

MIDLANDS STATE UNIVERSITY



FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

**AN EVALUATION OF CAREER GUIDANCE PROGRAMS GIVEN TO
HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS IN HARARE URBAN**

BY

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a background to the study of an evaluation of career guidance programs given to high school pupils. It also states the statement of the problem and reveals the significance of the study. Research questions will also highlight the issues that the researcher wishes to focus on, revealing the purpose of the study. The conceptual and practical boundaries of the study will be given and the researchers assumptions which are to be verified through research.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Although there are many careers and opportunities available to individuals, without guidance and the appropriate counseling, future career choice decisions can be limited in their career options. This may be so if they are especially unprepared for the requirements of the workplace, and are unaware of workplace accommodations that can broaden career options or if they underestimate their abilities. According to Fitzjkenny (2005), Career education and guidance in schools provides access to the skills and resources students need to overcome these obstacles, and prepares them to make choices relevant to their strengths and interests.

The foundations of career management skills should be laid at an early age and as students move from primary to high or secondary schools, there should be a general idea of what they want to do and should be further equipped in high schools with the relevant self management skills such as, problem solving, career planning, decision making, time management, learning and information management, in preparation for their future careers.

Of concern also to note is that within general education pathways, substantial career guidance and counseling time is spent preparing students to choose and compete for tertiary education places. This may result in those not intending to enter tertiary education receiving little or no help.

Watts (1999) suggests, a distinction may be made between career guidance being viewed as a “worthy private good”, which bestows benefits to individuals who “should have a civic right to have access to it regardless of the resources at their private disposal, and as a “public good” which generates social and economic benefits over and above those accruing to the individuals who receive it.

High school students find themselves in a dilemma after completing secondary education as most pupils are not aware of what direction to take after school. Pupils know they are supposed to attend tertiary education, but at times are not sure what they want to do there or whether attending tertiary education is what is right for them. In the end decisions are then made for them or agreed upon which are influenced by peers, parents and relatives, and at times may be based on assumptions that these careers will bring job security and money and not necessarily fulfillment to the individual, (Boyd, Hemming & Braggett 1999)

Currently career guidance programs are not yielding the desired results as students may finish secondary school without an idea of what career path they want to follow and often leads to individuals pursuing career paths that are not best suited for them and most often will lead to an unrewarding career path.

Fitzjkenny (2005) argues that there is little or no career guidance available for many students in high schools and tertiary institutions. He further asserts that career guidance services are thin on the ground with students not having access to the range of services they require to make informed educational and career decisions. Andrews (2000) argues that little attention is paid towards career development and choice in schools to help students develop career management and entrepreneurial skills. On this background the researcher sought to establish the level of career guidance initiatives in high schools. The researcher after noting the importance of career guidance for students felt that there was need to evaluate career guidance programs that are being offered to high school pupils and to evaluate if these programs are playing the intended role or achieving the desired outcome.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Career decision making and a general lack of understanding about career choices are characteristic of a lack of effective career guidance. Current career guidance initiatives in high schools are not helping pupils make informed career decisions.

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to establish whether there is a structured student counseling and career guidance program in secondary institutions of learning in Harare urban, to find out if career guidance programs in schools are helpful in assisting the students develop a career direction, to ascertain whether career education leads to a positive behavior that is career inclined, to find out if career education and guidance is mainly biased toward encouraging tertiary enrolment or takes into consideration those who do not want to take that route and to find out the extent to which career guidance programs are implemented in private schools as compared to government schools and colleges.

1.4 RESEARCHER QUESTIONS

- Is there student counseling and career guidance in high schools?
- What kind of career guidance programs are there in high schools?
- Are students benefiting from career guidance programs in schools?
- Does career guidance have any influence on actual career choice?
- Are there any tests given to assist in the career guidance program in high schools?
- What role do teachers, student counselors and parents play in the career guidance program?
- Do schools have an evaluation system to measure the outcomes of their career guidance programs and initiatives?
- How do parents feel about the career decisions made by their children?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The research aims to benefit schools, pupils and the country by evaluating the extent to which career education is available to students in schools, with a view of providing a theoretical framework to which policy and programs can be drawn up and implemented to improve career guidance offered to students. The research also aims to improve on existing career guidance structures and systems in high schools, and provide a platform for which career education and tests may be introduced at an early age, with the intention of assisting in identifying and molding students in a particular career direction, facilitate for positive academic and career behavior change, through the utilization of career management education and to introduce a uniform and structured career guidance/counseling program for all secondary institutions of learning in Zimbabwe. The study could also help government by showing the need for career policy and interventions required to improve career education in Zimbabwe. The study will also help the researcher develop a career guidance education curriculum and provide consultation services in career guidance. The research will also encourage further studies on the subject by social scientists so as to improve the knowledge on career guidance.

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

To achieve the objectives of the research project, the research was carried out in 10 schools in Harare urban, which included government and private schools and colleges. The research participants included school pupils and facilitators or givers of career guidance education in these schools, with the intention not only of establishing the type of career guidance schools were giving, but also whether these programs were actually helping the beneficiaries.

1.7 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

- It was the researchers concern that time to do the research was an important factor in the limitation of the study as a lot of consultations had to be made in a short space of time as schools will have closed in early December and most of the senior students that include form fours and upper sixth students will have left and this may have affected the timely conclusion of the research report. In response to this concern,

- efforts during the holidays were directed at engaging other stake holders that included the Ministry of Education, the ILO and other organizations involved in career guidance initiatives.
- The researcher anticipated some problems in terms of Zimbabwean literature in terms of career guidance as very little research on the matter has been done locally. Consultations showed that research had been done on the subject where career guidance effectiveness was not the primary concern but were an outcome of various other educational initiatives.

1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Career - a chosen pursuit that is mainly a profession or occupation.

Career Guidance – a structured, and systematic program of assisting students choose a career of their choice and work towards achieving it.

Career Education - is learning through various learning tools with the aim of informing individuals on various career paths and opportunities.

Career Counselor – a person who is trained or qualified to provide career counseling to students.

Research - A careful, systematic investigation into a particular question or problem.

Career Management Skills – These are skills that are taught to individuals that are supposed to assist them in achieving their career objectives. They include skills such as Time management, goal setting, Learning and information processing, problem solving and decision making.

Student Counseling – a system or program to provide students with individual attention and assistance.

High Schools – colleges and other institutions that offer educational facilities from form 1 to form 6.

1.9 CONCLUSION

The chapter highlighted the driving force of the research. It defined the problem of research and the objectives. Some boundaries of the research proper were drawn. Also, an effort was made to define certain key terms used throughout the research report. The next chapter will deal with the practical aspects of research process that is, the methodology employed in obtaining information from participants.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The following chapter provides insight into the theories of career guidance practice, studies supporting these theories, a review of literature in career guidance and a look at other career guidance programs that have been studied, that support the observations made on the research.

2.2 CAREER AND GUIDANCE THEORY

There are many theories that influence career guidance. In simple terms these can be viewed as falling into two categories. The first, Career Theory, is concerned with how people make occupational choices. The second, Guidance Theory, concerns how to assist that decision making through a structured approach. In practice these theories are inter-related, Brimrose (2004). The particular view of how career choices are made and implemented is consistently reflected in the theories of how best to assist individuals in respect of their careers. The notion of ‘career’ is itself considered in different ways. Early theories appear to view career primarily as employment Parsons, (1909). More recent approaches typically take a more holistic view, based on the subjective experiences and values of the individual, and recognizing that no client comes from a contextual vacuum, Ali &Graham, (1996). In each instance the theories are often a product of their time, and as such open to critique. As expressed by Gothard et al (2001)

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

According to Brimrose (2003), Different perspectives address why theory remains essential for effective guidance practice. She argues that, without theoretical frameworks to guide our practice, there is a danger that there will be too much reliance on common sense. It is hence important to review literature in line with practices affected by the various theories and their applicability in career guidance best practice.

Krumboltz and Nichols (1990) argue that theories developed to inform guidance practice are generally based on research evidence which can be scrutinized and judged independently by others. They go on to propose that theory for careers practice should help: understand a complex phenomenon, make predictions about future outcomes and decide on courses of action.

They argue also that other characteristics that can be used to identify a career theory, include the following: that it Represents reality - theory represents various aspects of reality in an understandable way.

Omits non-essentials - theory simplifies reality by ignoring a large number of variables (like a map).

Emphasis - to make features clear, theories often stress the importance of certain variables (e.g. by giving them special names, stressing their importance in words, figures or formulas).

Abstracts - a theory may include unobservable constructs and ideas believed to be important which are abstractions.

Practically useful - a good theory enables people to derive answers to innumerable questions (e.g. how are preferences for occupations developed? What interventions are needed to help clients make sound career decisions, etc.)

That is, a career theory should address some or all of these features. Where it does not, it cannot be identified as a 'theory' according to this definition, although it may still inform practice, Brimrose (2003)

2.3 APPROACHES TO CAREER GUIDANCE & COUNSELLING

According to Arulmani (2003), the psychology of career development is one of the most robust and vigorously growing branches of the behavioral sciences, and career psychology has been an area of concentrated investigation. While at one time career guidance and counseling seemed to be an obscure sub branch of counseling psychology, today, applied psychologists in clinical, industrial, organizational and social psychology settings find career development issues of interest, Osipow (1987). Ideas and concepts in career psychology, that include traits, life stages, social learning and career beliefs have gained relevance and popularity with professionals from various disciplines. The Interdisciplinary nature of Career psychology has led to an extraordinary growth in literature dealing with career counseling, (Nag-Arulmani, 2002). Hackett, Lent & Grenhaus (1991), suggest that theoretical traditions within career psychology could be broadly classified into three schools of thought, namely the trait-factor approach, the Developmental approach or school and the social learning/social cognitive approach. It is important to note however that these traditions have had their origins in the west and a large extent of research is drawn upon samples from the west

2.3.1 TRAIT FACTOR APPROACH/ MATCHING THEORIES

Trait/factor approach also known as matching theories was perhaps the earliest approach to career development, and emerged in direct response to the need to accurately match people too specific occupations, (Arulmani 2003). Brimrose (2005) notes that Parsons (1908), is regarded as the founder of the vocational guidance movement. He developed the 'talent matching' approach which was subsequently developed into the trait and factor theory of occupational choice within the evolving discipline of differential psychology. Parsons' core concept was that of 'matching'. He suggested that occupational choice occurs when people have achieved: first, an accurate understanding of their individual traits (e.g. personal abilities, aptitudes, interests, etc.); second, a knowledge of jobs and the labour market; and third, made a rational and objective judgment about the relationship between these two groups of facts. A key assumption is that it is possible to measure both individual talents and the attributes required in particular jobs, which can then be matched to achieve a 'good fit'.

It is when individuals are in jobs best suited to their abilities, they perform best and productivity is highest.

Two theorists within this broad academic tradition, Rodgers and Holland, have been particularly influential so far as guidance practice in the UK is concerned. Both Rodgers and Holland assumed that matching is at the centre of the process. Vocational choice is viewed essentially as rational and largely devoid of emotions. These choices were also regarded to be 'one-off' events, Brimrose (2005).

In 1952, Alec Rodger published his 'Seven Point Plan'. Originally devised for use in selection interviews, the plan was enthusiastically embraced by guidance trainers and practitioners as a useful model to inform practice. It consists of seven attributes: physical characteristics, attainments, general intelligence, specialized aptitudes, interests, disposition and circumstances. Application of this plan to guidance practice involves first, an evaluation of jobs against these seven attributes; second, assessment of an individual client against these seven attributes to ascertain the extent to which the client is a 'good fit'. Only when there is an acceptable match of the two sets of attributes can a recommendation be made by the guidance practitioner to the client that this is an area worth pursuing, Roger (1953).

This framework has been used in a number of ways in guidance practice. For example, to assess whether client aspirations for a particular job or career are realistic when reviewed against actual achievements or potential; to generate job ideas for a client who had few or no job ideas; and to analyze jobs, employment and training opportunities.

Working within the same philosophical tradition, Holland (1966) developed an occupational classification system that categorized personalities and environments into six model types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional. His ideas still fall broadly within the matching tradition established by Parsons (1908), since he proposed: first, that each of his six personality types are related to need and individuals can be categorized in one (or more) of these types; second, that work environments can also be classified in this way; third that vocational choice involves individuals searching for work environments that are congruent with their personality type.

Subsequent developments of his theory place more emphasis on the interaction of the individual with their environment and the influence of heredity Holland, (1985). Holland (1994) noted how he had 'been renovating the internal structure of [his] own theory

Holland, (1992) to give it more explanatory power'. He referred specifically to the way in which he had elaborated his typology to include life goals, values, self-beliefs and problem-solving styles, and how the developmental nature of types over the life-span is now incorporated Holland, (1994).

Osipow & Fitzgerald (1996) consider Holland's study of vocational selection and behaviour to be very comprehensive, within his theoretical framework. They verify how extensive investigations and modifications to the original ideas have been undertaken, yet the theory 'remained fundamentally unchanged' Osipow & Fitzgerald, (1996). On the 40th anniversary of Holland's first theoretical statement, the Journal of Vocational Behaviour documented the progression and development of his ideas. In the introduction to this festschrift, Savickas (1999) describes Holland's contribution as 'a surpassing achievement in vocational psychology'. Continuing this theme, Gottfredson (1999) describes how Holland's 'monumental research, theoretical, and practical contributions have irrevocably altered the manner in which career assistance is delivered around the world'. It seems unquestionable; therefore, that Holland's ideas have had, and continue to have, a major impact. Brimrose (2005)

Undoubtedly, trait and factor approaches to careers guidance have been enormously influential, since they were first developed up to the present day, Nisenholz (1990).

According to Brimrose (2005), the dominant influence of differential approaches on the practice of careers guidance in the UK can be explained, partly, by their practical appeal. They provide careers practitioners with a clear rationale and framework for practice. Their role is clearly defined as 'expert', with the specialist knowledge about the labour market as well as with the methods to assess individual suitability and capability for the labour market. Additionally, and importantly, the underlying philosophy of differential approaches have suited policy makers since they lend themselves to the servicing of labour market requirements. People perform best in the jobs for which they are best suited. Consequently, it has been embraced enthusiastically by policy makers and barely questioned by the majority of practitioners.

Conclusions from studies by Tracey and Darcy (2002), reported in Career development quarterly of 2003 found that students who categorized their interests according to Holland's model were more certain about their careers and exhibited less career indecision than were

students who did not use this model. The authors suggested that career counselors consider presenting information in ways that correspond with how clients organize information.

Congruence studies in 2002 showed several authors examining the relationship between personality and interests. Borges and Savickas reviewed the literature on personality and medical students' selection of medical specialty using the Five-Factor Model (FFM; Costa & McCrae, 1992) of personality. Their results showed that it was not possible to classify medical speciality areas according to a unique personality pattern. Although personality patterns did not emerge as predictors of a medical specialty, other research suggests that personality is predictive of interests at a more general level. Larson and Borgen examined relations between measures of vocational interest and personality in a sample of gifted adolescents. Results indicated that extraversion was related to Holland's (1985) Enterprising and Social interests, agreeableness was related to Social interests, and openness was related to both Artistic and Investigative interests. These findings were consistent with the results of a meta-analysis conducted by Larson, Rottinghaus, and Borgen that examined the correlations of Holland's six interest types to the FFM model of personality. Results indicated strong correlations between Artistic-openness, Enterprising-extraversion, Social-extraversion, Investigative-openness, and Social-agreeableness. The effect sizes for these correlations were substantial for both men and women across all interest measures used to assess Holland type.

The significant, continuing influence of differential approaches on the practice of careers guidance is acknowledged by Savickas (1997) who claims that: 'Parson's paradigm for guiding occupational choice remains to this day the most widely used approach to career counseling'. Krumboltz (1994) concurs, suggesting that most current practice is 'still governed by the three-part theory outlined by Frank Parsons (1909)'. However, he is critical of Holland's influence, attributing current problems with career counseling to the continuing influence of this approach. These problems include the low prestige of the profession, the lack of fit of careers counseling within a particular academic tradition and the absence of any significant input in educational reform, Krumboltz, (1994).

Increasingly, however, the theory is attracting criticism:

Mitchell and Krumboltz (1996) criticize its usefulness in current labour market conditions. Matching assumes a degree of stability in the labour market. The volatility of many occupational environments, together with the increased pressure on individuals to change and adapt to their circumstances makes: 'Trying to place an evolving person into the changing work environment is like trying to hit a butterfly with a boomerang'

Osipow & Fitzgerald (1996) also highlight the failure of the theory to address the issue of change in environments and individuals. Additionally, they draw attention to problems inherent with the theory's associated measures for gender, but regard the most serious limitation to be its failure to explain the process of personality development and its role in vocational selection, Osipow & Fitzgerald, (1996).

Scharf (1997) reminds us that there is little research supporting or refuting trait and factor theory itself as a viable theory of career development. Rather, the research that has been done, of which there is a large amount, has related traits and factors to one another or has established the validity and reliability of measurements of traits and factors.'

Although most of the work on the theory is still concerned with scale validation and relating traits to other individual differences such as personality facets, work values, leisure interests, and modes of thinking (see Armstrong and Anthony, 2009; Gaudron & Vautier, 2007; Sullivan and Hansen, 2004), some efforts are being undertaken to establish the implications of the theory. For instance, Rottinghaus, Hees & Conrath (2009) found support for the hypothesis that congruence between interests and work environment yield job satisfaction. An interesting finding is that, in many occupations, dissatisfied individual showed a higher position on the Artistic code. Probably, since there exist few artistic occupations, Artistic individuals may be more likely to compromise congruence in their work lives.

Research designed to evaluate Holland's theory for particular client groups also reveals weaknesses. Mobley and Slaney (1998) suggest that although extensive empirical and theoretical investigations have explored the use and relevance of Holland's theory, 'considerably less attention has been devoted to investigating the implications of the theory from a multicultural perspective'. For example, Leong et al. (1998) studied the cross-cultural validity of Holland's (1985) theory in India. Whilst its internal validity was found to be high, results regarding external validity were 'less than encouraging on several fronts'. Elosua (2007) affirmed that Holland's structure was not validated in the Basque population and Long and Tracey (2006) found a small fit in China. Leong et al. (1998) concluded that

their findings suggest that culture specific determinants of occupational choice should be studied as alternatives to the ‘Western assumption of vocational interests being the primary determinants’.

In their study of gender differences in Holland’s occupational interest types, Farmer et al. (1998) found limitations for the practical applications of the theory for women, concluding that ‘counselors may need to re-evaluate Holland et al.’s advice on consistency and job stability’. As well, Proyer and Häusler (2007) advise that the structural assumptions of Holland's theory fit men better than women.

Sexual orientation is an aspect of Holland’s theory that Mobley and Slaney (1998) consider overlooked. In particular, they suggest that the relationship between Holland’s concept of congruence and gay and lesbian development need to be carefully researched. Another relevant aspect neglected in Holland’s ideas is homophobic tendencies both in the workplace and society at large.

Despite weaknesses, it is likely that the theory will continue to inform practice. Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) suggest that Holland’s theory ‘will exert an influence on research in career choice for some time and begin to have a growing impact on counseling itself’. No viable alternative existed during the first half of this century, and it was not until the 1950’s and 1960’s that theories originating from different branches of psychology like developmental, behavioral and psychodynamic, together with other academic disciplines such as sociology meant that practitioners had other options.

The approach is relevant to the researchers’ area of study as in high schools there is need to identify the link between the pupils traits to occupations or directions that are suitable for them. It is essential for career guidance in high schools to include personality testing so that pupils know what options are available for their particular trait, and it also helps teachers and parents provide encouragement in the desired direction.

2.3.2 DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACHES

According to Brimrose (2003), the general principles underlying developmental approaches to careers guidance are that individual development is a continuous process, the

developmental process is irreversible, these processes can be differentiated into patterns called stages in the life span and that the result of normal development is increasing maturity. Eli Ginzberg et al. (1951) proposed three life stages which broadly corresponded with chronological age. First the fantasy stage which lasted up until eleven years old; second, the tentative stage, lasting from ages eleven to seventeen, with the three sub stages of interest, capacity and value; third, the realistic stage, which lasted from age seventeen onwards, with sub-stages of exploration, crystallization and specification.

Super (1957) thought Ginzberg's work had weaknesses, one of which was the failure to take into account the very significant existing body of information about educational and vocational development (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). Super (1957) and Super et al. (1961) extended Ginzberg's three life stages to five with slightly different sub-stages, arguing that occupational preferences and competencies, individual's life situations and hence their self-concepts all change with time and experience. He also developed the concept of vocational maturity, which may or may not correspond to chronological age. Super (1957) extended Ginzberg's three life stages to five, with slightly different sub-stages. He also developed the concept of vocational maturity, which may or may not correspond to chronological age. Super's five stages were: growth, which lasted from birth to fourteen; exploration lasting from age fifteen to twenty four with the sub stages of crystallization, specification and implementation; establishment from twenty five to forty four, with sub stages of stabilization, consolidation and advancing; maintenance from forty five to sixty four, with sub stages of holding, updating and innovating; finally the fifth stage of decline from age sixty five onwards, with sub stages decelerating, retirement planning and retirement living, Super (1990)

Super furthered his theory by developing the life-career rainbow (1980) representing a significant advance. It emphasized the importance the different roles that individuals played at different stages of their life (specifically child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, spouse, homemaker, parent, pensioner and the concept of life space (i.e. four major life theatres: home, community, education, work). Super used the concept of 'roles' to describe the many aspects of careers throughout an individual's lifespan. Some key ideas include: the number of roles an individual plays will vary; all roles are not 'played' by everyone; each role has differing importance at different times for individuals (e.g student); and success in one role tends to facilitate success in others (& vice versa), Brimrose (2003).

The development of his ideas about self-concept and vocational adjustment resulted in a redefinition of vocational guidance as: “the process of helping a person to develop an integrated and adequate picture of himself and of his role in the world of work, to test this concept against reality and to convert it into a reality, with satisfaction to himself and benefits to society” Super, (1988)

Criticism of the developmental theory by Brown (1990) note that the phenomenological, developmental and differential influences on the expansion and refinement of Super’s thinking, suggest that it was because of these disparate influences that Super failed to integrate strands into a cohesive statement Brown, (1990). Super acknowledged that a weakness of his theory was its fragmented nature, anticipating its future development:

This fragmentation was identified as the most serious criticism of the theory, Super et al., (1996) in a chapter published after Super’s death in 1994: ‘Its propositions are really a series of summarizing statements that, although closely related to data, lack a fixed logical form that could make new contributions of their own’, Super et al., (1996).

Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) considered the original version of the theory as too general to be of much practical use, with its conceptual value being limited by its sweeping style. Though this weakness had been addressed by subsequent refinements, they argued that a particular weakness was the failure of the theory to integrate economic and social factors that influence career decisions.

Similar criticism were offered by Scharf (1997) and Brown (1990), who proposed that Super’s theory did not adequately address the particular challenges that women and ethnic groups in his career theory Brown, (1990), & Scharf, (1997).

Brown (1990) also specifically criticizes the theory for its failure to account adequately for the career development of persons from lower socio-economic groups Brown, (1990).

Linked with these criticisms is an important concern identified by Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) that ‘in recent years relatively few new empirical tests of the theory have been conducted’.

Despite weaknesses, Brown (1990) suggests that Super’s theory ‘occupies stage centre, along with Holland’s thinking. There seems to be no reason to doubt that it will continue to be of considerable importance in the future.

Studies conducted in 2002 by Savickas, Briddick, and Watkins focusing on the concepts of career maturity and vocational identity based on Super's (1990) theory, reported that career maturity related to social adjustment, general psychosocial competence, self-realization, and ego integration. Hargrove, Creagh, and Burgess found that orientation toward achievement in the family of origin predicted vocational identity. Suggestions from these outcomes were that career counselors may want to highlight personality and family variables because these may influence career outcomes. Moreover, exploring a client's perceptions of family relationships and values may be warranted, particularly if a client is having difficulty attaining career milestones. Flores et al (2003)

According to Career Development Quarterly, December (2003), an important aspect of developmental theories is the salience that an individual attributes to various life roles. In his conceptual article, Hartung (2002) indicated that individuals might benefit from finding ways to integrate both work and play in their lives. He explained that a work-play framework that focuses on the adaptive, self-enhancing potential of play in work and human development may contribute to an enhanced conceptualization of careers.

Results of studies suggest that career counselors help clients to clarify the importance that they attach to various school, work and family roles and to reflect on the meanings and implications of their beliefs. Career counselors can help their clients understand what non-work roles mean to them as they plan their careers and can help them coordinate multiple life roles to meet social and cultural expectations. Moreover, career practitioners should consider the family of origin as a crucial factor in the level of importance an individual may give to various life roles related to the home.

Solberg, Howard, Blustein, & Close (2002) applied a developmental and contextual approach in developing a school-to-work-to-life model of career development and described two career intervention programs for urban youth that were based on this framework. These programs included interventions to promote success in life as well as work and focused on affecting youths through systemic changes. A study by Blustein et al (2002). focused on the role of social class in the career development of a group of young women who were employed in working-class jobs. Results suggested that young women from higher social classes perceived work to be related to their sense of personal satisfaction and meaning, whereas young women from lower social classes viewed work primarily as a means for

economic survival. Young women from higher social classes applied their interests and goals to their work more than did their lower social class counterparts. Social class was also linked to how the young women perceived their educational opportunities and external resources. In another study addressing work-bound adolescents, Phillips, Blustein, Jobin-Davis, & Whote (2001) used qualitative techniques to explore the psychosocial antecedents of adaptive transitions after high school and to characterize the transition from high school to work. Results indicated that developing an orientation to the adult world and having the active support of adults prepared students for an effective transition after high school.

These studies challenge career counselors to move from the traditional practice of intervening solely on the individual level to focusing on other levels of the system in order to promote change and to understand adolescents' transition from school to work. Specifically, the findings suggest that school counselors should encourage work-based learning activities, facilitate an adult world orientation, and pay attention to support from adults when helping students prepare for the transition to work. Results of these studies highlight the importance of career practitioners attending to the complex nature of the meaning of work in career counseling for youths who come from diverse backgrounds and who have a range of career goals. Yakusho et al (2003).

Despite the sharp criticism, the developmental approach remains very relevant, more so to the researchers area of study as it affects children that area at a school going age especially the fantasy and tentative stage. It therefore bears a lot of relevance as the career guidance programs being evaluated in the research are supposed to encourage or help pupils to prepare for transition to higher education and work.

2.3.3 THE SOCIAL LEARNING /SOCIAL COGNITIVE APPROACH

This approach states that people acquire their preferences through a variety of learning experiences; beliefs about themselves and the nature of their world emerge through direct and indirect education experiences. They take action on the basis of their beliefs using learned skills.

The original theory by Krumboltz et al, (1976), Mitchell & Krumboltz, (1990), known as the social learning theory of career decision making (SLTCDM), has recently been developed

into the learning theory of careers counseling (LTCC) (Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1996). The more recent version attempts to integrate practical ideas, research and procedures to provide a theory that goes beyond an explanation of why people pursue various jobs: 'While the two theories were published at different times, they can be regarded as one theory with two parts. Part one (SLTCDM) explains the origins of career choice and part two (LTCC) explains what career counselors can do about many career related problems' (Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1996). Most recently, Krumboltz has been developing and integrating ideas about the role of chance (happenstance) in career decision making. Summaries of these theory developments are given below.

At the heart of Krumboltz's thinking is Bandura's Social Learning Theory (SLT). Bandura identified three major types of learning experiences which are Instrumental: where results from direct experience when an individual is positively reinforced or punished for some behavior and its associated cognitive skills, Associative: results from direct experience together with reinforcement when an individual associates some previously affectively neutral event or stimulus with an emotionally laden stimulus, and Vicarious: when individuals learn new behaviors and skills by observing the behaviors of others or by gaining new information and ideas through media such as books, films and television.

Social learning theory of career decision-making (SLTCDM) focuses on teaching clients career decision-making alternatives and makes use of the concept of the 'triadic reciprocal interaction' (learning as the interaction with environment and genetic endowment) and emphasizes the role of instrumental & associative learning. Consequently, key concepts/tools for the practitioner are reinforcement and modeling. The application of this theory to practice involves the practitioner attempting to identify and correct any incorrect beliefs held by the client about the decision making process. It was developed to address the questions: Why people enter particular educational course or jobs; why they may change direction during their lives; why they may express various preferences for different activities at different points in their lives.

The following are identified as influential in these processes:

- Genetic Endowment and Special Abilities - race, gender, physical appearance & characteristics. Individuals differ both in their ability to benefit from learning experiences and to get access to different learning experiences because of these types of inherited qualities.

- Environmental Conditions and Events - social, cultural & political, economic forces, natural forces & natural resources. These are generally outside the control of any one individual. Their influence can be planned or unplanned.
- Learning Experiences - Each individual has a unique history of learning experiences that result in their occupational choice. They often don't remember the specific character or sequence of these learning experiences, but rather they remember general conclusions from them (e.g. I love animals/working with children). The two main types of learning experiences identified in the theory are:

Instrumental learning experience, which consists of preceding circumstances/stimulus; behavioral responses (overt & covert) and consequences, and associative learning experience, where individuals perceive a relationship between two (or more) sets of stimuli in the environment (e.g. observation, reading or hearing about occupations). This can result in occupational stereotypes.

- Task Approach Skills - Interactions among learning experiences, genetic characterizes, and environmental influences result in the development of task approach skills. These include: personal standards of performance; work habits and emotional responses.

Previously learned task approach skills that are applied to a new task or problem both affect the outcome of that task or problem and may themselves be modified.

As a result of the complex interaction of these four types of influencing factors (i.e. genetic endowment, environment, learning and task approach skills), people form generalizations (beliefs) which represent their own reality. These beliefs about themselves and the world of work influence their approach to learning new skills and ultimately affect their aspirations and actions. The SLTCDM refers to people's beliefs about themselves as either: Self-Observation Generalizations: An overt or covert statement evaluating ones own performance or assessing one's own interests and values. Involves a constant assessment of our own performance; or World-View Generalizations: observations about our environment which is used to predict what will occur in the future and in other environments (e.g. the caring professions).

Krumboltz (1990) proposes a seven stage career decision-making model (DECIDES): which are:

Define the problem: recognizing the decision; **Establish the action plan:** refining the decision; **Clarify the values:** examining (self-observations & world-view generalizations);

Identify alternatives and generating alternatives; Discover probable outcomes: gathering information; **Eliminate alternatives:** assessing information; **Start action:** planning & executing this 6 step sequence of decision-making behaviors.

The use of these task approach skills of career decision making depends on relevant learning. The most effective career development requires individuals to be exposed to the widest possible range of learning experiences, regardless of race, gender, etc.

Studies on Self-efficacy in the Social Cognitive Career Theory's (SCCT); Lent, Brown, & Hackett's, (1994) theoretical framework, show that, self-efficacy is postulated to directly influence the development of career interests. Using a longitudinal design, Nauta, Kahn, Angell, & Cantarelli (2002) reported that the relationship between self-efficacy and interests is bidirectional, with both influencing the other. Rottinghaus, Lindley, Green & Borgen (2001), found that self-efficacy, personality, interests, and the learning environment subscale of the Strong Interest Inventory (SII); Harmon, Hansen, Borgen, & Hammer, (1994) predicted educational aspirations among college students. DeWitz & Walsh reported that college self-efficacy contributed to college students' satisfaction but that social self-efficacy and general self-efficacy were not predictive of satisfaction.

These findings suggest that career practitioners can assess self-efficacy, interests, and personality jointly to better understand clients' career development. Career counselors may consider interventions to increase students' self-efficacy regarding college, particularly among students who report dissatisfaction with college or among students who might be at risk for dropping out. Finally, career counselors might consider interventions to increase self-efficacy and interests in educational and career domains, because both serve as predictors and outcomes to one another, Spencer et al (2003)

The subject areas that have been examined most often using social cognitive variables are mathematics and science. Fouad, Smith, and Zao (2002) tested the relationships among self-efficacy, outcome expectations, interests, and goals in the academic domains of art, social science, and English and determined that the theoretical model was consistent across subject areas. Fouad et al (2002) indicated that some path coefficients may be different across domains and suggested that interventions for careers in some domains may be unique to that academic domain.

In assessing environmental variables, a report by Career development quarterly (2003) highlighted three noteworthy studies which used qualitative approaches to explore the roles of supports and barriers in career development. Olenchak and Hebert (2001) examined the academic achievement of two male college students, a Vietnamese American and an African American, who were the first in their families to attend college. Family and educational background, cultural influences, university peer relationships, and the university academic experience emerged as factors related to these students' academic success. In another study, Lent et al. (2002) explored college students' perceived career supports and barriers. Contextual barriers that were identified included financial concerns and negative family influences. Personal barriers included personal problems not related to ability and ability considerations. Receiving support or encouragement from various social sources was commonly identified as a contextual support, and personal strengths and goal setting were identified as personal support variables. Jackson and Nutini presented a conceptual model for assessing resources and barriers to learning with culturally diverse youths on the basis of the following themes suggested by the data: contextual barriers and resources and psychological barriers and resources. Finally, Schultheiss, Palma, Predragovich, & Glasscock (2002) assessed perceptions of how sibling relationships influenced college students' career exploration and career decision making. Overall, emotional support, social integration, confidence in abilities and encouragement to make decisions, and support by providing additional career information were areas identified as the ways that students' most important sibling was influential in their career development. Sibling relationships were most important when students were making career decisions and transitions.

Studies to examine the role that contextual or environmental variables play in the career development process of adolescents using an ethnically diverse sample of middle school students led Turner and Lapan (2002) to finding that parental support and career self-efficacy were related across all six Holland themes, but parental support was not predictive of career interests. In addition, Flores and O'Brien (2002) in their study, examined the influence of contextual and social cognitive variables on Mexican American adolescent women's career goals. Acculturation and self-efficacy for nontraditional careers for women were the strongest predictors of career choice prestige and career choice traditionality; feminist attitudes and parental support were the strongest predictors of high career aspirations. Contrary to SCCT, nontraditional career interests did not contribute to any of

the outcome variables, and the contextual variables did not predict nontraditional career self-efficacy. Logan et al (2003)

In two separate studies conducted in 2002, Trusty investigated the relationship of various contextual factors to high school students' educational goals. In one study, Trusty (a) found that parental expectations, social class, involvement in high school, parental involvement in school, and high school behavior predicted African American adolescents' educational expectations. In the second study, Trusty (b) reported that social class did not affect choice of mathematics or science majors for either men or women. The relationship between course-taking and the selection of mathematics or science majors was stronger for women than for men. Math aptitude in eighth grade indirectly influenced the choice of science or mathematics majors among women, whereas taking high school physics influenced the selection of science or mathematics majors among men, *Career Development Quarterly* (2003).

Relevance of this approach to career guidance and even more to the research lies in that guidance counselors who work with adolescents may use the results from these studies to examine the influences in these students' lives that can help them to develop their long-term career and educational goals. For example, encouraging students to obtain strong foundations in mathematics and science and to seek advanced courses in high school is important if guidance counselors want to increase the number of students entering mathematics and science careers. This may be especially critical for students from underrepresented groups, including women and members of diverse cultural groups. Moreover, the results of these various researches for this approach implied that parents can significantly affect young adolescents' career development, and school counselors should be encouraged to work with parents to promote their child's career self-efficacy. In summary, career counselors should consider the contextual and cultural factors that are related to educational and career outcomes of adolescents, McCloskey et al (2002).

2.4 OTHER STUDIES IN CAREER GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

2.4.1 College Readiness begins in Middle School

George Wimberely & Noeth (2005) carried out a study on College Readiness beginning in Middle School. In their research report they say that high school is an important time for early postsecondary planning, and many educational organizations and the U.S. Department of Education recommend that students begin planning for college as early as sixth grade. Their report indicates that schools can play a key role in guiding early preparation for postsecondary education through fostering academic preparation and achievement, supporting parent involvement, providing college and career planning information, and helping students through the many steps in postsecondary planning. The purpose of the study was to: Examine the extent of early exploration and planning in certain college readiness areas (i.e., setting educational goals, selecting classes, exploring postsecondary options, and considering ways to meet college costs) Explore how parents, school staff, and school experiences help students with their early educational planning.

This study reports findings from a survey and focus group discussions with middle and early high school students that demonstrate how people and school-based factors (i.e., classes, extracurricular activities, and pre-college programs) helped shape students' educational and postsecondary planning. Students in this study were from 15 schools in 6 school districts (Chicago; Charleston, West Virginia; Denver; Los Angeles; New Orleans; and Oklahoma City)—a broad array of urban and suburban schools with students from diverse social and economic backgrounds. The researchers study was carried out in 10 schools in Harare urban with a representation of private schools, government schools and private colleges. Results showed that although most students planned to pursue postsecondary education, fewer described their high school program of study as college preparatory. Furthermore, among the students who aspired to attend a two- or four-year college, only two-thirds described their high school program as college preparatory. These findings suggest that there may be a misalignment between postsecondary plans and high school program of study.

The study results showed that many middle and early high school students are failing to take a college preparatory curriculum that is designed to help them develop the skills necessary for college and for their intended careers. Virtually all students surveyed indicated that their mother or female guardian was very helpful (67%) or a little help (25%) in their high school class selection. Fewer students indicated that their father or male guardian was helpful. Most

students (86%) indicated that their teachers were either very helpful or a little help in selecting their classes.

In the focus group discussions, students revealed that teachers often provided them with information and guidance about classes and how their classes are connected to their postsecondary options and other factors. Over two-thirds of tenth graders reported that their high school counselor helped them select their high school courses. These students reported that their counselors were very helpful (32%) or a little help (41%) in selecting their high school classes and high school program of study. This compares to just over half of eighth- and ninth-grade students. Students in this study used information from standardized assessments—EXPLORE® or PLAN®—as part of their educational planning. Most students (70%) indicated that this information helped them as they selected their high school classes. Many students reported that their teachers and/or counselors explained how their assessment results reflected their academic strengths and identified areas needing improvement. Most students have considered their options beyond high school. Seventy-eight percent of middle and early high school students indicated that they have begun to think about and explore the types of education, training, and work that they might pursue after high school. Unfortunately, a sizable proportion of students (22%) had yet to think about and explore the types of education, training, and work they might pursue after high school. Over 70% of students indicated that their families had begun to consider ways to pay for the costs of postsecondary education and training after high school.

The study above shows the importance of career planning at high school level for post secondary education. There is a lot that the current career guidance system can adopt to improve the state of career guidance programs, that is by adopting a formalized structure of providing career guidance and preparing pupils for their future career paths. However challenges that can be faced in interpretation of results are that the study was carried out in a first world country, where there has been a lot investment and research in the field of careers and the economy is stable and a clear definition of career clusters and the labor is stable and tertiary education is advanced.

2.4.2 Career Guidance in Australia

A study by the OECD in 2002 to review career guidance policies in Australia showed that Schooling in Australia is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 15. Secondary school starts at Year 7 (age 11) or Year 8 (age 12) depending on the state. Most government secondary schools are comprehensive. Around 30% of school pupils are enrolled in Catholic or other non-government schools; these receive substantial government funding, and although they have a large degree of operational autonomy, most are broadly similar to government schools in terms of their structure and curriculum. Subject options are usually offered from Year 9; in post-compulsory senior secondary education (Years 11 and 12) there tends to be a stronger division into a range of specialized tertiary entrance programs and more vocationally-oriented study programs, including the new VET pathways. Career Guidance programs tend to be significantly concentrated around these key decision points and around exit from school. In Zimbabwe high school starts at form 1 (age 12-13) which is slightly different from the Australian system. What is important to note and adopt though is the stage at which counseling is introduced, which is very early in high school.

The study showed that State policies regarding the structure of guidance services in schools vary considerably and in general are weak. In practice, most decisions related to the provision of these services are taken at the individual school level. With a few exceptions, schools have considerable flexibility in the way they allocate resources and deliver services within the general government funding allocated to them. This is even more the case in non-government schools. The system and approach to career guidance and curriculum is similar to that used in Zimbabwe.

The differences between states were particularly evident in two respects. The first is the structure of the key guidance roles within schools. New South Wales had the most strongly professionalized structure, with formal provision being made for a staffing allocation of a full-time-equivalent careers adviser in each secondary school; these advisers are required to have a teaching qualification and either a postgraduate careers qualification or to have been on a state-organized training course. They are complemented by school counselors: registered psychologists who usually work across two or three schools, focusing on learning problems and personal welfare issues.

In Queensland, by contrast, these two roles are effectively combined in the form of guidance officers, who cover both career guidance and personal/welfare counseling; they have postgraduate Masters-level qualifications in educational psychology, but their training does not necessarily include any significant attention to career guidance, the ratio of guidance officers to pupils is around 1:1,200, and only about a third of their time is spent on careers work. McCowan et al (2001). The research report showed that In Western Australia, there is no state policy regarding the structure of career guidance provision: schools make their own decisions.

The second major difference is in the structure of career education within the curriculum. Its location in state curriculum frameworks varies. In some cases, it is located within personal development, health and physical education syllabuses. In others, it is located within social studies. In yet others, it is integrated into a number of subjects across the curriculum. Sometimes it is designed to start in Year 9, sometimes in Year 7, sometimes earlier still. Career education is also included in certificated courses in work education and the like which are taken by some students but not by others.

The report showed that it was a common pattern for most students to have a one-week, work-experience placement for career exploration purposes in Year 10. Students undertaking vocational pathways then often had a structured work placement related to this pathway in Years 11-12. Co-ordinated support for the structured work placements was commonly provided by school-industry partnerships supported by the Commonwealth-funded Enterprise and Career Education Foundation (ECEP) (formerly the Australian Student Traineeship Foundation). For the more exploratory work-experience placements schools generally have to rely on their own resources, and many expect most students to find their own placements: this carried the risk that pupils tended to choose options related to their social background and that some will have more options at their disposal than others.

These provisions are usually supported by a variety of other activities, including careers exhibitions, careers visits, university/TAFE open days, guest speakers, information seminars, careers libraries and the like. Opportunities for one-to-one careers interviews seem

to vary considerably, depending on the availability within the school of staff with the time and relevant expertise.

There is also concern about the lack of accountability in relation to the quality of schools' careers programs. While the review team saw some excellent programs during its visits, it was told of other schools where such programs were limited and of poor quality. In the community consultations conducted by the Prime Minister's Youth Pathways Action Plan Taskforce, career information and guidance within schools came in for considerable criticism. Key elements of strong programs appear to include active support from the school principal plus the presence on the school staff of at least one well-respected career guidance specialist with appropriate training and expertise. Where these are not present, there seem to be few levers to ensure that students receive at least some minimal level of service.

There are a lot of similarities in some of the components of these programs with the Zimbabwean career guidance programs, such as career days, guest speakers and information giving seminars. Similarities also exist in the lack of accountability in relation to the quality of schools' careers programs, as the government has not fully put in place policy that regulates careers programs nationally. However lessons can be taken from this system as it shows that there is a high level of seriousness in terms of the desire to provide careers programs in high school, which is a good starting point.

2.4.3 Career Guidance in Singapore

Tan Esther (2001) in a report on career guidance in Singapore identifies the development of career guidance in schools as having went through three stages, spanning three decades. In the first stage, lasting almost two decades from the mid-1960s to the mid-1980s, she identifies the main focus of career guidance being on information-giving. The second stage from the late 1980s saw the introduction of the curriculum stage when career education became part and parcel of the regular school curriculum. The third stage, from 1996 to the present, was characterized by the integration of technology into career guidance, the emergence of professional training for career counsellors, and the development of indigenous resource materials.

First Stage: Information-Giving (1965-1986)

In her study report she says, the development of career guidance was influenced by the evolution of the education system, which went through several reform movements after the country gained independence in 1965. In the early years of nation building in the 1960s and 1970s, the education system was "survival-driven" and the focus of education policy was on educating the masses and raising the standard of literacy. Thus, much effort was spent on fostering social cohesion, developing a national identity, and emphasizing technical education to support economic growth. Because the ultimate goal was "survival," the urgent task was to create jobs to support the economy and train workers to fill these posts. This explained why vocational training was given top priority while the main concern in career guidance in schools was information-giving to familiarize the students with the world of work. Although the Ministry of Education had a "Career Guidance Unit" staffed with career guidance officers, its primary function was to provide occupational information booklets as resource materials for the schools. All the secondary schools were asked to appoint a career teacher whose main responsibility was to make regular visits to the Guidance Unit at the Ministry to collect these career information booklets. Back at the schools, these booklets were placed on the library shelves for display as resource materials for the students.

The information-giving approach was based on three assumptions: (a) that the students were motivated to use the materials provided, (b) that they knew beforehand what kind of information to look for, and (c) that they knew how to use the information once they had located it. According to the report, it was then discovered that information giving was inadequate. The observation that mere information-giving was inadequate was also confirmed by two research studies that were conducted in the early 1980s to determine the need for career guidance in schools. In 1984, a survey of 970 final-year students from 30 randomly selected high schools across the island state revealed that as many as 95% of the students had not had any forms of career guidance before leaving school. More than 60% of the students in the sample expressed a desire for some kind of career guidance Khor,(1987). In a related study, interviews conducted with company personnel from leading industries disclosed that many young job seekers were ignorant of occupational information, had little career direction, and lacked job-seeking skills (Sim, 1985). These findings helped to raise public awareness of the lack of as well as the need for career guidance in schools.

Second Stage: The Curriculum Approach (1987-1995)

The report states that In December 1986, the then-Minister of Education Tony Tan made a public announcement after he returned from a study tour in the United States and the United Kingdom to share his observations and conclusions. It was his opinion that although Singapore schools had been quite successful in preparing students for academic excellence, the affective aspect of education, such as student counseling and career guidance, was lacking in schools, Tan (2001). The study teams report stressed the need for career guidance in schools. Soon after the release of the report, the Pastoral Care and Career Guidance Branch was set up at the Ministry of Education to devote its efforts to the planning and implementation of guidance programs in schools. From 1988 to 1993, career guidance initiatives were introduced to secondary schools as a complete personal and social education program, also known as the Pastoral Care and Career Guidance program (PCCG). This program was implemented in six phases: 17 pilot schools in 1988, 12 schools in 1989, 19 schools in 1990, 6 schools in 1991, and 20 schools in 1992. By 1993, all of the remaining 150 secondary schools were phased in. Officially, career guidance had reached all the secondary schools in the country.

Third Stage 1996 to Present: Integration of Technology into Career Guidance

The third stage, from 1996 to the present, is characterized by the integration of technology into career guidance, the emergence of professional training for career counselors, and the development of indigenous resource materials.

In Zimbabwe the development of education from 1980 to the present has seen the country achieve one of the highest levels of literacy in Africa, Kapungu (2007), but very little has been done in terms of career guidance education for high schools. The task of career guidance is often left to schools to choose what kind of program they want to have. This at times leads to very poor programs as there are not enough trained career counselors and there has not been much investment in research development in proper career guidance programs for high school pupils.

The strides made by Singapore in terms of career guidance policy and implementation present a model for which Zimbabwe can emulate and come up with effective career guidance policies and programs. The relevance to the researchers' scope is showing how

structured and well organized programs can impact positively to the recipients of these programs.

2.5 CONCLUSION

Approaches to Career guidance & counseling were given in this chapter. Researches supporting these approaches on a global scale were discussed, and studies of other career guidance programs in other countries were highlighted. The chapter also showed the discrepancy between various authorities and the researchers observations.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter sets out the research methodology that the researcher has employed for this particular study. It specifically emphasizes the study design, methods of data collection and analysis together with the problems of the research strategy and the ethical considerations. This chapter also deals with research instruments, data presentation, population and sampling procedures.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is defined by Oppenheim (1966) as the basic plan or strategy of the research, and the logic behind it, which will make it possible and valid to draw more general conclusions from it. The research design consists of a qualitative, explorative, descriptive and contextual design (Creswell, 1994: 145). In this case the research design is concerned with making the concerned problem researchable by setting up this study in a way that will produce specific answers to specific questions. The researcher chose to use the descriptive survey method as the research design.

3.1.2 The Descriptive Survey Method

This is described by Bailey (2003) as a method, whereby a sample of respondents are asked questions either through questionnaire or an interview. The data obtained from the survey is then interpreted and used by the researcher to describe trends within a certain area and conclusions reached from these findings. Heppner et al (1992; 194) state that ‘both qualitative and quantitative research designs are descriptive designs because they enable the researcher to describe the occurrence of variables, the underlying dimensions in a set of variables, or the relationship between or among variables’. The research is going to take the form of an analytic cross sectional study using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative method is going to bring out data on peoples experiences, their feelings and emotions using flexible language, guided by McLeods (1974) description of this method as

being a process of systematic enquiry into the meanings which people employ to make sense of their experiences and guide their actions.

3.2 TARGET POPULATION

According to Oppenheim (1966), the term target population is used to denote all those who fall into a category of concern. This research is targeted at high schools in Harare urban. The results of the researcher's study were used for generalization of career guidance programs in high schools.

3.3 POPULATION SAMPLE

Oppenheim (1966) asserts that the term population sample is used to indicate a smaller group, which is usually a true representative of the total characteristics of the population. The researcher chose to work with a sample of one hundred (100) pupils from ten (10) schools in Harare urban, meaning that there would be ten (10) pupils per school participating in the research. From the participating schools a total of five (5) O level pupils and five (5) A level pupils will participate in the research.

3.3.1 Sampling Procedure

According to Oppenheim (1966), in order to state the relationships between a sample and its parent population, we must be able to describe them in terms of characteristics which are common to both. An example is that in many researches, certain demographic characteristics, such as the distribution of age, sex and marital status, are used to describe both population and sample in order to show success or accuracy of a sampling operation. The researcher is going to pick the high schools in Harare Urban based on their classifications which are Private Schools, Government Schools and Private colleges, which are registered under the ministry of education, sports, art and culture and are in the Harare province of the Ministry.

The researcher will approach any of the schools that fall within the categories stated above and research will be conducted in schools where permission has been granted.

The researcher upon being granted permission to conduct the research then interviewed the member of staff responsible for career guidance to establish the status of career guidance at

the school. Upon conclusion the researcher requested for 10 students who would fill in the research questionnaire. The ten pupils would be selected randomly from the form four and form six classes and the questionnaire administered to them.

3.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The researcher utilized mainly two types of instruments, namely the interview and the questionnaire in carrying his research on the career guidance programs being given to high school students in Harare urban.

3.4.1 The Questionnaire

Oppenheim (2000) defines a questionnaire as an important instrument of research, a tool for data collection whose function is measurement. Haralambos & Holborn (1990) state that, “a questionnaire consists simply of a list of preset questions in questionnaire research.” A researcher draws up a set of questions that can be answered in several different ways. The same questions are usually given to respondents in the same order so that the same information can be collected from every member of the sample. Both closed and open-ended questions can be used in a questionnaire. Open-ended questions allow respondents to compose their own answers whereas closed-ended questions provide responses, which can be more easily classified and quantified. Questionnaires are used to produce both qualitative and quantitative data.

The central advantage of questionnaires is that they allow for the collection of information from a large number of individuals over a short period of time, thus it is a relatively cheap way of collecting data. They also contribute to reliability by promoting greater consistency. A drawback likely to be encountered in this research due to the use of this instrument is that the respondents might give false information if they perceive that their situation might be embarrassing. The unwillingness or inability of respondents to give full and accurate replies to questionnaires as well as the distance maintained between the researcher and the subject may reduce the validity of data.

3.4.2 Interviews

Neuman (2000) asserts that “the interview is a direct method of obtaining information in a face to face situation.” An interview consists of a series of questions a researcher addresses personally to respondents. An interview may be structured, which is where the researcher asks clearly defined questions) or unstructured which is where questioning is led by the responses of the interviewee).

Though time consuming, the interview gives a full and detailed purpose explanation of the purpose of the study to the respondent and to ensure that the respondent fully understands what is required of him or her. It is possible to produce statistical data with some coding of responses, and it is also easy to replicate the research and check results. With interviews, clarification of information is obtained. In this particular instance, the researcher will be able to get background information on the type of career guidance program that the school has so that it can be used in comparison with information gathered from the pupils questionnaires.

Besides their being time consuming, Interviews may distort information through selective perceptions and desire to please the interviewer or maintain the integrity and credibility of the present system.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Data was gathered by means of structured phenomenological interviews with staff responsible for guidance and counseling in the chosen schools and through the distribution of questionnaires to pupils in the same. The researcher then collected the questionnaires for data capture and processing after completion by respondents. The hand distribution and collection procedure had an assurance that the researcher was able to talk to the guidance and counseling facilitators and leave the questionnaires in their care. The aim of these methods is to investigate and describe the phenomenon as experienced by the participants. The researcher was not always present when the questionnaires were distributed and completed but instructions were clearly stated. Ten questionnaires were distributed per school and this was also supported by an interview with the guidance facilitator. Upon

completion and an agreed date of collection the researcher collected the questionnaires for capture and processing.

3.6 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The researcher used descriptive statistics and tables on which responses will be scored in numbers and corresponding percentages. The use of cross tabs, graphs, and charts were used to help interpret the research findings. The researcher preferred the descriptive statistics because it is relatively simple such that frequency could be transformed into percentages.

3.7 CONCLUSION

The thrust of this chapter was to highlight the way in which the researcher carried out the research. The chapter described the research design, the research instruments and their advantages and disadvantages. Population, sampling procedures, data collection and data analysis procedures were also discussed. The following chapter will discuss in detail the findings of the research.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims at presenting and analyzing gathered research data, which highlights the study's findings. Cross tabs, charts, graphs and descriptive statistics will be used to present these findings. All of the data was based on responses from all the participants of the study.

4.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

The study aimed to capture the characteristics of the population sample. For the Questionnaire this included, the name of the school, the gender of the respondents, the years that respondents have been at the school, their academic level and if the respondents have repeated any level in their academic history. For the interviews with the career guidance facilitator's demographic data collected included their position within the institution, their level of interaction with pupils at the school and what qualifications they have to assist students with career guidance education.

4.3 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

4.3.1 Name of school being attended

The research was carried out in ten schools in Harare urban. The schools included 3 Private schools, 4 colleges, and 3 government schools.

4.3.2 Sex of Respondents

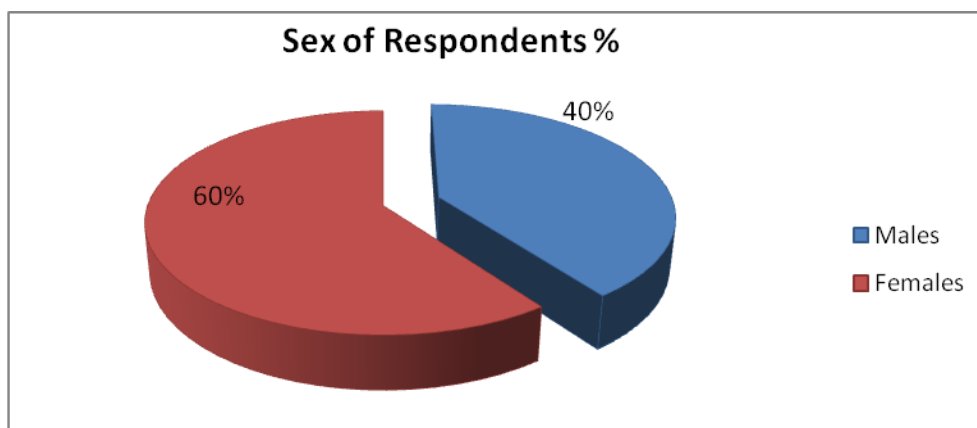


Figure I – Sex of respondents

The research questionnaires were randomly distributed among pupils in the selected schools. A total of 100 questionnaires were distributed and figure I shows that 60 percent of the respondents were females and 40 percent were males. The researcher assumes that the gender imbalance in respondents may be explained by the notion that females are generally more willing to participate in such activities than males who may often feel that such activities are not to be taken seriously and it is a joke to participate in such researches. However, this imbalance does not affect the research results on the phenomena studied.

4.3.3 Number of years spent at the School

Participants of the study were taken from form (4) and form six (6) classes as the researcher felt that the outcomes of career guidance education and interventions were more likely to be observed at these levels. The number of years spent at the school in the presence of a career guidance program would affect the outcome of career knowledge and planning skills in the pupils. Figure II a and b show the number of years spent at the particular schools by the Form 4 and Form 6 respondents respectively.

Fig IIa) Form 4 respondents

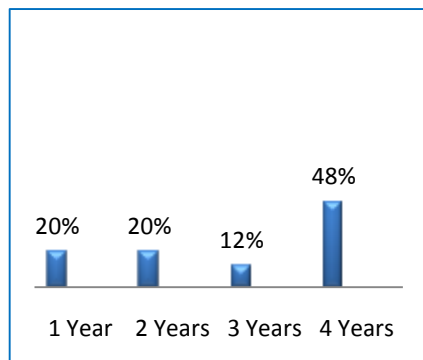


Fig IIb) Form 6 respondents

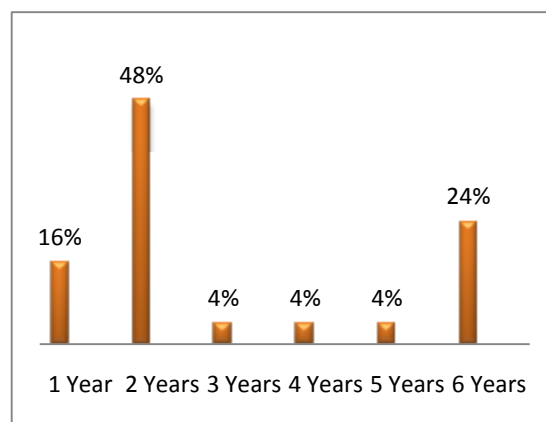


Figure II – Number of Years Spent at the School

The research data shows that a combined total of 80% of form 4 students had spent more than 2 years at their school which, in the presence of a career guidance program is enough time to receive effective career guidance. Data from form 6 respondents shows that a combined total of 84% of respondents had spent 2 years or more at their current school and

hence in the presence of a program, the researcher assumes that there should be results or outcomes of career interventions given to pupils during their stay at the school. From the Interviews all the respondents who were the career guidance facilitators stated that they interacted with pupils a lot. Responses included spending some dedicated time in the school curricula interacting with pupils. Interactions highlighted included academic lessons, individual career counseling, social and academic counseling. Respondents only stated that they spent a lot of time with the pupils and some of the respondents said they did so to a great extent but without further probing the respondents did not elaborate a lot on their meaning of to a great extent. The researcher in such instances and after determining their stance, was in a position to assume that their positions allowed them a considerable amount of time to interact with pupils. As highlighted earlier, the number of years spent at these institutions by the pupils and the level of interaction by the facilitators, is expected to yield considerable career guidance results at these stages.

4.3.4 Academic Level

Pupils who participated in this research were 100 in total, with 50 respondents being O' Levels pupils, i.e. Form 4 pupils and the other 50 being A' Level pupils who were in Form 6, thus representing an equal 50% percent from each level of participants. This was done to get an equal sample of respondents from both levels so that the outcomes of career interventions could be measured effectively and without bias.

4.3.5 Academic history of participants

The research sought to find if any of the pupils had repeated any level in their academic history. The researcher assumed that knowledge of career education and planning skills were more likely to be better in repeating students than those who had not. The research revealed that a total of 13 participants had repeated various levels in their academic history, which represents 13% of the total number of participants and the remaining 87% not having repeated any level in their academic history. Table I shows the breakdown of the levels repeated by the respondents.

Table I – Academic History (Levels Repeated)

No of Participants	Level Repeated
12	Form 4
1	Form 6
Total respondents repeated 13	

4.4 Career Guidance Participants Responses

The main part of the questionnaire consisted of a total of 12 questions that aimed to gather data on participants understanding of career planning and determine the outcomes of career guidance programs in place at the selected schools.

4.4.1 Participants Understanding of Career Planning

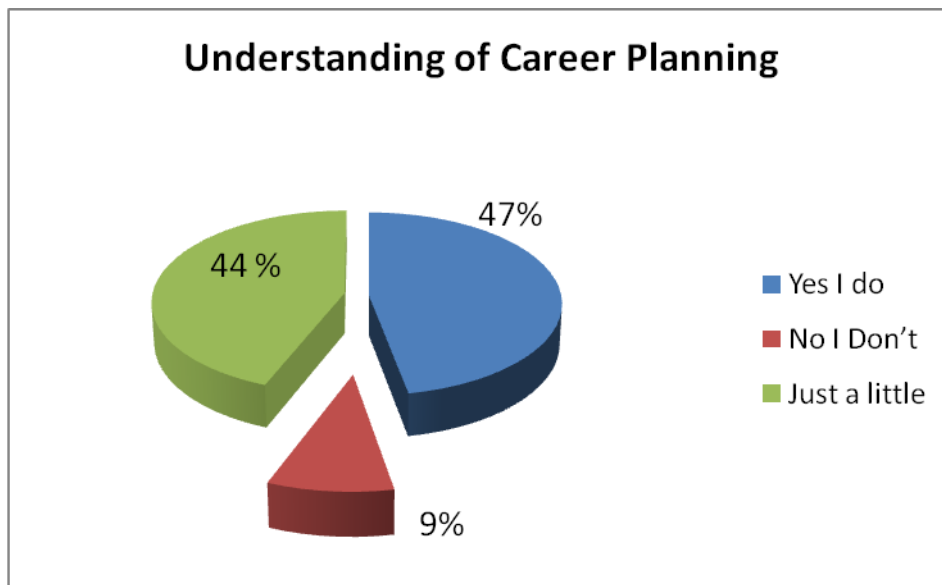


Figure III – Understanding of Career planning

Out of a total of 100 responses representing 100%, a total 47 participants representing 47% of the sample said that they understood what was meant by career planning, 9 respondents

(9%) said they did not know what career planning means and 44% (44 respondents) said they knew just a little bit of information about career planning. Translating the above data, the researcher assumes that the outcome of the data is due to the exposure of students to the various existing programs in these schools. Some of the schools do not have a proper program and occasional mention of career planning may have led to 44% of the participants knowing just a little and in the case of the 9%, the researcher assumed that there were no career guidance interventions within the particular schools or they had not received any interventions. This is despite responses from guidance facilitators indicating that their schools all had career guidance programs, and the main purpose of career guidance being career planning and management.

4.4.2 Career clusters

The participants were asked to indicate the career clusters that they were interested in pursuing. A total of 16 career clusters options were given which encompassed various occupations and fields. Figure IV shows the responses given to this question.

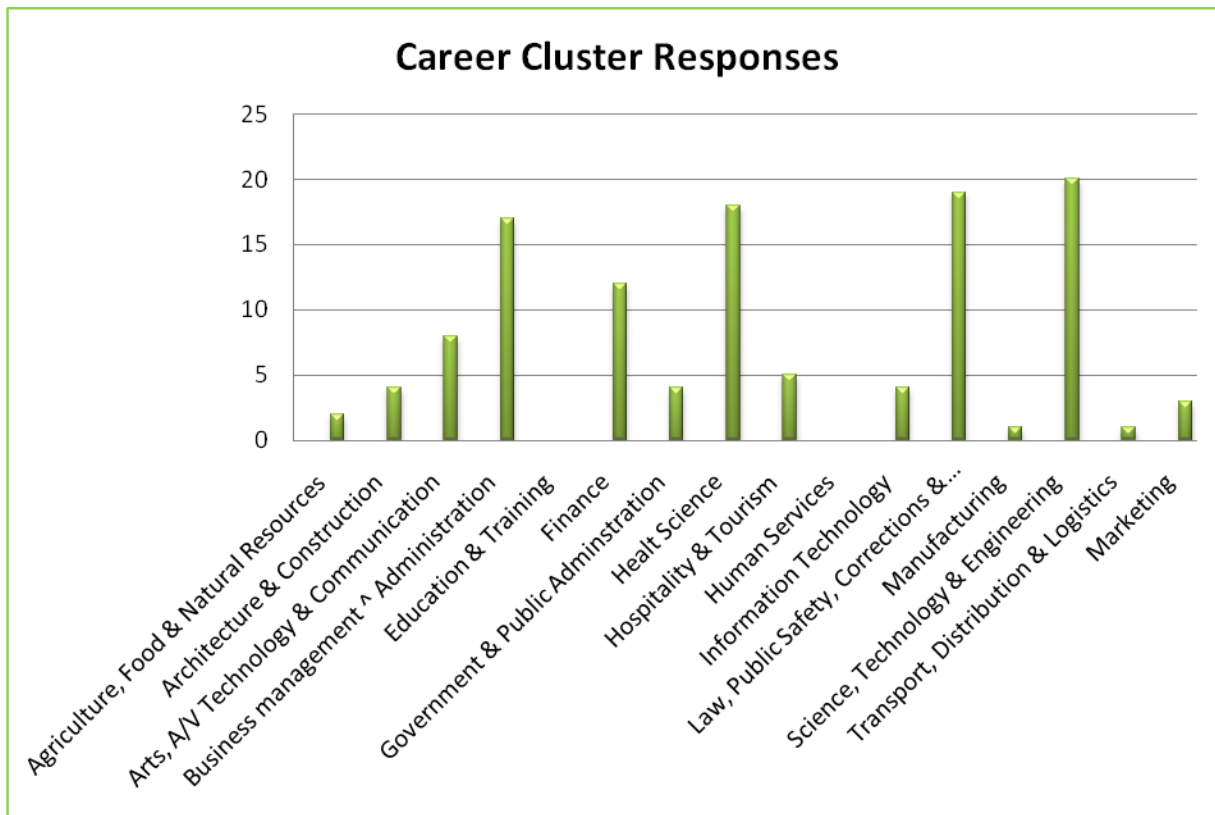


Figure IV – Career Clusters

The total number of responses to this question totaled 119 as some of the participants expressed a desire to pursue a number of clusters. This could have been attributed to a desire not be tied down to one particular career, a lack of understanding of these career clusters or confusion on what particular direction to take.

4.4.3 Subjects being taken

This question sought to determine if the participants knew what subjects to take at A' Level or subjects that pupils were already taking at A' Level and observe if the subjects being taken or intended to take are the right ones for the participants desired career clusters. Data gathered showed that 10% of pupils in form 6 were doing the wrong combination of subjects for the career cluster they had chosen to pursue, the remaining 90% were doing subjects that were recommended for the career cluster they had indicated they were interested in pursuing. Amongst the form 4 pupils, 20% of the pupils indicated they were interested in undertaking subjects that were not recommended or right for the career path they had indicated they wanted to pursue. The researcher assumes that this may be due to career advisors having knowledge on combinations of traditional clusters such as finance, health science, engineering and law, public safety and corrections and less knowledge on other clusters that include arts, A/V technology and agriculture, food and natural resources amongst others. This may lead to pupils opting for these particular clusters as they are not well informed on others and hence when they express intention to pursue a non- traditional career cluster, they are not sure what combination to undertake at A' Level. Responses from career guidance facilitators showed that only 3 respondents of a total of ten said they had training or qualifications to help them with career guidance education. Qualifications mentioned by the 3 respondents included degrees in psychology for 2 of them and some courses in career guidance provision and a course in guidance counseling from a teachers college for the other respondent. The rest of the respondents said they had no qualifications to assist in the provision of career guidance education, but relied on experience and knowledge in some of the matters that they faced. The researcher observed that the respondents that said they had qualifications did not actually possess qualifications related to career guidance but in social sciences which helped them interact better with pupils as reflected by those interviewed. Reasons for having not training in career guidance related interventions included ignorance as to the availability of such training facilities to reluctance

to do so as some respondents felt that there was no need to. The researcher felt that this may have jeopardized pupils of an opportunity to get well informed career guidance.

4.4.4 Reasons for choosing the desired career path

Reasons for choosing the desired career path sought to establish reasons for wanting to pursue the earlier highlighted career paths. Responses show that respondents identified Personal satisfaction & a sense of achievement as being the major reason for their choice. This is shown by this choice having 65% of all responses. 25 % of the respondents highlighted money as their reason. 7% identified working conditions as being the reason for their career choice and 1 % identified family pressure & Influence as the reason and the remaining 2% identified other causes which namely included passion.

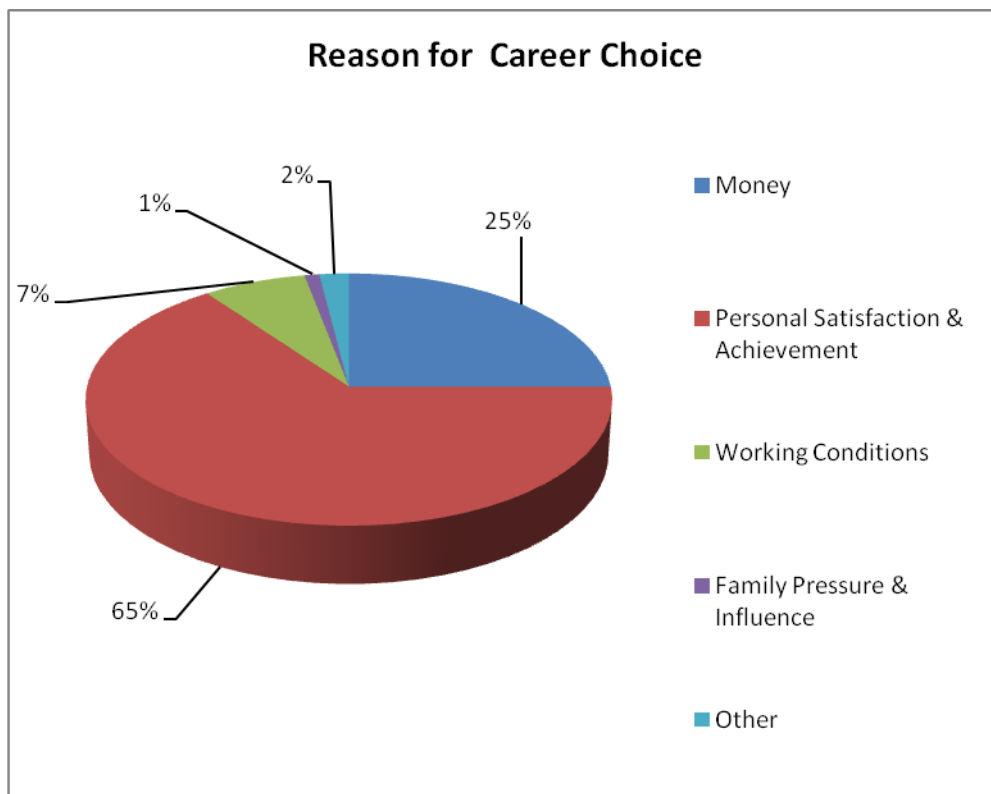


Figure V – Reasons for career choice

4.4.5 Do you know what you want to do after finishing your current studies?

Respondents were asked whether they knew what they wanted to do after completing their current studies and 80% of the respondents said that they knew what they wanted to do after completing their current studies, 19% said they were not sure what they wanted to do and

1% said they did not know what they wanted to do. The researcher assumed that the percentage of those who were not sure could be because they were faced with so many options and were not sure exactly what decision to take.

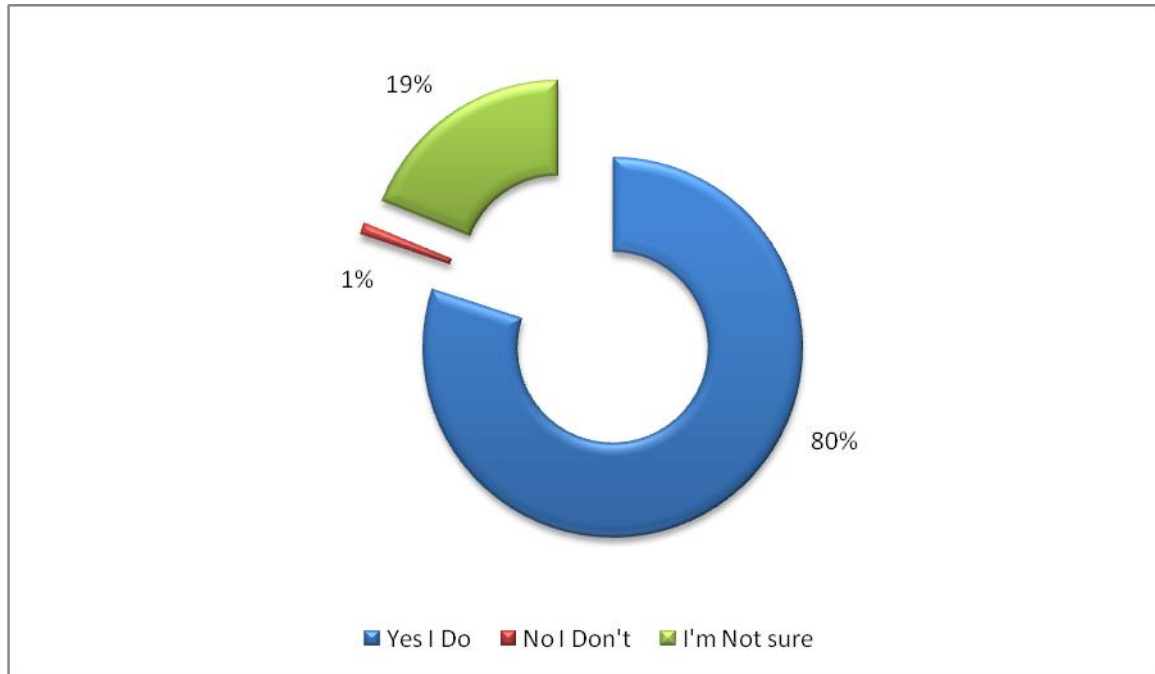


Figure VI – Knowledge of what to do after completing current studies

4.4.6 Availability of a detailed plan of how to achieve career objectives

Participants were asked if they had a detailed plan of how to achieve their career objectives. The researcher was interested in the availability of a detailed plan as this is paramount in career planning interventions. 26% of the respondents said they did have a detailed plan, 7% said they did not, 63% said they were still working on it and 4% said they had never thought about. The high percentage of those who said they were still working on it at that particular stage of their education led the researcher to assume that the respondents did not actually have a documented plan but had dedicated a lot of thought to the matter and were not yet sure about their exact direction.

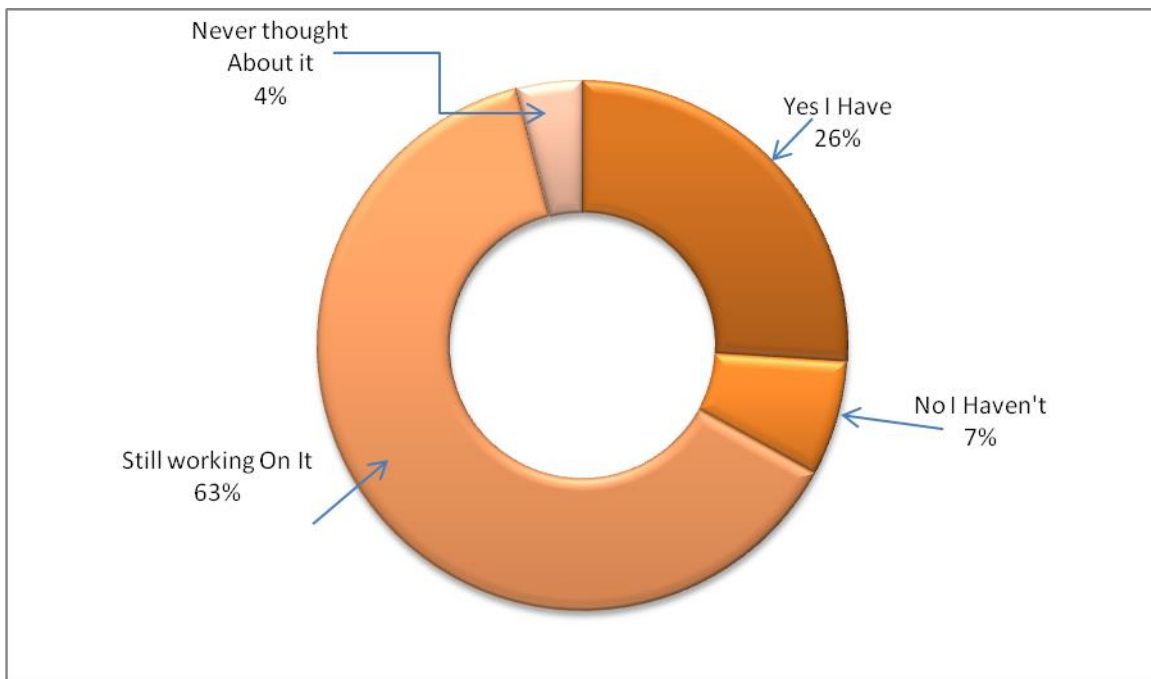


Figure VII – Availability of a detailed plan

4.4.7 How often do you talk to your parents about your future plans?

Participants were asked how often they talked with their parents about their futures and career plans. The inclusion of parents in career planning was identified by the researcher as being an important aspect of career programs because parents are usually the ones that fund a child's education and have greater influence on the child's behavior and choices. 51% of the respondents said they talked very often with their parents about their future career plans whilst 41% said they talked but not very often. 8 % said they never talked with their parents about their future career plan. The researcher also sought to establish from the schools, the level of parental inclusion and involvement in career guidance programs being given to pupils and responses showed that every school had an established relationship with parents and often had meetings with parents pertaining to the welfare of their children. Of note though was the observation that only 4 schools included parents in their interventions and the rest treated issues of career guidance as any other business in their meetings and such issues would only be addressed if a parent brought them up. Of note again was the observation that only the private colleges and schools did this. One respondent accused parents of being narrow minded and hence did not feel their inclusion in their program was necessary. Responses also showed that the level of involvement of parents was minimal in these programs as parents were only called them in for update meetings and not participative discussion as these meetings would take place in the absence of pupils. This led the

researcher to assume that if there was little involvement by parents in these programs, there was no platform for discussion by parents and pupils, as parents would also not feel that career planning was a serious issue if the school did not feel it was a serious issue.

4.4.8 Do your parents agree with and support your career choice & future plans?

The researcher feels that there is a difference between just talking to parents about plans and the parents or guardians supporting them. In this question, participants were expected to give the feelings of their parents or guardians towards their career decisions and 82% said that their parents agreed with and supported their career decision, 17% said that their parents did not agree with their decision but felt that their parents would support them because that is what they wanted to do. Only 1% said their parents did not agree with them and would not support the decision they had made.

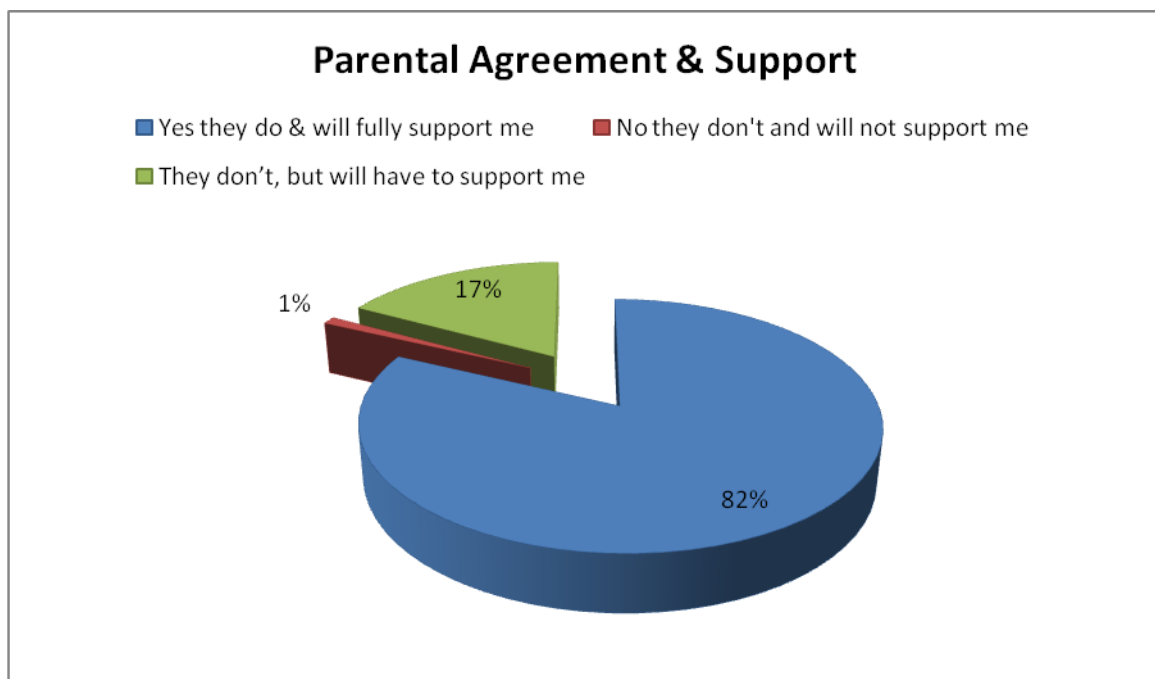


Figure VIII – Parental agreement and support

The researcher felt that the large percentages in parents agreeing with their children and supporting them is due to a shift in attitude and more awareness on career making decisions as they may have faced the same dilemma of their parents not supporting or agreeing with them. The percentage for those that felt that their parents did not agree with them but would have to support them anyway could have been due to parents wanting to dictate the direction

a child should take in life without necessarily giving the child the opportunity to make their own input and decisions.

4.4.9 Have you received any career guidance from your school?

This question sought to establish whether the respondents had received any form of career guidance from their school or college. Table II Show the responses received.

Table II – Have received any career guidance from the school

YES	52%
NO	48%

Interview responses from career guidance facilitators showed that all schools said they had some form of career guidance program or interventions in place and so the researcher felt that the small difference in those that said they had received it and those that say they had not received it could be as a result of failure by the respondents to define fully what career guidance is and hence the close margin. This failure to fully understand the definition or the components of guidance did not negatively affect the research as the researcher sought further clarification in the following question.

4.4.10 What kind of career guidance have you received from your school?

In following up to the previous question, the researcher sought to know the types of career guidance that respondents who had said that they had received career guidance from their schools had received. Of the 59% that had indicated that they had received career guidance, 11% said they had career days, 7% said they had received individual/group counseling, 7% said they had received career testing, 7% said they had attended career seminars & workshops, 28% said they had received career planning and life skills lessons, 35% said they had received none of the above, 2% said they had received all the above forms of guidance and 3% said they had received other forms of career guidance. Respondents who listed other as their response did not clarify as to what other kind of career guidance they had received. The researcher assumes that this was due to a not so clear understanding of the type of guidance they had received and hence the failure to define or state it.

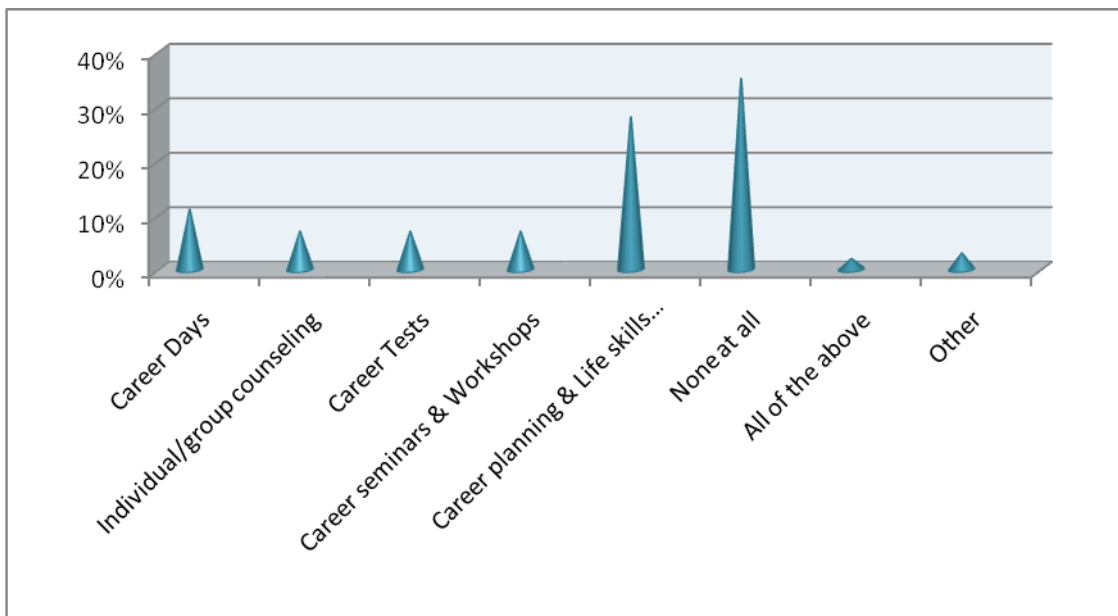


Figure IX - Types of Career guidance Received from the School

Interviews with career guidance facilitators in a question which sought to establish the types of career guidance programs in these schools showed that 7 of the 10 schools did not actually have a program but only had components of career guidance. Some of these components included invitation of speakers, lectures on importance planning and development of life skills such as time management, decision making, HIV/Aids, abuse just to name a few. Collected data showed that only three (3) private schools had a structured career guidance program. The respondents highlighted the importance of bringing together a number of interventions to help the pupil be better prepared in terms of careers. Interventions highlighted by these schools included career testing, individual and group counseling, inviting guests to talk with pupils and assisting pupils with choosing and getting places for tertiary education. The researcher observed and assumed that the level of organization in these three schools was due to them having departments or staff dedicated to the provision of these services only. The researcher observed also that these programs played a role in helping students but were not very effective in helping them as a closer look at the curricula showed that the components of the programs were not well detailed and were not abreast the latest trends in career guidance education, to which the researcher attributed to a lack of professional training in career guidance education provision.

4.4.11 Effectiveness of Career Guidance Interventions

Participants were asked if the career guidance they had received had helped them understand more about making career decisions and in knowing what career path the respondents wanted to take. 28% of the respondents said that these interventions had helped them a lot, 45% said that these interventions had helped them just a little and 27% said that these interventions had not helped them at all.

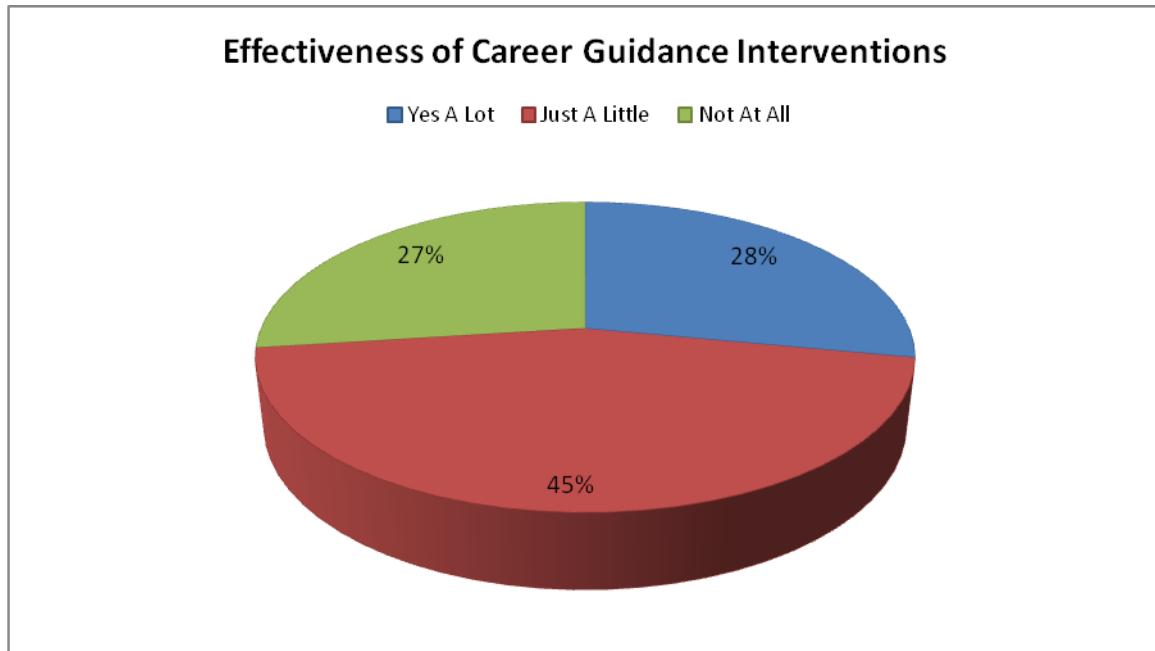


Figure X – Effectiveness of career guidance interventions

In interviews with the career guidance facilitators, respondents were asked to evaluate to what extent the programs or initiatives were useful in equipping pupils to make right and informed career decisions. Respondents said they all felt that the programs that were being offered were helpful and useful to students making informed career decision. Responses from respondents included that they just knew that their initiatives helped, their programs made their pupils relevant to society and gave them hope of a brighter future, and they empowered students to pass and broadened pupils' mindsets. The researcher agreed with the expected outcomes of their programs but also assumed that there could have been a desire not to downplay their programs. The researcher felt that this though did not jeopardize the final outcome of the research as pupil's responses to the questionnaire would also validate their responses to this question.

Respondents were asked how their school measured or evaluated the outcomes of their career guidance initiatives. All the respondents admitted that their schools did not have a formal evaluation system to measure their interventions but most gave some form of preceding behavior that they often used to evaluate their initiatives. Responses given included; feedback from parents whose children had received their interventions, the number of students who come back and thanked them, testimonials, academic results and those who go to university. Respondents however admitted that these were just ways in which they tried to validate their programs but did not constitute an effective evaluation system as there were many reasons why students would perform better or come back to thank them that were not career guidance interventions.

The researcher feels that the reason why most respondents said it had helped them just a little and not at all is because there usually is no follow up to some of these interventions, also because there was no proper way by the schools to evaluate their programs and so they may think these programs were actually helping, which may not be true. Another reason is some of these interventions are given after long periods of time and only small amounts of time in the curricula is dedicated to these interventions.

4.4.12 What other sources have you used to help you understand more about careers and come up with a career decision?

Participants were asked to highlight other sources that they have used to help them understand more about careers and make career decisions. 35% of the respondents identified the internet as the source of careers information, 51% said that the source of career information was Family, relatives and friends. 7% said that they had received professional career counseling, 5% said they had received information from companies and organizations. 2% said they had received it from other sources that included television programs and from reading books.

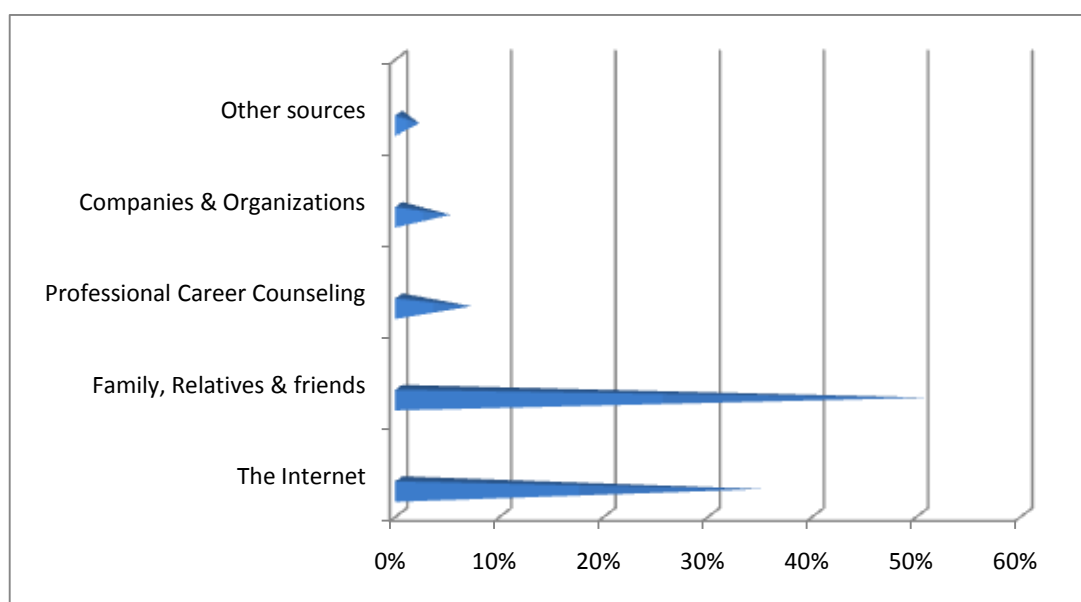


Figure XI – Other sources of Career Information

4.4.13 What other initiatives do you think your school should implement in terms of career guidance education and programs?

Respondents were asked what initiatives they thought their school should implement in terms of career guidance education so as to make it better for them make better career decisions. Responses received included:

- Increase more career guidance lessons
- The school should take career guidance more seriously and provide qualified staff for us
- The school should invite successful students to talk to us
- Teachers should explain more thoroughly and give us PRACTICAL lessons on career planning
- Regular visits from companies, organizations and universities.
- Regular career talks and watch videos of people in various career clusters
- Introduce career guidance at lower levels of high school

- We should get more career and life skills lessons
- Company visits and tours
- Career guidance should be compulsory in all schools
- We should have career days
- Introduce career seminars and workshops
- Individual career counseling
- Reliable internet resources for access to online career material

77% of all respondents answered this question with over half of them suggesting more than 2 interventions. The researcher felt that such a response would only be possible if this was a pertinent issue to pupils which was not being addressed thoroughly by their respective schools. Suggestions on improving career guidance programs in schools by career guidance facilitators included:

Career guidance facilitators were also asked what they thought could be done to improve their current programs and interventions so as to make them more effective and beneficial to students. One respondent said that they were not confident that their program was very good but were comfortable with it the way it was. Other respondents, mainly government schools said that they felt that the government should include them in any career activities they may have and also that it should come up with a career program that was relevant so that it could be rolled out in schools. Other respondents said that they needed to attend trainings where they would be assisted in terms of career guidance education provision. Most respondents were in agreement that there was need for their respective institutions to set up career guidance and counseling departments staffed by professional individuals as they felt that they were not qualified for provision of that service and were only able to offer guidance services in their free time as they would be tied up with other activities such as teaching and hence this contributed to the absence of an effective career guidance program. Other suggestions included more involvement of parents in their programs and come up with an evaluation system that is more efficient and associate with more incentive such as a role model program and identify pupil's talents as early as form 1.

4.5 Conclusion

The chapter focused on presentation and analysis of data that was gathered from the research participants. Responses from both the interviews and questionnaires were briefly explained with the aid of graphs, pie charts and tables. Furthermore brief descriptive analysis was done in relation to career guidance programs being given to high school pupils.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The following chapter discusses the results of the research and gives recommendations to improve the career guidance programs being given to high school students in Harare urban. The researcher draws conclusions on the research findings and concludes the chapter itself.

5.1 Discussion of results

The research results indicate that there are career guidance programs and in other cases, initiatives that are being given to high school pupils. Results also show that schools appreciate the need to provide these programs and initiatives to high school pupils.

5.1.1 Student counseling and career guidance in high schools

Results from the research show that career guidance programs are there in high schools. Responses from the interviews show that schools have various career guidance interventions being given to pupils in these high schools. Of note however, is the issue that pupil's responses show that there is a lack of understanding as to what a career guidance program entails to pupils as 48% of pupils said they had not received any career guidance from their school with 52% saying they had received career guidance from their school, yet results from the interviews show that every school has a career guidance program. This has led the researcher to believe that career guidance education is not well defined in high schools and hence the school may believe they are offering career interventions and pupils do not believe they are getting it. A policy paper prepared by Noeth & Wimberely (2005) agrees that middle school and high school are important times for early postsecondary planning, they argue that Schools can and should play a key role in guiding early preparation for postsecondary education through fostering academic preparation and achievement, supporting parent involvement, providing college and career planning information, and helping students through the many steps in postsecondary planning.

5.1.2 Career guidance programs in high schools

Research results indicate that various career guidance interventions exist in schools. Results show that interventions within these programs include career days (11%), individual & group counseling (7%), career testing (7%), career workshops & seminars (7%), Career planning & life skills lessons (28%), 2% having received all the above interventions and 3% having received other interventions. Of note to the researcher were the percentages that were accompanying the interventions. Results indicate that these interventions are there but there is generally very little of these interventions being used. The most common intervention in these programs has been shown to be career planning and life skills lessons. It is however important to note that responses from pupils show that these interventions have helped them just a little (45% of respondents). Interestingly research results show that 35% of respondents had not received any of the above stated interventions as part of school career guidance. The point of interest was that the response was higher than any of the interventions. This was in stark contrast to interview responses that showed that all schools that took part in the research, had career guidance in their schools and yet none of the above interventions were part of the programs.

5.1.3 Benefits of career guidance to pupils

Research results show that 45% of pupils feel that career interventions being given by their schools had helped them just a little with 27% saying that it had not helped them at all and 28% saying they had been helped a lot by these interventions. The high percentage of those who say that they had been helped just a little gives the impression that pupils appreciate the effort being put by schools in offering career guidance but feel that the programs are not fully helping them make well informed career decisions. The importance of career planning lessons is validated by a research conducted by Savickas (1990) which showed that high school students who took a career-decision making course had less career related indecision at the end of the course than did a comparison group. The results also showed that Participants also improved their long-term perspective as compared to the comparison group, meaning that the career course helped them understand the relationship between the present and the future, and to plan for and be motivated to achieve long-term goals. Career education and particularly lessons in career planning should include practical's such as testing, the compilation of a detailed plan by the pupil as to how they intend to achieve their career objectives and a general understanding of what career planning is and what it

involves and a general sense of direction. Research results show that only 7% of pupils have received career tests, and 63% of pupils are still working on their plan of operations, despite them being at academic levels where it is important to know what direction one intends to take and what they need to do to get there.

Results show that 47% of respondents understood the meaning of career planning and what it involves, 44% said they did not know and 9% said they knew just a little about career planning and what it involves. With all participating schools indicating that they have a career guidance program, such a low percentage of respondents who understand career planning and what it involves is worrying as if pupils are to benefit from career guidance education, they should know what it is and when they are receiving. An interesting trend though from the research responses was that respondents knew what career clusters they wanted to end up in and 80% of respondents saying they knew exactly what they wanted to do after completing their current studies. The researcher however was concerned as to the disparity between the lack of career understanding shown by the research results and the high percentage of pupils who say they were aware of what they wanted to do. Explanations could only be that they may have received other career advice elsewhere such as from the internet and from parents, friends and relatives. The other possible assumption would be that pupils have just made up their mind but without the necessary professional guidance as they have to do something after completing their current studies.

5.1.4 Influence of career guidance to actual career choice

The researcher observed from responses that that was very little relationship between the career guidance being given to high school pupils and their actual career choice. A greater number of respondents (45%) said that career guidance initiatives being given by their schools had helped them just a little in choosing the career direction that they decided to pursue, with 27% saying it had not helped them at all. Career guidance education is meant to empower pupils to make the right career choice. The process of making the right career choice includes knowing why one wants to pursue a particular career and a definite decision as to what direction or career they want to pursue. Research results show that pupils knew exactly what career cluster they wanted to pursue as more than three quarters of the respondents identified the career cluster they wanted. Only a few respondents highlighted more than one career cluster, which may be a sign of indecision. Research results show that

the major reason for respondents choosing their desired career choice as being personal satisfaction and a sense of achievement (65%) followed by money (25%). The responses show a general understanding that one should pursue a career that brings them joy first before money. Despite the above reasons, the researcher felt that the relationship between career guidance and actual career choice is not convincingly strong as pupils identified other sources of careers information which may have influenced their decision.

5.1.5 Testing as part of Career guidance programs and initiatives

Research results show that only 7% of pupils had received career tests as part of the career guidance interventions being offered in schools career guidance programs. Of the ten schools, results showed that only one school offered career tests as part of their career guidance program which was very early in their high school education, mainly for the purpose of determining what areas they are best suited when selecting the range of subjects they should take at form 3, no other testing is done later though. Career tests are an important aspect of career guidance programs as they provide a foundation for which pupils are aware of what career path is compatible with their characters and interests. It is from this background that career education is then focused on empowering the individual to work hard towards achieving their desired career path. Research results by Arulmani (2001) has shown that people are more successful in careers that they have a passion for and that is in line with their interests.

5.1.6 Role of teachers, guidance counselors and parents in career guidance programs and initiatives

Results from the research showed that there was very little parental involvement in career guidance programs being offered in schools. Responses from the interviews showed that only four schools incorporated parents in their programs. Of note however is that only 2 of those four schools had a regular meeting timetable with parents to discuss career interventions for the pupils. The level of interaction or inclusion in these programs however did not go beyond these meetings. Parental participation in career guidance programs is important as pupils need the support of their parents to achieve their desired career objectives as achieving them requires not only financial support but also encouragement and a cultivation of the right attitudes and behaviors to achieve these goals. Lack of understanding of career guidance by parents can cause a lot of conflict between parents and

pupils and can undo any career guidance interventions pupils may have received. Of interest though, was that parents communicated or talked with their children about their career decisions as indicated by research results that showed that 51% of respondents talked with their parents very often about their career decisions and 41% who said they talked with their parents, but not very often. This shows participation by parents but only at personal level with pupils at home and not part of schools career guidance programs. These results are almost consistent with a research that was carried out in 2002 by Career Institute for Education and Workforce Development. The survey was done with 800 pupils and the results showed that more than half of the students surveyed (51 percent) could not identify someone in high school who has been a mentor or especially helpful in advising them on career or job options. The vast majority (78 percent) credited their parents as their top adult influence, but the amount of time spent discussing careers was minimal (3 hours or less), even in the home,

Only three of the participating schools had staff dedicated to careers and counseling for pupils. Their level of interaction with pupils was very high as they offered lessons to pupils and provided counseling on a group and individual basis. Interview responses showed that interaction with pupils was very high. The remaining schools career guidance programs were run by teaching staff, head of departments and head of the schools. The level of interaction with pupils as indicated by research results showed that there was a high level of interaction. Of question though was the issue that this level of interaction was not specifically geared towards the provision of career guidance education and services towards the pupils but career interventions occupied some of the interaction time. Career interactions were more in schools that had staff dedicated to careers guidance and counseling. The role of the teachers' therefore was not clearly shown in terms of career guidance as they interacted with pupils very often, and these interactions may not necessarily have been of a career guidance nature. The role of career guidance and counselors in these schools was clearly defined as providing careers guidance and interventions for pupils.

5.1.7 Evaluation of career guidance programs and initiatives

Research results showed that there was no formal system of evaluating and measuring the effectiveness of the career guidance programs being given to high school pupils. Responses

showed that schools were using evaluations that included observing behavioral and attitudinal changes in pupils, testimonials, keeping in touch with ex pupils and measuring performance during the term and after examinations. Evaluation methods being used by the schools were not an effective method of evaluations as they were prone to many assumptions and not measurable, provable outcomes. This may also be observed through research results that showed that 45% of pupils felt that the career guidance interventions that they had received from their schools had helped them just a little, with 27% saying that it had not helped them at all. Observing responses about the source of careers information other than their schools, showed that family, relatives and friends (51%), and the internet (35%) played an important part in pupils career education. It would therefore be inaccurate to use the methods mentioned above that are being used as methods of evaluation as success and career progress being made by the pupils may actually be as a result of the above mentioned influences and not the career guidance interventions being offered by the school.

5.1.8 Parents responses to career choice decisions made by their children

Research results showed that 82% of parents agreed with their children's career decisions and would support their child's career decision fully. 17% said that their parents did not agree with their decision but would have to support them. The researcher feels that there is a great level of understanding from the parents pertaining to their children's career decision. Often disagreements arise between parents and children over career decisions Smith et al (2003). The major cause has been identified as a lack of understanding by the parent of the decision that the child wants to take. The minimal inclusion of parents in career guidance programs in high schools can be a contributing factor to this ignorance.

5.2 Conclusions

The responses from the research participants led the researcher to come up with the following conclusions:

- Student counseling and career guidance is being offered to pupils in schools in Harare urban.
- There are various kinds of career guidance programs being run in schools in Harare urban. Programs include various interventions such as career tests, career planning and life skills lessons, individual and group career counseling, career seminars and

workshops and career days amongst others. Of note however, is the issue that there seems to be no set tried and tested career guidance curricula or program that is effective.

- There is an appreciation of career guidance being offered in schools, but these programs are not doing enough to help pupils in career guidance decisions. Hence it is safe to conclude that pupils are not fully benefiting from these career guidance programs
- Career guidance plays an influential role in actual career choice decision, although the current programs in high schools are not playing an influential role in actual career choice decisions being made by pupils, as these decisions are being made by pupils using various other interventions such as the internet, family friends and relatives and media such as television and books.
- There is very little career testing that is taking place in high schools as career tests have not been fully included in career guidance program that are being offered in schools.
- Career guidance and student counselors play an important role in the provision of career guidance interventions to pupils in high schools. Parents play an important role in career guidance programs as they not only provide financial support to their children but also play an influential role in the building of the right attitudes and behaviors that promote career success. Teachers are currently not playing an important role in career guidance interventions; this is despite the fact that they spend the most time with pupils. Career management is not a major part of their teaching curricula and hence they do not pay much attention to it. This is also due to a lack of career education understanding and a lack of training on their part.
- High schools in Harare urban do not have a formal career guidance program evaluation system, hence they are not able to effectively measure the outcomes of their career guidance programs and so ultimately, they have no way of knowing if their career guidance programs actually work or if they are helping pupils in terms of career planning and management.

- Parents agree with and are willing to support their children's career decisions. This is despite the observation that children may be making the wrong career decisions as the career interventions that they are receiving are not doing much in helping the pupils make well informed career decisions

5.3 Recommendations

After making the above conclusions from the results of the research, the researcher recommends the following:

5.3.1 The Government

- Should come up with a comprehensive national policy on Career guidance education for high schools, making it compulsory for pupils to receive comprehensive and effective career guidance.
- Provide a platform for which it can partner with relevant stakeholders in the creation and implementation of such a policy.

5.3.2 Schools

- Start taking career guidance education seriously
- Create career guidance and student counseling departments that are run by qualified individuals to ensure that pupils get proper career guidance education and interventions.
- Come up with comprehensive career education programs that are well structures and have measurable outcomes.
- Invest in training of staff members in career management education so as to ensure a program that is not only limited to pupils receiving career education but also promotion and development of the right career management tools and behaviors. This will also help members of staff help pupils in achieving career objectives.
- Incorporate parents fully in career guidance programs being run in respective schools.

- Invest in better information technology infrastructure such as computers and internet, so as provide pupils with a platform from which to explore the area of careers.

5.3.3 Parents

- Parents should play an active role in the career programs being run by schools for their children and not leave schools to do everything.
- Parents should continuously talk with their children about careers and invest in professional career counseling services for their children if need arises.

5.3.4 Pupils

- Pupils should play a pro active role in terms of career planning and should invest time and effort in equipping themselves with the necessary tools for career success.
- Pupils should make use of a wealth of information available from various sources such as the internet, magazines, books, television, and companies and organizations so as to keep abreast of developments in the industry that they wish to be in. this will do well to complement the education that they receive from their schools.
- Should actively lobby for an improvement in the current career guidance programs by taking a pro active stance in supplying their schools with information and knowledge that they may have or want to receive.

5.3.5 Other Stake holders

There should be more active participation by stakeholders such as civil society, companies and organizations, universities and members of the community through:

- Strategic partnerships with the government and schools in the provision of services such as site visits, open days, career seminars and workshops that will benefit pupils and help them make informed career decisions.

- Provision of training and capacity building exercises for career education in high schools. Capacity building will help as no single organization/s will be able to satisfy the need for provision of quality career guidance education and initiatives.
- Educational institutions such as universities and teachers colleges should include career guidance and counseling education in their curricula for programs that have to do with the provision of human services such as psychology, teaching and social studies. This will ensure that there are more qualified individuals to provide quality and professional services in the field of career guidance education.

5.4 Conclusion

The chapter deliberated on the research findings through brief discussions of the research questions and the researcher concluded the research findings. Recommendations on how to improve the career guidance programs being given to high school pupils were also forwarded by the researcher.

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