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ABSTRACT

In providing a general systems theory approach to the study of occupational choice two major goals are: (1) present a macro level framework in which extant theoretical approaches and concepts may be ordered; and (2) explicate the complexity of dealing with only one partially developed submodel derived from the broader model of relationships about status projections. Various approaches to the study of occupational choice include the adventitious versus the developmental approach, occupational choice theories, macro models of occupational choice, and certain conceptual considerations. There is a need for a broader framework, and a systems perspective could be applicable. A derived submodel illustrates at least one direction in which developmental occupational choice theory and status attainment theory can proceed. (A 57-item bibliography is included.)
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A THEORETICAL SYNTHESIS OF THE OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE PROCESS:
TOWARD AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL¹

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INTRODUCTION

In a paper presented to the Rural Sociological Society over three years ago, Kuvlesky (1970) presented a theoretical perspective on the dynamics of educational and occupational status projections. In that paper he encouraged other rural sociologists to give greater theoretical concern to an area of investigation (i.e., status projections) in which many rural sociologists had been active. Since that time several persons have also tried their hand at evolving a broad framework in which to order relationships about status projections. Most notable among these has been an attempt by Picou (1971) and Picou and Curry (1971). While Kuvlesky essentially sketched what he saw as various levels, (e.g., structural antecedents, personal antecedents, status projections and status attainment) the elements within those levels, and possible relationships, he realized the difficulty of the task and correctly noted that "much effort will be required to refine and expand the present sketch."

In the present paper, it is my intention to facilitate two major goals: (1) a presentation of a macro level framework in which extant theoretical approaches and concepts may be ordered and (2) an explication of the complexity of dealing with only one partially developed submodel derived from the broader model. A somewhat lesser goal is to argue for the application of systems theory to the developmental approach to the study of occupational choice. As a background for presenting the main framework, a brief review of approaches to the study of occupational choice, occupational choice theories, and certain conceptual considerations will be provided.

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A BRIEF NOTE ON APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE²

The Adventitious Versus Developmental Approach

Theorists interested in occupational choice can usually be typified as advocates of either the adventitious or developmental approach. In the former (also called drift, accidental, or fortuitous), the decision made by a person to enter an occupation is seen as a rather non-rational, "lucked into" occurrence. (For examples of this approach, see the following: Miller and Form, 1951; Caplow, 1954; Stecklein and Eckert, 1958; Katz and Martin, 1962; Sherlock and Cohen, 1966.) It is characterized by a certain chance factor contingent on situational pressures. As Caplow has stated, "the bases for decisions are often trivial...The crucial decision to leave school and go to work may reflect the most casual dissatisfaction or the lure of a passing opportunity." (Caplow, 1954:218)

The developmental approach (also called purposive, decisional, rational-decisional) diverges radically from the adventitious approach. In this approach, decisions made about occupational interests are seen as changing through time, and conclude as the "culmination of a process in which hopes and desires come to terms with the realities of the occupational market situation." (Ford and Box, 1967:288). In short, it is assumed that as a person matures over time, his decisions about occupational interests will increasingly go through a series of compromises (See Blau, et al., 1956) which will result in his making a "rational decision" about what is attainable. Certain theoretical works in this area will be discussed below.

Occupational Choice Theories

There are several different theoretical postures to the study of occupational choice, one of which is developmental. While the present paper is more supportive of theoretical work from this posture than the work of other postures, no one theory or theoretical framework has yet been advanced which is sufficiently broad in scope and yet somewhat specific in its theoretical postulates. The range of purported theories (I say "purported" because the satisfaction of philosophy of science considerations about theory is questionable in all cases) is varied and includes economic, psychological, vocational, sociological, and inter-disciplinary perspectives, each of which evinces its own brand of determinism. Thomas (1956) relates occupational choice to labor market factors as it influences what occupations are and what occupations will be available. Trait and factor theories are derived from a psychology of individual differences in which persons are "matched" with jobs. (See Katz, 1963 and Williamson, 1965.) Need-drive theories conceptualize individual needs as a force from which "The individual's

²For a really excellent, concise review of this literature, see Picou and Curry (1971). Additionally, Pavalko (1971) provides a short review and is especially good on the adventitious versus developmental approach. In the present paper, our review will be admittedly brief but should serve as an adequate background prior to a more in-depth discussion of occupational choice theories.

behavior... is directed toward satisfying his needs is typically envisioned as being goal-directed." (Zaccaria, 1970) Proponents of this approach include Forer (1953) and Roe (1957). Another psychological approach has been the psychoanalytic one in which the individual seeks to satisfy sublimated instinctual wishes or needs. (See Bordin, 1943 and Bordin, et al., 1963. An example of this approach is that a person with voyeuristic wishes might become a photographer, an exhibitionist, an actor, and so on.) A final psychologically-oriented approach has been the self-concept theory of which Super is the chief proponent (Super, 1953 and Super, 1957). The key notion of this approach is that "a person strives to implement his self-concept by choosing to enter the occupation he sees as most likely to permit him self-expression." (Osipow, 1968:118). Somewhat similar to this has been Holland's career typology theory (1959) which posits that not only will an individual's occupational choice represent an extension of personality but it will also represent a projection of a person's view of himself onto an occupational choice.

In contrast to these somewhat narrowly conceived and deterministic approaches have been other approaches which are more inter-disciplinary. These approaches are characterized by an emphasis on stages of development (which are approximately consonant with the life-cycle and maturation) during which the individual increasingly tends to crystallize his eventual occupational choice, partially as a result of a series of compromises about decisions affecting choice of an attainable occupation. One of the earliest of these was the work of Ginzberg, et al. (1951) which theorized that an individual passes through three stages: (1) fantasy, (2) tentative and (3) realistic. Super (1953), with a self-concept emphasis, extended this to include six stages (which have been succinctly outlined by Pavalko, 1971: 46-47): (1) adolescence as exploration; (2) transition from school to work; (3) floundering or trial process; (4) period of establishment; (5) maintenance period; and (6) years of decline.

MACRO MODELS OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

In conjunction with the developmental approach --- but somewhat more macro in scope and with either implicit or explicit recognition of process-ural-systemic linkages --- has been the work of several persons. Blau, et al. (1956) are notable for outlining a model which is really quite inclusive of elements thought to be related to occupational choice, and it is from their work that much emphasis was given to the role of compromise in making an occupational choice. The work of Tiedeman (1961) and Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) is also both developmental and systemic in its emphasis on occupational choice as a process of decision-making and subsequent adjustment. (Zaccaria, 1970:48, provides a good graphical depiction of Tiedeman's paradigm.) Rodgers (1966) discusses occupational choice with special emphasis on role-theory and family inputs and illustrates this process in a systemic model --- i.e., he depicts inputs, internal processes, external conditions, and an output of "occupational outcome." Kuvlesky (1970) also presents a theoretical sketch (which has been mentioned earlier); like Rodgers, Kuvlesky also attempts to work at an abstract level and still describe possible inputs, processes, and outcomes, although Kuvlesky goes beyond occupational choice to consider the more general area of status attainment. Picou (1971) presents a three dimensional model which also attempts to synthesize many elements and which he has called "a system paradigm."

SOME CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS³

At this point it might prove helpful to give at least some consideration to concepts often used in the study of occupational choice. In particular, there are three concepts which have been problematic. These will be discussed as (1) aspirations, (2) expectations, and (3) occupational choice.

Occupational aspiration has been conceptualized by Haller and Miller (1963) --- drawing on Lewin (1941) --- as two dimensional: one dimension being idealistic and the other being realistic. Kuvlesky and Bealer (1966) conceptually distinguish between what they have called aspiration (or, the goal a person desires) and expectation (or, what the person actually expects to attain.) While I tend to agree with their argument that these are separable dimensions of future-orientations, Haller's (1968) cautioning about specifying the use of the term expectation is advisable since expectations are also held by role-models and significant others for the individual. Picou and Curry (1971) have attempted to "reconceptualize" these components by introducing --- via Crites (1969) --- the "intention factor," and the following are direct quotes about their new conceptualizations.

(1) Ideal aspirations are formed earliest in the developmental process and tend to reflect general occupational values imparted to the individual via his socialization processes.

(2) Intended aspirations are occupational goals which the individual desires and will actively attempt to attain.

(3) Anticipated occupational projections (expectations) is that occupation the individual really expects to enter and thus reflects his personal assessment of all possible reality factors which impinge on his personal occupational placement.

The actual conceptualization of occupational choice necessitates an extension of the above discussion. Many of the aforementioned writers do not specifically discuss occupational choice but discuss different aspects of the occupational choice process. This line of thought yields the use of such terms (or, if you prefer, concepts) as aspiration, idealistic aspiration, realistic aspiration, expectation, possible and probable occupational choice (Trow, 1941), and vocational preference, (Crites, 1969), all of which at times are used synonymously with occupational choice.

In their discussion of occupational choice Kuvlesky and Bealer delineated three analytical components: (1) a person or persons, (2) wanting, having an orientation toward or about (3) a social object (i.e., a goal). (Kuvlesky and Bealer, 1966:270). For the sake of clarity in this paper, occupational choice will be used in the past tense; i.e., instead of seeing the occupational choice itself as a future occurrence, it will be seen as an occupation "chosen" and, in fact, about to be embarked upon. If it is used in this way, it may be

³As I have mentioned in an earlier footnote, Picou and Curry (1971) have done an especially good job on synthesizing the relevant literature in this area and I have drawn heavily on their work in this section.

seen in the temporal sequence as a social object occurring after aspirations and expectations but before actual attainment.

THE NEED FOR A BROADER FRAMEWORK AND THE POTENTIAL OF A SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE

As mentioned previously, systems theory can be seen as applicable to the developmental approach to the study of occupational choice (and by inference, to the occupational choice process). Buckley (1967) has argued for the application of a systems approach to diverse kinds of organized behavior. If you subscribe to the developmental approach, then it should be possible to theoretically construct the occupational choice process with specified systemic linkages. Given the great complexity of social behavior and the various levels of abstraction and analysis, the specification and subsequent testing of any theorized linkages is problematic. In 1963, Haller and Miller stated, "We do not have a valid theory to explain and predict what occupation a person will enter; we may never have." (Cited in Kuvlesky, 1970). However, following the lead of those writers whom I have discussed under "macro models", it can be stated, with reasonable optimism, that the task at hand is not an impossible one.

Figure 1 is an attempt at providing a framework within which extant theories and suppositions about the occupational choice process can be ordered. The model is by no means complete but includes certain elements which would seem to be critical (and, perhaps, as much as anything else, reflects my own growth as a student interested in this area). Even in Figure 1 the specification of precise causal linkage is weak. In a depiction such as this, the problem of graphically presenting such a complex process is overwhelming. Thus I am aware that many of the "lines of influence" which could be shown are missing. (A good example being the potentially interactive lines between self concept, acceptance of values, and significant others; this is especially true if a symbolic-interaction position is taken.) However, the integrative potential of the model is not necessarily diminished.

The model is cast in a developmental framework with the temporal dimension indicating the model's dynamic quality. The feedback channel is part of the temporal dimension since you cannot in a strict sense have "feedback". For example, the interactions between significant others and the individual cannot occur in a static context but, rather, occur as a series of giving and taking. Thus as information or a cybernetic effect takes place, it takes place only over time; i.e., $SO \rightarrow EGO \rightarrow SO \rightarrow EGO$ and so on. Similarly, the whole socialization process occurs through time and not as a fixed phenomenon. The individual historically (or, if you will, developmentally) interacts with his environment, defines situations, modifies his definitions, ad infinitum. In a processural model such as Figure 1, the point is that if individual behavior can be conceived as goal-directed, and if it can be agreed that some facets of this process are antecedent to and/or interactive with the goal-directed behavior, then the stages reached in goal-selection and goal-achievement should be amenable to a systemic analysis and systems theory. Sooner than attempt an explanation of the model in Figure 1, which could only be handled in a book or lengthy monograph, I have chosen to derive a submodel and discuss it in some detail.

A DERIVED SUBMODEL AND ITS POTENTIAL

The Cosby-Legere Occupational Orientation Typology

If we were to take only part of the total model, it would be possible to expand the scope of our concepts and more clearly point out certain relationships which would be expected to hold. It is this kind of submodeling which would help to ground the more general model in empirical data. For illustrative purposes, I have chosen to work with only that section of the model which deals with components of the occupational orientation typology delineated by Cosby and Legere (1970). The form I have chosen to present the types in is not always the polar types as originally conceptualized, but in some cases in a somewhat modified manner.

Cosby and Legere (1970) outlined six dichotomous components. Briefly, these are as follows: (1) specific versus diffuse, (2) desirable versus undesirable, (3) anticipated versus unanticipated, (4) realistic versus unrealistic, (5) high motivation versus low motivation, and (6) adequacy versus inadequacy. The first of these polar types, specificity versus diffuse, refers to how clearly the individual has specified an occupational object; in general, this refers to a well-defined occupational object versus a situs or range of objects (e.g., white collar or skilled trade). I have called this variable clarity of occupational objects (which could be conceptualized as a continuous variable). The second dichotomy, desirable versus undesirable, refers to the individuals ranking objects so that some are more favorable than others. Although Cosby and Legere present this so that it has utility beyond just analysis of aspirational and expectational phenomena, I have chosen, for heuristic purposes, to stay with the often used concept of occupational aspiration. The third dichotomy refers to the likelihood of the individual obtaining the occupational object. Again I have chosen to stay with "tradition" and refer to this as occupational expectation. The fourth dichotomy, realistic versus unrealistic, refers to the notion that "the general occupational orientation 'fits' the external occupational structure". As Cosby and Legere suggested, projected class mobility could be used as a measure of realism; I have chosen to call this probable class mobility. In short, it would be possible to establish probability levels for persons with various social backgrounds based on what is presently known about the social mobility of different groups; it would also be possible to assign weights to these by considering such other things as a panel of judges and/or significant others, reference group members, and role models who could estimate the realism of occupational orientation. The fifth dichotomy, high versus low motivation, simply refers to the "propensity of an individual towards actions that are meaningfully related to the occupational object". I have merely called this motivation, but more further discussion on this is called for at this point.

What I am calling motivation could be conceptualized in a number of ways. First, it would be possible to use something like McClelland's "n achievement" (1953). This would tap the general desire or drive to achieve. Second, stemming from Turner (1964), motivation could be conceptualized as ambition. It is possible with a concept like this to rank people not only dichotomously as more or less ambitious but also along a continuum so that intervals can be approximated. Third, motivation could be conceptualized as a general attitude toward work. Again, it is possible to see these attitudes along a continuum from highly work-oriented to not highly work-orientated. It is precisely in this kind of conceptualization that we begin to move into a consideration of such things as impulsive gratification versus more goal-directed, deferred gratification. A fourth way of

conceptualizing this could be with something akin to the Merton (1957) and Williams (1960) ideas about a success theme which is socialized into American youth. Further this could be used in conjunction with Merton's modes of adaptation which have already been included in the macro model and which are themselves good candidates for submodeling.

The sixth and last dichotomy, adequacy versus inadequacy, refers to the individual possessing certain skills and education that will be necessary to obtain the occupational object. For present purposes, I have called this educational attainment.

The Derived Model

It will be recalled that in the macro model not all stages of the model were fully developed, hence not all possible linkages were explicated. In the macro model, we found such things as levels of desirability and perceived reality situation with an interactive or ongoing compromise process between these dimensions. Further, we found ego's reaction which in this case was an occupational choice. In the present section, I want to more clearly delineate what one of the submodels could be with a greater specification of its dynamic elements.

It will be apparent from Figure 2 that the model, as drawn, is very much in a path analytic style - this is by intent. Although it is only possible to discuss associational measures when cross-sectional data is used in path analysis (See Duncan, 1966; Heise, 1970; Schoenberg, 1972), the important thing here is that there be some attempt to specify the direction of the relationship as well as its magnitude. For many of the status attainment researchers, the longitudinal data necessary for causal inference is becoming available and thus this path analytic approach, if you are willing to make certain assumptions about your variables, measurement error, additivity, etc., offers a good tool for sociological theory construction. Kelley (1973) has also pointed this out and furthermore correctly noted that for theoretical purposes the path analytic framework nicely lends itself to (1) deductive propositions, and (2) the possibility of falsifying those propositions, which according to Popper (1968) is of critical importance.

It should also be apparent from Figure 2 that the arrangement of variables is not necessarily unique. Other status attainment researchers have also used similar variables in similar arrangements (see for example: Kuvlesky, 1970; Sewell, et al., 1969 and 1970), however, no one, so far as I know, has tried to adopt the Cosby-Legere typology and use it as part of a causal-flow model. Furthermore, no one, so far as I know, has tried to delineate the nature of both the bivariate and multivariate relationships. Cosby and Legere did note that within their typology, by using set notations, there were 64 possible configurations or submodels which could be derived. While I think that this kind of McKinney constructive typology work would be beneficial, I am at present more concerned with directionality and sequencing of the causal flow.⁴

⁴For the sake of presentation, the possible curved-arrow correlation coefficients and residual effects have been left out. It goes without saying that the model is already very complex in positing an influence of almost

In the bivariate situation, we can posit both a null case and four logical alternatives. This approach is applicable for all posited relationships between any two variables in the model. For heuristic purposes, we will elaborate only one of the cases; all other cases would be the same for their paired relationships. The null would be as follows:

H_0 : There will be no difference in the effect of high and low motivation as it influences the clarity of occupational object.

There are, then four possible alternatives:

- H_1 : The greater the motivation, the less the clarity of occupational object.
- H_2 : The greater the motivation, the greater the clarity of occupational object.
- H_3 : The less the motivation, the less the clarity of occupational object.
- H_4 : The less the motivation, the greater the clarity of occupational object.

Briefly, the justification for these propositions is as follows. In the null case, the clarity with which the occupational object is perceived will be the same regardless of whether or not one's motivation is high or low. It is possible here to introduce the difficult concept of realism as it may be operative. A person who has high motivation may have a good basis for anticipating the attainment of his occupational object and yet not be very clear about exactly what his occupational object will be; similarly, this argument may hold for persons with low motivation who feel that they have realistically appraised their motivation (or, if you will, defined the situation) and that their possibilities fall within a certain range of occupations rather than one specific occupation. In both cases, a component of critical importance is the time dimension which has not been included in Figure 2 but which was included in Figure 1. (This is critical because if we consider it in conjunction with our diagram, then there is direct applicability of the life-cycle and the theorized stages of development of Ginzberg, Super, Rodgers, and others.) Thus it might be expected that no difference would be found between high and low motivated persons with respect to the clarity with which they perceive an occupational object. Although, when the temporal dimension is introduced, different patterns of behavior might be found to exist.

The alternate hypotheses posit definable differences for high and low motivated persons with respect to clarity of occupational objects.* In the ~~first~~ alternate hypothesis, the argument would be that the more highly motivated person would evince greater clarity of occupational object due, in part, to their high motivation; that is, because they are highly motivated,

all antecedent variables on almost all subsequent variables. An empirically tested model would, of course, have to include these.

*See "ERRATA" at the end of this paper.

we might expect that their motivation would be, in part, a function of having a clear goal in mind toward which they were working. The third alternate hypothesis would argue that persons with lower motivation would also be less clear about an occupational object. In short, lower motivation might be expected to be associated with a kind of anomie resulting in not being able to clearly perceive an occupational object; there is a direct tie-in here with the macro model's Mertonian types of adaptation. In the fourth alternate hypothesis we would expect low motivation to be associated with greater clarity of occupational object. There is some justification to expect this kind of result. If we give explicit attention to the possible role of inequality, it is reasonable to assume that it may exert a depressing effect on motivation whereby it is experienced (1) initially, (2) through time, and (3) in a cumulative manner. Thus if inequality is experienced in some ways as a constant, it may serve to keep peoples motivation depressed (or, more ideologically, oppressed) so that it manifests itself by very clearly perceiving what occupational object (or objects) is (are) attainable. Even more broadly than a consideration of inequality, it is not unreasonable to expect person's with lower motivation to have perhaps accurately sized-up their abilities and thus project this through their motivation (among other factors) so that what occupational objects are within their are clearly perceived.

In all of the above hypotheses, all we are really doing is somewhat conjecturally relating to a large body of sociological, psychological, and vocational literature, much of which has been cited earlier in this paper. All of the extant models previously cited (i.e., Blau, Kuvlesky, Rodgers, Tiedeman, Picou) contain some reference (albeit implicit in some cases) to the concepts discussed here. Further, after reading such writers as Super (1953), Caplow (1954), Barber (1957), Roe (1957), Merton (1957), Hyman (1966), van den Berghe (1967), Rex (1970), and Schermerhorn (1970), there is good reason to expect certain differences to occur between high and low motivated persons and clarity of occupational object. Additionally, although not actually considering the same concepts as pondered here, Antonovosky and Lerner (1959) found black youth having higher status projections than white youth; Middleton and Grigg (1959) have reported white youth with higher status projections than black youth; and Cosby and Picou (1971) have found white and black youth having similar status projections. It is also relevant to mention here that Cosby and Picou (1972) and Cosby et al. (1973), have applied the same models to different populations --- in particular, blacks and whites --- and found that the relationships in the models do yield differential effects. The point of this line of discussion is, quite simply, that just as different populations may require different models (based on finding different effects between populations when the same model has been applied), so, too, is it plausible to expect differences when a concept like motivation is related to clarity of occupational object, or for that matter, when motivation is related to almost anything which can be assumed to occur after itself in a causal flow.

Given the obvious complexity of even dealing with a bivariate case and its several configurations, when we expand this to the multivariate case of relating two or more variables to one independent variable, the possible permutations increase geometrically. Thus, if we want to consider motivation and clarity of occupational object as they effect

occupational aspirations, we find the following possibilities.

H_0 : Neither motivation nor clarity of occupational object will have a significant effect on, nor be associated with, occupational expectation.

This, then, satisfies the null case in which we expect no degree of either variable to have a differential effect on, or association with, occupational expectation. For the alternative hypotheses, although set notations would save space, I again have chosen to write them out. Since there are so many of these, we will use the following symbols: N=no effect, Hi= high level of, Lo= low level of, M= motivation, C=clarity of occupational object, and OE= occupational expectations. Also, each separation (given as a colon (:)) between clarity of occupational object (C) and occupational expectation (OE) implicitly means "will be associated with." We have then the following possibilities derived from all possible combinations of variables with occupational expectation always the dependent variable:

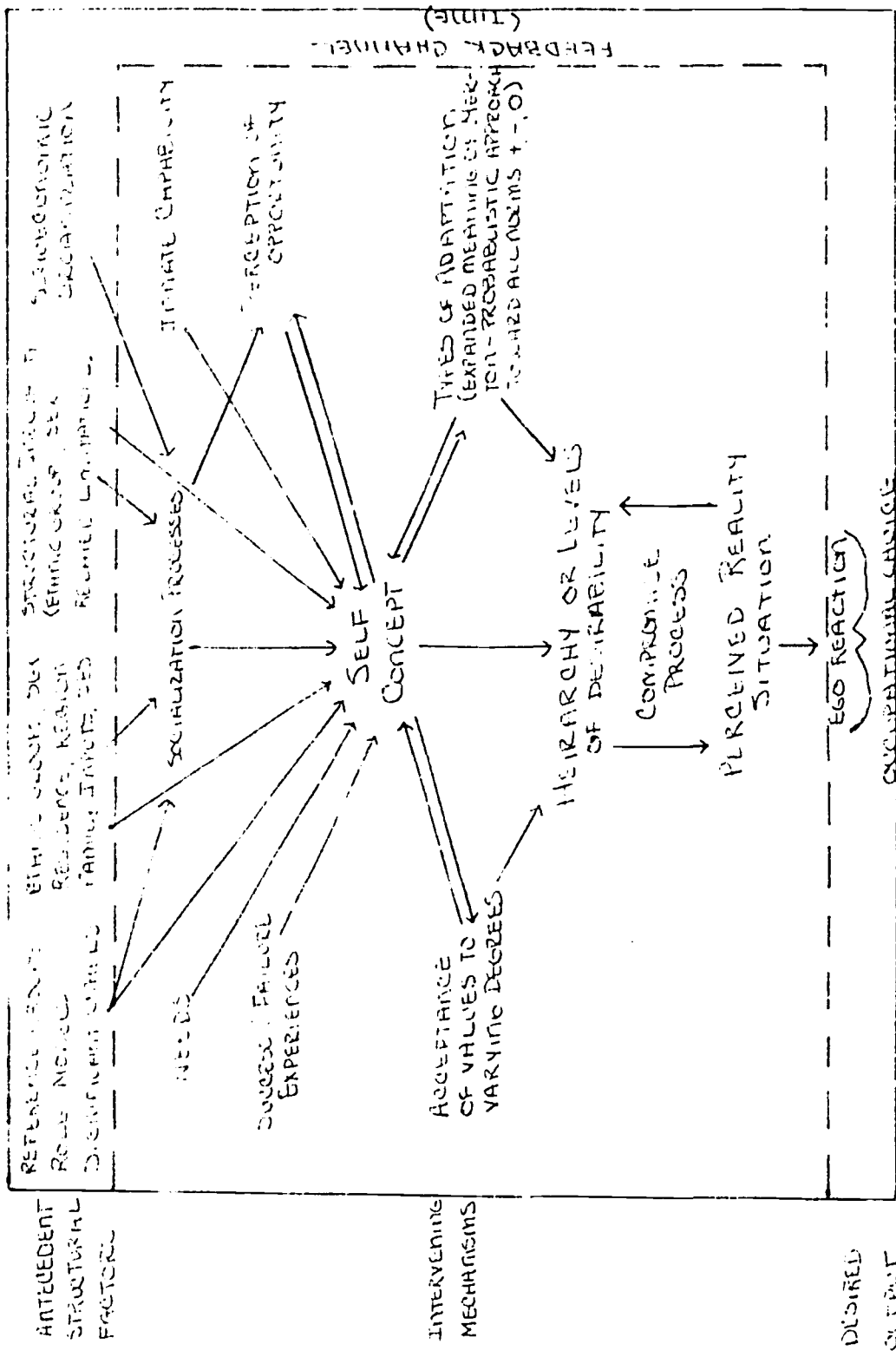
H ₁ : HiM & HiC: HiOE	H ₉ : NM & HiC: HiOE
H ₂ : HiM & HiC: LoOE	H ₁₀ : NM & HiC: LoOE
H ₃ : HiM & LoC: HiOE	H ₁₁ : NM & LoC: HiOE
H ₄ : HiM & LoC: LoOE	H ₁₂ : NM & LoC: LoOE
H ₅ : LoM & HiC: HiOE	H ₁₃ : HiM & NC: HiOE
H ₆ : LoM & HiC: LoOE	H ₁₄ : HiM & NC: LoOE
H ₇ : LoM & LoC: HiOE	H ₁₅ : LoM & NC: HiOE
H ₈ : LoM & LoC: LoOE	H ₁₆ : LoM & NC: LoOE

The seventeen possibilities above (including the null) are indicative of both the potential of specifying all possible combinations (a point also raised by Cosby and Legere) to be empirically tested and the great complexity one must deal with in even meager attempts at theory construction. The strength of this kind of approach is that it lends itself to both greater specificity in relationships and as possible combinations are tested and found to be falsified or not falsified, it yields comparatively greater theoretical additivity; that is, it is relatively easier to build on, hence have accumulate, these kinds of propositions and hypotheses than it is to build on more obscurely worded and formalized works. (Talcott Parsons voluminous descriptive, taxonomic efforts are at least one example --- according to Gouldner (1970), Rudner (1969), Heydebrand (1972) and others --- of how "theory" may not be cumulative.)

CONCLUSION

The submodel abstracted here from the more macro model is illustrative of at least one direction in which developmental occupational choice theory and status attainment theory can proceed. Neither the submodel nor the macro model are intended to be complete explications of all possible components integral to the occupational choice and status attainment processes. As previously stated, the submodel has been intended solely for heuristic purposes and to show a potential application of --- so far as I know --- a heretofore unused typology of occupational orientations. It is evident that the Cosby-Legere typology used independently, or in conjunction with, some kind of causal model could be of utility for researchers of the occupational choice process and status attainment.

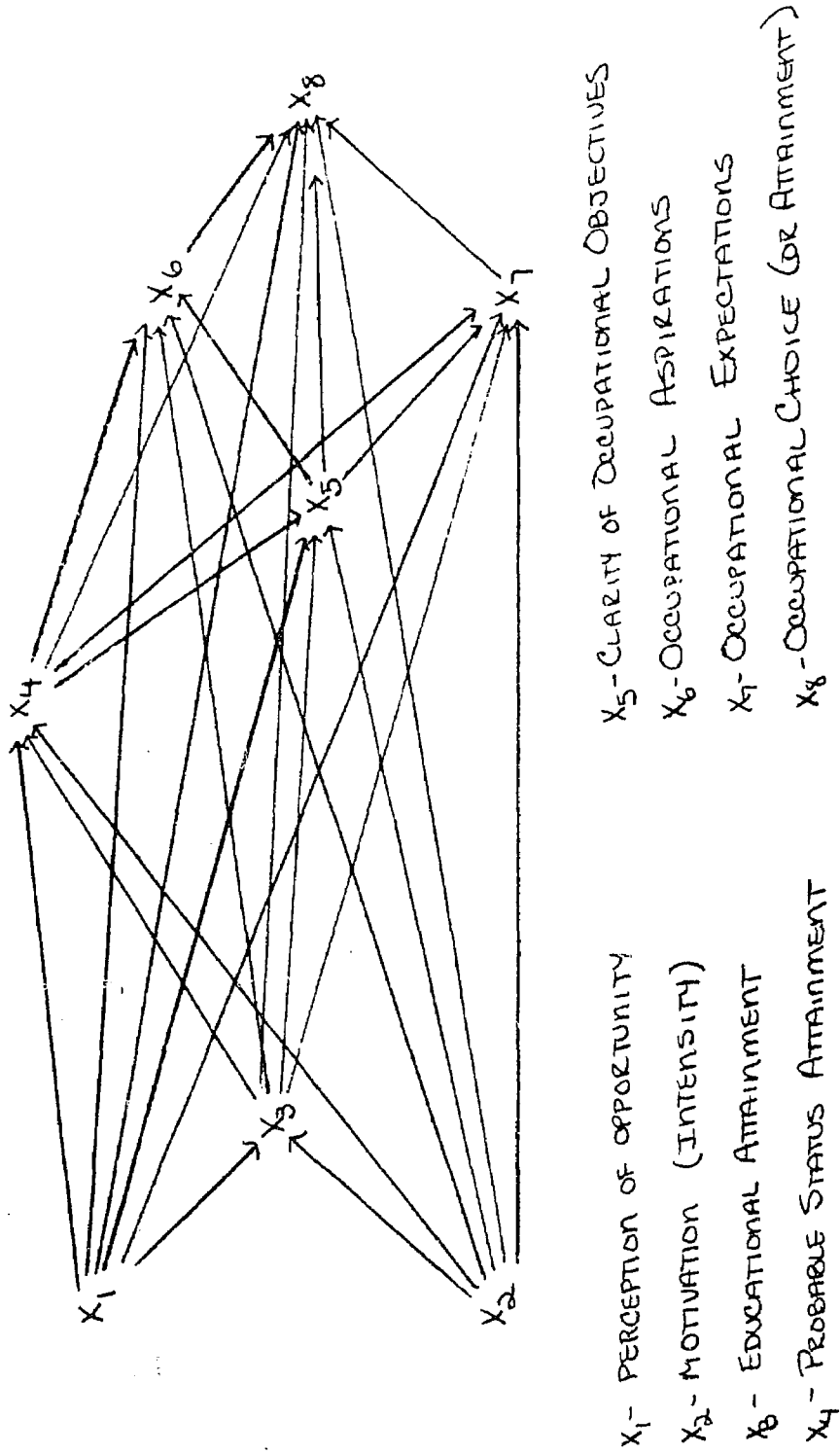
A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO THE CONCEPT OF SELF AND PERSONALITY



The macro model was merely intended to extend previous models and, hopefully, provide greater specification of possible dynamics operative through time. Additionally, the introduction of the cybernetic-feedback effect was meant to focus particular attention on the temporal dimension since this cannot be ignored in any portended "process" model. It should be possible to eventually depict a similar model with specific attention given to the stages of the occupational choice process discussed by developmental theorists. This could also lead toward a greater understanding of the interaction which is theorized to occur between maturation and realism; thus it is highly plausible that different aspects of the model have differential effects on the choice process dependent on the particular stage in which one finds oneself.

The real potential of a macro model such as that presented here is that it --- or some other similar model --- could serve as a synthetic and integrative framework for the disparate developmental approaches presently extant. As stated at the outset in our brief review of current theories and concepts, there are varied approaches to the study of the occupational choice process. None of these, as presently constituted, serves as an integrative framework for the rest and yet all may have something to offer. The model that has been presented here is at least a start on a framework in which lesser models are meant to be included, but included as parts of a new model rather than as independent models. Lastly, the model is one more attempt to indicate how systems theory could be applied to phenomena other than those of a very abstract nature.

FIGURE 2.
THE REVISED AND EXTENDED COSBY-LEGERE
TYPOLOGY APPLIED IN A CAUSAL MODEL



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ERRATA

The discussion of the first alternate hypothesis was unintentionally omitted; thus the second and third sentences in this paragraph should read as follows:

In the first alternate hypothesis, the assumption would be that higher motivation would result in being less clear about clarity of occupational object. A partial explanation for expecting to find this could be that more highly motivated persons would continually consider a wider range of occupational objects and thus fail to develop closure about any one occupational object.