PRINCIPLES AND TECHNIQUES OF GUIDANCE SERVICES AS APPLICABLE TO SECONDARY EDUCATION COUNSELLORS IN NOVA SCOTIA

A Thesis written in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

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Saint Mary's University,
School of Education,
March 31, 1972.

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THESIS ABSTRACT

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ABSTRACT

In writing a treatise on guidance services, one soon realizes that the complete field cannot adequately be covered in two or three volumes. It is this writer's purpose, then to select those aspects of the guidance field which appear to him to be the most significant in relation to secondary education in Nova Scotia and to expand upon such features in the light of personal experience gained in Nova Scotia.

There has been during recent years, increased recognition of the need for special services in schools to assist students in matters related to future planning, to help them make the most of present opportunities, and to enable them to deal with various personal problems. Organized services along this general line are often referred to as "Guidance Programs." Accompanying this recognition there is a host of theories, backgrounds and subsequent opinions that provide the speculative or motivating force behind guidance activities. Both the general theory and the practical day-to-day provision of guidance services should be considered and integrated if the guidance field is to be adequately analysed.

The purpose of this paper then is to consider both the theoretical and practical areas of guidance services. In

doing this, this writer hopes to draw on experiences within the province of Nova Scotia and the city of Dartmouth and examine, select, and integrate the ideals and aspects of the guidance field which one might consider most significant. It is also hoped that those now operating in guidance services or those interested in making a career in this field might find this work particularly significant for their immediate or long range interests.

Most of the first half of the treatise will be devoted to the theoretical aspects of guidance services. Direct application to practical situations will be used only to exemplify or to back up a theoretical viewpoint. The sociological and psychological basis for guidance will be reviewed as well as reasons and aims for such services. Different counselling theories will be analysed, selected and summarized. Such theoretical viewpoints that would be most applicable to the immediate secondary school area will be considered.

As the paper progresses, more practical day-to-day procedures come under review. Such methods will be brought to view and selected in the light of what is possible and available for guidance counsellors in this province.

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INTRODUCTION

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As the paper progresses, more practical day-to-day procedures come under review. Such methods will be brought to view and selected in the light of what is possible and available for guidance counsellors in this province. Moreover, the practical methods will flow from the theoretical premises that have formerly been established.

PART I: BACKGROUND FOR GUIDANCE SERVICES

CHAPTER I

GUIDANCE PRINCIPLES AND AIMS

According to the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Guidance counselling is the process by which a student is helped by conferences to understand himself in relation to the developing and changing world.[1] Counselling provides professional assistance for each individual by helping him to be more objective and realistic as he seeks self understanding and self-development. Individual counselling helps the student to interpret and relate facts about himself and to apply this knowledge in solving everyday problems and making realistic educational and occupational plans. Group counselling includes when a guidance worker meets with a group of students. Here, there is a tendency to discuss problems and issues that are general in nature.

Principles and Aims

"The school guidance program has to do primarily with helping students to solve problems related to choosing, planning adjusting and achieving in educational, occupational, personal,

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1. Parmenter, Blueprint for Guidance in Canadian Schools (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1967), p. 9.

social and allied areas."[2]

For the most part, emphasis today is in the direction of helping all students to think about important choices and adjustments which they will probably face at various stages of living and toward which some preparations can be made now. Guidance in schools leans toward assisting the student to acquire the skills and understandings that should make him better able to cope with various problems, preferably before such problems become acute and therefore difficult to handle in adequate fashion.

Many of the problems which arise for students seem to stem chiefly from lack of information about matters of educational, personal and vocational interest plus a lack of the understandings and skills needed to deal with relevant data even when such information is available. Such needs and limitations of students and how to deal with them may be expressed as aims of the school guidance programs. Some of these aims are as follows:

i. To make the student aware of the importance of broad, careful planning and replanning for a career at a time when occupations and industries are changing at an ever-increasing rate, and to develop in the student the skills and understandings needed to "career plan" largely on his own.

ii. To discuss with a student, and on occasion, with parents, personal career plans as these develop so as to help the student to be reasonably sure that his selected program, courses, subjects, etc., are in line with his apparent aptitudes, abilities, and interests, and with occupational and educational admission and other requirements.

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2. Ibid. p. 13.

iii. To help the student in discovering, measuring, and understanding his own particular capacities, abilities, real interests, personality traits, strengths, and weaknesses in order to be able to make the most of present opportunities and to plan wisely for the future.

iv. To lead the student to a realization of the value of suitable education and training both in school and out, and to make apparent the need in a rapidly changing world for continuing one's education on a planned basis throughout life.

v. To make available accurate and up-to-date information about opportunities for education as they exist today. This includes information about courses, fees and other expenses, financial aids such as scholarships, bursaries, loan funds, etc., at institutions at the same level as or beyond the present school.

vi. To assist the student to a better understanding of the nature and importance of efficient methods of study and habits of work so that he may accomplish more with less expenditure of time and effort, both now and in his future occupation.

vii. To detect unattended-to student needs and, with these in mind, to recommend changes in the school's curricular policies and special services; where the needs of a given student cannot be taken care of through the school's existing educational program to help him discover possibilities at the other educational institutions or indeed outside the formal system.[3]

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3. Ibid. pp. 13-14.

CHAPTER II

A SOCIOLOGICAL BASIS FOR GUIDANCE SERVICES

Concepts basic to the development of guidance work have roots in such fields as religion, philosophy, psychology and sociology. This chapter will attempt to note some background for guidance services with sociological undertones. We shall look at the importance of conserving human resources, social attitudes and needs of the student; the need for assistance in planning an Educational program, and will conclude with the important concepts of specialization of function and automation.

Conservation of Human Resources

A major consideration when considering a sociological basis for guidance services is the concept of the conservation of human resources. Society is obligated to help each person live the kind of life that is both individually satisfying and socially effective. To help meet this obligation, the school, as a societal institution, should provide guidance services to the individual as and when he needs them. The school moreover, must supply each individual with the kind of education that best suits his abilities and other potentialities. Thus, in helping the individual to attain his own maximum development, the school benefits both the student and society.

In complex modern life people are confronted with more

problems than formerly and have more difficulty in achieving satisfactory solutions. Thus individuals need more assistance today than they did in the past in order to function effectively. Guidance services operate on the principle that the individual has the right to receive assistance in making choices and adjustments.

The Student: Social Attitudes and Needs

It is in the home that young children usually make their initial adjustment to the world. As their innate growth patterns slowly emerge they must learn to relate themselves to parents, siblings, and the total home environment.

The social learning in these early years has taken place mainly within the family and play groups of children. "Through these agents the child becomes aware of and reacts to social forces and contacts. Through such forces, content, structuring and attitudes concerning his social-psychological environment are conveyed to him; and cultural standards begin to have consequences for his personality."[1]

In this process of socialization, one of the important components of the culture which the child takes over is the factor of social groups in society. Even while the child's

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1. Don E. Hamachek (Ed.), "Social perceptions and Attitudes of Children", The Self in Growth, Teaching & Learning, Marian Radke-Yarrow and Hadassah Davis, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1965. p. 153.

experience is within the bounds of his family, values of class and group enter into his world as they are a part of family life and customs. As the child's experience extends to neighborhood and school, there is greater opportunity for cultural values with respect to groups, to affect his outlook on life.

When a child arrives at school, his concept of himself and his place among his peers and teachers are influenced by a great many variables such as his family's socio-economic status, his father's occupation, the street on which he lives, his national background, his race and religion. In many ways and in repeated situations, differences among people such as these, which are group-derived differences, are reinforced. The student knows that how his family lives is different from the families down the street. He learns that his family goes to one place of religious worship, his playmate goes to another, a second playmate to none at all. His parents' advice and admonitions help him to sense the meaning of group differences such as "good", "bad", or "dirty."

In the process of socialization, the child is confronted with cultures, many ready-made social habits and social variations. These patterns are experienced variously by the child, depending upon the forces to which he is exposed and upon his needs and personality. In the host of new situations, which confront him, the child is likely to accept uncritically the attitudes and modes of behaviour which the culture supplies. "Thus conformity to

environmental standards and expectations rather than individual securities or insecurities would appear to be the root of the child's earliest content and valences for social groups."[2] Conformity to social standards which may be seen as an "induced" need may, in the course of time, change in character in the direction of "own" needs. That is, the individual not only follows the dictates of his environment concerning his attitudes towards social standards, but he comes to accept these attitudes as his own. He uses them conveniently and perhaps, he finds them as an accepted source of security or outlet for aggression.

As these same children enter and proceed through school they have many new adjustments to make. They are in a strange place; they have to get along with a large group of children. They have to get acquainted with the school process and the discipline of learning and now they are separated from the home environment and their mothers.

Many students face emotional problems that they cannot solve, even with their parent's help. In some cases they grow out of such patterns; in other instances they may become "problem" children throughout their school years. In either case such children often need help in gaining emotional stability. Again, when students go on to high school, "They face a changed learning situation, and their difficulties may be further complicated by the stresses and strains of adolescence superimposed upon the cumulative effects of the unresolved conflicts of their

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2. Ibid. p. 155.

elementary school years."[3] We will deal with such conflicts and problems in chapter six where the emphasis will be on educational and personal problems and procedures toward a possible solution.

Educational Program

Because of their limited experiences and the lack of developed perceptive and reasoning facilities, students need help in learning to cope successfully with the academic and extracurricular demands that schools and a changing society will make on them.

"As our society becomes more complex, there are increased pressures and incentives for education and training experiences beyond the high school years."[4] Many jobs require a high degree of specialized training, This situation, combined with the fact that there are many educational and vocational choices both during and after the secondary years in education makes it imperative that students receive expert guidance in educational planning.

Specialization of Function and Automation

A sociological basis for guidance work is the emphasis in modern society on specialization of function. As society has become more complex, the work activity of individuals has become more highly specialized. This occurs in many walks of life including the professions such as medicine and in different trade and technical areas.

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3. A. M. Kroll, "Essential foundations for Career Guidance". The School Guidance Worker, XXIV (February, 1969).

4. "Too Young to Choose", Vocational Guidance Quarterly. p. 30.

Actually most persons can become proficient in a variety of types of work. "This is true partly because many individuals have the basic skills, the personal adaptability, and the other traits needed to succeed in a number of different jobs, and partly because many fields of training or work actually have many common elements."[5] However, when considering society in relation to work most employers and administrators desire work loads to be organized and accomplished on the basis of specialization, but within these limits the aptitudes of individuals and the training requirements of industry or professionals should be carefully matched. Attempts to meet these demands can be done through an effective program of guidance services.

Automation

"The concept of specialization of function is undergoing change as a result of the development of automation in commercial and industrial establishments."[6]

"Automation has been defined as a self-regulating machine that does man's mechanical work and at the same time regulates and controls the work. Automation is the mechanization plus self-control."[7]

While not all commercial and industrial establishments are operating under automation, it is true that automation has been adopted in a great variety of situations. The extent of

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5. Humphrey et. al. op. cit. p. 36.

6. Ibid. p. 37.

7. Ibid. p. 39.

utomation differs from one industry to another, from one office situation to another, and from one department in an organization to another. Some of the situations in which automation is utilized are: manufacturing of automobile engines, petroleum refining, aspects of railroading, warehousing, banks, insurance and government agencies.

Because automation is certain to become more common, and because it does pose problems, it provides an important area of interest for counsellors. Its probable effects on experienced workers and on young people who are about to become workers should be noted by counsellors. What the student learns through his everyday experiences will broaden and deepen his understanding of the modern world of occupations and thereby imporve service to the students.

Our modern society holds in high esteem the fundamental worth of the individual and believes in the importance of helping its members to develop to the fullest extent of their capacities. If society is to progress and to adapt itself to new situations it should provide opportunities for each individual to make his unique contribution. To help him to do so is a continuing and insistent challenge to all those engaged in guidance work.

CHAPTER III

PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS OF GUIDANCE SERVICES

Basic Characteristics of Human Behaviour

Specific hereditary factors shape human destiny. An infant can develop only within a pattern that is consistent with his heredity. "Characteristics such as blood type, the shape of facial features, and the coloring of the eyes, hair, and skin are inherited. Physical and mental growth limitations, contain characteristics of personality and temperament and some special abilities are very likely dependent to some extent on hereditary influences."[1]

Human development and environment produce variations within the limits of heredity. The human infant may grow to become an adult who is warped and stunted mentally and physically or he may develop to his fullest potentiality, according to the amount of opportunity and stimulation that he receives and utilizes.

"Both hereditary and environmental influences effect the sum total of an individual's development."[2] Biological tendencies and motives are strong, but most of them become subordinated to the desire for social approval early in the life of an individual.

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1. Floyd Ruch, Psychology and Life (Scott, Foresman and Co. Chicago, 1956), p. 32.

2. Ibid. p. 34.

These complex psychological and social drives are tied up with the individual's relations to other people and thus with his happiness in life.

As a child matures, he acquires a growing store of effective symbols. Certain objects, sounds and reactions of others become associated with the satisfaction of his basic needs and may eventually come to be sought for themselves. Through a similar process the organism can be motivated to avoid words and objects which have come to be associated with some painful experience.

However, the theory for learned rewards only partially explains the development of psychological and social motivation. "This theory holds that we learn to attach reward values to formerly neutral objects. Infants learn to react to voices and eventually to words as representing or suggesting the satisfaction of their bodily needs. That is, words and objects which cannot themselves satisfy biological drives and are not originally sought for their own sakes come to be associated with real rewards until they eventually acquire a reward value of their own."[3] However, man seems to have certain basic and psychological needs which he expresses through the social patterns of his particular culture. Among these are the needs for security, the need to respond to others through the exchange of love and esteem, the need for new experiences and greater knowledge.

Basic needs for love, affection and belonging always seems to be present and as the child grows older they become more

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3. Op. Cit. F. Ruch, p. 137.

pressing than pure physical needs. Such needs foster a desire for social approval from others. Even in infancy a child learns the approval or displeasure of his parents. He comes to think of things as "good" or "bad" according to his parent's reactions, and his behaviour comes to be motivated by a desire to conform to their standards.

At first symbols of social approval are important to the child only when they come from his parents or anyone close to him who satisfies his needs. Gradually, however, he comes to desire the approval of society as a whole - or at least of the particular social group to which he belongs. The stock symbolic ideas, words, and objects which motivate behaviour grow to include the many symbols that abound in social life: slogans, principles of political or social reform, philosophies, ideas.

Values play an important role in determining the direction of psychological and social drives as well as physiological drives. Everyone is motivated by a system of values, determined largely by his home environment. For example, a child who grows up in a home where moneymaking is valued above all else will probably accept the material values of his parents whose love and respect he seeks.

Homeostasis, (Biological, Psychological and Social):

An organism will go to remarkable lengths to maintain constancy of the internal environment. It strives, often by means of interaction with its environment, to maintain stability of its normal internal states (principle of homeostasis). In physiological conditions, when an internal state is disturbed,

tensions are produced which motivate the organism into seeking activity that ceases only when the goal is attained and biological equilibrium is restored. However, homeostasis is more than maintenance of chemical conditions of the body. It involves an active effort of the organism to establish a physical environment that is as constant as possible.

Man's psychological and social motives operate as homeostatic mechanisms in much the fashion as physical drives, motivating the individual to maintain a social environment in which he can satisfy his needs for love, approval, prestige, knowledge or experience. His self-concept - that is, his picture of himself and of his relationship to his environment - acts as another "constant" state which the organism seeks to preserve. Since the adult human organism can usually satisfy its biological needs in a modern society, the primary motivating force often seems to be that of satisfying psychological needs.

Social equilibrium is necessarily dynamic rather than static, since both the individual and his environment are always in a state of change. In order to maintain equilibrium on the social level, man must continuously reorganize his environment in more complex ways. Often on account of such complexity the need cannot be satisfied with the result that it assumes greater insistence. In many cases, the individual must satisfy such psychological and social needs by adjusting to his present environment in the best way possible rather than in attempting to reshape it.

Individual Differences

Recognition of the importance of individual differences is fundamental to guidance theory and practice. Individuals differ significantly in mental abilities, interests and personality traits.

In the area of affective life, the range of individual differences varies considerably. Some people are very stable in temperment while others experience sharp and frequent changes in their emotional states, ranging from feelings of exhilaration to moods of despondency. In terms of emotional adjustment people may function at a host of different levels. In the area of social relations, some persons find that friendships are easy to establish and are a continuing source of feelings of well being; others find that social contacts are difficult to initiate and are maintained or endured only with great effort.

In considering individual differences in relation to the make-up and needs of a client, the guidance worker should realize that a composite of abilities, interests and other personal traits is necessary for success in a complex educational, social or vocational situation.

"In appraising an individual for a vocation, school program or other situation, the guidance worker should assess a variety of factors within the individual and in his environment."[4] By making this relationship, the worker is able to make reasonably sound judgements concerning his patterns of traits in relation to the patterns of traits required for success in the particular situation.

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4. Humphreys et. al. op. cit. p. 49.

Learning

While the individual's capacity for learning is probably determined to a large extent by hereditary influences, his learning accomplishments depend on his opportunities and conditions for learning. "The effects that specific incentives will have on the individual, and the resulting efficiency of learning depend upon conditions within the learner himself."[5]

If he is to learn effectively, not only should the individual be free of emotional turmoil, but he should also be positively motivated toward the goal that lies ahead of the learning path. In general, the greater the motivation the better the learning. The guidance worker then needs to view each individual as a complex being, whose learning experience are affected by emotions and motivations.

Personality

Understanding an individual's personality is basic to guidance procedures. There are many different theories on the personality of people. The counsellor takes this into consideration when dealing with his clients.

"An individual's personality is the result of all the influences of both heredity and environment, past and present. It is the whole dynamic complex developed by the accumulated reactions of the individual to his environment. In other words, personality is the result of all the factors operating in an individual's life."[6]

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5. James Deese and Stewart Hulse, Psychology of Learning New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958. p. 20.

6. Roch, op. cit. p. 20.

The idea of dealing with many aspects of personality deserves special emphasis in guidance work. Guidance can be directed toward the person in his entirety - that is, it should take into account that the individual is not only an intellectual being but also a physical being, a social being, and a being with emotions.

Moreover, a guidance worker does not attempt to influence behaviour through social pressures and manipulations. As Feder explains, "It is rather the effort to develop in each individual those personal insights and understandings of his own potentials which enable him to effect appropriate adjustive behaviour in his personal goal seeking."[7]

The Process of Adjustment

The interaction between man and his environment is a continuing process of adjustment - attempts to overcome inner and outer obstacles to the satisfaction of biological and social needs. Environment is made up of social instructions and situations as well as physical objects. Moreover, every person has an internal environment which produces stimuli within his own body, such as the physiological activity associated with the feeling of hunger. No sharp line can be drawn between these stimuli of an organism and its environment.

While human living is a constant process of adjustment, that adjustment may take many forms. For example, when an individual adjusts, he may either change his environment or make a more adaptive response to his present environment. Whatever

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7. Daniel Feder, "Personnel Worker in Education as Related to Change" Personnel Services in Education. 58th. Yearbook for the Study of Education, Part III (Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1959). p. 275.

form adjustment takes, it involves a complex relationship between the individual's needs, the opportunities the environment provides for satisfying those needs, and the individual's own ability to make the most of those opportunities.

The counselor in his dealings with the client then takes into consideration that most psychological activity - human thinking, feeling and doing depends upon both biological and environmental functionings and needs.

CHAPTER IV

THEORIES OF COUNSELLING

Counselling plays an integral and important basis for guidance work. In this section we shall try to define what is meant by "counselling," and show how different theories of counselling might provide a speculative base for the guidance worker. Four specific theories will be considered and a sample case history of one of these theories illustrated.

Definition

In defining counselling one must keep in mind that various authorities have seen it in different lights. These variations are due not only to differences in points of view and philosophy among the specialists in this field but also due to historic changes in the concept of this art. A common element in many current definitions of counselling is the notion that counselling is aimed at helping people make choices and how to deal with such choices. Perhaps the clearest advocate of this point of view is Tyler: "Counselling is one kind of psychological helping activity, the kind that concentrates on the growth of a clear sense ego identity and the willingness to make choices and commitments in accordance with it."[1] Other theorists combine different essential aspects with this

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1. Leona E. Tyler, "Theoretical Principles Underlying the Counselling Process" J.Consel. Psychology. 1958, Vol. 5 (1), p.3.

element of choice. Stefflre states:

> Counselling denotes a professional relationship between a trained counsellor and a client. This relationship is usually person to person, although it may sometimes involve more than two people, and it is designed to help the client understand and clarify his view of life space so that he may make meaningful and informed choices consonant with his essential nature in those areas where choices are available to him.[2]

The majority of counselling theorists seem to believe that counselling deals with such problems as choice, action and role definition. The present writer holds that counselling is a process, that it is a relationship, that it is designed to help people make choices; that underlying better choice making are such matters as learning, personality development and self-knowledge which can be translated into better role perception and more effective role behaviour.

Theory as applied to the counselling situation

There are many different elements which might be included in a counselling theory. However, most of the prominent theories seem to include: 1. assumptions regarding the nature of man, 2. beliefs regarding learning theory and changes in behaviour, 3. a commitment to certain goals of counselling, and 4. a definition of the role of the counsellor.

Some assumptions must be made about what kind of a creature man is in order to construct a theory about counselling him. As we examine specific theories, we shall note how the theorist deals with the problems attendant upon the human condition and

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2. Buford Stefflre, Ed., Theories of Counselling, "Function and Present Status of Counselling Theory" (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 5.

how he deals with the pliability of man, that is, whether he is sufficiently plastic in nature that he can be shaped in one way or another by the interaction of genetic elements and environments.

Counselling theories also include beliefs about how people change or learn. Counselling involves a learning process, but theorists may disagree on how this learning takes place. Change seems to be a goal of counselling, but there may be great differences among theorists regarding how change comes about.

The goals of counselling will differ for different theories. The goals of various approaches are so different that one could be considered to have been successfully treated by advocates of one theory and at the same time be seen as in need of therapy by advocates of another theory.

The role of the counsellor will be different in different theories. Differences may arise out of the extent to which interpretation, advice and persuasion are thought to be proper behaviour for the counsellor. There may be differences with regard to such special problems as dependency of the client, the communication problem, and other elements which may appear to help define the role of the counsellor.

Finally, it might be said that two general principles should be noted when considering theories of counselling.

1) A theory deals with logical structure as well as specific data. Besides being speculative, a theory of counselling must have substance. A theory which is completely abstract is a poor theory, not because it is wrong, but because it does not

help us to understand the facts which are already available. "A theory of counselling must meet not only certain formal criteria but must make explicit its position regarding certain substantive elements."[3] These elements, in turn, are deemed appropriate to the judgement of a theory in this field.

2) It might also be noted here that counselling theories are to be weighed and sifted by the counsellor. He must be able to pick or reject the sound and the unsound from such ideals. He must be able to apply different viewpoints to fit his own particular situations and do so in the midst of a host of conflicting forces within the school.

Theory helps us to temper intuition and rigidity and to examine our actions. Reasonable freedom from theory is also needed if we are to overcome the smugness of the "in" counsellor and if we are to encompass and apply different theories to particular situations. The application of theories of counselling can be compared to the learning of the descriptive rules of grammar; only after they are known, understood, examined and evaluated may they be safely applied.

Specific Theories

Client Centered Theory

Client-centered theory or nondirective theory derives from the work of Carl Rogers and others. "As it has developed over the years, it has come to encompass many areas such as personality development, group leadership, education and learning,

3. Ibid. p. 11.

creativity, interpersonal relations, and the nature of the fully functioning person."[4] For Rogers the subjective nature of the client-counsellor interaction is one of the fundamental characteristics of the interview and no specific theory can capture its meaning:

> I let myself go into the immediacy of the relationship where it is my total organism which takes over and is sensitive to the relationship, not simply my consciousness. I am not consciously responding in a planful or analytic way, but simply react in an unreflective way to the other individual, my reaction being based (but not consciously) on my total organismic sensitivity to this other person. I live the relationship on this basis.[5]

Some of the main general issues that Rogers considers to be important are:

1. Every individual exists in a continually changing world of experience of which he is the centre.
2. The organism reacts to the field as it is experienced and perceived.
3. We do not react to some absolute reality but to our perceptions of that reality.
4. The best vantage point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual.
5. Most of the ways of behaving which are adopted by the organism are those which are consistent with the concept of self.
6. Processes of defense and change are basic to early childhood development and the estrangement of man.[6]

In dealing with the general counselling field, Rogers stresses the need of the counsellor to have settled within himself

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4. Carl Rogers, "The Necessary and Sufficient Conditions of Therapeutic Personality Change", Client Centered Therapy, Boston: Series of Papers Publ. by Houghton Mifflin, 1951. pp. 48-56.

5. Ibid.

6. Bulford Stefflre, (Ed.), "Client Centered Theory", Theories of Counselling by Donald L. Grummon, p. 38-41.

the hypothesis upon which he will act. The counsellor can be of maximum aid to the individual only if he has the idea of what approach he will take with the client. However, when the actual interview takes place emphasis should be given to the way the counsellee responds and the counsellor should also respond in a flexible manner. Rogers emphasizes here that the counsellor should use his designated plan but not be too overbearing or stilting on the student in the process. Moreover, the more deeply he relies upon the strength and potential of the client the more deeply does he obtain this hypothesis. That is, the more he considers and utilizes the client's capabilities the more adequate he is able to formulate a counselling approach that will make use of the characteristics of the client.

"There is a need to really "hear" the person. That is, not only to interpret the context of the actual words of the client but to hear the personal overtones, the hidden meanings as well."[7]

Rogers also stresses the need of letting the client be a person separate from the counsellor's own ideals and values. "There is a need of permitting freedom for the client to prepare the way for learning, creativity or contemporary living. There is a need, he states, of appreciating people as we appreciate a sunset but we do not try to control a sunset. There is, then, a sort of releasing of his inner conflicts when he knows someone cares for him."[8]

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7. Ibid. p. 40.

8. Ibid. p. 41.

"When the counsellor perceives and accepts the client as he is, when he lays aside all evaluation and enters into the perceptual frame of reference of the client, he frees the client to explore his life and experience anew, frees him to perceive in that experience new meanings and new goals."[9]

A fundamental weakness of the Client-centered theory is that it fails to take sufficient note of how behaviour is influenced by the nature of environment. However, the present state of knowledge in the behavioural sciences offers no complete theory of behaviour which can guide all the counsellor's activities, and in practice all counsellors, knowingly or unknowingly, tend to draw upon several theories. If the counsellor uses tests or other information which call for predictions of the client's future performance, he is making use of yet another theory or he may draw on another client-centered theory or learning theory for the client.

It should also be emphasized at this point that all counselling takes place in an interpersonal relationship, and that client-centered theory deals more than anything else with the nature of the interpersonal relationship in which constructive personality growth and change can take place. In this sense client-centered theory is directly relevant to any helping relationship.

> Even though the practice of the general counsellor may call for adaptations of the formal theory and departures from some of the usual procedures employed in client-counselling, the counsellor will be maintaining the

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9. Ibid. p. 41.

essence of the client-centered approach if he succeeds in creating a counselling relationship in which his client has the experience of being fully received.[10]

Trait-Factor Theory

We shall consider this theory according to its underlying theory of learning, counselling goals and the role of the counsellor.

The learning theory underlying the trait-factor type of counselling embraces the development of the human personality from infancy to adulthood. It is assumed that there is a development pattern of progression from infancy to adulthood with respect to the emerging and maturing of interests and aptitudes. Further, it is verified by research that during adolescence many aptitudes and interest patterns, likes and dislikes for activities and work tasks, emerge and are identifiable by objective tests.

A second aspect of learning theory concerns man's thinking capacity as applied to the task of understanding and controlling himself. This aspiration for self-understanding is a life-long urge or motive and possibly is never fully completed. Moreover, such efforts as self-discovery produce basic intrinsic satisfactions which further reinforce his efforts. Counselling should help in the understanding of such potentialities of the client.

The goal of the trait-factor type of counselling is to aid the individual in self-understanding and self-management by means of helping him to assess his good points and liabilities

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10. Ibid. p. 85.

in relation to the requirements of progressively changing life goals and his vocational career.

"In this type of counselling there is gradually emerging the related concept that counselling is designed to help the individual develop skill and understanding for future re-adjustments and changes of interest and career activity."[11]

According to this theory, the role of the counsellor is to help the individual learn to understand and to apply to his own information, his whole perception of himself as an unique individual. This may be arrived at through psychometric means, vocational information and case study. In a sense, the counsellor brings external information to help the individual measure himself and act out of such self knowledge. He might, then, apply this to the known adult requirements of adult tasks in school and later in occupations.

Two outstanding university counsellors who make use of the trait-factor theory are Leona E. Tyler and Ruth Strang.

Leona E. Tyler in her Minimum Change Therapy holds that therapy generally has as its goal a personality change; counselling attempts to bring about the best possible utilization of what the person already has.

She questions the assumption that therapy should attempt to bring about as much personality change as possible.

She pictures this therapeutic process in terms of a change of direction rather than in terms of distances or amounts.

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11. E.G. Williamson, "Educational Psychology Measurements", A Statistical Evaluation of Clinical Counselling, 1941, I, pp. 117-132.

Counselling can create a situation in which a person may become aware of such directional shifts that are possible for him. She compares such shifts to a change in course by a ship. An alteration of an immediate 10^{o} can greatly alter later stages of the ship's course. Similarly, a relatively minor shift in the psychological direction in which a person is moving may well change his life considerably over a period of years.

There is a need to emphasize a person's strengths. It is in this way that we deal with difficulties that are actually blocking the person's forward movement. A person who knows his real strengths and is clear about his basic values may be able to turn away from anxieties about aspects of his life that would be very difficult to change.

Another essential feature of this type of therapy is the act of lending one's own strength to the client for the period during which he needs it, so that he can be certain that his world is not going to fall apart if he moves. That is to say the counsellor takes on an ego supporting role.

Ruth Strang points out that the counsellor may use a number of techniques in various combinations: self-analysis, situation analysis, client-centered emphasis on the individual's initiative, responsibility and capacity to solve his own problems.

For her, the counsellor's reputation is perhaps the most important single factor in the success of an interview. Strang feels many of the problems of the interview are already solved if the interviewer has the reputation for giving "a square deal", for recognizing the student's point of view and for giving

constructive help in the joint solution of a problem. It is impossible to create the ideal atmosphere for an interview when the counsellor has acquired the reputation of disclosing confidences, of duplicity in dealing with individuals, of doing most of the talking, of wasting the student's time.

The intensive phase of the therapy is brought to a close as soon as a clear direction has been established in the client.

Behaviour Theoretical Counselling

"Behaviour Theoretical Counselling as observed by L. D. Goldstein has as its base the study of learning or changes in behaviour as a function of experience. Although constitutional or innate factors are not ignored, the emphasis is almost always on the effects of prior experiences or the events under scrutiny."[12]

"Most current behaviour theories in counselling stem more or less directly from the laboratory tradition in psychology."[13] They have their basis in instrumental conditioning and stimulus-response theories. Nothing is really learned that is not first experienced by singular or chemical stimuli.

Goldstein grasps the nucleus of such theories and weaves them into what he calls the "behaviour-theoretical" view of the counselling process. In this process in order for the client to pick up the immediate stimuli or cues the indirect approach is used where the counsellor and therapeutic relationship with the client have primary importance.

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12. Leonard D. Goldstein, "Behaviour Theoretical Views of Counselling", Theories of Counselling, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965. p. 172.

13. Deese and Houlse, op. cit. p. 11.

The counsellor's role is a permissive and accepting one, particularly with regard to what the client may feel or say. "In the meantime, the counsellor should be aware of society's values and must help the client become aware of these values in the light of his own behaviour."[14]

The counsellor must help the client to develop towards him a warm, close, and rather dependent relationship wherein the counsellor becomes a significant person to the client, and his approval or disapproval become important factors mediating the client's behaviour. "While undoubtedly some of the reward value of the therapist's behaviour stems from his cultural role as a professional expert, his reinforcement values would appear to be substantially enhanced by a close interpersonal relationship with the client."[15]

The counsellor, then, reinforces the client's behaviour both in the counselling sessions and in extra-counselling situations. "However, the crux of this viewpoint lies in the counsellor's judgement of when certain behaviour patterns should be positively or negatively reinforced or just not considered. The experienced counsellor would refrain from reinforcing the client until he was reasonably certain that, on the basis of the counselling relationship, his approval would have some reward value to the client."[16]

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14. Leonard D. Goldstein. loc. cit. p. 171.

15. Ibid.

16. Ibid. p. 174.

In addition to the above, the counsellor also attempts to teach the client to think more effectively, to approach situations with a problem solving attitude and to substitute sound problem-solving methods for trial-and-error behaviour whenever possible.

> As the counsellor helps the client to discriminate more accurately between realistic and unrealistic fears, he enhances the client's capacity for developing intelligent rational solutions to his problems and reduces the client's need to discuss new problems with the counsellor as such problems arise in the future. Such an approach emphasizes the client's problem-solving ability rather than simply providing the client with the solution to a particular problem.[17]

The following are exerpts from an interview with a high school student prepared by Dr. G. Kirkannon. The interview contains within it many of the principles we have been trying to establish in the presentation of this counselling theory. The attempts of the counsellor to focus on the client's conflict and his avoidance of the negative elements in his academic progress are significant. The client's lack of thinking constructively about his situation and the counsellor's reaction to this should be noted as well.

How the process works can be illustrated by a recorded interview excerpt from Kirkannon's research:

C: This math test would give you an indication of your background in math and also predict how a person is likely to do in our College of Engineering.
S: I'm a little scared of math. But (pause) that would give me an idea of where I stand now in my math background. Right?
C: That's right.

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17. Ibid.

S: Well, I think I've got an idea of where I stand now in my math background; it's one of my weaker points. But I've always been told that if I work at it, I could do well in it. But I don't know.
C: It's hard for you to know about what others say concerning your potentialities.
S: That's right. At times in math, I've done very well when I applied myself a little more. But then at other times I didn't do so well and it just seemed like I hated it. And as a result, well, I got mighty low marks.
C: You really had some ups and downs in math.
S: Yes, that's sure. Well, it seemed to make a lot of difference as to the instructor I had. Some would tell me that I - well, in junior high school I was told that I was quite hopeless with it, and that sort of discouraged me. So I let it go for a year and then went to summer school to - well, to do what I'm doing now to find if I could do it or not. Well, I got a B in it. So my math background now, I don't think, I know just about where I stand in that, I think.
C: You feel that the test wouldn't be necessary because you can size it up for yourself.
S: I can size it up pretty well for myself, that I'm not very high in math.
C: Umhum.
S: Well, on the other hand, maybe it wouldn't be a bad idea to take it.
C: You're a little undecided on that one, aren't you?
S: Yes...so I'd know actually just how bad off I am.
C: So even though you don't think you're going to do well on it, you'd like to take it.
S: Even though I don't think I'll do well on it at all.[18]

Theory and the Counsellor

In high school counselling, as in all education, there tends to be a gap between theory and practice.

The school counsellor works in a setting where the primary goal is not rehabilitation but education. He is trained to refer seriously disturbed pupils, not to treat them. The problems brought to him are largely vocational and educational. Counselling theory at the secondary level rests on a basic idea

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18. Taped Interview Obtained and Counselled by Dr. K. Kirkannon, Case Studies, Nova Scotia Summer School, 1968.

in counselling and in educational philosophy, the idea of individual differences. No one theory of counselling is suitable because no single theory can allow for individual differences, not only of the pupils but of the counsellor himself.

"An effective counsellor usually begins practice by selecting a theory of counselling that attracts him as being suited to his personality and concept of counselling."[19] As time goes on in his school situation, he discovers that this favorite theory has to be revised constantly to accommodate individual differences in pupils and also the changes within himself.

In effect, a skillful counsellor works out a theory of his own, but he does not start from scratch; he starts from Tyler or Goldstein or Rogers until, in the fullness of his own experience, he becomes his own man.

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19. William Ratigan, The Place of Counselling Theory in High School Programs, NEA Journal, December, 1961, p. 47-49.

PART II: PRACTICUM FOR GUIDANCE SERVICES

CHAPTER V

GUIDANCE TECHNIQUES

This section of the treatise will be devoted to the more practical areas of counselling and guidance services. Theory and general background are important in most aspects of education and guidance is no exception. However, if the counsellor is to implement such speculative notions into his day-to-day work then he should be familiar with practical techniques as well. This implies practical knowledge of such services as well as improvision and choice selection of such services into a guidance program in a particular educational situation.

Collecting and Recording Information

Guidance services begin with the understanding of the individual. To acquire such understanding, information must be collected through a cooperative project that involves the school, the students and the parents. Such a study contains a study of the individual, including his background and present status; the collection of a variety of facts concerning his aptitudes, achievements, interests and personality; and the recording of all this information on an organized form.

Sources of necessary information about the student can be gathered from a number of sources. Some of the data needed for a guidance program are available from records kept by the school administration. Other information can be obtained from informal teacher reports, interviews with the students or their parents, autobiographies written by the students, standardized tests, questionnaires and other types of evaluation devices. Each of these methods with special attention being given to testing programs and the use of tests might be employed.

Administrative Records

It is helpful to the counsellor to know something about the Student's home background, health and school history. This could include the number and age of siblings, the general socioeconomic level of the family, the occupation of the father and the neighborhood where the home is located. Information of this type can sometimes give the counsellor valuable clues to a student's general outlook on life and the problems he faces.

When health cards are adequate the guidance staff can use them as a source of information in determining what special provisions should be made for handicapped children; in making allowances for health factors that may affect a child's learning ability; and to gain a better understanding of physical conditions that contribute to a child's personality development. "It is sometimes found that a pupil's inattentiveness in class is due to impaired hearing or vision or that apparent laziness may be related to metabolic disorders, or that unusual behaviour is caused by neurological defects."[1]

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1. Humphreys et al. op. cit. p. 122.

In practically all schools of this province, records give an account of each pupil's academic history in terms of schools attended and grades received. Subject grades are useful indications of a student's academic progress, although the exact meaning of these grades is not always clear. Some teachers are lenient in grading; others are strict. Some confine their evaluation to the student's subject knowledge or skills; others take into consideration work habits, efforts and classroom behaviour. For such reasons, grades should not be used as the sole criterion of academic accomplishment, but should be supplemented, if possible, with objective evaluations of the type provided by standardized achievement tests.

Interviews with Students and Parents

Here we are concerned with one aspect of the interview - to collect information. In this phase the interviewer may seek information about the student's past history, his likes and dislikes, his attitudes and his ambitions. Parents can contribute information about the pupil's home life, his sibling relationship, his reading and study habits, his attitude toward school, and many other matters that may have a bearing on the pupil's achievement, personality and adjustment. The parent's attitude toward the child and the aspirations that he has for him should be considered. "The source of a pupil's adjustment problems can sometimes be traced to a parent who is overdemanding, overprotective, overemotional, neglectful or unrealistic about the child's limitations or capacities."[2]

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2. Ibid. p. 128.

One of the chief contacts with parents for any guidance counselor will be by telephone. Many problems can be cleared by one or more telephone conversations. Sometimes an interview can be arranged with one or both parents. The parents then can work with the student at home as the guidance personnel deal with the student at school.

Information Teaching Reports

In addition to their formal reports of subject grades, teachers can supply helpful guidance information through informal reports of their observations of pupil behaviour during daily classroom activities. These reports may be exchanged in conversations or meetings with other staff members who are engaged in guidance services, or they may be submitted in writing for filing in the pupil's record folder. School policy will determine how these reports are to be transmitted; whether they should be submitted at regular intervals or as the occasions warrant; and whether they should be made for all pupils or only for specified ones or entirely at the discretion of teachers. For example, in Dartmouth this year, secondary school teachers were provided with printed forms for use in reporting or referring anecdotes or critical incidents of pupil behaviour.

Using Standardized Tests for Guidance Purposes

The tests that a school finally decides to use for students nearly always represents a compromise between what the school would like and what it considers practical within time and financial limitations. In making up a testing program, careful attention

should be given to budgeting considerations, scheduling problems, and personnel requirements for operating the program and using the test results to maximum advantage.

A good standardized testing program should include tests of the following categories: 1) scholastic aptitude and intelligence, 2) reading ability, and 3) achievement in the important basic skills and subject-matter areas. Tests of special aptitudes, interest inventories and personality questionnaires or inventories are sometimes administered to certain individuals or groups; but these tests are generally considered to be supplementary to the basic testing programs.

Aptitude tests have various titles; they may be called scholastic aptitude tests, tests of mental ability or tests of educational ability. Whatever the title may be, these tests are used in schools mainly as measures of general scholastic or academic learning ability.

Some of the more widely used tests of general scholastic aptitude are the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests, The Henmon Nelson Tests of Mental Ability and the Lorge Thorndike Verbal and Non-Verbal Intelligence.

An aptitude test is a useful tool in counselling if the results are properly understood and used. At the present time, most specialists recognize that a scholastic aptitude test measures a composite of native learning ability and acquired learning. Since a test score reflects acquired learning to a certain extent, it is not a pure measure of native intelligence. For example, a child's I.Q. may fluctuate somewhat from year to year because it

is affected by such factors as schooling, motivation and mental and physical health.

In an experiment done in New York schools in the Higher Horizons program, the average I.Q. of 105 students varied considerably over three years.

> "The average I.Q. of 49 boys in the group changed from 91.4 to 104.2, a gain of nearly 13 points. Forty students gained more than 10 points while six students lost more than ten points. In a later experimental group of 81 students, there were comparable alterations in the average I.Q.'s and while 3 students lost from 6 to 10 points and one student lost from 10 to 15 points, 5 students gained from 31 to 40 points, and one student gained from 41 to 50 points"[3]

Measurement of Reading Ability

Measurement in the field of reading is difficult not only because the reading process itself is highly complex, but also because the tests vary in the reading abilities they attempt to measure. Some of these tests provide three or four scores; others, as many as ten or more. Each score represents a specific aspect of reading ability. Such tests are usually in the form of a battery that yields a composite or total reading score based on all the specific reading scores. These test batteries usually can be used for both survey and diagnostic purposes.

A reading test battery of the survey type could be administered to students at least every other year. This survey test also furnishes subscores. If a student's total score on the survey test is low, the subscores will indicate the abilities which he needs to strengthen.

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3. Banzsh Hoffman, The Tyranny of Testing, New York: (Collier Books, 1964) p. 110.

An example of a test that shows a student's general reading ability and that also is broadly diagnostic is the Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test. This battery supplies separate scores for vocabulary, for speed of comprehension, and for lack of comprehension, plus a total score.

Measuring Achievement

The person who has the main responsibility for a school's testing program should, in cooperation with subject-matter teachers, carefully examine the available achievements tests. Together they should choose those tests which seem best suited to the objectives and the curriculum of their school. In selecting tests they should recognize that the majority of the existing achievement tests in such fields as mathematics, science and social studies cover specifically the subject matter that schools commonly teach in each of these fields. Some of these achievement tests, however, measure broad rather than narrow outcomes in a given field.

Among the test batteries designed for the measurement of achievement in basic skills three are worthy of special mention and are used in standardized achievement testing throughout secondary school in Nova Scotia. These would include the Metropolitan Achievement Tests, The S. R. A. Achievement Series, and the California Achievement Test.

Interest Inventories

Within a group of individuals there is, in general, a positive correlation between interest and aptitude. Usually, however, this correlation is not especially high; moreover, it varies greatly according to the individuals involved and the

fields concerned. For this reason the results of an objective scholastic or other aptitude test should be supplemented with the findings of a standardized inventory of interests. "The results of such tests, when carefully studied and discussed with the counsellor, have considerable usefulness, particularly in giving the student more insight into his own potentialities and causing him to think more carefully about his own decisions and choices."[4] Used in conjunction with the results of other tests and information about home background, financial status and scholastic record, they help to round out the picture of the individual.

Most interest inventories indicate interests according to two types of classifications: specific occupations and broad fields, which may cut across vocational groups. An example of the inventory of the first type consists of the occupational scales of the Strong Interest Blank. The second type is illustrated by the Kuder Preference Record - Vocational.

Personal Inventories

Personality measures of various types may be used with groups or individuals to identify serious cases of maladjustment. In every hundred pupils there will be, on the average, from two to five who need help and who should be referred to a clinic or to someone trained to deal with such cases. The Dartmouth schools provide personnel for the therapy of such students and the Halifax Guidance Clinic provides a more thorough base for individual

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4. Carl McDaniels, "Youth: Too Young to Choose", Vocational Guidance Quarterly, June, 1968. p. 2.

dealings with such students.

Tests of this nature can also be used by counsellors to shed additional light on cases of pupils who come for advice and help, either on personal, educational or vocational problems. With the pupil who is having difficulties in school or at home, a personality test often gives a helpful insight into the situation. The test may be supplemented by interviews, ratings and other information, all of which will usually provide a basis for understanding and help.

Personality tests may be used to help a pupil make the most of his talents, and they may help him get along better with others and attain better adjustment by giving him and the counsellor more insight into his emotional and social behaviour. In short, these tests help to give the individual a better understanding of himself and thus explains why he behaves as he does in certain situations.

N.S. Dept. of Education Test Loan Service

Different categories of tests such as those previously mentioned can be obtained from the Pupil Personnel Division of the Dept. of Education.

At present, many tests in common use are undergoing revision. Others are planned for revision in the near future. To avoid owning inventories of tests which may soon become obsolete, school authorities are advised to buy only those tests for which a loan service is not practicable. In general, tests which are not used on a continuing basis in a school system throughout the year should be borrowed rather than purchased.

The Division of Pupil Personnel Services maintains a stock of representative tests of many kinds. These tests, in test booklet form, are available for loan to the public schools of Nova Scotia when requested by principals, guidance counsellors, and other approved staff members.

Test booklets are loaned on the following conditions:

1. a signed request must be submitted on school letterhead specifying the test form(s) desired and number of copies needed;
2. the school supplies the answer sheets;
3. the tests will be used as part of the school program;
4. test booklets are promptly returned.

Since a relatively limited number of each test can be maintained in inventory, counsellors are urged to write for dates on which the tests they desire to use will be available. Programs of test administration should not be planned before reserving dates on which the Division can guarantee the availability of the test required.

If a school is trying out a test the Division may be able to loan test answer sheets also. All answer sheets borrowed must be replaced by the end of the Provincial fiscal year.

In addition the Division offers a scoring service to public schools. IBM 1230 answer sheets must now be used if this service is used.

Tests Available

TESTS	LEVEL
Brow-Carlsen Listening Comprehension	Form AM (Gr. 9-12)
Davis Reading Tests	Form 2A (Gr. 8-11)

TESTS	LEVEL
Differential Aptitude Tests	Form L
Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test	Survey D (Gr. 4-6)
Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test	Survey E (Gr. 7-9)
Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test	American Multi-Level Edition (Gr. 3-13)
Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests	Canadian Multi-Level Edition (Gr. 3-9)
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	Intermediate, Form BM (Gr. 5-6)
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	Advanced, Form MB (Gr. 7-9)
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	High School, Form AM (Gr. 9-12)
Mid-Year Algebra Test	Form A (Gr. 9-12)
Nelson Denny Reading Test	(Gr. 9 - College)
Otis Lennon Mental Ability Tests	Intermediate (Gr. 7-9)
Otis Lennon Mental Ability Tests	Advanced (Gr. 10-12)
Watson-Glasey Critical Thinking Appraisal	Form YM (H.S., Coll., Adult)
California Achievement Tests	Junior High, 1957 Edition 1963 Norms (Gr. 7-9)
California Achievement Tests	Advanced, 1957 Edition 1963 Norms (Gr. 9-12)
California Short Form Tests of Mental Maturity	1963 Edition (Gr. 4-6)
California Short Form Tests of Mental Maturity	Elementary, 1957 Edition
California Short Form Tests of Mental Maturity	Junior High, 1957 Edition
California Short Form Tests of Mental Maturity	Secondary, 1957 Edition
Cooperative English Test, Reading Comprehension	Form LB (College Freshmen)
Cooperative English Test, English Expression	Form 2A, (Gr. 9-12)
Cooperative English Test, Usage, Spelling, Vocabulary	Form OM, (Gr. 9-12)
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	Intermediate, Form AM (Gr. 5-6)
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	Advanced, Form AM (Gr. 7-9)
Metropolitan Achievement Tests	Advanced, Form DM (Gr. 7-9)
Kelley-Green Reading Comprehension Tests	Form AM (Gr. 9-College Freshmen)
Kuder Preference Record	Personal, Form AH
Kuder Preference Record	Vocational, Form CH
Kuder Occupational	Form D
Reading Versatility Tests	Form B
Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale	
Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children[5]	

5. Nova Scotia Guidance Newsletter, September and October 1970 (Halifax: Pupil Personnel Services, Dept. of Ed. Province of Nova Scotia), Vol. XXIV, No. 1, pp. 1 and 4.

Summary

It is difficult to imagine how a guidance program could function without the use of measures of intelligence, achievement, aptitudes, interests and personality. Tests results can play a role in helping the pupil to bring about a readjustment of plans more closely in line with his talents. Together with the results of measures of general academic ability, such data when discussed with the pupil have value in bringing about an acceptance of educational and vocational goals that are more consistent with abilities. Such counselling procedures often avoid frustration and unhappiness for those most concerned.

CHAPTER VI

STUDENTS, THEIR MAJOR PROBLEMS AND SOME POSSIBLE SUGGESTIONS FOR THEIR SOLUTION

In order to cover this chapter, we have subdivided it into three major areas including educational, vocational and personal. We have tried to bring out what we have deemed to be the most common interest and problem areas of students within these spheres and to point out different aids and procedures that might be used in their solution.

Educational Problems

The discussion of educational problems will not include attention to methods of teaching subject matter or essential skills. This section is concerned with ways in which the work of the classroom teacher can be supplemented by that of the guidance worker for the benefit of the student. The goal is to perform services that will help the process of learning and assist the student in areas to which the classroom teacher does not usually have the time or training to give his full attention.

Orientation of Students to a New School Situation

Guidance workers should provide means whereby students quickly and surely become oriented to a new educational environment. If this orientation is skillful and realistic, it can help decrease the intensity and limit the extent of the educational problems faced

by these students.

Among the transitional points in a student's schooling some are more pronounced than others: for example, in the present system in Nova Scotia; at the end of the sixth grade, at the end of the ninth grade and at the end of high school.

Junior and senior high schools have a complex organization and a diversified curriculum. Many junior and senior high schools in the province initiate their orientation program by getting acquainted with prospective pupils while they are in the last grade of the feeder school.

There are many different steps that a counsellor in Nova Scotia could try in helping a student adjust to a new school situation. Some of the more important procedures could include the following four steps.

1. In orienting new students to junior or senior high school entrance, the first year students' counsellor should acquaint himself in detail with all the important information about each pupil. Much of this information usually appears in the pupil's cumulative record, which generally shows the pupil's grades in various subjects of study, his scores and ranks on standardized tests and his teachers' ratings and statements on personality characteristics and behaviour.

2. In the process of orientation the counsellor should meet with each class of new prospects. At this session he should briefly describe the educational programs that are available in his school. The counsellor could then indicate the courses within each curriculum and the occupational fields toward which the curriculum leads.

3. The counsellor could arrange to have groups of prospective new students visit the school during the term prior to entrance. The students could be taken on a tour to points of interest in the school building. They could become familiar with the courses and programs of interest to them and possibly register for the coming term.

4. The counsellor, on his own or with other teachers could conduct an orientation program for students new to his school. During the first week of classes, the new students could be given the information that they need at once to understand the new school and adjust to it.

Choosing Courses of Study, University Preparatory, Vocational, General

Much education counselling in secondary education in Nova Scotia involves helping a pupil choose a proper curriculum and course of study. "In deciding which elective courses to sign up for, the counselee should be encouraged to consider these factors: the courses he should take to obtain a general, all-round education; the courses he needs to explore different subject-matter fields, fields that may be new to him and that may help him to develop broader interests; and the courses he should study to supplement or complement his major interests and abilities."[1]

For most students in the province three major educational avenues are available after grade nine. They are categorized as University Preparatory, General and Vocational.

The University Preparatory program is designed for post high school entrance into university and for different programs at the two provincial technical institutes. The courses that are offered are geared along solid academic or theoretical lines. Students have a choice selection of fifteen courses over three years.

Most high school counsellors in the province will visit feeder schools for this program and explain this three year program and give a detailed analysis of the individual courses that are offered. A follow-up can afterwards be done by the counsellor of

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1. Op. Cit. Humphreys et. al. Guidance Services. p. 64.

the junior high school in order to assist students in selecting proper courses of study. This procedure is usually followed in most schools in the province during the month of March. As a result most of the students are properly registered for their grade ten program before leaving the grade nine year.

A program that offers a more practical course of study is the General Program. This program is also phased over three years and is geared for the student considering immediate employment after high school or for the student who might be considering different options of vocational training.

As in the university preparatory program, the selection here usually occurs during the grade nine year. However, certain criteria have been set by the province before admittance to this program would be verified. These criteria include:

1. School record must show a history of sincerity and good work habits. There must be resolution on the part of the applicant to work.

2. Good average, "over all" intelligence.

3. Not more than two grades repeated from Primary to Nine inclusive. This criterion must be followed except in the cases of years lost by illness, family moves where the child was put back a grade, and other extenuating circumstances which the committee deem worthy of special consideration.

4. Not more than two years retardation in language and reading. (Not infrequently students "good" in maths and science are weak in language skills).

5. Applicant must realize that he has not the academic skills to cope with abstract studies such as algebra, geometry, or foreign languages. The applicant must assert his choice of career to be non-university oriented, and that he is not interested in attending university, schools of nursing, para-medical fields, and other training requiring matriculation.

6. The applicant should have career interests along the commercial, industrial, skilled trades, crafts and/or graphic arts, communications, the civil services, or other public services such as City Police, R.C.M.P., etc.

7. Parental consent.

8. Applicants should be at least 16 years of age. Applicants younger should take a second look at themselves!

9. The general course has no place, nor time, for the applicant who looks for an "easy" course through High School.[2]

It must be remembered that admittance into the general program can place certain post-high-school limitations on a student. Most universities and some vocational and technical institutions will not accept this program as sufficient background for their courses. Moreover, some employers look upon a student with this background as inferior in ability and education. However, there are many and varied opportunities in training and employment for high school graduates of the general course. The following list includes some of the most prominent considerations.

1. Accounting (Vocational School Courses, I.R.A.)

2. Agriculture (N.S. Agriculture College - Technicians Course)

3. Air Canada (Stewardesses, pursers, ground staff, etc.)

4. Armed Services (except where entrance to Service Colleges is anticipated, nurses and other medical and professional staff must have academic or U.P. prerequisite)

5. Automotive Training (Mechanics, apprenticeship, selling)

6. Banking (including stenographic)

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2. Monthly Report of the Nova Scotia Guidance Newsletter (Halifax: Pupil Personnel Services,)1969, p. 4.

7. Beauty Culture (in Regional Vocational Schools or Private Schools)

8. Brace and Appliance Technicians

9. Business Colleges (Private)

10. Business Technology (Nova Scotia Institute of Technology: Data processing, marketing)

11. Canadian Coast Guard

12. Civil Service (Provincial and Federal)

13. Commercial Art. (At Vocational Schools where such courses are offered)

14. Dental Assistants (Nova Scotia Institute of Technology)

15. Department Stores (Sales Clerks, business offices, Management Trainees)

16. DeVry, Radio College of Canada, and other such schools

17. Drafting

18. Finance Companies (clerical and trainees)

19. Fashion Design and Modelling (Schools mainly in U.S.A.)

20. Firemen

21. Forest Rangers (School in Fredericton, New Brunswick)

22. Hairdressing (Vocational or private schools)

23. Hospitality Industry (All phases: chefs, hostesses, hotel clerks, management, etc.) Ref: Dept. of Trade and Industry.

24. Imperial Oil Limited: (Business offices, clerks, etc.)

25. Inhalation Therapy

26. Insurance Companies (Business offices, sales, appraisers)

27. Library Assistants (Mainly clerical)

28. Maritime Telegraph and Telephone (Operators, clerical)

29. News Media: Newspapers (Reporters, pressmen, clerical)
Radio (announcing, sales and advertising, clerical)
T.V. (Performers, announcers, graphic arts, etc.)

30. Nova Scotia College of Art - diploma courses

31. Nursing Assistants (C.N.A.)

32. Paramedical Services (Lab Assistants, dental assistants, certain technicians as C.N.A. trained as operating room technicians)

33. R.C.M.P.

34. Radio and T.V. (Servicing, production, sales. See #29 on this list)

35. Real Estate (sales, appraiser, clerical)

36. Recreation Departments of Cities (playground directors, etc.)

37. Sales in general (retail,sales representative or salesman, wholesale business, etc.)

38. Servicing (business machines, automats, air-conditioning, etc.)

39. Secretarial (at professional level as private secretary)

40. Social Work Assistants (Child Case Workers as trained in one-year course in Nova Scotia Institute of Technology -- Agency and institutional)

41. Trust Companies (Business offices, clerical, appraisers)[3]

Many new consolidated vocational schools have opened in the province during the past ten years. These schools offer vocational training in a wide spectrum of trade areas. Most programs require at least one year of high school training and that the student be at least sixteen years of age.

Most vocational school counsellors will visit feeder schools

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3. List prepared by Dartmouth Guidance Counsellors, April, 1967.

providing information on the different trade courses. Students may then seek more information and application forms from their own school counsellors.

The student must consider future opportunities of further training and employment. In thinking through his program, the student should realize that he has limited time, finances and other resources to devote to it. In the light of this, the counsellor should from time to time help the student to review all the information -- such as data about his potentialities and interests -- considered during any earlier appraisal. On the basis of this review, the counsellor may arrange for the student to take additional tests, to seek further occupational information, and to relate the findings from these two sources.

Educational Weaknesses

To reduce the number of academic failures the guidance staff should arrange to give a battery of tests to new students just before or soon after they enter the institution. The results of such tests can indicate the strengths and weaknesses in academic abilities. The counsellor should also obtain information about students' study habits and skills, and about their abilities in such fields of communication as speech, reading and writing. Consultation with subject teachers about particular students is also of primary importance in the gathering of information about such students. By using this information, the counsellor can identify the students who are in need of remedial instruction in fundamental skills and of special assistance in subject-matter areas. Referrals to special

programs, subject areas or services can then be made.

Developing Study Skills

Among high school students, a common educational problem is lack of good study habits. To do good school work a student must be proficient in certain study skills and habits. If a student is to develop the efficiency essential to his academic success, he must have opportunities to learn and to practice good study skills and habits.

In instructing a how-to-study group or in counselling an individual student on study methods, attention should be given to such important matters as these:

1. Budgeting the student's time
2. Conditions for effective study
3. Problems of concentration
4. Efficient reading techniques
5. Learning difficulties
6. Problems of remembering
7. Note-taking methods
8. Use of the library
9. Review and other preparation for examinations[4]

Occasionally a student does not study efficiently because he does not abide by the recognized laws of learning. For example, he may fail to concentrate on what he is studying. He may "read" a textbook chapter but be unable to recall what he has read. Or he may neglect to review material carefully just before he is to

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4. List Prepared by Guidance Counsellors in Dartmouth. Submitted Feb. 1968.

take a test on it. If the counsellor knows the principles of learning, he can help such a student to replace poor study skills, habits and conditions with good ones.

Problem of Academic Failure

In assisting a student who is failing, the counsellor should note if the student's low grades in a subject are due to poor communication abilities (reading, listening, speaking and writing) or to inadequate study skills and habits. The counsellor should also examine carefully the failing student's total school program, both curricular and extracurricular. He should ask: Is the student carrying a heavy, average, or light program of courses? What subjects is he taking? Are these subjects hard or easy for him? To what extent is he participating in extra-curricular activities? How do these activities affect his academic work? Othermore detailed questions the counsellor could assess might include:

1. What specific items in the course being failed appear to cause the student particular difficulty?
2. Under what conditions does the student do his studying? Are these conditions favourable?
3. Does the student have a physical disability? If so, can he make better adjustments to the disability?
4. Is the student under unusual mental and emotional strain? What are the reasons for the strain?[5]

As the counsellor works with a failing student, the counselee will probably help answer these questions. The student will also reveal his own point of view regarding his problem and the reasons

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5. Dr. K. Kinkannon. List Prepared for "Counselling Academic Failure". Case Studies. July, 1968.

for it. In his own mind the counsellor can then match the conclusions he has reached with the counselee's statements. This counselling should lead to a clear analysis of the fundamental reasons for the counselee's academic failure, to a definite plan for improving his situation, and to a diligent execution of that plan.

Counselling the Superior Student

The student who has achieved an academic record that is much better than average is sometimes overlooked by the counsellor. However, such students are often in need of counselling as much as average or poorer students. Such students have a pressing need for early counselling and the establishment of a long term goal. Often such students present no serious classroom problems and do not come to the attention of the guidance counsellor. However, such students often run into personal and social problems which require immediate counselling.

Helping the students solve their educational problems is one of the most frequent and important services that the guidance department is called upon to serve. Moreover, educational problems usually appear within a complex of other problems -- personal and vocational for example. These problems are often interrelated. For this reason counsellors must be able to handle student's educational problems competently, not only in terms of the problems themselves but also in terms of their impact on other types of problems.

Personal Problems

In dealing with problems of a personal nature there is a need for the counsellor to have an understanding of the client's needs, conflicts and anxieties coupled with an atmosphere of acceptance which stimulates a good relationship with the counsellor and a responsiveness on the part of the client. In this section we shall try to elaborate these areas in the light of understanding and helping to solve the personal problems of students.

Client's Needs, Drives, and Conflicts

Counselling students with personal problems involves understanding basic processes that underlie such problems. Some of these processes we have touched on already in Chapters 2 and 3. However, further detail might be brought out at this point. We are referring here:

1. to the needs that are causing and directing the behaviour of the client.
2. to all the blocks, barriers and frustrations that keep him from satisfying these needs.
3. the conflicts among various drives. Central to these are his vague anxieties about the results of his behaviour and the punishments that he fears may result from his impulses and behaviour.
4. anxiety and the means of trying to handle anxiety through various defenses and escapes.[6]

Basic and learned needs are the mainsprings of our behaviour. They act as the driving force in our lives, and they furnish direction for thinking and acting. A person who behaves with force in a given direction is motivated and is attempting to

6. Fred McKinney, Counselling for Personal Adjustment. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1958. p. 49.

satisfy some need. Some of the more prominent needs that a client will display and with which a counsellor should be familiar include:

1. Affection, love,
2. Social recognition and belongingness, prestige and value as a person,
3. Security and safety,
4. Mastery and success,
5. Adventure, curiousity or exploration,
6. Satisfaction of basic physiological needs such as hunger, thirst, sex and escape from pain.

Needs can become blocked and conflicts or frustration may arise. Often beneath a client's distress are unsatisfied needs. Somewhere in his present life there are barriers to need satisfaction. This unsatisfactory state of affairs may be due to restraints laid on him by others earlier in life, to restrictions in his present environment or to physical conditions or personal losses he has recently sustained.

An individual who is disturbed by anxiety is often an individual who has been unable to be frank in thinking about himself. Very often his upbringing has been of the repressive variety and he rarely discusses matters that are disturbing to him. Thus he provides fertile soil for the growth of anxiety, since anxiety is non-specific, an unknown quality, a diffuse reaction.

An outstanding characteristic of anxiety is the intensity of the emotional reaction, which is disproportional to the events behind it. A child's earliest anxiety is fear of separation from

protection - from his mother. Late in life there are other protective influences from which we do not want to be isolated - status, job, friends, reputation or position in a group. Anxiety develops when the individual is alarmed lest his actions separate him from his sources of security.

"Anxiety can be aroused by five root dangers: loss of object, loss of love, emasculation, loss of self-love, and ego disintegration. The strength of these anxieties varies greatly in different individuals and at different times."[7]

Guilt is a painful affect which stands somewhere between anxiety and aggression. It can be aroused by the conscience or "super-ego." In "The Ego and the Id" Freud listed the following functions of the superego: self-judgement, prohibitions and injunctions, a sense of guilt and social feelings. These functions fall into two groups; those which prevent the expression of forbidden drives; and those which define the ideals and values of man. Freud sums up in the last chapter of his book:

The torments caused by the reproaches of conscience correspond to a child's dread of losing his parents' love, a dread which has been replaced in him by the moral agency. On the other hand, if the ego has successfully resisted a temptation to do something that would be objectionable to the superego, it feels its self respect raised and its pride increased, as though it has made some precious acquisition. During the whole of a man's later life it represents the influence of his childhood, of the care and education given to him by his parents, of his dependence on them - of the childhood

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7. S. Freud, An Outline of Psychoanalysis (1938). New York: (W.W. Norton, 1949) pp. 122-123.

which is greatly prolonged in human beings by a common family life.

Guilt can be expressed in the form of proneness to accident or seeking of punishment. The child misbehaves with flagrant disregard of consequences. He takes no precautions against detection or leaves obvious clues. In depressed adults, one sees guilt as aggression toward the self. They usually express their inwardly directed aggression in unwarranted feelings of inferiority. Finally guilt may masquerade as an irrational fear. Here disapproval by the superego is given as a danger situation to which the ego reacts with anxiety.

Defenses or escapes from conflicts, frustrations and anxiety take on many forms and types. Clients may repress, rationalize, project, use fantasy, distort reality and in every way attempt to subdue their rising anxieties. You see these defenses in operation during the counselling interview when a client says he does not remember his childhood or complains about undesirable behaviour in others when he also exhibits the same. Anxiety may likewise manifest itself in feelings of guilt, which in turn may drive the client to various self-punishing and self-defeating inclinations, reports of depression, fear of falling, feelings of inferiority or complaints of poor health.

All these dynamic processes unfold before the counsellor who maintains an understanding, accepting attitude and who encourages the client to talk about himself and his difficulties. However, it is essential that the counsellor recognize them as they are revealed, if his counselling is to be meaningful. For counselling

does not consist of applying a list of "do's" and "don't's". "It is a much more subtle process, based on understanding the experiences of the client, providing a favourable atmosphere for his personal development, and gradually assisting in the development."[8]

Available Referral Services

Counselling for the personal needs of a student can be of an involved and serious nature. Sometimes, with students having serious difficulties, the counsellor might judge that referral to a family doctor or some other agency might be in order. In Nova Scotia most school boards have a school psychologist on staff who is qualified to run diagnostic tests and make further recommendations. In the Halifax-Dartmouth Metropolitan area there is a Child Guidance Clinic located in both cities. Referrals are made up to the age of sixteen through the family doctor or the recommendations of the child's parents and the guidance counsellor of the student's school. The Nova Scotia Hospital will accept referrals for adolescents and keeps in close contact with the school on an older student's progress.

Counselling Students for Vocational Choices

Basically, aiding a student in making vocational choices can be summarized simply and briefly as follows:

Secure as complete information as possible about the counselee, including facts about his occupational interests and aptitudes.

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8. Op. Cit., Fred McKinney, Counselling for Personal Adjustment, p. 51.

Obtain detailed, authentic information about the occupations that appear to be most promising for the counselee.

Relate the types of information that were gathered in the first and second steps.

If properly executed, the third step may lead the counselee to select one of the vocations he has studied, or to investigate others. In reaching a final decision the counselee should carefully analyze and re-evaluate all the available information and then thoughtfully apply it to his own situation.

Items in Studying an Individual

In helping a student to make a wise vocational choice, the counsellor should emphasize to him the importance of making a detailed study of his personality, specifically assisting him to discover characteristics as these:

1. Physical characteristics
   - Appearance
   - State of general health and energy
   - Age, height, weight and their relation to specific job requirements.

2. Personal qualities
   - Motives and goals
   - Level of social development
   - Level of emotional stability and maturity

3. Pattern of mental abilities
   - Ability to learn
   - Verbal comprehension
   - Word fluency
   - Reasoning and judgement ability

4. Pattern of occupational interests

5. Aptitudes

6. Schools and non-school achievements
   General level of scholarship
   Participation in extracurricular activities
   Relationships with other members of the family
   Pursuit of hobbies or other special interests.

Obtaining Occupational Information

In the area of occupational information there is a large body of materials - books, magazines, pamphlets and other publications. These materials come from varied private, public, and professional sources. The counsellor should become familiar with all the basic informational materials, particularly those dealing with major occupations and occupational trends within the area in which he operates. In addition the counsellor should be well acquainted with other sources of information so that he can obtain reliable data that will enable him to facilitate the counsellor's search for and interpretation of published occupational material.

Three of the better sources to obtain specific information in the Halifax area would include:

1. The Dictionary of Occupational Titles now being prepared by the Queen's Printers in Ottawa.
2. The Guidance Centre - Ontario College of Education, Toronto.
3. The Pupil Personnel Branch of the Department of Education, Halifax.

Presenting Occupational Information to Students

There are two principal means of presenting occupational information to students. The first is through individual contacts, such as interviews. The second is through group contacts, including classroom sessions.

The counsellor deals with counsellees individually when he believes that in this way he can best help them solve their problems. For instance, consider the counsellee who is interested in studying for an occupation that is of little interest to other students. In this case the counsellor will work individually with the counsellee in interviews. Or if the counsellee has a personal problem related to an occupation, the counsellor will discuss the matter confidentially with him during an interview.

To conserve the counsellor's time and energy, to serve the maximum number of students, and to hold costs for a program to a reasonable figure much of the important work of giving out occupational information can be conducted within a group. Young people who are confronted by vocational problems need orientation in occupational information; specifically, they need to be introduced to ideas in the field and to the sources of materials. Toward this goal, the institution can make effective use of group techniques, such as, class discussions, assembly programs, field trips, and career displays.

To sum up some of the above implications for career counselling the following is a list of some of the desirable attitudes that the counsellor should have in working with a counsellee:

1. The counsellor should see that the counsellee increasingly takes the responsibility of gathering and applying information about occupations and himself.

2. The counsellor should help the counsellee to develop his own insights concerning himself with reference to occupations.

3. The counsellor should assist the counsellee to develop the attitudes and skills needed for self guidance.

4. The counsellor should refrain from directing and dominating the counsellee in the decision making process.

Generally speaking, the area of vocational guidance has been well summarized by Baer and Roeber in the following statement.

> The counsellor must have a general understanding of the world of work. In addition, he must know where to get detailed occupational information and how to use it whenever he is called upon to help specific individuals. Thus, the test of a good counsellor in the area of occupational information is not necessarily the number of occupations about which he knows something. It is rather the extent to which he has a realistic understanding of occupational life in relation to individuals who come to him for help.[9]

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9. Max Baer and Robert Edward, Occupational Information. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1958.

CHAPTER VII

ORGANIZATION OF A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Working Principles

Many of the general principles involved in establishing a guidance program have already been expressed in the first three chapters. However, more specific principles in establishing an actual program are needed here.

1. Prepare a clear-cut statement of the objectives of the program of guidance services. These objectives should take into account the overall or general characteristics and needs of the student body.

2. Determine precisely the functions of the guidance services program - that is, what the program should do for the students.

3. Define clearly the working relationships among those people who are directly responsible for guidance services and between those members of the guidance staff and other personnel in the school who participate in the program of guidance services indirectly. Recognize that some of the personnel of the institution will work directly and full time in the field of guidance services; others will work directly and part time; and still others will work indirectly and during a small share of their total work time.

4. Set up the form of organization that is best adapted to the institution's purposes, personnel, size, financial resources and other characteristics.

5. Keep the plan of organization and its operation as simple as possible.

The guidance services program should be oriented primarily toward students; at the same time it should contribute to the

welfare of the educational institution itself. If guidance services personnel cooperate closely with the administrative and instructional staffs, the guidance program aids in building a stronger institution.

In developing a plan of organization an institution may wish to study plans used elsewhere. It should not, however, copy the organization used in some other institution; it should work out a plan based on its own purposes, size, existing personnel and financial resources. If a school's guidance director is the first to occupy his position, he should organize an over-all program in his field of responsibility. He should carefully outline the purposes, functions and responsibilities of the new office of guidance services. He should seek the active cooperation of the school's principal officials and other staff members in preparing an organized guidance plan.

A school may develop a complex organizational plan for guidance services that looks good on paper and favorably impresses some people. But such a plan may be undesirable from a practical point of view because it provides for too much machinery, too many committees, too many checks and balances on the activities of personnel. Moreover, such a plan is likely to hamper rather than to facilitate guidance services for students. For these reasons an institution should have a simple plan of organization - a plan that best serves the purposes and advances the functions of the guidance program.

Guidance Personnel

An adequate program of guidance services requires that there be on the staff attending to major responsibilities in this field persons who have a thorough understanding of guidance principles, special training in guidance techniques, and an awareness of educational, occupational and industrial trends.

It has also been suggested that certain guidance tasks particularly counselling, may be relatively ineffective if attempted by those who also teach traditional subjects. There is a time factor involved here. The school day does not permit enough time for both guidance and teaching functions. It is often assumed that teachers are considered by students as authoritarians, not to be trusted very far in matters concerning personal problems and likely to penalize through the mark they award.

As far as particular school guidance functions are concerned there are many possibilities of specialization.

School Counsellor

This member of the guidance team conducts counselling interviews with students, parents and others; administers certain individual tests; conducts guidance seminars in certain areas; assists with placement of dropouts and graduates; and arranges for or recommends referral of students to various consultants and resource persons.

Teacher of Careers

This member teaches Group Guidance as a subject at various grade levels; organizes plant visits, career days, group conferences, education days, career clubs, conducts guidance seminars in

certain areas; plans and supervises the school's setup for collecting, organizing, and making available to students, teachers, and parents up-to-date educational, occupational, industrial and related information.

Head of Guidance

The Guidance Head organizes and interprets, as a rule with respect to one school, the guidance program to administration, school staff, parents, industrialists and the general public. He also arranges for in-service training, including plant tours, workshop sessions and forums for teachers on the staff who are particularly interested in participating and benefiting from the school's guidance programs.

Director of Supervisor of Guidance Services

This member organizes and coordinates the overall program of guidance in a number of schools in a community. He standardizes certain practices in schools, such as the basic testing program, the transferring of pupil records and the sequence and treatment of guidance topic areas with respect to various grade levels. He might also arrange in-service training programs in guidance; takes responsibility for research and evaluation in guidance likely to benefit all schools in the area and interprets the area program to the community.

Teachers

The school guidance worker's closest colleagues are other teachers in the school. It is they who often discover and refer students in need of special help and they who take an active part

in making effective the recommendations advanced in the case of an individual student by the school guidance workers.

Social Workers, School Psychologists

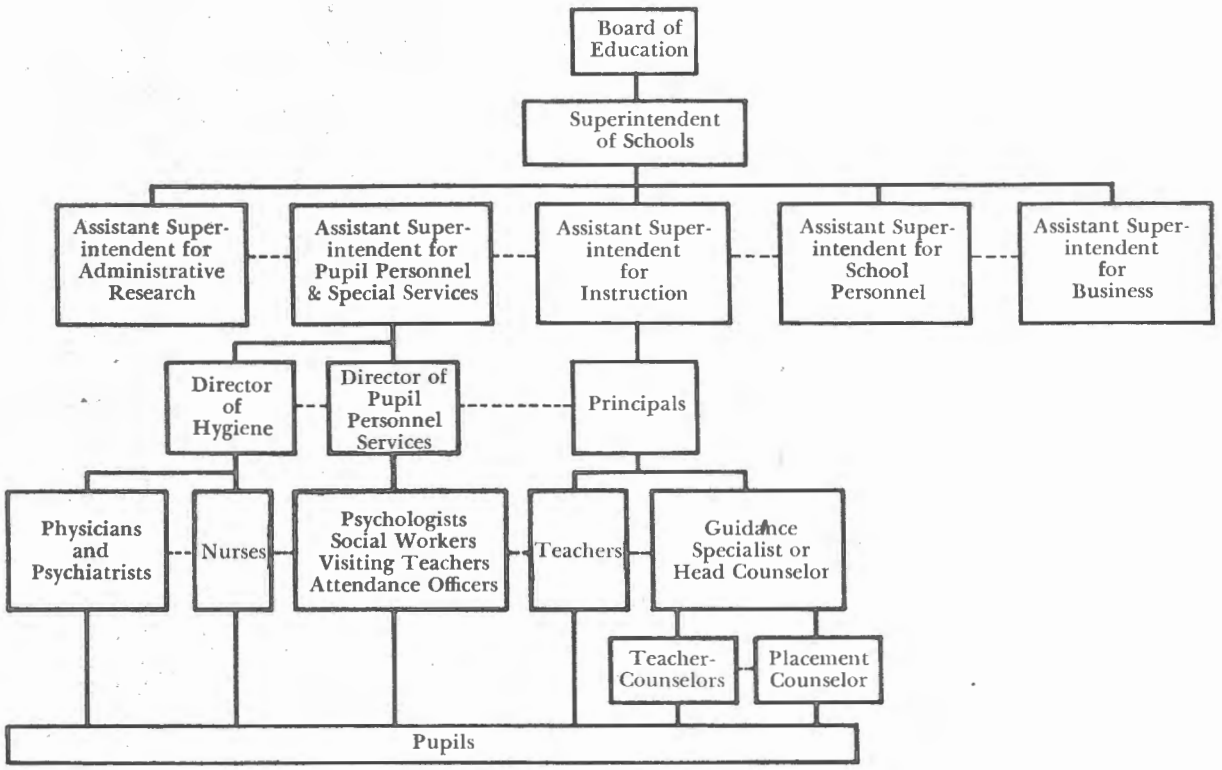
Because of his responsibility to all students, the school guidance worker will find it impossible to devote hours of time to an individual student who has some serious problem in the area of mental health. The role of the specialists mentioned above is to assist some students who may have serious and pressing problems in the specialist's field of competence and to provide for students, teachers and parents special helpful information related to the specialist's field.

Guidance Clerical Help

There is also a need for clerical help in the school guidance department. Some of the work of test scoring, making entries on folders and the filing of various materials can be taken care of by clerical assistants and at a cost much below that entailed when such routine work must be attended by professionally-trained guidance workers.

ILLUSTRATION I

Example of Guidance Services Organization for Consolidated School System under Almalgamated Board



SOLID LINE: DIRECT LINE OF AUTHORITY
BROKEN LINE: COOPERATIVE RELATIONSHIP

Accommodation and Equipment

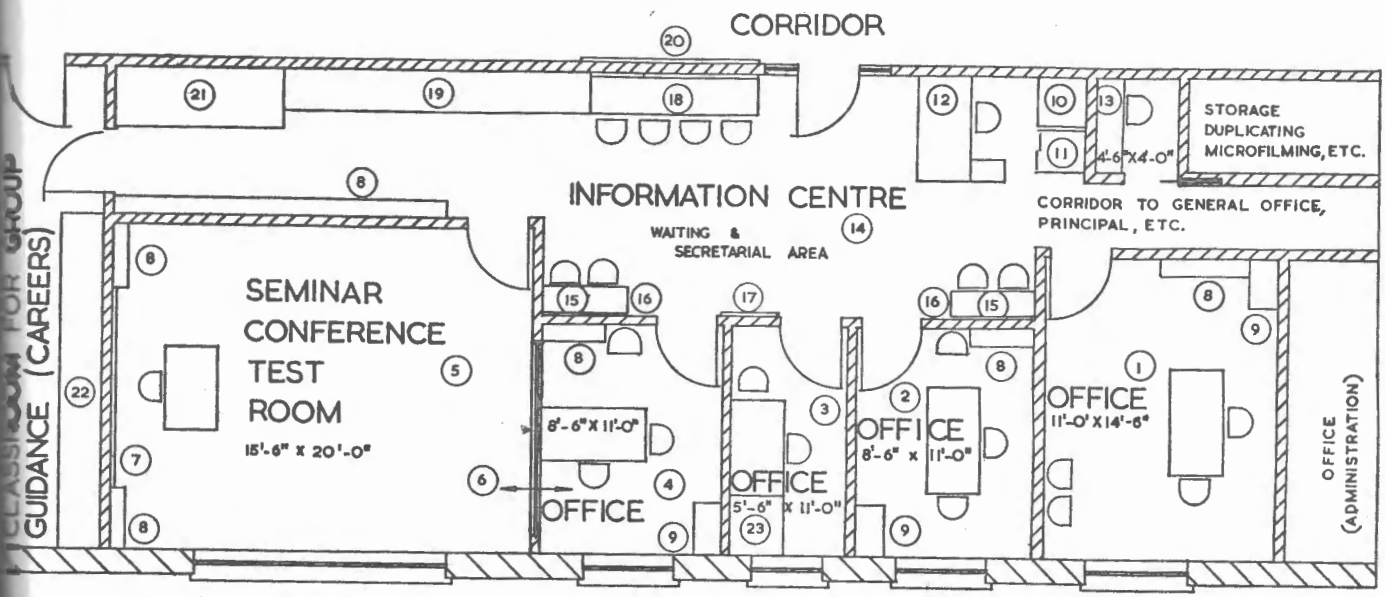
There must be provision for individual work and for work with small, medium, and large groups. There is also needed accommodation for student record; educational, occupational, recreational, and industrial information materials; audio-visual aids, tests and other supplies. Space should be available for secretarial help and for students, parents and others waiting to talk to a member of the school guidance staff or waiting to examine and possibly discuss educational, occupational and industrial materials.

A floor plan for guidance facilities within a school should include an interview office, a Seminar-Test Room, classrooms for group guidance and accommodation for secretarial centre. Planning for guidance quarters should include consideration of where desks, tables, chairs, filing cabinets, display racks, bulletin boards, telephone, cupboards and equipment should be placed.

The matter of what is needed in equipment should also receive attention when plans are being made originally for a program of school guidance services and constantly thereafter with a view to improvement of existing services. It would also be beneficial to have access to motion picture projection equipment; filmstrip and slide projector and viewers; record player; tape recorder, overhead projector, and access to test scoring equipment.

ILLUSTRATION II

Proposed Plan for Guidance Centre Serving Large Consolidated School



Key to Numbered Items on Plan

1. Office—head of guidance
2. Interview office
3. Interview office
4. Interview office. Intercommunication system and transparent mirror glass between the office and 5
5. Room for seminars, conferences, or small group testing. May be used also on occasion as an interview office
6. Transparent mirror glass and intercommunication system to permit observation from 4 to 5 or 5 to 4. Curtains or sliding panels to close from either side. Employed for in-service and other teacher-training programs in the guidance field. An alternative would be closed circuit television
7. Sliding chalkboard, projection screen installation as mentioned in 6. above may be desirable
8. Bookshelves
9. Filing cabinet
10. Filing cabinets and/or storage cupboard (desk-top height)
11. Office supplies cupboard
12. Secretary's desk
13. Cubicle for use of teacher studying cumulative record folder borrowed from the main office or for use by one student working at a special test
14. Information centre, waiting and secretarial area. Glass panel door with glass panels at each side
15. Desk or table top, or study carrels, bulletin board
16. Display stand (revolving) for university and other calendars
17. Display rack or bulletin board
18. Desk or table top, bulletin board, reading lights
19. Bank of filing cabinets for occupational, industrial, educational information. Cupboards above for storage of tests, office supplies, etc.
20. Bulletin board
21. Storage cupboards for supplies and audio-visual equipment
22. Cupboards, counter height, for class sets of materials, etc.
23. Filing cabinet and/or storage cabinet or shelves

Conclusion

Guidance in Nova Scotian schools is an area that has come gradually into being over the last 30-40 years. Today most junior, senior high or consolidated schools in the province are represented by one or more guidance counsellors.

Like any new area in education there is much to be done and many inadequacies in both staff and equipment to fill. However, the program begun here under the direction of the Pupil Personnel Division of the Department of Education has already received national recognition for some of its programs. There is a new Canadian Guidance Association formed and a code of standards and ethics is in the offing. Such organizations and uniform standards provide working principles from which every counselor can function.

Guidance workers in this province have reason to look to the future with optimism. They provide services that meet genuine needs in educational institutions and elsewhere. Because of what professional workers are doing, society increasingly recognizes the value of their services.

"To do their jobs well, however, guidance workers should think in terms of the optimum possibilities rather than in terms of the minimum essentials."[1] Towards this goal, they should seek to find and use all the available resources that will aid them in helping students. They should try to employ the best tests, devices, and techniques. They should endeavor to locate or create

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1. Dr. Wolfe, "Lectures on the Self and Personality With Regards to Guidance Counselling." Nova Scotia Summer School, July, 1968.

the conditions that are most favourable to an individual's growth and maturity. They should continually seek to improve themselves, particularly in their chosen guidance fields.

Guidance staff members, working alone, cannot do the entire guidance job. They should try to cooperate with administrators, teachers, students and parents; with other specialists inside and outside the school; and with all interested individuals and organizations in the community. Only if guidance workers seek and obtain the cooperation of these persons and groups will they be able to render the best possible services to their counsellees.

To initiate and to administer a guidance program in a school can be a complex task. The counsellor should try and draw on his own knowledge and combine it with resource personnel and referral services in his own particular area. Moreover, such a program should be arrived at through co-operation with other institutions and associations.

A number of professional associations of guidance workers have set up committees to make special studies and prepare specific recommendations for the improvement of cooperative relationships within the guidance field. These committees have tried to reduce or eliminate duplication of services. They have also emphasized the need for better integration of the guidance services offered at successive levels of education.

Over the years guidance workers have worked to improve their counselling techniques. While directive counselling was used over a long period of time, in recent years counsellors have increasingly used the non-directive approach. In the future, however, the

majority of counsellors will probably take the middle-of-the-road position of counselling which combines a variety of techniques. With reference to the improvement of counselling services, the following tendencies are apparent.

1. Increased use of objective measures for appraisal of counselees.
2. Recognition of relationship between remedial work and guidance.
3. Use of improved case-study techniques.
4. Use of better sources of occupational information.
5. Use of follow-up studies.

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