.4 Discussion

We have seen how members of the same occupational groups, whether careers teachers or careers officers differ markedly in the interpretation of their role and in their adherence to basic principles.

There is an overlap in the functions claimed by each group. This is reflected in the views of head teachers and careers teachers given in the Schools Council Enquiry into Young School Leavers.

T.6.4.1 Percentage of heads (careers teachers) saying whose function they considered various aspects of careers work to be

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Joint School and YEO</th>
<th>YEO</th>
<th>Not Known</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information on careers</td>
<td>16 (11)</td>
<td>79 (83)</td>
<td>3 (6)</td>
<td>2 (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advice on careers</td>
<td>11 (15)</td>
<td>85 (78)</td>
<td>3 (6)</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placement</td>
<td>3 (2)</td>
<td>56 (57)</td>
<td>38 (41)</td>
<td>3 (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation for work</td>
<td>66 (60)</td>
<td>29 (58)</td>
<td>4 (1)</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up</td>
<td>5 (16)</td>
<td>37 (45)</td>
<td>50 (56)</td>
<td>8 (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.4.2  Percentage of heads (careers teachers) considering enough was done or more required

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Enough done</th>
<th>School should do more</th>
<th>School and YEO should do more</th>
<th>YEO should do more</th>
<th>Not known</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information on careers</td>
<td>44 (36)</td>
<td>17 (14)</td>
<td>36 (39)</td>
<td>2 (10)</td>
<td>1 (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advice on careers</td>
<td>58 (47)</td>
<td>11 (11)</td>
<td>25 (30)</td>
<td>4 (13)</td>
<td>2 (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placement</td>
<td>81 (61)</td>
<td>2 (4)</td>
<td>8 (16)</td>
<td>6 (17)</td>
<td>3 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation for work</td>
<td>49 (46)</td>
<td>28 (28)</td>
<td>15 (20)</td>
<td>4 (6)</td>
<td>4 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up</td>
<td>41 (29)</td>
<td>11 (17)</td>
<td>21 (22)</td>
<td>18 (20)</td>
<td>9 (12)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only the follow-up of the young person's progress in work was considered to be mainly the function of the careers officers. The bulk of careers work was seen by most as a joint exercise by the school and careers officer. Few heads felt that more should be done by the YEOs. In the field of placement, particularly, it was felt that enough was done. It should be noted that there was relatively little unemployment among school leavers at the time of that enquiry. The satisfaction with the extent of work may have been due to a lack of awareness of or agreement with the scope of careers work as perceived by specialists.

The Surrey study has shown that both groups, careers teachers and careers officers, consider that there is more work for them to do in schools.

Goode's first fundamental for a profession is a body of abstract knowledge in which employers, clients and practitioners have faith.

Clearly, careers teachers have not reached the stage where all have a thorough knowledge of, and commitment to, a sound theoretical base.

The theory to which they aspire overlaps considerably with that incorporated in careers guidance courses for careers officers. The key areas of 'Education' and
'Principles and Practices of Guidance and Counselling' must be of central concern to both groups. Careers officers are expected to place more emphasis on employment and training studies but it is apparent that they have less opportunity to, and place less importance upon, putting into practice any theoretical knowledge in this sphere. Careers teachers, too, must have a sound knowledge of jobs and employment opportunities if they are to devise a suitable careers programme in the school. This might be achieved through close liaison with the careers officer rather in the way that, say, an education authority physical education adviser will co-operate with a school PE teacher.

As careers teaching develops in the schools and if trained teacher/counsellors become widespread then the fact that all careers officers are employed by the local education authority may create a better career structure of which both school-based careers counsellors and careers officers form a part. However the traditions of the groups are rather different and it might be supposed that such a process would be a gradual one occurring informally as the recruits to each job become more similar in terms of qualifications and background. An alternative to this view is that the careers officers will place more emphasis on their out of school activities as their role in schools is assumed by counsellors. A depressed job market would highlight the importance of this aspect of the work to the young clients, if not stimulate the interest shown by employers.

Goode's second fundamental is a service orientation and commitment to the client's needs. Neither group receives direct payment from clients, whether young people or employers, so temptations to act to reap financial reward should not arise. There was evidence that both groups considered the long term requirements of young people as well as their expressed needs. The dangers inherent in assuming this responsibility were
discussed in earlier chapters. The officers, in particular, reflected their concern for their work by mentioning ways of improving the service much more frequently than their conditions of employment when suggesting how the job could be improved. When conditions were mentioned it was out of concern for the standard of recruits.

Neither careers teachers or careers officers have a control over their work to the extent that they can refuse to see any young people or to help employers but for most there is scope to vary the emphasis on work above the minimum required.

The County Principal hoped that each officer would average half a day a week visiting industry but this was not always achieved. Undoubtedly the area of liaising with employers, advising them on job entry qualifications and helping them to find suitable employees received far less attention from COs than that of liaising with schools. Roberts observed the same tendency in his study.

Most COs, through training and commitment to the counselling ideal, appear to have a bias in favour of work in the schools. Gaining a foothold in local industry where judgement is on results must be more difficult for the officer and may require initially a large investment of time with little reward. The task of monitoring job entrants and helping them may be hampered by the fact that this area of responsibility is shared with the adult employment service who may be trying to fill the same vacancies and be inheriting some of the Careers Service clients.

Although more recently emergent the careers teachers would seem to have a more clearly defined position although their job description has yet to be clarified. There was little evidence that careers teachers taught marginal subjects. They possessed good qualifications and status in the school hierarchy but a high proportion had experience of jobs other than teaching. This established position in
teaching and the work experience contribute positively to the authority of the careers teacher which is also reinforced by the importance attached to job seeking by parents and children. However, the motivation of people in a marginal position wanting to establish themselves in a new occupation may be lacking in established teachers. There was only a slight difference in teaching status between 'volunteers' and 'conscripts'. People who volunteered for careers teaching did seem to have a wider view of their duties and a tendency to overlap functions with those which careers officers expected to perform.

Holden has highlighted the inherent difficulties for the teacher in trying to combine the roles of counsellor and teacher. The teacher imparts information to a group, is accustomed to talking and aims to convert or instruct his pupils. In pursuing his aims he employs the accepted sanctions of the organised school society and there may be an element of conflict in the teacher/class relationship. The counsellor, however, is essentially a listener, eliciting information in a private conversation with the pupil or client. Non-directive principles cause him to accept the actions and thoughts of his client rather than 'improve' them and explicit disciplining is unacceptable.

The practising Careers Officer is, in most cases, a generalist both imparting and eliciting information usually in the dominant role of a one-to-one relationship. He is however able to project a constant personality since his role in school is unambiguous in the eyes of the pupil if not always clearly defined in the minds of the administrators. His problem concerns having to please several groups with different expectations of him - teachers, senior officers, employers, and parents as well as school children, but it is apparent that careers officers very clearly consider that their actions should always be determined by the best interests of their client - the young person. The dilemma
of teachers who also counsel pupils revolves less around who to serve as to how to serve the pupil and in which manner his needs should be interpreted and catered for.
Conclusions

The careers industry was defined as the variety of organisations and occupations which link the occupation and education structures by providing advice, counselling and information for the individual.

This study has looked at some of these groups, with particular reference to the interface between school and work. The explicit machinery for facilitating the transition between school and work has been seen to be expanding rapidly to the extent that all pupils may expect to have at least minimal access to a careers teacher, a careers officer and a wide range of general careers and further education information, as well as having the option of visiting independent agencies offering a similar service. The manifest reasons for the existence and expansion of these services are the increasing range and changing nature of opportunities available in education and careers and the need to interpret these to the individual and help him steer his career course. A less widely claimed reason, and one quoted more by policy makers than practitioners is the desirability of making efficient use of manpower by placing people in jobs appropriate to their skills.

Since most studies which have investigated the question have indicated that careers advice in the past has been regarded as inadequate it would appear that the growth in agencies providing this service has been consumer led as the public become conscious of the existence of career opportunities and require direction. Expansion in the schools and to young people well below school leaving age is seen as an attempt to cater for the deferred and latent
elements of the demand for the service. It is, however, removing the initiative from the client and may be reducing the stimulus and motivation to obtain help which may in turn reduce the cost effectiveness of the service. Further expansion in terms of specialist counsellors and psychologists or more careers officers specialising in further education advice, the handicapped, immigrants and so on would greatly increase the cost of the service with little apparent return as the effective element of the demand for careers work is appeased.

We have seen how the generalist careers workers and agencies have developed and specialisms have emerged. The occupation of employment officer has changed from having an emphasis on placement to one of careers advice directly answerable to education authorities rather than to administrators concerned with the labour market. An expertise in careers guidance counselling has become essential to the job and the qualifications for entry have been raised considerably. Careers teachers have emerged to attempt to cope with the practical implementation of the services required by the acceptance of occupational choice as a developmental process. Several publishers have developed material to cater for the growing market of school leavers and students in search of careers and of careers advisers requiring educational and other aids. The same processes of differentiation, specialisation and raising educational requirements observed in the general society are apparent in careers work.

As a new area of occupations and knowledge it was supposed that the careers industry would attract to it people who were not already established in or central to another sphere. However there has been less evidence to support this than anticipated. In schools established teachers have taken on the careers work although there is a tendency for them to have had a wide range of experience outside teaching. It would be interesting to see whether
this branching out into careers work is associated with a block in the ladder of promotion in their original field of activity. Careers officers came from a variety of backgrounds but the tendency is for them to take up the job at an early age with little other experience. Older officers may have displayed more marginal characteristics in previous employment but this was not gauged. The independent advisers appear most likely to conform to the marginality theory but even now they are on the periphery of the careers service.

Smelser sees development as an 'interplay between differentiation and integration. Manifestly the growth in public careers work was an attempt to integrate the worlds of education and employment. It is difficult to know how effectively individuals would find suitable employment without some formal mechanism to help them do so. The informal influences of family and community are still very much stronger than the explicit rather late-in-the-day formal agencies and it would be interesting to examine the extent to which the school and the Careers Service is reinforcing the societal influences on occupational choice or countering them. Rehberg and Hotchkiss noted the increasing influence of the counsellor on educational decisions, and, in a progressively certificated society, the increasing responsibility of the school for sorting its raw material. They do, however, note with disturbance that data suggests the counsellor advises the student to do what he intends to do anyway. They do observe a minimal success of counsellors in reducing the dependence of a child's opportunities upon his social origins.

Totally non-directive counselling attempts to perceive the effect of all influences on the personality and aid development of compatible life styles. On this basis non-directive counselling may be less of an agent in improving the effective use of our educated manpower than
directive methods which could aim to steer the client on to a course beyond (be it above or below) the aspirations or expectations of his membership and reference group. However, eclectic counselling which retains the empathic element but which positively seeks to develop latent individual potential may indeed have a different effect on the entry into occupations to that of informal influences alone.

Counselling may counteract any frustrations which might occur over the existence of large scale opportunity for a small number of elite jobs as suggested in the Preface. Certainly counsellors interviewed regarded the achievement of a realistic aspiration as opposed to fantasy jobs as an important part of their work. Whether they emphasise the client's personal happiness or social conformity it is more likely that counsellors will serve as a stabilising influence both in school and in the larger society than as an agent of change. Any change which might result from counselling practice should, in theory, be constructive in terms of fulfilment of latent potential ability and the release of social tension.

Now that all schoolchildren are exposed to the formal careers advice and information services these have become a filtering lens through which the familial and societal influences on an individual's concept of himself and of occupations can be viewed. The degree to which this lens and its interpretation is accepted or how it is used is still the subject of much uncertainty both among practitioners and the general public. The existence of independent agencies outside schools and the public careers service both in the advisory and information field provide the choice of interpreter for those requiring help. The growth of careers education in the school syllabus is of importance in that it provides the opportunity for projecting favourable images of unfashionable occupations. Clearly such work should be dealt with responsibly by skilled practitioners with a clear understanding of the implications of such work.
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Chapter Seven

APPENDIX A1

To show the importance attached to careers information by writers on guidance

Ziller  'In the process of selecting a vocation the vast array of alternatives is reduced enormously as a consequence of individual interests, abilities, economic limitations, and lack of information.'  (Journal of Counselling Psychology Vol 4 No 1 1957 p 61)

Hilton (paraphrased)  It is his limited capacity to handle information about the multitudinous behavioural alternatives that limits the individual's rationality of decision-making.  (Pg 292 Journal of Counselling Psychology Vol 9 No 4 1962)

Steffie  'The expression of the public personality through an occupation - the selection of an occupational persona - must be made on incomplete information.'  (1966 'Vocational Development: Ten propositions in search of a theory' in Hopson & Hayes (ed))

Christensen  'The occupational adjustment of the individual is dependent not only on physical, psychological, sociological and economic factors, but also on occupational information.'  (1942 Functions of Occupational Information in Counselling in Hopson & Hayes (ed))

Blau et al  '...Reynolds... suggest(s) that... many workers... do not have sufficient information about the range of alternative opportunities to make deliberate rational choices in their careers. This calls attention to the importance of taking labor market information into account in the study of occupational choice, because a person can obviously choose only among the alternatives
known to him. Within the limits of their information, however, potential workers do take action by seeking jobs in one occupation rather than another and prior to any action as Parsons and Shilo have noted, "a decision must always be made (explicitly or implicitly, consciously or unconsciously)."

In sum, occupational choice is restricted by lack of knowledge about existing opportunities.
(Industrial and Labour Relations Review Vol 9 No 4 1956)

Hopson and Hayes 'The individual must be faced with alternatives which provide the opportunity for choice. He must also, consciously or otherwise, utilise certain criteria in the decision-making process in order to evaluate the alternatives available. In the past many vocational guidance practitioners tended to furnish the individual with information about a number of occupations and present him with a series of externally generated criteria to be used in evaluating these alternatives. Examples of such criteria are: which occupation offers the best prospects for advancement, which occupation is most secure, which occupation is most highly paid either now or in the future, and so on. All too frequently these criteria reflected the needs and values of those who transmitted them rather than the needs and values of the people at whom they were directed. The relevance of such criteria for particular individuals was rarely questioned.' (The Theory and Practice of Vocational Guidance Pergamon 1968)
Although the Children's Hour 'I want to be . . .'
series was not broadcast to schools its target audience
was obviously school age children. The series presented
thirty minute playlets in dialogue form which, typically,
followed the hero or heroine from the latter stages of
school and the career choice, through training, and first
or second job.

Programme No. 13 'In the Catering Trade' was broadcast
on Saturday 15th August 1953.

Hilary, the heroine has had a bad school report and
is bottom of the class. The only bright note is a comment
on her enthusiasm for cookery. Hilary explains to her
mother that she wants to take up cooking as a career.
She tells how well a friend who did not get a grammar
school place is doing at technical school learning cooking
and that there are all sorts of jobs a girl with certificates
in cooking and catering can do. Father is less sympathetic
to Hilary's ambitions. He would prefer her to work in a
bank and does not understand her wanting to throw up her
grammar school education to cook. After a discussion
with Hilary's headmistress who notes that the girl is
unhappy and making no progress at all, a visit to the
technical college is arranged for Hilary and her mother.
The principal stresses the rigours of a career in cooking
and the need for good health, while at technical school
it would still be necessary to work hard at her general
education as well as cooking.

After another discussion with her parents Hilary joins
the course at the technical school and by a series of short
snippets of dialogue the listener follows her through French,
Geography and Music lessons as well as several cookery and food science lessons in which more detail is given and we are able to appreciate the development of her knowledge. Different career possibilities and prospects are discussed by Hilary and her friends during her second year of training. By the end of the second year her father admits that he was wrong to object to Hilary taking up cooking as she is doing so well. The City and Guilds test taken at the end of the final year is discussed by the characters.

An appointment is made for Hilary to see the Youth Employment Officer who arranges a job for her in a restaurant where a former pupil of the technical school already works.

The first day of work is dealt with in relative detail covering her first meeting with the boss, her first mistake and the first new thing that she learns. Hilary is then shown to become competent in her work, able to work hard and take a responsibility. We learn how she left the restaurant to work in a hospital, a west end club (which she left because her father did not like her keeping late hours), then in a boarding school. Her next application, interview and subsequent acceptance to be the cook in charge at a teachers' training college is covered more fully.

The programme ends with Hilary returning to the first restaurant in which she worked, as a customer and discussing career prospects with her old friend. They mention the fact that although they do the same job as men they do not get the same pay. Hilary discusses the possibility of training to be a teacher when she is 25 if she does not marry.

Although presented as a playlet at tea time on a Saturday afternoon and not explicitly an instructional programme this shows how the BBC fulfils its objectives
of information, entertainment and education.

The listener is informed of one of the methods of training to be a cook, the content of such training and some of the careers which might result from its successful completion. By identification with the heroine the listener indirectly experiences some of the problems which she might encounter - such as poor school reports, parental resistance, difficult techniques to master. The listener is entertained by hearing a well written playlet which has a pleasant heroine, some humour and a happy ending. She has been introduced to the world of work. By being given identities, instructors and bosses become less of an unknown quantity. The listener can project herself into similar situations as those she has heard on the programme.

Points to note from this broadcast are,

(i) the fact that the only snags encountered were minor ones and they were surmountable,

(ii) the choice and decision making process undergone by the heroine was not covered in any depth. It was almost implied that she had no choice since there was only one subject which she enjoyed and was any good at. People consulted included her parents, the head of her grammar school and the principal of the technical school. A friend had supplied her with the initial information about technical training. The Youth Employment Officer was only approached after she had completed all the training and wanted a job. The guidance and counselling function of the Youth Employment Office was not recognised in the programme,

(iii) implicit in the second half of the broadcast was the idea that promotion comes to those who work well,

(iv) in the excerpts from technical school classes the voices of actual demonstrators were used.
'In the Catering Trade' was also the subject of a 'World of Work' series broadcast to schools in the summer of 1957.

The programme began with the presenter, Rita Udall, who also wrote the script, talking about the catering industry in general as an area of growth, the fourth largest industry in Britain employing over three-quarters of a million people. She mentions the large numbers of colleges offering full-time and part-time courses in catering. She mentions some of the different opportunities available in the trade. Turning to cooking she explains how the aims vary with the different kinds of establishment and clientele.

Listeners are then told that they will hear from several young people with jobs in the catering trade.

The first to be interviewed by Mrs. Udall is a fifteen year old who explains how he decided to go into catering. This boy decided on cooking after a talk with the Youth Employment Officer when the time came to leave school. He explains how he got his job as a trainee in a kitchen and what he likes about it. Mrs. Udall asks him whether there are any snags and although he is generally happy with his work he mentions having to get used to working when everyone else is enjoying themselves. He talks about his future ambitions.

Mrs. Udall then describes other ways of learning to be a cook: apprenticeship schemes and technical college courses. She describes the sort of work carried out in canteens and cafeterias and introduces a nineteen year old girl who is head cook at a staff canteen for a chain store in Berkshire. In response to questions she described the training and work experience which led to her present job. She then describes her job. Mrs. Udall describes seeing Mary at work in her canteen and the personal qualities which make her good at her job. She then mentions other work of a similar nature - such as the school meals service, and hospital catering.
The next young person interviewed is a twenty year old girl who works on a soda fountain in a west end store. She tells how she got the job through a friend and describes her duties. She is pleased to be working for a world famous store in clean working conditions and with pleasant people.

The presenter again draws out the thread of the conversation, pointing out the common features of the comments so far and then injects more information about the catering industry. She mentions the opportunities for travel and exchange schemes with the continent.

Her final guest is a twenty-nine year old night manager of a large London hotel - he describes reception duties and the personal qualities they require, the sort of hotel in which he works and his own hours and duties. He tells how he took a course in Hotel Management at technical college and the different work he did as a student.

Mrs. Udall gives more information about the help which can be obtained in qualifying and in summing up the discussion mentions even more sides to the catering trade than those which have already been mentioned in the programme.

For a twenty minute programme a tremendous amount of information has been provided, particularly by the presenter who talks for nearly half the air time (6 1/2 out of 14 script pages).

The Y.E.O. is mentioned in one instance as aiding career choice.

People actually doing the job are asked about its advantages and disadvantages and the listener is able to gauge something of their personalities. They are, however, likely to say good things about their work otherwise they would not have been prepared to broadcast.

Salient features and important characteristics of the occupations discussed are highlighted and stressed by the presenter.
The choice and decision making processes of the young people featured are not covered in any depth. The programme is almost wholly informative rather than educative or entertaining.

Horizons - The Catering Industry - 23/12/66 (Broadcast 1839 to 1904)

It should be noted that this series, again aimed at young people, was broadcast out of school hours, to be listened to in the home.

This broadcast begins with the introducer describing his view of the catering industry as a consumer and the questions about it which come to mind. He describes the labour shortage in the industry and the availability of a wide range of information about jobs and training.

His first guest is the Strathclyde professor of Hotel and Catering who discusses the economic aspects of the industry, its labour intensity, and high turnover. He makes a broad distinction between the profit motive and the welfare motive of different catering organisations and whether crafts and skills are interchangeable. He discusses the accommodation business and the fundamental managerial skills required, together with specific catering skills. They discuss the sort of person likely to be happy in the industry and the jobs and prospects for trained school leavers.

The next guest is the Education Officer of the Hotel and Catering Institute with information for those not aspiring to a degree. He describes ways of working up the ladder and combining study courses with industrial training for people leaving school with differing amounts of academic success. For each he says what sort of jobs they may lead to.

Three more people are introduced, the female Catering and Domestic Officer of the University of York, the
Proprietor of a Canterbury restaurant, and the Personnel Officer of the largest hotel and catering group in Europe. Each describes his career and what is attractive about his work.

The presenter summarises the preceding discussion. We then hear his conversations with some students who describe their training and their ambitions. A young Assistant Manager of a luxury London hotel describes his job and the reasons he enjoys it.

The presenter sums up, finishing by giving the BBC address promising to answer queries.
APPENDIX B1

The postal survey to careers teachers
Dear Careers Teacher,

Recently I sent you a questionnaire asking for your help in a survey of Surrey Careers Teacher. I am writing to you again in the hope that you may still find the time to complete it and return it to me. (If you have just replied please ignore this letter).

I realise that you are probably very busy and that completing questionnaires can be time consuming, but I can assure you that your response would be of great value to the study. As you will appreciate, if the results are to be of use we must be able to draw reliable conclusions. These are dependent upon a good response rate. It would therefore be most helpful if you could send your replies as soon as possible.

I enclose another copy of my original letter and questionnaire with printing errors amended.

Yours sincerely,

Sally Hart

Miss S.R. Hart
Dear Careers Teacher,

I am engaged in postgraduate research at this University and am looking into careers advice and information services for school children.

A key part of this work is a survey I am conducting of careers teachers in Surrey schools which you may have heard about already from the secretary of your local Careers Association. I would be most grateful if you would spare the time to complete the accompanying questionnaire.

The results of the survey will, I hope, not only give some indication of the extent of work going on in the schools but also tell us more about the people who have become careers teachers, how they see their job, and the circumstances in which they have to carry out their work.

I fully appreciate that the time allotted to careers work varies enormously from school to school, and that careers teaching may only form a small part of your duties. I would, nevertheless, greatly appreciate your participation in this survey since I am concerned to cover a comprehensive range of careers work.

All information given in the questionnaire will be treated in confidence and no respondent will be identifiable in any report arising out of this research. In this connection I am bound by the code of ethics of the British Sociological Association.

I do hope you will feel able to help me in this work and I would be very grateful if you would return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed stamped addressed envelope as quickly as possible.

Yours sincerely,

Miss S.R. Hart.
Please indicate your answer with a tick wherever possible.

1. AGE.

   20-30 yrs. [ ]  31-40 yrs. [ ]  41-50 yrs. [ ]  51-60 yrs. [ ]

   Over 60 [ ]

2. SEX.

   MALE [ ]  FEMALE [ ]

3.a. Please indicate the type of school in which you work.

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<td>viii. College of Further Education</td>
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<td>ix. Other (Please State)</td>
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   b. Boys [ ]  Girls [ ]  Mixed [ ]

4. Please write down any posts of responsibility you have in the school and state whether or not they carry a special responsibility allowance.

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

5.a. Are you in charge of a form?  YES [ ]  NO [ ]

   b. If yes in which year is the form? ........................................

6. What subject(s) do you teach?

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

7. What subjects have you studied formally since leaving school?

   .................................................................
   .................................................................
8. What academic qualifications have you?

9. What types of further education have you received?

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</tbody>
</table>

10.a. Have you ever had an occupation other than teaching?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

b. If so, Please state the jobs you have done and the time spent on each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JOB</th>
<th>TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. What was your father's occupation?

12. Please indicate the length of your experience as a teacher.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 5 and 10 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 10 and 15 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 15 and 20 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 20 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13. What subjects have you taught during your career?

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

14. What aged pupils have you taught during your career?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 5 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-11 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-18 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 18 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. During your career, have you taught:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always boys</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some of each</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. Please indicate the types of school in which you have worked during your career.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Public/Private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Modern</td>
<td>Preparatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>College of Further Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (Please State)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. Of which professional, teaching or career association (and similar) are you a member? (If you hold office in any of these please state this fact). How many meeting of each have you attended in the last year?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Association</th>
<th>Whether Office Held</th>
<th>Meetings attended in last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
18. How did you first come to be involved in careers teaching?

| a. I applied for an advertised post involving careers work |
| b. I volunteered to take responsibility for careers |
| c. I was asked to take responsibility for careers |
| d. Others, please state |

19. For how many years have you had responsibility for careers?

20. Please mention any informal studies and interests you have which you feel help you with your careers work?

21. Have you attended any courses in connection with careers teaching?

| YES | NO |

If so, please state the course(s) and its duration.

22. Is there a recognised careers department in your school?

| YES | NO |

23. How many teachers in your school are involved in careers work?

24. What form does this involvement take?

25. What percentage of your time is devoted to careers work?

| 0%-20% | 21%-40% | 41%-60% | 61%-80% | 81%-100% |
26. How much actual time do you give to your careers work on average a week?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours Spent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-2 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-8 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-10 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please State</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27. How did you use your time in the last full school week?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours Spent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Contact with classes of pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Contact with individual pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Preparation for talks, classes, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Contact with employers, parents etc. with relation to job seeking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Others, please state</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. Was this a typical week?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

If No, in what way was it not typical?

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

29. a. Does the time you give to careers work vary during the school year?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

b. If Yes, How?

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

30. Please give the approximate number of pupils in each year of the school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
31. What percentage of your leavers last year left at the age of 15?..........

32. What percentage of your leavers last year left at the age of 16?..........

33.a. Do all pupils in any one year receive the same amount of careers teaching?

   YES  NO

b. If No, How does this vary and to what year(s) does it apply?

34. How much money is available to you during the year for your careers work?

35. Can you spend it as you please?  YES  NO

36. Do you have any regular secretarial help with your careers work?

   YES  NO

37.a. Do you need secretarial help with your careers work?

   YES  NO

b. If Yes, how many hours a week would you consider necessary?.............
38. Below is a list of procedures which could be incorporated in a careers curriculum, please put the appropriate code against each procedure where:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Very Helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Helpful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Of little help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Of doubtful value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not Used</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class/Group work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films/Strips</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio/T.V.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Careers conventions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work visits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological testing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual interview with yourself (Routine)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual interview with yourself (Requested)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews with the Careers Officer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Please State)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

39. a. Do you have a careers section in the library in your school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

b. Does it have any borrowing facilities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

40. a. Does your school have a conscious policy of integrating preparation for careers into the syllabuses of other subjects taught in the school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

b. Does this apply to all ability levels?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
41. In column A, please indicate whether you have ever arranged talks by the following people. In column B, please indicate how many times a year this occurs?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>A local employer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii.</td>
<td>A local employee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>An ex-pupil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>A union representative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.</td>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

42. If careers work forms only part of your teaching duties, please answer the following:

a. Faced with the decision of

either i. relinquishing your careers work altogether

or v. taking up careers teaching full time.

Which would you do?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>v.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Why? 

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

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

........................................................................................................................................
should be part of the careers teacher's job and 1 point indicates fundamental disagreement with this objective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1. TOTAL DISAGREEMENT</th>
<th>2. MILD DISAGREEMENT</th>
<th>3. DON'T MIND</th>
<th>4. MILD AGREEMENT</th>
<th>5. TOTAL AGREEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>To acquaint pupils with a wide range of information about careers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>To guide the pupil toward the sort of job to which he is suited</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>To help the pupil find the job he is looking for</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>To try to fill known vacancies with pupils from your school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>To encourage and assist pupils to relate knowledge of their abilities and achievement to career opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>To encourage endeavour and foster ambition within known limits of ability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>To ensure the pupil has a job when he leaves school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>To help the pupil come to terms with himself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>To help the pupil find a job with a secure future</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>To encourage the pupil to further his education within the limits of his ability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>To teach the pupil to make his own decisions about his life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>To acquaint parents with an appropriate range of career possibilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>To educate and advise parents on how to aid pupils to make decisions about their occupation future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>To encourage parents to make the final decision about their child's career in all cases</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>To encourage parents to let the school make the decision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>To encourage and assist parents to seek specialist help for vocational decisions when judged necessary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>To fully prepare the pupil for his interview with the careers officer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>To provide the careers officer with background information on the pupils in the school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>If there are any other possible functions of the careers teacher which you feel should be mentioned here please state them below and indicate whether you agree or disagree with them in a similar manner as above.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
44. Would you like to elaborate on any functions which you feel strongly should be part of the careers teachers job?

45. Would you like to elaborate on any functions which you feel strongly not be part of a careers teacher's job.

46. Below is a list of statements, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Careers teaching should be a full-time job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. The provision of advice is a job for specialists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. The main job of the careers teacher should be to provide information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Preparation for after school life should be integrated into the teaching of some subjects for some ability levels.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Preparation for after school life should be integrated into the teaching of some subjects for some ability levels.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Job placement is not the task of the careers teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Pupils should be encouraged to aim at well paid jobs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. A careers teacher should not have to maintain personal contact in representatives of local industry.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. If he has the ability a pupil should be encouraged to continue in full-time education regardless of his own inclinations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

47. When people you meet socially ask you what you teach, what do you say?
APPENDIX B2
Additional Tables

B.2.1 Careers teachers - status in school by school type (percentage of effective response in brackets)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Secondary Modern</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head of Department and above</td>
<td>6 (55)</td>
<td>31 (70)</td>
<td>19 (68)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other posts</td>
<td>5 (45)</td>
<td>10 (24)</td>
<td>9 (32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11 (100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>41 (100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>28 (100)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.2.2 Careers teachers - status in school by method of recruitment (percentage of effective response in brackets)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volunteers</th>
<th>Conscripts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head of Department and above</td>
<td>16 (64)</td>
<td>40 (73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other posts</td>
<td>9 (36)</td>
<td>15 (27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25 (100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>55 (100)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.2.3 Careers teachers - Percentage of time spent on careers work by method of recruitment (percentage of effective response in brackets)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Volunteers</th>
<th>Conscripts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 20%</td>
<td>15 (58)</td>
<td>32 (58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 40%</td>
<td>10 (38)</td>
<td>15 (27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 60%</td>
<td>1 (4)</td>
<td>5 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 80%</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>26 (100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>55 (100)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### B.2.4 Careers teachers - status in school by percentage of time spent on careers work (percentage of effective response in brackets)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head of Department and above</th>
<th>Other Post</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 20%</td>
<td>38 (73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 40%</td>
<td>12 (23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 60%</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- 80%</td>
<td>2 (4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 52 (100) 25 (100)
APPENDIX C

The postal element of the careers officers' study
Dear

As you may know, I am making a study of the careers industry which I define as the group of organisations engaged in careers advisory and information work. As part of this study I have already conducted a postal survey of Surrey Careers Teachers which focused on their personal career backgrounds, their methods and their attitudes towards the job of careers teaching.

I am now writing to ask if you would be willing to participate in a similar study of careers officers in Surrey. The intention is again to focus on personal career background, methods and attitudes towards the job of careers officer and careers work generally. Since your numbers are small and your specialities and backgrounds differ widely, I cannot hope to make statistical comparisons but would very much like to conduct individual interviews with a cross-section of careers officers representing as broad a range of experience as possible. I was, therefore, wondering if you would be willing to co-operate in this study which is in two parts:

(i) Ten questions concerning your work and training, which I am requesting all Surrey Careers Officers to complete and from which a cross-section of people may be selected.

(ii) Individual interviews of about a half-hour's duration with those in the selected group to discuss their work.

I would be most grateful if you would consider helping me in this project, the results of which I feel can only do good for the understanding of careers work as a whole. I enclose the ten questions which constitute the first part of the study and include a stamped addressed envelope. It would be most helpful if you could reply by October 6th.

I should add that complete confidentiality, with regard to individual replies and statements, will be observed. In this connection, I am bound by the code of ethics of the British Sociological Association. In any written report the greatest care will be taken to ensure that no individual respondent is identifiable by his replies.

If you have any enquiries, please do not hesitate to contact me at the above address.

Yours sincerely,

Sally Hart (Miss)
1. What is your present job in the Careers Service?

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

2. What other positions have you held in the Careers Service?
   Please give full details.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Dates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. How long have you been working in the Careers Service?

..............yrs.

4. When did you enter the Careers Service?

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

5. Besides your employment in the Careers Service, what other full-time, non-temporary jobs have you had?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Dates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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6. Please give details of all full-time or part-time study since leaving school. (excluding that covered by Question 8)

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<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>FT/PT</th>
<th>Dates</th>
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/continued
7. What professional and academic qualifications do you have?

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<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Date Awarded</th>
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8(a) Have you received any training specifically for careers work? (Please tick)

Yes...............No............... 

(b) If yes, please mention the courses you have attended which you regard as significant in this connection. For each course please give, if possible,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Nature/title of course</th>
<th>FT/PT</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Dates</th>
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9. How old are you?

.............yrs.

10. If asked, would you be willing to give a half-hour interview to discuss your work?

Yes...............No...............
Dear

As a result of the interviews I conducted a few weeks ago, I have isolated a few factors of special interest when considering the job of a Careers Officer. Questions relating to these factors are on the enclosed questionnaire on which I have also repeated one or two questions asked in the interviews which people said would be better answered if they had time to think.

So, even though you may already have given me your views when we met, I would be most grateful if you would complete the enclosed form in order that I can compare the answers which I receive across the range of Surrey Careers Officers. If you were interviewed, by now you will probably have forgotten precisely what you said so that your answers on the enclosed sheet will also give me an indication of consistency of thought about various topics and whether interviewing and questionnaire work receive similar responses.

Apparently one or two people intended to return my original form but didn't get around to it. If you still have yours and are still willing to co-operate with my study perhaps you could return it when returning the enclosed form?

I hope this request for more help will not give you cause to doubt the sincerity of my Christmas greetings and wishes for a happy and prosperous New Year!

Yours sincerely,

Sally Hart

Encs.
1. Did you first consider entering the Careers Service before or after you knew that a vacancy existed?

   Before                                      After

2. What are the qualities which mark out a good Careers Officer?

3. Are you able to do your job as you think it should be done?

   Yes, definitely ...........
   More or less ...........
   No, definitely ...........

   If not, in what ways are you restricted?

4. What improvements would you like to see made in the Careers Service from the point of view of making your own job more attractive?
5. It is generally agreed that the work of a Careers Officer involves a mixture of the following aspects:

   Social - involving contact with individuals, especially young people

   Educational - involving interest in and knowledge of educational affairs

   Industrial - involving interest in and knowledge of industrial and commercial affairs

   Administrative - concerning organisation, co-ordination, record keeping etc.

Obviously, the variety of a Careers Officer's work is basic. Are you happy with the balance as it is at the moment?

Which aspect of your work do you like best?
6. The following are often quoted as the four main objectives of the Careers Service. Please rate them in importance 1 to 4 assigning '1' to that (or those) objective(s) you consider most important and '4' to the least important.

(a) The provision of job information for young people and their parents.

(b) The provision of vocational guidance for pupils during the latter stages of their school careers

(c) Helping young workers to find employment and assisting employers to recruit suitable young workers

(d) Reviewing the progress of young people in employment in order to provide further advice and help if necessary

7. Definition

Expert - One whose special knowledge or skill causes him to be an authority.

Question - Is the Careers Officer an expert?  YES .......

If YES, what is the nature of his expertise?
8. Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements according to the following scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total agreement</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mild agreement</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mild disagreement</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total disagreement</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(a) It should be the job of the teacher to circulate careers literature to pupils.

(b) It should be the job of the teacher to provide the C.O. with background information on the pupils in the school.

(c) The teacher should organise visits to places of work, group discussions, film shows & introduce visiting speakers.

(d) The C.O. should possess overall responsibility for the development of careers work in schools.

(e) Planning & organisation of careers work in schools should be the joint responsibility of teacher & C.O.

(f) Ultimate responsibility for organising careers work within the school should reside with a member of staff.

(g) The offering of individual vocational advice & guidance to the pupils should always be left to the C.O.

(h) Every school leaver ought always to receive individual advice from a C.O.

(i) It is essential that the C.O. has access to individual pupils well before they complete full-time education.

(j) The provision of advice is a job for specialists.

(k) Careers teaching should be a full-time job.

(l) Job placement is not the task of the careers teacher.