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Psychology & Adjustment and Educational Guidance & Counseling

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Preface

Psychology and Adjustment, coupled with Educational Guidance and Counseling, represent indispensable pillars in fostering students' holistic development within educational environments. Psychology delves into understanding human behaviour, cognition, and emotions, crucial for comprehending how students adapt to academic and social challenges. It explores factors influencing adjustment, such as personality traits, familial dynamics, and socio-cultural contexts, aiming to promote resilience and positive coping mechanisms among learners. Concurrently, Educational Guidance and Counseling encompass a myriad of supportive services aimed at nurturing students' academic, career, and personal growth. These services offer tailored support to address students' diverse needs, ranging from academic planning and career exploration to addressing social-emotional concerns.

Educational professionals, including counselors and educators, leverage insights from psychology and adjustment theories to inform their guidance and counseling practices. By integrating psychological principles with counseling techniques, they create personalized interventions that cater to students' unique circumstances and challenges. Individual and group counseling sessions serve as avenues for students to explore their emotions, develop self-awareness, and build resilience in navigating academic and personal hurdles. Additionally, educators employ proactive strategies to foster a supportive learning environment, promoting positive peer relationships, and facilitating effective communication among students.

Moreover, Educational Guidance and Counseling play a pivotal role in fostering students' academic success and overall well-being. Counselors collaborate with educators and parents to identify barriers to learning, develop intervention plans,

and provide ongoing support to students. They empower learners to set and achieve academic and personal goals, promoting a sense of agency and self-efficacy. Furthermore, guidance and counseling services extend beyond the academic realm to address socio-emotional issues, such as stress, anxiety, and peer relationships, which may impact students' learning experiences.

In essence, Psychology & Adjustment and Educational Guidance & Counseling converge to create a comprehensive support system for students within educational settings. By harnessing insights from psychology, educators and counselors equip students with the tools and strategies needed to navigate academic and social challenges successfully. Through proactive guidance and counseling interventions, they foster a culture of support, resilience, and empowerment, ensuring students' holistic development and academic success.

The book on Psychology, Adjustment, Educational Guidance, and Counseling offers comprehensive insights and practical strategies for educators and counselors to support students' psychological well-being, social adjustment, and academic success through effective guidance and counseling practices.

–Author

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Conceptual Framework of Guidance

It is true that a very minor percentage of our total population is capable of handling its troubles independently without the cooperation and guidance of others. We discover that majority of the people do not have either confidence or insight to solve their troubles. There have always been people in the past who need occasional help from older or more experienced associates in meeting with their troubles of daily life in the society. Traditionally, in our Indian society, the leader of the family or the local society was supposed to give the necessary guidance and advice whenever any member of the family or the society needed it.

Needless to mention, too often informal advice given without a clear understanding of the problem involved was harmful and misleading to the individual. With the passage of time, revolutionary and evolutionary changes have taken lay in all walks of life. The diversity of jobs, high aspirations of the people and vocational specialization have made the work of guidance very hard. The head of the family or the leader of local society with the limited knowledge of changed circumstances such as globalization, liberalization and consumerism is not capable of providing guidance to the youth of today.

In the last two decades, guidance movement has spread like a wild-fire through out the world and generated a great amount of enthusiasm and zeal in the middle of parents, teachers and social workers who have devoted time to explore its feasibility and the utility for common population including school going adolescents. All are influenced that proper provision of guidance services should be made for children at dissimilar age levels for the harmonious development of their personalities in the superior interest of the society and the individual.

MEANING AND PRINCIPLES OF GUIDANCE

What does guidance precisely mean? Let us first see what it does not mean. Lester. D. Crow and Alice Crow in “An Introduction to Guidance” have aptly stated that “Guidance is not giving directions. It is not the imposition of one person’s point of view upon another person. It is not making decisions for an individual, which he should create for himself. It is not carrying the burdens of another life”. If guidance is not all these, then what is it really?

To quote them again:

- “Guidance is an assistance made accessible through personally qualified and adequately trained men or women to an individual of any age to help them manage their own life behaviours, develop their own points of view, create their own decisions, and carry out their own burden”.

ORDINARY MEANING

Ordinary meaning of guidance is help, assistance, and suggestions for progress and showing the method. In that sense guidance is a life extensive procedure. Man needs guidance throughout his life. He needs it even from his infancy. When a child is born, the world for him is big, buzzing, blooming confusion and he knows nothing. He learns everything from the society. From the mother, he learns how to stand on his feet, from the father, he learns to walk and from the teacher, he learns to seek knowledge and education, all learning takes lay through guidance. The society guides the individual to learn, to adjust oneself to the physical and social environment. To sum up we may say that guidance is a personal help rendered through the society to the individual so as to enable him to adjust to the physical and social environment and to solve the troubles of life.

SPECIFIC MEANING

Guidance in India, is comparatively a new field within the superior and more inclusive field of education and is used as a technical term as a specific meaning. It covers the whole spectrum of education, which starts from the birth of the child and continues till his death. This is a wide meaning of the term, which comprises all kinds of education such as formal, non-formal, informal and vocational, *etc.*, which aims to adjust the individual in his environment in an effective method. There are usually three connotations attached to the word guidance:

- Guidance as a Specialised Service whose primary concern is with the individual and to help them to solve their troubles and take appropriate decisions in their choice-points;
- Guidance as a Common Service and is measured to be synonymous with education and educational processes; and
- Guidance as a Sub-Procedure of education in which developmental needs of the learners are measured the vital points.

Now let us look at some selected definitions of the term guidance in a bid to understand its conceptual and operational form: The term guidance symbolises

the concept that is neither easy nor easily comprehensible due to the complexity of the human nature, the individual differences and personal-social troubles associated with changing environmental circumstances and cultural traditions.

- *Shirley Hamrin (1947) defined guidance as: "Helping John to see through himself in order that he may see himself through", is an easy and practical but demanding concept of guidance.*
- *According to Jones (1951): "The focus of guidance is the individual not his problem, its purpose is to give the growth of the individual in self-direction providing opportunity for self-realization and self-direction is the key-note of guidance."*
- *Downing (1964) points out towards a general problem in defining guidance that is one of keeping the definition short and sufficiently broad to be informative. He has attempted it through giving definition of guidance in operational conditions in two parts:*
 - *Guidance is an organised set of specialised services recognised as an integral part of the school environment intended to promote the development of the students and assist them towards a realization of sound, wholesome adjustment and maximum accomplishments commensurate with their personalities.*
 - *Guidance is a point of view that comprises a positive attitude towards children and realization that it is the supplement, strengthen and create more meaningful all other phases of a youngster's education.*
- *Ruth Strang (1937) explains that guidance is a procedure of helping every individual through his own efforts to discover and develop his potentialities for his personal happiness and social usefulness.*
- *Mathewson (1962): Defines guidance as the systematic professional procedure of helping the individual through education and interpretative procedures to gain a better understanding of his own characteristics and potentialities and to relate himself more satisfactorily to social necessities and opportunities in accord with social and moral values.*
- *Arthur, J. Jones (1963): Thinks that guidance is the help given through one person to another in making choices and adjustments and in solving troubles.*
- *Traxler (1957): Considers guidance as a help which enables each individual to understand his abilities and interests, to develop them as well as possible and to relate the life-goals, and finally to reach a state of complete and mature self-guidance as a desirable member of the social order.*
- *Recently. B.L. Shepherd stated that:*
 - *The immediate objective in guidance is to help each pupil meet and solve his troubles as they arise; and*
 - *The ultimate objective of all guidance is self-guidance.*

According to the Secondary Education Commission (1964-66):

- Guidance involves the hard art of helping boys and girls to plan their own future wisely in the full light of all the factors that can be mastered in relation to themselves and in relation to the world in which they are to live and work. “

If we analyse the definitions of guidance, we will discover the following elements in it:

- Guidance programme is organised; it has a structure, system and personnel.
- It is an integral part of the school system.
- It consists of specialised series of testing, counselling, educational and vocational information, placement and follow-up scheme.
- Its major aim is the promotion of student development.
- It helps children to develop and promote their skill to deal with their own troubles.
- It gives for the identification and development of talents and potentialities.
- The intangible elements of guidance are recognised as a point of view or as an attitude.

NATURE OF GUIDANCE

Through now, you have understood that guidance is a helping service. It is through its very nature a self-oriented, problem solving and multifaceted action. It presupposes two-fold understanding. The first is the understanding of one's own abilities, aptitudes, interests, motives, behaviour-patterns, skills and achievements up-to-date and social, cultural, economic background. Secondly, it is the understanding of the real nature of one's environment and of the educational and vocational opportunities offered through that environment, beside with their differential necessities of abilities and attainments. Guidance may be described as a procedure of relating these two kinds of understanding so that they become imbued with a new meaning in the life of the individual. Mohein has very lucidly put the nature of guidance in these words:

- “Guidance seeks to make within the child the need and power to explore and understand him in order to prepare a balance-sheet of his assets and liabilities so that he is able to plan out his future growth and behaviours in a manner that offers maximum likelihood of success and satisfaction.

The following services constitute the usual pattern of behaviours within a guidance programme and are described ‘vital elements’:

- Pupil Information or Appraisal Service
- Educational and Vocational Information Service
- Counselling Service
- Placement Service, and
- Follow-up Service.

An effective guidance programme helps the youth to see clearly four things:

- Where he has been,
- Where he is now,

- Where he is going, and
- What he has with which to get there.

A perusal of the dissimilar behaviours of guidance shows that two kinds of guidance, *i.e.*, educational and vocational, discover lay in every list. This fact designates the importance of educational and vocational guidance. In practice, the whole guidance is a unitary procedure. Educational guidance is dependent on vocational guidance. Crow and Crow have observed, “As now interpreted, guidance touches every aspect of an individual’s personality - physical, mental, emotional and social. It is concerned with all of an individual’s attitudes and behaviour patterns. It seeks to help the individual to integrate all of his behaviours in conditions of his vital potentialities and environmental opportunities”.

NEED FOR GUIDANCE

The need for guidance had lived at all times. Moreover, the need of guidance is universal. It is as old as man himself. It is based upon the fact that all human beings need help in one method or other method. “There is hardly any individual who does not need help”. Jones has rightly said, “Every one needs assistance at sometime in his life. Some will need constantly and throughout their whole life, while others need it only at unusual intervals at times of great crisis.

There always have been and will continue to be people with an occasional need for the help of the older or more experienced associates in meeting problem situation.” But there is a greater need for guidance services now than ever before due to the rapid advancement in technology, emerging of new world order, social change, globalization, liberalization, the need for outstanding leadership, a shift in standards of morality and integrity, people’s high aspirations, *etc.*, all contribute to the need for guidance programme in the schools. We shall talk about the need for guidance in India fewer than four heads:

SCOPE OF GUIDANCE IN INDIA

The scope of guidance is all pervading. Its scope is very vast in the light of modernization and industrialization and is ever rising. As the life is getting intricate day through day, the troubles for which expert help is needed are rapidly rising. The scope of guidance is extending horizontally too much of the social context, to matters of prestige in occupations, to the broad field of social trends and economic development. Crow and Crow have rightly quoted, “As now interpreted, guidance touches every aspect of an individual’s personality-physical, mental, emotional and social. It is concerned with all characteristics of an individual’s attitudes and behaviour patterns. It seeks to help the individual to integrate all of his behaviours in conditions of his vital potentialities and environmental opportunities.” Kothari Commission has stressed the need of guidance services in the schools. Commission was of the view. “Guidance services have a much wider scope and function than merely that of assisting students in making educational and vocational choices. The aims of guidance are both adjustive and developmental: it helps the student in making the best

possible adjustments to the situations in the educational institutions and in the home. Guidance, therefore, should be regarded as an integral part of education.”

The scope of guidance has been rising with the advancement of science and technology, embracing all spheres of life and providing facilities for it. Therefore, it will be hard to put a fence approximately it. While discussing the scope of guidance we may think of some specific or specialised regions of guidance. Even though the guidance programme is addressed to the whole individuals treated as an integral unit. It is possible to classify an individual's troubles broadly into educational, vocational and personal.

EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

It is a procedure concerned with bringing in relation to the favourable setting for the individual's education and comprises the assistance in the choice of subjects, use of libraries, laboratories, workshops, development of effective revise habits, evaluation techniques and adjustment of school life with other behaviours.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

It is the assistance rendered in meeting the troubles:

- Relating to the choice of vocation
- Preparing for it
- Entering the job, and
- Achieving adjustment to it.

It also aims at helping individuals in the following specific regions:

- Making individuals well-known with the world of work and with its diverse necessities and,
- To lay at the disposal of the individual all possible aids in making correct appraisal of his strength and weaknesses in relation to the job necessities offered through his environment.

PERSONAL GUIDANCE

Personal guidance deals with the troubles of personal adjustment in dissimilar spheres of life. Mainly it works for the individual's adjustment to his social and emotional troubles. Jones has put the following aims of personal guidance:

- To assist the individual slowly to develop his life goals that is socially desirable and individually satisfying.
- To help him to plan his life so that these goals may be attained.
- To help him grow uniformly in skill to adjust himself creatively to his developing life goals.
- To assist the individual to grow uniformly in skill to live with others so effectively that he may promote their development and his own worthy purposes.
- to help him grow in self-directive skill

Therefore the goal of personal guidance is self-directive and self realization. This three-fold division of guidance illustrating its scope should not be taken to

form watertight compartments, but it is more a matter of practical convenience for making the concept clearer. There is no real variation in the middle of the troubles to which the dissimilar kinds of guidance services are addressed.

Mathewson while discussing the focus and scope of guidance programme has very aptly stated that the focus of guidance is improving the capability of the individuals to understand and deal with self-situational dealings in the light of social and moral values. The scope of guidance operation in school is to deal with:

- Personal and social dealings of the individual in school
- Relation of the individual to the school curriculum, and
- Relation of the individual to the educational and vocational necessities and opportunities.

AIMS OF GUIDANCE

The aims of guidance are the similar as those of education in a democratic society like ours. Presently like education, guidance services are also based on the principle that the individual is of crucial importance in an educational institution. The aims of guidance lend emphasis and strength to the educational programme and create it more dynamic, specifically the aims of guidance may be laid as follows from the individual's point of view:

- To help the individual, through his own efforts as distant as possible to realise his potentialities and to create his maximum contribution to the society.
- To help the individual to meet and solve his own troubles and create proper choice and adjustment.
- To help the individual to lay a permanent base for sound and mature adjustment.
- To help the individual to live a well-balanced life in all characteristics-physical, mental, emotional and social.

From the point of view of the institution the aims of guidance can be stated as follows:

- The guidance programme should encourage and stimulate teachers towards better teaching.
- The programme should aim at providing assistance to teachers in their efforts to understand their students.
- It should give teachers with systematic technical assistance and in-service training behaviours.
- It should contribute to the mutual adjustment of children and school.
- It should give for referral of students through teachers.

The Kothari Education Commission has given the following aims of guidance at the secondary school stage:

- To help the adolescent pupils to know and develop their abilities and interests.
- To help pupils to understand their strengths and limitations and to do scholastic work at the level of their abilities.

- To help pupils to create realistic educational and vocational choices.
- To give information of educational opportunities.
- To help the pupils in personal and social adjustment.
- To help the school to understand their student.

AIMS OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Crow and Crow have given the following aims of educational guidance at the high school level:

- Select the curriculum that best fits his abilities, interests and future needs.
- Develop work and revise habits that enable him to achieve satisfactory success in his studies.
- Gain some experiences in learning regions outside the scrupulous field of his special interests and talents.
- Understand the purpose and the function of the school in relation to his needs.
- Discover all that his school has to offer and plan a programme of studies accordingly.
- Learn in relation to the purpose and function of the school that he may wish to attend later.
- Select attempt out courses in order to gain insight into learning regions that still lie ahead.
- Participate in out-of-class behaviours in which he can develop potential leadership qualities-
- Appraise his fitness for sustained revise in a college or other school or in a scrupulous vocation.
- Develop an attitude which will stimulate him to continue his education in a school selected for its worth to him in relation to his talents and training.

AIMS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

According to Jones the specific aims of vocational guidance are the following:

- To assist the student to acquire such knowledge of the characteristics and functions, the duties and rewards of the group of job within which his choice will almost certainly lie as he may need for intelligent choice.
- To enable students to discover what common and specific abilities skills, *etc.*, are required for the group of occupations under consideration and what are the qualifications of age, preparation, sex, *etc.*, for entering them.
- To provide opportunities for experiences in school and out of school, which will give information in relation to the condition of work? It will assist the individual to discover his own abilities and help him in the development of his interests.
- To help the individual develop the point of view that all honest labour is worthy and that the mainly significant bases for choice of an job are:

- The peculiar service that the individual can render to the society,
- Personal satisfaction in the job, and
- Aptitude for the work required.
- To assist the individual to acquire a technique of analysis of occupational information and to develop the habit of analysing such information before making a final choice.
- To assist him secure such information in relation to himself, his abilities. – common and specific, his interests, and his powers, as he may need for choice.
- To assist economically handicapped children to pursue their occupational choices.
- To assist the students to secure knowledge of the facilities offered through several educational institutions for vocational training and the necessities for admission to them, the cost of attendance, *etc.*,
- To help the worker to adjust himself to job in which he is occupied; to assist him to understand his connection with workers in his own and related job and to society as a whole.
- To enable the students to secure reliable information in relation to the danger of alluring shortcut to fortune through short training courses and selling propositions of such unscientific methods.

AIMS OF PERSONAL GUIDANCE

The nature and purpose of personal guidance will be clearly understood when we take into consideration the dissimilar stages of child education.

Aims of Personal Guidance at Elementary Stage

Personal guidance at the elementary stage can be described keeping in view the vital needs of children. The childhood period is the period of growth and development. The vital foundations of physical, intellectual, emotional, social and other kinds of personality development are laid at this stage. The following are the aims of personal guidance at this stage:

- To help the children to form desirable attitudes towards his self, parents teachers, class fellows and others. Sympathy and affection should be used for achieving this end.
- To help the pupils to build a good physique. There should be a regular medical check-up.
- To help in making emotional adjustments.
- To help in the development of self discipline.

Aims of Personal Guidance at Secondary Stage

The nature of personal guidance at the secondary stage can be understood keeping in mind the vital needs and interests of secondary school students. This is the mainly critical stage of individual's development. It is the stage of stress and strain, storm and strife, heightened emotionality and hyper-suggestibility, anxieties and worries, conflicts and frustrations. Purposes of personal guidance at this stage are:

- To help the students to solve the troubles concerning physical health.
- To help the pupils to solve troubles concerning sex, emotionality and mental health.
- To help the adolescents in making family adjustments.
- To help the school children in making social adjustment including adjustment with the school.
- To organise wholesome recreational behaviours in the school.
- To give the opportunity for society service.

Aims of Personal Guidance at College and University Stage

Personal guidance at the college and university level is a continuation of the personal guidance at the secondary stage.

But, its scope is widened with a view to develop in young adults a sense of social service, social responsibility, patriotism and tolerance. The students at this stage need personal guidance to enable them have a satisfactory personal and social adjustment in their new environment.

The following are the aims of personal guidance at this stage:

- To help the pupils in solving all kinds of emotional troubles, sex troubles and other personal troubles.
- To help the pupils in making adjustments with the new environment *i.e.*, with the changing environment, college environment and environment of the society at big.
- To help the students in developing healthy ideas and structure a new philosophy of life.
- To help the students in participating in social behaviours and society services.
- To help the students in their ethical and moral development and inculcate right kind of values.
- To enable the pupils to have mutual respect and regard for people belonging to dissimilar faiths.
- To help young men and women to appreciate the importance of religious and moral values in life.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

Guidance is needed from educational point of view because of the following reasons.

Augment in the Range of Individual Differences in the Middle of School Going Children

Before independence, boys and girls in our country came to school only from the more privileged section of the society. The admission in the schools was selective. But after independence due to realization of Constitutional Directive of providing free and compulsory education up to 14 years of age, education for all and the drive for mass education, we discover our schools are

flooded with children from every section of society. The classes are in excess of-crowded and there is a tremendous augment in the number of schools too. The result is that we discover much wider range of individual differences in the abilities, aspirations and attainment of the pupils. Understanding of the differential needs and abilities of the children is essential for modifying the school programme for the best possible unfoldment of the student's potentialities. This is possible only through the introduction of guidance services in our school programmes.

Guidance as an Instrument for the Qualitative Improvement of Education

There has been a rapid expansion of educational facilities to cater to the needs of rising number of children in recent years. This has resulted to some extent in the fall of educational standards. Consequently, there is a great need of providing guidance services in the school for the qualitative improvement of education.

Knowledge Explosion or the Augment in the Kinds of Courses Offered in the Schools

The domain of knowledge is like the number of wishes. The increased knowledge is creeping into the course contents of our textbooks. It is not possible for every student to learn all that is accessible in the field of knowledge. Single track education for all is out-modelled concept. At the secondary stage, the courses of studies have been diversified to contain many optional groups. Therefore, a special kind of service is badly needed in our schools which will assist the individual pupil in the choice of course suiting to his needs and abilities that will help the school authorities in the proper allocation of the diversified courses to the pupils of the school.

Expanding Educational Objectives

We want a kind of education that can give for the development of the whole child. It is now commonly accepted that education should also lead to the promotion of the emotional, social and civic life of the student. Troubles of social adjustment and personality orientation require the services of a competent counsellor and availability of appropriate guidance services.

Solution of Educational Troubles

We are facing several kinds of educational troubles in the schools such as universal and compulsory education, increased enrolment, high percentage of failures and dropout, wastage and stagnation, *etc.*

These troubles require the need of proper guidance services in the school. Special guidance services are also required for the gifted, backward, handicapped and delinquent children.

Solving Discipline Troubles

Problem of discipline is becoming more and more acute in the educational institutions.

Even at higher stage of education it has taken a serious turn. Student strikes and agitation has become a general scene of the day. Troubles of discipline can be solved with the help of guidance programme.

Optimum Attainment of the Students

Mainly of the students secure third division in the examinations due to the fact that they have not urbanised the proper revise habits and learning styles. The cause for the poor attainment in the schools is because students do not create use of educational facilities accessible in the school. Therefore, there is a great need to develop revise habits in the middle of the students. Proper guidance services can help in this direction.

VOCATIONAL NEEDS

In our country natural possessions are not being properly utilised because of lack of guidance services. The following are the vocational needs for introducing guidance programme in the schools:

Vocationalization of Education and Guidance

Improvement of vocational efficiency is one of the aims of education. Secondary Education Commission has accentuated the need of introduction of crafts in addition to the diversification of the courses at secondary stage so that a big number of students may take up agriculture, technical, commercial or other practical courses to enable them to go for vocational pursuits. All this calls for proper guidance services in the school.

Guidance as an Instrument of National Development

Guidance through helping, identifying and developing human potential which is the richest source of a nation can help to reduce the wastage of educational facilities and abilities, which is so prevalent in our country. Therefore there is a need to set up a secure link flanked by education and the manpower needs of the country. The sound guidance programme can help to achieve this objective in a systematic method.

Expanding Complexity of the World of Work

There has been a tremendous augment in the diversity of jobs due to the development of industrialization and mechanization in every aspect of life. Therefore there is a problem of choice. It is highly significant to acquaint the secondary school students with this diversity of jobs and with their dissimilar necessities. This is possible only through providing organised guidance services in the school system of our country.

Rising Need for Man-power Scheduling and Utilization

For the planned development of a nation like ours, conservation of human possessions and manpower scheduling is very significant. A careful balance has to be struck flanked by the manpower needs and the several educational and training programmes. To meet the rapidly rising demands of several kinds of personnel for the several developmental projects, the younger generation of the country will have to be systematically guided into courses of training which will equip them for urgent national needs

Occupational Awareness

A well-organised guidance programme is essential for creating occupational awareness in the middle of the pupils of the country. The student's necessity is made aware of the several kinds of jobs accessible in the employment market so that they may be able to opt those courses throughout the secondary stage. There fore, assistance has to be given for making a right choice of the courses at the secondary stage.

Changes in the Circumstances of Industry and Labour

Fast changes are taking lay, today in the circumstances of industry and labour. Specialization has become the word of the present age. Moreover, professions have multiplied in numbers that it has become hard for a general man to create a right choice out of them. Hence it has become essential to get help of guidance services in the school.

Changed Economic Pattern of the Country

Our country is in the era of economic scheduling. We require scientists, industrialists, Software Engineers, Bankers, *etc.*, to meet the rising demands of the progressive country.

The craze for white-collared jobs necessity comes to an end. If proper guidance programme is not introduced at the secondary stage in the choice of studies and several vocations, the nation will remain poor and our youth will continue to be frustrated and disgusted.

PERSONAL/PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS

Today our youth is facing several kinds of personal troubles at home and in the school. Psychologically no two individuals are alike. They differ in several characteristics on explanation of the following three types of differences:

- Dissimilar stages of development
- Differences in the middle of persons
- Differences in opportunities made accessible to several persons.

It shows that all persons can not be fit for the similar profession. Hence guidance programme is needed in the school system. The following are the personal and psychological reasons for the need of guidance:

Guidance is the Vital Need of Man

Psychologically, no person on this earth is totally self-governing. The individual needs help of one type or the other from fellow beings to solve their troubles to lead a happy life.

Educational and Social Aspirations

In the present age of competition the aspirations of the parents are very high. They want their wards to excel in all walks of life. They give all kinds of facilities so that the children can be able to get good jobs. To meet the high aspirations of the parents, a well-organised guidance programme is needed to create them aware of the potentialities of their children so that they take up right decision at the right time.

From the Point of View of the Developmental Needs

The individual passes from dissimilar stages of development in the life such as infancy, childhood, adolescence and adulthood. One needs dissimilar kinds of help to adjust with every stage. The adolescent period faces several kinds of developmental troubles. At this stage the proper guidance is to be provided to the student to create right choice of his future.

Psychological Troubles

Several students face emotional troubles. These troubles arise due to frustrations, conflicts and tensions and other stresses and strains. It is essential to give guidance to the youth to solve their personal troubles.

Satisfactory Adjustment

Guidance is needed to help the pupils in making satisfactory psychological adjustment with the environment. Lack of adjustment adversely affects their physical and mental health.

Proper Development of Personality

The all round development of personality is the aim of education, a well organised guidance programme is essential for the total development of personality.

SOCIAL NEEDS

Following points highlight the Social Needs of Guidance.

Intricate Nature of Society

Industrialization is the slogan of the day. Our country is heading towards industrialization, urbanization and modernization. Changed circumstances of livelihood and a highly intricate society with its demands have put the individual in constant social and emotional tension. As such, it is highly desirable that school should give some special service that can look after the emotional and social needs of school going children.

Changed Family Contexts

The joint family system is disappearing rapidly and homes are getting disintegrated. The changed family pattern has given rise to the several kinds of personal troubles. The proper guidance programme in the school is required to solve the personal troubles of the children.

Explosion of Population and Expansion in Human Possessions

Our population has been rising rapidly. This calls for rigorous and extensive guidance in the technique of scheduling.

Political Change and Extension of Democracy

There is a revolution of democratization of political system throughout the world. The education has been made child-centred. The provision of professions and promotions has also been made equal for all human beings. Hence all people need the help of guidance service for the right choice of education and job.

Change in the Concept of Education

The concept of education has been changed. The students of today need guidance at every step of education since the education is to be provided according to their interests, aptitudes and capabilities.

Proper Utilization of Leisure Time

Universal leisure is the outcome of the technological advancement of contemporary world. Guidance is needed to assist the individual to create the right use of leisure time that is at his disposal.

Lack of Guidance at Home

In the past, home was a significant agency of education that provided enough training in the family job and the children adopted the similar profession. But now this is not possible due to specialization and dissimilar kind of occupations accessible in the job market. There are diversities of jobs and all the people are free to choose the profession they like. Therefore, there is a great need of occupational information services to be provided in the school.

“Discussion we can conclude that intricate social, economic, political and educational system has made the guidance and counselling programme a necessity.

2

Role of Counsellor in Schools

CHARACTERISTICS OF A COUNSELLORS

To be effective, counselling needs to be provided in a method that meets a set of well-defined criteria. Condensing several hundreds of studies, psychologist Bruce Wampold, in a recent American Psychological Association symposium, boiled these ingredients down to this baker's dozen.

- *Possession of a sophisticated set of interpersonal skills:* Can your therapist communicate to you in language that you understand? Does your therapist talk in relation to you, rather than him or herself?
- *Skill to help you feel you can trust the therapist:* Clients of effective therapists consider that their therapists will be helpful because the therapist communicates both verbally and non-verbally that he or she is someone the client can trust.
- *Willingness to set up an alliance with you:* Though the therapist is obviously the expert, do you feel that the therapist cares in relation to the your goals in therapy and is willing to work with you to set goals that both of you agree on?
- *Skill to gives an explanation of your symptoms and can adapt this explanation as circumstances change:* Clients want to know why they're experiencing their symptoms. Effective therapists give explanations that clients can understand.
- *Commitment to developing a constant and acceptable treatment plan:* Effective therapists conduct an assessment very early in treatment and share the treatment plan with you.

- *Communication of confidence in relation to the course of therapy:* An effective therapist keeps clients in therapy through communicating to clients the feeling that therapy will be worthwhile.
- *Attention to the progress of therapy and communication of this interest to the client:* Good therapists are interested in finding out how their clients are responding to treatment. They illustrate that they want their clients to improve.
- *Flexibility in adapting treatment to the scrupulous client's characteristics:* A good therapist doesn't follow a rigid schedule of treatment- a "one size fits all" approach.
- *Inspiration of hope and optimism in relation to the your chances of improvement:* Hope is a terrific motivator. Feeling that something is going to work is often a big part of the equation in successful treatment.
- *Sensitivity towards your cultural background:* Therapists adapt treatment to their client's cultural values. This comprises showing respect for your background and being aware of attitudes within your culture or society.
- *Possession of self-insight:* An effective therapist is self-aware and is able to separate his or her own issues from those of clients.
- *Reliance on the best research proof:* Therapists should stay abreast of the latest growths in clinical psychology, particularly in their regions of expertise.
- *Involvement in sustained training and education:* Licensed mental health professionals necessity participates in continuing education to uphold their credentials.

DEFINING ROLES IN THE SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMME

Role of School Management, Staff and the Education Partners

The Board of Management and school management team has a responsibility to ensure that the provision and practice of guidance in the school is of the highest possible average. This comprises managing the procedure of guidance scheduling in cooperation with the guidance counsellor, school staff and other school partners such as parents. Each school is required to comply with the Education Act (1998) and give students with "access to appropriate guidance".

Guidance counsellors because of their specialist training have a professional role in each of the main regions of guidance: personal and social, educational, and career. In addition the guidance counsellor has a key role in collaborating with school management in the development and review of the school guidance plan and the integration of guidance into the curriculum.

Subject teachers may have a key role in providing support to students and information and advice relating to their subject disciplines and related careers. Some teachers have additional formal responsibilities through management, rustic care roles, and coordination roles and through participation in programmes

such as SPHE. Individual teachers may be sought out through students on an informal foundation for advice and information. All teachers may consult with the guidance counsellor on the needs of an individual student and/or refer the student to the guidance counsellor when specialist competence is required with due regard to confidentiality.

Parents have through distant the mainly power, directly or indirectly, on the choices made through young people. Parents have a major power on the environment in which the young person lives including values, attitudes and lifestyle. Parents have an significant part to play in helping to set up the needs and priorities of the school guidance programme and in supporting the programme. Parents can also participate in the guidance procedure through

- Consultation with the guidance counsellor and other school staff.
- Attendance at relevant information and other meetings at school.
- Contributing to the development and review of the school guidance plan *and when possible*
- Providing personal assistance to the school guidance programme.

Students are the focus of the school guidance programme and are entitled to have an input into the development of the school guidance plan. In scrupulous, students (through the Student Council) can help to identify and set up the needs and priorities of the guidance programme. Their feedback in the review procedure is also highly significant.

The *local society* through its agencies, organisations and institutions gives young people with possessions for career exploration, information and other shapes of assistance and support. Such agencies, organisations and institutions contain providers of training, further and higher education, employment and youth services. In some instances, the guidance needs of young people may require referral to professionals outside the school.

The Role of the Guidance Counsellor

Guidance counsellors are professionally trained to undertake the following tasks within the school guidance programme:

Counselling

Empowering students to create decisions, solve troubles, change behaviours and resolve issues in their lives. Such action may be personal counselling; educational counselling, career counselling, or it may involve combinations of each. Counselling is a key part of the school guidance programme, offered on an individual or group foundation as part of a developmental learning procedure and at moments of personal crisis.

Counselling on an individual foundation should be part of the support structure that a school gives to students. Within the overall time allocated for guidance, adequate time should be given for the counselling function in the guidance programme. The rationale for the time allocated and its usage should be apparent in the school guidance plan.

Support

The guidance counsellor gives support to parents, teachers, the school principal, Board of Management and referral agencies in assisting the personal and social, career and educational development of students. Such support may contain advocacy on behalf of a student. Support also refers to assistance in the scheduling and development of SPHE, JCSP, TYP, LCA, LCVP, PLC guidance related behaviours.

Assessment

The guidance counsellor is trained to use a range of psychometric tests and other evaluative instruments to support relevant objectives of the school guidance programme. Such objectives may be related to career and educational scheduling, personal decision making and development of self-awareness.

Information

Assisting students to acquire interpret and use information relevant to their personal and social, educational and career development.

Classroom Guidance Behaviours

Providing classroom based learning experiences that are relevant to the objectives of the school guidance programme. Such experiences may contain information giving, information and communication technologies (ICT), skills development (*e.g.*, scheduling, decision-making, revise skills, communication, values clarification), and vocational preparation.

Scheduling and Organising Workplace Learning

Schools need to create provision for work based or work simulation learning experiences relevant to the personal and social, educational and career learning objectives of the school guidance programme. Such experiences contain work experience, work shadowing, visits to workplaces, training centres and higher education institutes, *etc.* The guidance counsellor should be involved and consulted in this field.

Referrals

Seeking for students the assistance of non-school based professionals, *e.g.*, NEPS, following average procedures. The guidance counsellor also gives support for students referred to him/her through teachers, parents, and school management. The voluntary participation through the individual concerned should be respected.

Professional Development

The guidance counsellor should stay abreast of on-going changes in the meadows of training, education, and work and child welfare. The Board of

Management and school management should facilitate the attendance of the guidance counsellor at relevant events and at in-career professional training throughout the school year. Participation in these events should be related to the objectives of the school guidance programme. Attendance at non-school based events should be negotiated/agreed in advance flanked by the Board of Management, school management and the guidance counsellor.

ESTABLISHMENT OF CAREER POSSESSIONS CENTRE THROUGH COUNSELLOR

As counsellors are dealing directly with people, their work involves matters of sensitive and confidential nature.

Therefore they need to exhibit sure skills and qualities to perform well in this profession:

- *Communication (verbal and written):* Interview clients, listening actively, enquire relevant questions, speak clearly and concisely, read and write reports
- *Interpersonal:* Assist, advise, teach, guide client through procedure of evaluating situation and taking action
- *Problem Solving and Creativity:* Observe and examine situation from dissimilar perspectives, evaluate and interpret client's responses to illustrate options for solution, action and consequences
- *Knowledge of Subject Matter:* Apply appropriate counselling methods relevant to client's need
- *Organisational:* Plan, develop, schedule, and administer counselling programmes
- *Objectivity:* Assess situation from dissimilar perspectives free from personal values, interests, beliefs, or judgement
- *Emotional Maturity:* Skill to handle hard situations and aloofness oneself from client's troubles or emotions
- *Awareness of Diversity:* Be sensitive to differences in age, culture, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, socio-economic class, etc.
- *Confidentiality:* Ensure that client's personal information is kept confidential
- Respect, Patience, Responsibility, Empathy, Willingness to help are significant in dealing with clients

Counselling takes lay when a counsellor sees a client in a private and confidential setting to explore a difficulty the client is having, distress they may be experiencing or perhaps their dissatisfaction with life, or loss of a sense of direction and purpose. It is always at the request of the client as no one can properly be 'sent' for counselling.

Through listening attentively and patiently the counsellor can begin to perceive the difficulties from the client's point of view and can help them to see things more clearly, perhaps from a dissimilar perspective. Counselling is a method of enabling choice or change or of reducing confusion. It does not involve

giving advice or directing a client to take a scrupulous course of action. Counsellors do not judge or use their clients in any method. Counselling can be best defined as the ability of helping people, through discussions, to decide how best to cope in specific situations and take decisions. Through listening attentively and without passing judgement, the counsellor provides clients the opportunity to explore, discover and clarify how and why they feel as they do. The clients may then be able to create choices and decisions in relation to the their situation which they were incapable of doing before. A counsellor is a teacher, confidant, and advisor to his/her clients. Counsellors assist people with personal, family, educational, mental health (depression), drug and alcohol addiction and career decisions and troubles. Their duties depend on the individuals they serve and the settings in which they work.

Counsellors work in dissimilar types of settings - schools, colleges, clinics, Deaddiction, NGOS, AIDS counselling centres, welfare departments as well as in private practice. There are counselling services that target specific groups, *e.g.*, young people, the elderly, or specific troubles such as drug addiction, AIDS, *etc.*

Counselling in Schools and Educational Institutes

The counsellors who work at the elementary, middle, secondary, and post-secondary school levels give support to the child's development at school. They act as catalysts to help give a conducive environment for growth and development. School counsellors help students understand and deal with their social, behavioural, and personal troubles.

They help students develop the life skills needed to deal with troubles before they happen, and so enhance personal, social, and academic growth. They also attempt to identify cases involving domestic abuse and other family troubles that can affect a student's development. Counsellors work with students individually, in small groups, or with whole classes. They consult and work with parents, teachers, school officers, school psychologists, doctors and social workers. Today, it is mandatory for schools to have a counsellor.

Counsellors in Rehabilitation Centres

Counsellors help people deal with the personal, social, and vocational effects of disabilities resulting from birth defects, illness or disease and accidents. They interview individuals with disabilities and their families, evaluate school and medical reports, and confer and plan with physicians, psychologists, occupational therapists, and employers to determine the capabilities and skills of the individual. Conferring with the client, they develop a rehabilitation programme, which may contain training to help the person develop job skills, and augment their capability to live independently.

Behavioural Counsellors

Behavioural counsellors work with individuals who have troubles which they discover hard to face alone. These persons are not usually mentally or

emotionally ill, but are often emotionally upset, anxious or struggling with some disagreement which may be within themselves or in the environment.

Counsellors help individuals deal with addictions and substance abuse, suicide, stress management, troubles with self-esteem, issues associated with ageing, job and career concerns, educational decisions, issues of mental and emotional health, and family, parenting, and marital troubles. Behavioural counsellors work closely with other mental health specialists, including psychiatrists, psychologists, clinical social workers, and school counsellors.

Marriage Counsellors

Marriage counsellors help to sort out the marital troubles of their clients. They talk to their clients and create them voice their grievances. They essentially help couples enrich their married life.

Career Counsellors

Career counsellors help students evaluate their abilities, interests, talents, and personality characteristics so that students can develop realistic academic and career goals. Counsellors use interviews, counselling sessions, tests, or other methods when evaluating and advising students. They may operate career information centres and career education programmes. They advise on college majors, admission necessities, entrance exams, and financial aid. They help students develop job-finding skills such as resume writing and interviewing techniques. Career counsellors can also specialise in employment and placement counselling to assist students with career development and in locating and applying for jobs.

Are you Eligible to be a Counsellor

Though formal training is not essential, individuals who are interested in taking up counselling as a career would do well to specialise. Mainly counsellors have a background in psychology as this gives an insight into human behaviour which helps them to understand better the troubles of their clients. Candidates who have Master's in any region are eligible to apply for a diploma in counselling; some prefer students with psychology background. Some institutes offer a diploma for which graduates are eligible. The duration of the course varies flanked by one to two years It is also possible to enter this field directly after postgraduate revise in psychology, accessible at mainly colleges and universities.

Do you have it in you to be a Counsellor

More than academic qualifications, counsellors necessity possess high physical and emotional power to handle the array of troubles they address. They necessity also have the emotional stability and maturity to handle other people's troubles without becoming emotionally involved. They should have a strong interest in helping others, be sensitive and perceptive in assessing people and

be able to inspire respect, trust, and confidence. They should be able to work independently or as part of a team. Since privacy is essential for confidential and frank discussions with clients, counsellors would need private offices.

Where all can you get a Job of a Counsellor

Schools in the superior municipalities, both private and government, employ counsellors. Coaching Institutes and Training Centres also do employ Counsellors for handling students. Several trained counsellors take up private practice and function as marriage counsellors and behavioural counsellors.

Counsellors are also employed in clinics, welfare departments, and with non-governmental organisations dealing with developmental troubles. These contain health care facilities; vocational rehabilitation centres; social agencies; correctional institutions; and residential care facilities, such as rehabilitation programmes for criminal offenders and homes for abandoned children, the aged, and the disabled. Industrial organisations are also increasingly by the services of counsellors for handling welfare and labour dealings troubles. Counsellors also work in NGOs and social welfare organisations occupied in society improvement and social change, as well as drug and alcohol rehabilitation programmes and State and local government agencies. Internet has also opened new vistas for everybody including Counsellors. In the Education Segment, Online counselling is a Significant characteristic which helps a student identify the career path he can follow to achieve his ambition in life. Some Locations attach a lot of importance to the development of career graph for the student visiting their locations. Online chat with the counsellor, Developing personality including mock interviews, aptitude tests to evaluate yourself is some characteristics of Online Counselling. In today's world, there is a mad race for getting ahead. People are finding it hard to cope with the fierce competitiveness. The rising pressures of contemporary-day livelihood are driving more and more people to seek professional help for their emotional, social and vocational troubles. So, if you have what it takes to be a good counsellor you will never be without a job?

SCHEDULING OF A GOOD GUIDANCE PROGRAMME THROUGH COUNSELLOR

The school guidance programme is the specific set of learning experiences which a school gives in response to the guidance needs of its students. There are a number of principles that underpin the school guidance programme.

Principles

The school guidance programme should:

- Be accessible
- Recognise that guidance is a specialist region within education
- Recognise that guidance is a whole school concern
- Be impartial
- Be student centred

- Be transparent
- Be balanced
- Be inclusive
- Be responsive
- Respect confidentiality in counselling and assessment behaviours
- Empower participants to take responsibility for their own development
- Promote equal opportunities
- Deploy and create full use of accessible possessions
- Be reviewed on an ongoing foundation

What is the School Guidance Plan

The school guidance plan is a structured document that describes the school guidance programme and identifies how the guidance needs of students are to be addressed. The school guidance plan is drawn up in consultation with all school partners in order to ensure that it reflects the recognised needs of students. The school guidance plan is an integral part of the school's overall plan. It is developmental through design and comprises sequential behaviours organised and implemented as a collaborative effort through guidance counsellors, teachers, school management and the Board of Management, programme teams, students and parents. The school guidance plan outlines and describes the guidance programme, that is, the full range of behaviours through which the school addresses the needs of the students through helping them in their personal and social, educational and career development.

Target Groups

One of the principal benefits of the school guidance plan is that accessible possessions are utilised to meet recognised needs and priorities. The school guidance programme should take into explanation the needs of all students at all levels within the school. The programme should give a balance in the personal and social, educational and career guidance offered. Within the possessions accessible for guidance, schools may need to priorities sure groups of students throughout the school year. Prioritising is a value judgement made through the school in conditions of its overall mission, the needs recognised, the possessions accessible, and the local, national, social and economic environment in which the school operates. These decisions should be based in scrupulous on the aims of the school guidance plan. In setting priorities schools should cautiously consider the needs of the society in which the school is based and also national priorities. For instance, both the *National Development Plan (NDP)* and the *New Deal on Educational Disadvantage* have recognised assisting young people at risk as a priority for school guidance services.

Objectives (Guidance Outcomes)

Once the aims and target groups are clear, the after that issue is to decide on specific guidance outcomes for scrupulous target groups. Objectives (guidance

outcomes) should be set corresponding to each aim and should take into explanation accessible possessions. Objectives should be clear, realistic, specific and measurable and have a timeframe. In common, objectives should be framed in active language and should list competencies such as to *identify, acquire, demonstrate, know, develop, compare and contrast, etc.* The Department of Education and Science's *Guidelines for Second Level Schools on the implications of Section 9 (c) of the Education Act (1998), relating to students' access to appropriate guidance* contains valuable information on knowledge, skills and competencies for the several stages of second level education.

Guidance Behaviours

A very broad range of guidance behaviours can be described into play as the means through which the objectives are to be realised.

Please refer to:

- Guidance behaviours that assist students to create choices
- Guidance behaviours that assist students to create transitions
- Other guidance behaviours that support the attainment of the aims of the school guidance programme.

Monitoring And Review

The school guidance plan necessity creates provision for ongoing monitoring (on an annual foundation) and review (a major re-design on a longer timescale, perhaps every three years).

A school needs to identify:

- The extent to which guidance objectives are being achieved,
- The factors that facilitate or hinder that attainment, and
- Unplanned outcomes, unmet needs, and perhaps new/emerging target groups.

This procedure assists the school in forward scheduling so that the school guidance programmes remnants relevant to the needs of the students.

There are dissimilar methods in which monitoring and review may be supported, for instance:

- Soliciting the views of school partners.
- Development of a summary statement of action with a critical analysis through the guidance counsellor.
- Follow up studies of the target groups.

Monitoring should be an on-going action. A written statement for the Board of Management of the school should be prepared on a regular foundation, *e.g.*, annually.

POSSESSIONS A GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR NECESSITY KNOW

Possessions describe the personnel, time allocation, equipment, materials, physical sites and finance required for the performance of the guidance behaviours and the management of the school guidance programme.

School and Society Possessions:

- Board of Management and Principal.
- Guidance counsellor(s).
- Subject teachers and the learning support teacher(s).
- Staff with formal roles (year head, class tutor, *etc.*).
- In-school programme support teams.
- Parents.
- Students.
- School budget – part of the school budget should be dedicated for the purchase of materials for guidance, *e.g.*, psychometric tests, career materials.
- The guidance suite (office, careers library, *etc.*).
- Classrooms.
- Computer facilities - access through students for guidance purposes should be average in both the school guidance plan and in the school's ICT plan.
- Society (workplace, referral, *etc.*).

National Possessions:

- The Department of Education and Science, agencies such as the National Centre for Guidance in Education (NCGE), the National Educational Psychological Service (NEPS), the National Centre for Technology in Education (NCTE).
- Professional bodies and associations such as the Institute of Guidance Counsellors (IGC), teacher unions and management bodies.
- The School Development Scheduling Initiative and other national initiatives' support teams.
- ICT, video and printed national possessions.
- Test materials.

Incorporated in the appendices of this publication is a questionnaire to look at the possessions accessible for the provision of guidance in the school. This questionnaire can be adapted to suit the needs of the school.

3

Educational Guidance

Educational guidance is a procedure for helping an individual to plan an appropriate educational programme and create progress in it. The individual may be assisted, for instance, in choosing subjects, courses, schools, colleges, and school adjustment. The individual has to be helped to know his/her present location in the educational system and see what lies ahead. Girls and women, for instance, need to be guided absent from those educational myths which contribute to the reluctance of females to pursue careers in technology, mathematics, engineering, and mainly male-dominated occupations.

CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENT AND VERSION

“INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN BRAZIL: PRESENT DIAGNOSIS AND FUTURE CHALLENGES” WORKSHOP – STATEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM GROUP

Discussion Method

The workgroup that discussed *Inclusive Education from a Curricular Viewpoint*, throughout the “Inclusive Education in Brazil: Present Diagnosis and Future Challenges” workshop was made of 15 members, coming from seven dissimilar states (North and Southeast regions) and the Federal District. It was a diversified but harmonious group, made up of professionals who acted in dissimilar positions: Special Education managers and technicians from state and municipal Secretaries of Education, technicians from the Ministry of Education and from an international agency, and university professors.

Discussion Synthesis

Respect for the Student's Diversity and Singularity

A curriculum that takes diversity into explanation should, first of all, be *flexible and adaptable without loss of content*. It should be intended with the common goal of “reducing attitude and concept barriers”, and characterise itself through “giving new meaning to the learning procedure in its relation with human development”. It is not presently a matter of small episodic modifications the teacher may come to perform, in conditions of methods and contents. On the contrary, it bears mostly upon the “*reorganisation of the politico-pedagogical project*” of each school and the school system as a whole, taking into consideration “the necessary adjustments for the inclusion and effective participation of students with special needs in all school behaviours”.

Curricular Version or Reorganisation

Two kinds of version were discussed whose need is felt for the inclusion of students with special needs in regular classes: accessibility version of the curriculum (eliminating architectural and methodological barriers), and pedagogical version (or curricular in their own right). On the accessibility dimension, it was stressed that “*accessibility and school permanence do not assure knowledge acquisition and teaching excellence*”. At dissimilar points of the discussion, severe criticism was made of the relaxed method in which special classes were closed and the students “thrown” into regular teaching, without proper pedagogical preparation of the teacher or curricular version. The group's worry was that a “mere physical inclusion of the disabled student, the method it has been happening in several Brazilian school systems, results in an exclusion from school”, implying a failure, and, almost certainly, the school dropout of that student.

How to teach the disable student jointly with the other students is the major “knot” and challenge of Inclusive Education, because that is the point where inclusion is no longer a philosophy, an ideology or a policy, becoming instead a concrete action in real-life situations, involving individuals with specific difficulties and needs. Because, at least in our country, the type of inclusion one is aiming for will happen in the *context of a deficit-ridden*, and sometimes bankrupt, school (the statistics for year drops, class failure, and school dropout illustrate that the problem does not restrict itself to the so-described students with special needs), *a teacher that was not trained to deal with diversity*, and students with great learning difficulties due to real sensorial, intellectual, psychological and/or motor disabilities, not to mention socio-economic and cultural difficulties. The difficulty with that model's implementation, especially in the case of students with serious conduct disturbances, cognitive and/or communication deficits, was also underlined in the group discussions. As one of the members expressed himself, “we are not talking in relation to the intelligent

kids who were placed in special schools because they had physical disabilities or borderline kids with easy learning troubles, but rather students who are hard to teach be the best teacher in the best schools”!

Another point that was focused was the fact that none of the accounted experiences had come down to the level of a *school's daily routine*, the examples remaining restricted to the level of policies or showing students incorporated in social events. The group measured that “that omission in itself is already important data, that is, why did not any of the studies privilege the actions the teacher of a regular class has to take in order to contain the student in her form of class?” It was whispered that it happened, precisely, because that is where the main difficulty rests. In the words of one participant: “special education was created because we didn’t know how to teach those children jointly with the others, and until now we still don’t know”! One of the consensus conclusions of the group is that “*school inclusion is not the similar thing as social inclusion*”. The inclusive school “*is the one that offers the special-needs student the acquisition of school knowledge, jointly with the rest of the class. If that dimension is in the least minimized or hidden,*” the student will end up learning less than in the special system, even if socially she develops and broadens her horizons.”

Regular Class Teacher “Warm”, Trained and Supported

For school inclusion to be real, the regular class teacher has to be *alerted and trained* (both psychologically and intellectually) to “change her method of teaching and adapting what she is going to teach” in order to meet the needs of all students, including the ones with the mainly serious difficulties. While the teacher training and qualification programmes or degrees necessity grant effective circumstances for the teacher to start working immediately with her students, “they can not be a qualification that is basically tuned to specific questions (a recipe type of thing), and should offer instead some measure of theoretical methodological depth” (which mainly teachers in both regular and special education do not have) that allows her to change into a “teacher who can reflect and provide a new meaning to her pedagogical practice, in order to meet the diversity of her student body”.

It was measured a priority action the training and qualification of teachers, with an eye on the didactical curricular reorganisation, “with special emphasis on the pedagogical but also affective relationships that are recognised in the classroom”. There was also a consensus that this is a type of *training that has to be continuous*, and contain *swap of experiences and external interchange* (such as the present seminar, for instance), *besides qualifying behaviours in the school itself* (training on the job), in the form of revise centres and case-studies, supervision, *etc.* It was stressed the importance of the teacher having “time to plan, examine, and research her practice”, with a great sense of approval for the authentication of a municipality where the number of teachers per school was increased to allow the teachers that legroom of reflection without harming the students.

Continuous, Institutional, and Pedagogical Evaluation of the Procedure and of the “Product” of Learning

This is the last issue the group raised as indispensable for pondering the curriculum of the inclusive school. The absence of learning criteria and evaluation methods is one of the troubles we inherited from the segregated model of Special Education. Everyone agreed there is a pressing need of “*clearly defined indicators* – starting from the school’s politico pedagogical project and from the teacher’s scheduling – *to monitor the student’s learning procedure and knowledge acquisition*”. Another issue that caught the group’s attention was the fact that none of the accounted experiences even touched the topic of evaluation; it was proposed that this should be one of the thematic dimensions to be exploited and discussed in future meetings. According to the group’s views, a school that proposes to be inclusive needs to have an “operational definition of the school evaluation procedure for the student with special needs under the similar perspective or model, even if there’s a need for flexing sure criteria, as the one used with the remaining students”.

It was also agreed that “one can not express evaluation in conditions of adjectives or demonstration of curricular situations in the meadows of arts and recreation/socialisation”. The “evaluation in the inclusive curriculum should be flexible, and yet objective”.

The group showed a great concern in relation to the automatic or “facilitated” approval models, because “if the student with disabilities ends up presently passing, without getting the necessary knowledge”, we shall be reproducing the similar troubles we had with special education. It was pointed out that one of the reasons behind the search for a new educational model was precisely the failure of special education in making students with disabilities, even after years of schooling, achieve a level of schooling and knowledge that were compatible with the effort put into it. “If special education would have been successful, we almost certainly wouldn’t be proposing a new school attendance model for these students!”

To sum things up, the group stressed the importance of developing *evaluation studies and research in relation to the inclusion experiments*, from both a formal academic viewpoint, especially those performed through the school’s own teachers, presenting sources of *data on the school trajectories* of students with special needs in regular classes, and from a viewpoint of the *whole school inclusion procedure*.

Only then we will be able to perfect our practice, leaving behind an empiric system of trial and error, and reach perhaps not a unified model for the whole of Brazil but, at least, some common guidelines for the orientation of schools which are entering the new model. As a suggestion for future meetings, special attention was described to the stability of *publicising* for the revise of *inclusion experiments*, such as the ones presented here, going deeper, though, on the *classroom’s daily life*.

STATEMENT OF THE INTERNET DISCUSSION GROUP ON INCLUSIVE EDUCATION CURRICULUM

Discussion Method

The Internet discussion on Inclusive Education, which took place in the week of April 21-25, 2003, was focused on the curricular and pedagogical dimension of the educational inclusion procedure. It was an enriching debate, which incorporated the active participation of in excess of 40 people, originating from many Brazilian states and other countries such as Portugal, Argentina, Mozambique, in the middle of others. In order to organise the discussion development, we presented three guiding questions, which were accepted through the group, and sequentially worked upon for the length of the week:

- Dimensions of a curriculum that contemplates Inclusive Education.
- Daily life of Inclusive Education in the Brazilian school's reality and daily life.
- Institutional and learning evaluation under the inclusive school paradigm.

Discussion Summary

We will be presenting, after that, a summary of the group members' interventions in answer to each of the proposed questions.

Dimensions of a Curriculum that Contemplates Inclusive Education

Curriculum concept: More than presently programmes, content listings and behaviours, a *curriculum is the development of methods of thinking, perceiving the world, and livelihood*. It has implications upon the individual's preparation for the existing society, for assuming domineering or submissive positions, for taking critical or alienated positions in relation to the reality, for fully or only partially livelihood her citizenship. The conceptual and philosophical viewpoints of Education, which guide the curriculum, describe the school's daily life, and its consequences. In our discussion, with special concerns for diversity and inclusion, the curricular referential that was pointed out was Critical Multiculturalism, quoting many authors such as McLaren and the constructivist viewpoints. – Vygotsky and Piaget – of Bruner and Perrenoud, in the middle of others.

According to that perspective, the *curriculum does not work with knowledge alone, but also with culture, identity, and subjectivity*. To design curricula is to take decisions on the knowledge that will be measured, valued, and transmitted through school. It is also deciding on the creation of excluded groups and cultures denied through school. The multicultural perspective forces the curriculum to compromise with excellence teaching and the viewpoints of openness and respect for diversity.

The responsibility for the curriculum: The Education professionals are not the sole responsible for the curriculum. There is fundamental knowledge that is

in the specialist's field of expertise, but there is also knowledge that comes from the society inside and outside the school, and from the students themselves, which can extraordinarily improve the curriculum. Therefore, it needs to be *democratic, encompassing, and inclusive, in order to meet the singularities of the student body* – not presently the so-described special educational needs, but the individual needs of those who cross the school environment.

The concept of Inclusion structuring the curriculum: The group discussed inclusion exhaustively, stressing that it means that, when it truly exists, society understands it, and adapts to meet the needs of everyone, instead of presently a single group; that it defends the rights of everyone, with the difficulties they may have; that it brings excluded groups to within the “system”, giving it a excellence that is enjoyed through all; and that it starts from the realisation that we are all dissimilar, valuing the peculiarities and individuality of each person. These were noted in the group itself, in the enrichment of the diversity of experiences and viewpoints. It is significant to underline that inclusion starts with family and school, where children, teenagers, and adults should enjoy the company of all, instead of the segregation in separate groups.

In the case of the curriculum, it does not mean to work for the “special” groups, since that is still excluding them, but rather to work with them in the construction of the conception of subject, knowledge, and world that the curriculum involves. We are not dealing presently with the students with special educational needs, but also with those “culturally dissimilar” from the performance average the school expects, with those that are “culturally challenged” when compared with the dominant culture.

Curricular adaptations: In order to meet the diversity we have talked in relation to the, there is a need for “adaptations” of the regular curriculum, involving organisational modifications in the goals and contents, in the methodologies, in the didactical organisation, in the temporality, and in the evaluation philosophy and strategies, making it therefore possible to meet everyone's educational needs in the creation of knowledge. Some group members criticized the curricula urbanised in schools, qualifying them as “exclusive, reproductive, domesticated, and uncritical”. That reflection incorporated the university curricula themselves, especially the ones in the educator training courses. This week's discussion left good leads on topics to be dealt with in more depth in the following stages. It was stressed, for instance, that any curricular version needs minimal accessibility circumstances, which will allow its attainment. The group also talked in relation to the present importance of the new information and communication technologies integrated into this curricular procedure, pointing out the so-described “assistive technologies”, a relatively new concept in our country's Education.

Such adaptations need, necessarily, to involve the whole institution's team – avoiding the transfer of responsibilities – and cross three dissimilar levels: the politico-pedagogical project, the curriculum, and the individual attitude changes. Though, the concept of curricular version proved itself controversial. Some

group members uphold the thought that one can not make a customized curriculum for the specific cognitive development of groups of people, and that all that is needed is technical accessibility possessions for those groups, which would entail not the creation of adaptations, but rather the creation of “multiple curricula”, which would be simultaneously implemented. They claim, furthermore, that there is no variation in the mental structure or in the learning mechanisms of the members of those groups. Consequently, they uphold the subsistence of a single curriculum, and that every student is performed the grading evaluation for the abstraction, concentration, and generalisation level that student is in, for the previously built concepts, and for the motivation, as an instance. From that stage on, the appropriate curricular design would start.

Another part of the group, though, claimed that the development of the single curriculum, without any adaptations that take diversity into explanation, can reinforce the excluding practices, now under the form of abandon and neglect of those students at “the back of the classroom”, and lead to the dangerous labels of “learning difficulties”. These colleagues argue that the fundamental thing is the creation of the “inclusive school”, the one that is so flexible that it is open to receive everyone, and also the necessary curricular adaptations for everyone’s needs to be met. They claim that the curriculum is unified, anyway, only that at the moment of implementing it, instead of a single strategy, adaptations are implemented.

The practice of inclusion in school: This was almost certainly the group’s mainly heated argument. Again, we could perceive two dissimilar positions, concerning this issue. One part of the debaters is for the *total immediate inclusion*, even if it has to be “forced upon”, placing every student in regular classrooms full-time. To them, *inclusion will happen, naturally, in the daily livelihood and daily get in touch with*. They argue that this is an effective strategy for diminishing social inequality as a whole, adding that this tendency is not rising in our country alone, but rather in the whole world. Another part of the group brought a dissimilar thought, going as distant as to claim that the first group was defending a “Shiite inclusion”. Total inclusion, according to them, is dangerous and can augment the *worrying dropout levels*. It can even recreate, in the school’s daily life, an excluding version of the external practices, with discrimination, lack of access to knowledge, and the meritocratic and classificatory evaluation, of which we will talk later. They claim that the *inclusive procedures need to be accompanied* through a preparation, which comprises reviewing the arbitrary norms of normalcy, secularly applied. They criticize the indiscriminate application of principles that, even if they are legitimate and fair, could be contaminated through discredit and despair.

Reflections on the Pedagogical Practice

Even though we didn’t have a great number of reports on these experiences, the discussion on the school daily life was quite rich, revolving approximately two vital questions:

- “Should all students, regardless of previous circumstances (theirs and the school’s), be inserted into the regular schooling system, and with no great displacement flanked by age and grade?”
- What type of possessions or support do dissimilar students, with dissimilar kinds of special needs (visual, hearing, and/or cognitive disabilities, behaviour disturbances, multiple disabilities, in excess of attainment) need, so that they may revise in inclusive schools with academic attainment?

Concerning those questions, some things were the substance of consensus. The first one was that it is not possible, nor desirable, for there to be a “manual” explaining “how to develop and implement an inclusive curriculum”. That goes against the very essence of the *inclusive curriculum* concept, *which has the vital characteristic of being flexible to allow for customisation*. Also concerning the curriculum, it was seen that in the nursery and in kinder garden, whose focus falls on behaviours that aim to develop psycho-mobility, and language, other than autonomy and participation, there is no need for great curricular adaptations. On the contrary, the significant thing is to de-characterise the child with disabilities as a fragile being, who needs super-protection attitudes from the teacher.

In vital school, though, the situation is more intricate, since mainly teachers, coming from a “content-based” training, consider that students with special needs, due to their compromises, have no circumstances to achieve the goals set out for the rest. *Inclusion can, though, be favoured, if the school’s Politico-Pedagogical Project sets a focus on programmes, whether they are biased towards the development of common social skills, or towards formal academic education, in itself*. In the realm of social mingling, we set as goals communication, language, individual and social learning, and potential development (through one’s interests) In the academic realm, reading and writing development, resolution of problem-situations and the understanding of calculus, care with one’s own body and the environment, and the perception of transformations in the social environment are the things that are more clearly focused.

The real situations of the behaviours organised to achieve the goals allow the teacher to meditate on each achieved answer, within the interests and the pace of each child. Alphabetisation, mostly of blind people, was also one of the focuses of discussion throughout the week; with the participants considering it and thing that still needs a superior reflection in what concerns the direct inclusion of those students in the regular class. It was stated that, in the case of blind children, there is a risk of occurring learning troubles if they were to be incorporated in a class of 40 students to be alphabetised, before they mastered Braille and Soroban.

In common, it was seen that it is *not possible to determine the method in which each school will perform the necessary curricular adaptations*; the teacher herself, based upon her daily experience, can achieve creative proposals that

meet the individual needs of the students, without leaving her class's daily routine. On the *role to be played through the teacher in the daily life of an inclusive class*, there were dissimilar viewpoints. While some stressed their differentiated pedagogical qualification as a prerequisite to face diversity in the teaching-learning procedure, others stated that the teacher's main job in a classroom is not so much to pass a specific concept, but rather to develop relationships, citizenship, and independence.

In excess of that viewpoint, the issue was raised of the minimal academic content that needs to be accomplished in each stage of schooling, being argued that a teacher ready to deal with diversity and individuality will not have great difficulty in passing any content to her students. On the other hand, a teacher that is trained only to transmit content, without knowing how to deal with diversity and individuality, will not always be able to pass her programmatic content, even if she does not have students with special needs in her class.

In developing the daily life dynamic, it was measured to be significant that *classes contain dissimilar alternatives* for approaching the day's subject, in such a method that the dissimilar learning "styles" and interests can be abided. The teacher should learn how to *plan her classes in a diversified method*, so that each student has the opportunity and the possibility to participate and, in the end, contributes to the group's common learning. Regardless of the class's composition, the teacher should be able to prepare and coordinate the classroom behaviours, imprinting upon them a dynamic that is more compatible with the social reality and less boring to the students.

Besides, in an inclusive class, *relative and competitive character behaviours should be replaced through those that encourage cooperation flanked by students*. It was also stressed, through many participants, *that the teacher who intends to effectively act with an inclusive perspective should be a researcher of her own practice*; since that is the only method she can build new educational, development, and learning paradigms. In that sense, the teacher, when starting her daily work, should always enquire herself: "*What can I do so that student X, who has a disability/difficulty Y can learn the programmed content presently like the rest?*" "*Is what I am saying/showing create sense to her? Does she share the similar meanings as the majority of the other students?*" This easy research exercise shows how you can deal with diversity in daily life, since it *removes the stress and the responsibility for learning absent from the student, and focuses it on the learning procedures*, benefiting the whole class, and not presently the student taken to be "special".

In that sense, *the accumulated knowledge of Special Education has to be shared* with the teachers and other regular school educators, every time a student with any special kind of disability or specific difficulty arrives at the school. *How does she learn, and what she needs to learn*, is the first questions the teacher will have to figure out, before she can plan any action for her. It became explicit, in the discussions that took lay on the topic of daily life, that if, on the one hand, there is a consensus that the curriculum and the classroom behaviours that stem from it

have to be planned for *all*, on the other hand, many participants pointed that there is no denying that students *with specific special needs have to be taken into explanation in their specificities*, under the penalty of there being no learning.

In other words, *some argue that the curriculum has to be the similar, and the teacher should pass the knowledge and develop the behaviours for the class as a whole*, without putting any student “on the spot”. *Others, though, consider that in the daily practice very often version is the only method of stimulating a student and promoting some kind of learning*, especially since he already carries a history of school failure. If her insertion in the regular class does not assure her some form of academic success, even if what is required of her is dissimilar from the rest, she will become more frustrated, and the school situation can become aversive. The great problem that was pointed out, at many points in the discussion, was *the excessive number of students in the regular class*, since in front of a class of in excess of 30 students, such as is general in our country, it is very complicated for the teacher to develop a diversified dynamic that assures him a balance flanked by common curricular scheduling and meeting the dissimilar individual needs of the students.

Finally, the *controversy flanked by total inclusion and more specific tendering alternatives* was also brought in relation to the discussion on the school’s daily life. Based upon their experience, some participants claim that dedicated modalities such as the resource room, for instance, if properly organised and merged into the school’s pedagogical proposal, are an excellent support instrument for the teacher who has students with disabilities in her class. According to them, the subsistence of that type of support in the school system provides the regular class teacher a sure pedagogical security, which allows her to handle the strange and, then, take the challenge in a more relaxed method.

Other participants, though, reminded that the resource rooms have, in excess of the years, had the tendency to replace teaching in the regular classroom, where the special student ends up having her “socialisation” as a sole goal. In other words, the very subsistence of resource rooms or other meeting alternatives has effectively caused the teacher to, in a sure method, accommodate and forgo the responsibility of teaching that student jointly with the rest, and that was, precisely, one of the reasons for the failure of the integration model.

The counter-argument was that, with the (successful) dissemination of inclusive proposals in regular schools, the resource rooms will slowly witness the decrease of their participation in the classroom teaching exercise. At this moment, though, they are still a “safe harbour” for the teacher who does not know the special student. Yet, in common the group agrees that *to offer some specific meeting, in smaller groups, does not necessarily contradict inclusion, as extensive as the people always have the opportunity to learn jointly, in a wider group, as for instance in diversified workshops*.

We need, though, specific teams that hold that knowledge and which, mainly of all, have the vocation to be training multipliers, to offer support to those teachers and to “translate” that specific knowledge into support for the teaching action, for creating an *inclusive institutional daily life*.

FINAL THOUGHTS

We start from the understanding that *academic inclusion is not the similar as social inclusion, and that accessibility and the mere attendance of the special student in a regular school do not assure acquisition of knowledge and excellence of teaching*. Even though some participants valued the social development characteristics, there is the worry that, if the academic dimension is minimized in inclusion projects, the students who trade special teaching for regular school will be handicapped in their learning and knowledge acquisition, which results in failure and school dropout. It was quite important that, both in the Seminar and in the online discussion, in spite of them being explicitly described for, very few reports were presented of real-life experiences where the curriculum and the class dynamics were adapted to take into explanation students with special needs. Therefore, without data to base ourselves upon, the discussion turned instead to the conceptual theoretical face.

We had a few depositions from people with disabilities on their schooling in the regular educational system, and a few depositions from teachers and educators on the similar point. Comments, observations or reflections were also made, through many participants, on the daily life and the curricular adaptations in the classroom for an inclusion procedure to happen, yet without reference to real situations that already occurred. That appears to be an indication that *inclusive education, even though it is framed through legislation and it is measured a priority educational policy, still does not symbolise the daily reality of our schools*.

The curriculum for an inclusive school does not refer only to the adaptations made to accommodate the students with disabilities or other special needs, rather implying a new form of curricular concept, which has to take in to explanation the diversity of the school's student body. Regardless of the class' composition, the teacher should be able to prepare and coordinate the classroom behaviours, imprinting upon them a reality that is more compatible with the social reality and is less boring to the students. The vital characteristic of an inclusive curriculum is its *flexibility*. A curriculum that takes diversity into explanation should be ready for version, of both specific goals and teaching methodologies, keeping, though, a general base. In other words, the curriculum can not be so "closed" that it does not allow the new experiences that will oxygenate it, nor so fluid that it will let the educational experiences happen in a "spontaneous" method. Under this new curricular viewpoint, *the stress and the responsibility for learning is shifted from the student and taken to the teaching procedures*. That is, it is not the student that has to adapt, usually without proper circumstances, her method of learning to the pace of the class, but rather the pace and the dynamics of the class ought to be adapted to allow the participation and learning of every student.

In order to do that, the classes have to acquire a dynamic that is so open that, while keeping the conducting thread, leaves room for diversified behaviours that encourage the participation and collaboration of all. In an inclusive school,

cooperation – and not competition – is the instrument used to encourage learning. Each student should get the proper circumstances to know her own learning procedure, its characteristics and needs; to have conscience of her own limits and, as a goal, to overcome them. In an inclusive school, the student “competes” only against herself, developing a procedure we could call self-knowledge – or meta-evaluation of her own learning (its pace and peculiarities).

The great barrier emerges, in part, because *our teachers were not prepared*, either pedagogically or psychologically, to deal with students with dissimilar individual needs, especially if those involve sensorial or psycho-mobility related disabilities, or serious cognitive, behavioural and/or communicational compromises. Even though teacher training has not been our focal topic, one can not talk in relation to the curriculum and school daily life without underlining the role of the teacher. Therefore, we consider that the row flanked by curricular discussion and teacher training is, in a method, an artificial one, and the only productive method of conceiving the inclusive curriculum is to connect it to the understanding the teacher has of that similar curriculum and its pedagogical practice secure to all the students she intends to contemplate.

Not a doubt remnants that, for the *teacher* to effectively act in an inclusive manner, she should be, before all, a *researcher*, systematically scheduling, collecting data, analysing, reflecting, and transforming her practice. If that attitude is fundamental in any teaching-learning situation, it is even more so in Inclusive Education projects, where there is a lack of evaluated and publicised systematic experiences that allow us to abandon the trial and error system that has been so general in mainly of our educational projects. One has to point out that inclusive education can not be a method of denying the specific educational needs of each student. In face of that, the group even proposed that one should not talk in relation to the *inclusion* for all, but rather for *each one*. The *individualisation of the teaching-learning procedure* is the base upon which an inclusive curriculum is built. That implies recognising the individual characteristics and difficulties, in order to then determine the types of adaptations that are necessary for the student to learn.

Some members of the group consider it significant that the teacher knows a little bit in relation to the each kind of special need, if nothing more to know where and when to seek help. That is where the Special Education contribution fits in, not trying to import the dedicated methods and techniques to the regular class, but rather becoming a permanent and effective support system, to deal with the special needs not only of the student but also of the regular class teacher. *That support system should be accessible in the school itself, with inclusive education qualified professionals.* It should be also stressed that, making dedicated meetings accessible for students with special needs that are facing difficulties in keeping up with the class, does not contradict the inclusion model.

Especially the ones more cognitively handicapped will certainly need that support, as well as blind and deaf students in their alphabetisation and language acquisition procedure. The *paradigm shift happens in the role the specialist*

plays. At the inclusive school, she acts like a *support for the regular teacher, not his replacement*: learning has to happen in class, jointly with the rest; otherwise we will not be dealing with an inclusive model (which is what happened in some of the cases presented at the seminar).

In other words, *inclusion can not be the sole responsibility of Special Education*. It is not an easy matter of the Special Education teacher dictating the regular class teacher how to deal with that student. If an integrated work dynamic is not created, we will be creating a special system within the regular school, which is not Inclusive Education. It was also stressed in the discussions that, *when talking in relation to the curricular individualisation, one is not talking only in relation to the students with sure kinds of special needs, but claiming instead that the curriculum should be tailored to each student*. That is what dealing with diversity means; since a seeing student and a blind student may have more affinities in their learning procedure than, for instance, two students with the similar degree of visual incapacity.

That viewpoint deconstructs the labelling and stigmatising paradigm that looks at the student with a scrupulous focus on her disability, and not on her global personality and development procedure. Before being disabled, they are first of all students, and the teacher has as great responsibility for teaching them as for teaching the rest. If they exhibit differentiated characteristics, with which the teacher is not capable of dealing alone, while attending the rest of the class, the school has to give dedicated support. That support should be accessible for all students presenting any permanent or temporary difficulty in keeping up with the work performed in the classroom, and not presently for those that came forwarded from special education.

According to that viewpoint, it was quite clear in the live discussions of the seminar, and online through the Internet, that *the inclusion procedure has wide amplitude, ranging beyond the insertion of students that are seen as special in the regular class, and beyond casuistic adaptations of the curricular structure*. Inclusion implies that the whole school and its managers be involved, a redimension of its politico-pedagogical project, and, mainly of all, the political compromise of restructuring the priorities of the school system (municipal, state, federal, or private) to which the school belongs, so that it has the necessary material and human circumstances to effort that transformation.

It drew our attention the fact that, in both discussions, the topic of evaluation, even though it was measured of fundamental importance to the creation of an inclusive curriculum, was never given any depth, especially in what concerns the swap of experiences and evaluation alternatives. The *absence of evaluation criteria and methods defined for the learning of students who do not fit traditional evaluation* is a matter of great worry to us, since it keeps us from both designing and monitoring the necessary curricular adaptations. For a new evaluation paradigm to be achieved some of the discussed characteristics become fundamental, amongst them the need of knowing and starting from the student's learning potential and the advances she achieves when compared to her own

performance, before she is compared to others. The evaluation situations can also become valuable learning moments, if we see them as revealing interventions concerning difficulties and errors. The student we are evaluating can have dissimilar learning characteristics from the ones the teacher is used to dealing with, which is going to require special attention, but it does not mean her mental structure and the excellence of her learning are necessarily challenged, when compared to other students. It does mean that we *have to describe sure clear and specific criteria for this evaluation*, and not that we have to practice it in a paternalistic method. It is significant *to also evaluate the real inclusion circumstances offered to the students*, since that is the goal of the work urbanised. It is necessary to have the nerve to dare, in what concerns evaluation, breaking with traditional practices, and creating adaptations, the similar method that was proposed concerning the common curriculum – and the institution and “actors” that implement it, the educational context, including policies and the society and family environment that create it up.

Evaluation should not be seen as the student’s trial, but rather as an indicator, for the teacher, of what paths to walk, and in that sense it is necessary to separate which difficulties rest with the student and which were caused through wrong pedagogical practices and procedures. Every evaluation requires corresponding actions, in the method of improving the teaching learning procedure. If that does not happen, we will be evaluating for the sole purpose of labelling, and hence of discriminating and excluding. Before closing, we present a synthesis of the *main obstacles and possibilities of an inclusive curriculum*. This kind of instrument can be used through the school in its own the inclusion procedure evaluation, since the table can and should be customized any moment that these and other obstacles are overcome, expanding the column of possibilities.

THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Educational guidance is significant in schools and colleges in the following methods:

- Educational guidance helps young people to pursue the right kind of education. In this method, the individual is motivated to maximize his/her contribution to society.
- It assists individuals to create informed decisions in relation to the education. Individuals have to know the choices that have to be made, and determine whether the choice is flanked by subjects, curricula, schools or colleges. They have to know subject combinations or options, what the subject involves in the classroom, accessible courses and where each course leads, the accessible schools and colleges, admission necessities, and educational opportunities.
- It facilitates the smooth transition for children from home to school, from primary to secondary school, from secondary to post-secondary educational institutions, and to the world of work. The final transition from the educational system to the labour force appears to be mainly significant and demanding for students.

- *It helps students to cope with examination anxiety:* The fear of failure and the craving for the highest grades are major sources of pressure in the middle of students.
- *It helps students to develop effective revise habits:* The students are assisted to improve their competence in reading, note-taking, and academic attainment.
- *It gives students with meaningful educational experiences:* The students are able to relate the curriculum to occupational groups.

THE COMPONENTS OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The components of educational guidance contain revise skills, time-tabling, note taking, sitting for examinations, and academic counselling.

Revise Skills

A number of students fail their examinations, or fail to deal with educational behaviours, because they lack effective revise skills and habits. They spend a considerable amount of time playing, and only a small fraction of their time on productive or school behaviours. This creates the provision of effective revise skills.

Time-Tabling

There is a need for you to develop a formal time schedule and a personal revise time-table, so that you can regulate your movements. Moreover, you can avoid the tendency to procrastinate in your work until the last moment and only work under pressure. Time-tabling will also help you to treat revise times as serious commitments and to respect times for home chores and recreation. This is particularly significant for girls who are required to do household chores every day.

Note-Taking

Several students have difficulty in taking notes throughout the class or presentations. This is due to the fact that they lack note-taking skills. Some teachers always attempt to prepare notes and distribute them to the class, while others use revise time to write notes for students on the chalkboard. While this might help students when they prepare their examinations, it deprives students of an opportunity to acquire note-taking skills. It also denies them a chance to learn how to select what is significant from a lesson or lecture. Some students, as a result, miss lessons because they know that they can get notes from the teacher throughout revise time. As indicated through Lind hard, taking notes properly is a significant part of learning. This is because it helps a student to keep in mind information presented in class or read from the textbook. Notes help to summarise big chunks of information to remind ourselves, when preparing for examinations. Taking notes throughout class, or when reading, can help you concentrate on the subject at hand. We should be selective when taking notes – write down only those things that are essential.

Sitting for Examinations

While examinations have been misused and abused, especially when they were used for accepting or eliminating students, they can be a useful tool for evaluating the effectiveness of educational programmes or measuring student progress. It is significant for a student to know how to prepare for, and take, examinations. Notwithstanding the numerous limitations of examinations in assessing other skills that the student might have acquired throughout their education, they can help students to learn from what was taught in the course of the year. It is significant for every student to learn how to deal with the anxiety and stress generated through examinations. Proper guidance is necessary to help students acquire skills and techniques required to pass examinations.

Academic Counselling

Students should be assisted at several levels in their educational development through providing academic counselling. All sorts of students: the gifted and talented, the low achievers, the handicapped and delinquents, should be assisted to plan their educational progress.

This calls for an appraisal of the educational needs of a scrupulous student, and the preparation of a cumulative record, which is a device for recording and filling all the relevant data on that student. With this information each student can be helped to plan a satisfying educational programme.

FACTORS OF STRESS IN SCHOOL CHILDREN

- *Family troubles:* Parental disapproval, feeling unloved and abandoned, parents' fighting, parents' divorce or separation, competing with sibling(s), not spending much time with parents, lack of parental support, having dissimilar goals from those of parents, dealing with, and disagreement with, step-parents.
- *Not feeling in control:* Others telling them what to do, not being allowed to think for them and create decisions, feeling that no one is listening to them, lack of possessions.
- *Feeling dissimilar:* Feelings of inferiority, not having the similar materials as others, lack of awareness of self (strengths and weaknesses), not accepting self.
- *School related troubles:* Teachers not liking or understanding them, fear of failure, not getting homework done, failing to meet the expectations of parents with regard to academic attainment, not having friends, not seeing the relevance of attending school, adjusting to dissimilar teachers and students.
- *Discipline:* Afraid of being punished, unfair punishment, parents and teachers being too critical.
- *Peer Pressure:* Wanting to be accepted through friends, participating in things they do not feel comfortable with (drugs, smoking, drinking,

etc.), not having the possessions to be part of their group, not being accepted, being afraid of doing and saying the wrong thing.

- *Common Concerns:* Doing something wrong, feeling insecure, feeling that something is frightening, adjusting to developmental changes, not having enough autonomy, not understanding things in their lives, not accepting themselves, being dissimilar, having dissimilar expectations from those of parents and teachers.
- *Drug and alcohol abuse:* Use of cigarettes, drugs and alcohol.
- *Future:* Career decisions, accepting responsibilities, relationships as they affect future decisions, dealing with the several uncertainties of life, not understanding themselves enough to create decisions in relation to the future.
- *Boredom:* Inadequate entertainment, sports and cultural behaviours. There is a need for young people to break the stereotype that boredom can only be broken externally. Further, there is a need to give psychological empowerment to help young people deal with boredom.
- *Transition:* Aside from anxiety/stress, another general problem encountered through students is poor self-image.

PARENTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAMME

For the effective provision of guidance services, guidance counsellors should aim at facilitating and/or developing regular and effective communication flanked by parents and teachers. It is through such regular and effective communication that the guidance programme can achieve its goal of serving the interests of boys and girls. Several media can be used to effect communication flanked by teachers and parents. In the middle of them are newsletters, parent-teacher meetings, letters, parents' meetings, prize-giving/open day ceremonies, parents' days, *etc.* There is a need to develop a sense of partnership flanked by parents and teachers. This can only be done through regular contacts flanked by them. The guidance counsellor should, therefore, facilitate the procedure of creating a welcoming, friendly, purposeful atmosphere, which promotes contacts flanked by parents and teachers. Parents should cooperate with teachers; especially the guidance counsellors, in helping the child develop his/her potential, as well as overcome his/her troubles.

Parents should give guidance counsellors with background information (in relation to the child), which is necessary to facilitate growth and assist teachers to help children create academic and career decisions based on accurate information. This is to avoid raising false hopes.

This information could contain the child's health, developmental concerns, family background, and other data that can be useful in assisting the child. This information should be filed and kept confidentially in the guidance counsellor's office. In addition to providing background information on the child, parents need to help examine their children's strengths and limitations. Parents should

also work with teachers in developing the right attitudes in children. Guidance counsellors should engage parents as resource persons throughout career fairs, career talks, guidance seminars for boys and girls, and other behaviours such as open days and prize-giving ceremonies. Parents could also participate in cultural behaviours such as traditional dancing and other related performances. Parents' participation in these behaviours at school will create them feel they are part of the school. In addition, parents will feel welcome and appreciate that their knowledge and expertise is recognised through the school.

KINDS OF TROUBLES OF STUDENTS

Student troubles are not easily pigeon-holed. Even broad classifications overlap and merge: academic and personal troubles interact and often prove inseparable.

EXAMINATION STRESS

Examinations and preparation for them cause mainly of us a sure amount of anxiety and students can become very stressed at such times.

Setting Achievable Goals

Some students set themselves unrealistic revision targets and then feel overwhelmed through the amount of work they perceive to be necessary. Tutors may be able to suggest alternative approaches to revision and to look with the student at methods of applying these to one or two topics. It is usually helpful if students can break their revision down into a series of quite short manageable tasks which provide a sense of progress and attainment once they are completed.

Counselling and Relaxation

Examination stress may, of course, be part of a more intricate situation: all types of emotional and personal troubles surface under the strain of the examination system. Personal tutors need to be able to recognise how serious these are and when to advise students to seek appropriate professional help, *e.g.*, UCL Student Psychological Services

Counsellors and specialist consultants encourage self-referrals, both to emphasize the confidential nature of their service and because they need the student's own commitment to the counselling/consultancy procedure. Though, personal tutors cannot always be sure that their advice will be taken and situations in which students obviously require professional help cannot be allowed to drift. A compromise is for the tutor to telephone the appropriate welfare service on the student's behalf and to create a common enquiry in relation to the procedures, waiting times, *etc.*, in order to pave the method for the student to create an appointment. Training in self-relaxation techniques is also provided through UCL Student Psychological Services. Referrals to this service necessity are through Departmental Tutors. There is a limit on spaces.

Opting out of Examinations

Students who cannot face an examination sometimes seek their personal tutor's approval for opting out. They need to be appraised of the consequences of missing an exam and encouraged to reconsider their request/decision. Though, students who are genuinely ill or emotionally disturbed should not be pressurised to sit a paper. Students occasionally have to be dissuaded from taking an exam when they are clearly not in a fit state to do so. Personal tutors advising on situations like this need to take explanation of:

- The student's condition;
- The status of the exam;
- Departmental and College regulations concerning re-sitting.

Special Arrangements for Examinations

Students' anxieties in relation to the examinations may sometimes be caused or heightened through some physical or psychological condition that creates it hard for them to cope with the circumstances under which examinations are normally held. The College creates special arrangements for such students based on a medical assessment of their needs through one of the doctors in the Health Centre.

FINANCIAL DIFFICULTIES

The number of students experiencing financial difficulties has increased significantly in recent years and is likely to continue doing so. Some students are more or less permanently hard up; others make short-term difficulties for themselves through managing their money badly. Personal tutors may help alleviate some financial troubles through directing students to the appropriate College support services. Personal tutors should never lend money themselves.

Part-time Jobs

It is now general for students to have part-time employment throughout term, as well as a holiday job, and some students work extensive hours in the evening to the detriment of their studies and health. There is a connection flanked by course options and part-time employment in that some options allow more time for earning than others.

Financial Assistance

Whilst the College can give valuable support, the sums involved are not big and, in the case of loans, is of course only a short-term solution. Ultimately students necessity learn to live within their budget and to draw up a realistic financial plan that is not in excess of-dependent on part-time employment. Personal tutors may be in a location to help students do this. Some begin through persuading their tutees to destroy their credit cards.

The Access to Learning Finance (ALF) gives discretionary financial assistance for students to help them access and remain in higher education, particularly

those students who need financial help to meet costs that cannot be met from other sources of funding. Students should be aware that ALF is planned to act as a safety net for those in financial difficulty rather than their main source of income. The Student Finance Office, in liaison with the Dean of Students (Welfare), administers a series of loans and bursaries for students experiencing financial hardship. To be eligible students necessity have made adequate provision before entering College to meet the expenses of their degree course, their financial means necessity have subsequently become inadequate for reasons that could not have been foreseen, and they necessity have exhausted all other sources accessible to them. The Student Finance Office also administers a College Emergency Loan Finance from which students may seek a limited advance in an emergency.

CONNECTION DIFFICULTIES

Students usually prefer to sort out troubles in their personal relationships for themselves but staff inevitably becomes aware of situations that are seriously affecting a student's work. Some connection troubles are, of course, so serious or become so in excess of a period of time that a student has to seek help. If specialist assistance is required, the UCL Student Psychological Services may be able to help or create appropriate referrals. Connection difficulties may also overlap with other regions, such as Harassment and Bullying and Socially In accessible Students.

HARASSMENT AND BULLYING

Harassment and bullying can take a diversity of dissimilar shapes ranging from repeatedly ignoring a colleague or subjecting them to unwelcome attention, to intimidation, humiliation ridicule or offence. More extreme shapes of harassment and bullying contain physical threats or violence. Behaviour that may appear trivial as a single incident can constitute harassment or bullying when repeated, or in the context of the staff/student connection. Harassment and bullying may not always be intentional but are always unacceptable, whether deliberate or not.

Some of the mainly prevalent shapes of harassment and bullying contain sexual and racial harassment, and harassment of people with disabilities or on the grounds of a person's sexuality. Bullying is the exercise of power in excess of another person through negative acts or behaviour that undermines him/her personally and/or academically. Bullying can involve threatening, insulting, abusive, disparaging or intimidating behaviour which spaces inappropriate pressure on the recipient or has the effect of isolating or excluding them. Bullying can take the form of shouting, sarcasm, derogatory remarks concerning academic performance or constant criticism.

TROUBLES FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Several of the troubles that students experience in adjusting to university life are intensified for students from abroad.

Culture Shock

As well as having to cope with a new institution and educational environment, international students are having to adjust to a dissimilar national culture with often unfamiliar social customs and conventions. They may become very homesick. Where English is not the first language, having to converse with strangers all the time in a foreign language is a strain. Some women students come from cultures where they have had a sheltered life and spent little time on their own or in the company of males outside their family. They may be vulnerable in sure social situations or upset through conventions that they do not understand.

Academic Difficulties

International students are often under considerable pressure to succeed academically and their expectations of themselves may be unrealistic. The transition to a dissimilar educational system and new approaches to revise is often more demanding than to home students. For instance, students from abroad are sometimes unaccustomed to active learning situations, such as participating in discussion and working on a team project. They may have had a much more formal connection with their teachers and therefore be less inclined than home students to seek help from their personal tutors.

Immigration Issues

Some international students experience immigration troubles. These range from how to renew a visa to the special procedures for getting married. Some students entering the country are vetted more thoroughly than others and may become involved in protracted negotiations with the Home Office. Travelling to another country, for instance to participate in a field course, may make difficulties if essential documents are at the Home Office.

REQUESTS TO CHANGE DEGREE COURSE

Changes of degree course are handled through departmental tutors, but personal tutors can give helpful guidance and support throughout the period of uncertainty that normally precedes a decision. Personal tutors should attempt to identify and uphold regular get in touch with any of their tutees who are unhappy, for whatever cause, at the start of their course.

Reasons for Changing

Some requests to change degree course are a response to staff expressions of concern in excess of poor performance; others are less predictable and may come from students thought to be making reasonable progress. Decisions to seek a change may have been thought through quite rationally but may basically be an effort to discover an escape route from criticism or other troubles that have arisen. Every year there are some undergraduates who seek a change of

course or university soon after their arrival; some even want to withdraw from the entirely. This is often a knee-jerk reaction to the culture shock of coming to university, encountering new courses and methods of working and, in some instances, livelihood absent from home for the first time. Reassurances sometimes help, but if students are persistent in their request to change course they need to be encouraged to continue with their programme whilst they explore other possibilities, so that they at least have time to create a rational decision.

Researching Course Alternatives

Whatever the reasons for students wanting to change their degree programme, it is reasonable to expect them to obtain as much information as possible on the alternatives and, in situations where the proposed change is within UCL, to speak to the staff responsible for the course they think they would prefer to follow. Having inspected the grass elsewhere, they may decide that it is no greener than where they are.

When a change of course is under discussion students sometimes assume that there is no longer any necessity to meet their current course necessities, indeed that deterioration in their average of work may enhance their chances of obtaining a transfer. They need disillusioning on this score and informing that they will be required to see their remaining time out satisfactorily on the original course and to pass any exams or tests throughout that time. Other departments will not welcome failures.

Limitations and Implications

Students have to appreciate that some changes will not be possible because of specific course necessities or pressure on spaces. Changes to Medicine are never allowed. Students need to be aware of the financial implications of a change of course that extends their period of revise. The regulations concerning tuition fees and loans are complicated and students should discover an early opportunity to talk about their situation with their departmental or faculty tutor. Personal tutors should not approach LEAs or the Student Loan Company on their students' behalf.

WORK-RELATED TROUBLES

Personal tutors have a responsibility beside with departmental or course tutors, and sometimes other designated members of the departmental staff, for the oversight of their tutees' academic progress. Inevitably, therefore, they will sometimes have to initiate meetings with sure students who fall behind with their work, miss deadlines, obtain poor spots, and fail examinations. As a common rule, the tutor's role is to be supportive and understanding with respect to difficulties their students experience

Assisting First Year Students

Mainly students can benefit from advice on how to approach their university studies, particularly in their first year; the tendency is for students to continue

with the routines they followed at school with little adjustment to quite dissimilar contexts and necessities. Several students start their first year with a very limited understanding of vital processes such as note-taking, structuring essays, accessing and extracting information. They may also need help in understanding the course content or with a scrupulous assignment.

Dissimilar Kinds of Student

Several categories of student may have scrupulous troubles: mature students because of the length of time since they were in formal education, 'access' students who experience a important jump in the expectations being made of them, students for whom English is a second language. There are in excess of two hundred UCL students recognised as dyslexic, but not all who have difficulties of this type admit to their handicap until it becomes too obvious to conceal.

Procrastination or Perfection?

Able students sometimes develop a mental block that prevents them from starting major pieces of coursework. Perfectionists can fail to deliver as a result of constant re-writing as they strive to reach their own high standards. In these situations students need advice on how to break assignments down into manageable tasks with deadlines that they agree to meet, regardless of their level of satisfaction with what has been achieved.

Dealing with Issues

Personal tutors have a responsibility to inform teaching staff of any extenuating circumstances. Departmental tutors will, for instance, need to know of any situations that help to explain an unexpectedly poor examination performance. At the similar time, tutors necessity recognise laziness and lack of commitment for what they are and attempt to identify those who will go on failing no matter how much consideration is shown them. Students who fall significantly short of an acceptable average from the outset usually provide a poorer return for tutorial support and effort than those whose work declines significantly from a previously satisfactory average. The latter situation invariably designates some change of personal circumstances or lifestyle that it is helpful to know in relation to the.

4

Designing the Guidance Programme

SELECTION OF A PROGRAMME STRUCTURE

After the needs of clients have been determined the programme structure should be described. A decision is then made on which content needs are to be addressed first. As the content is structured, the delivery methods are also considered.

It is during the programme development that the standard one contents are separated from the standard two contents and put in order. That is, the lower and upper class contents are determined. The content is in accordance with the fact that Guidance is developmental and systematic. Since school guidance and counselling programmes consist of structured development experiences, they must be presented systematically through classroom and group activities.

This then takes care of the school Guidance and Counselling curriculum, as topics are dealt with in a systematic way, and provide students with what they need to know for normal growth and development, and promote their mental health and acquisition of life skills. It is important to sequence the content appropriately, since students' guidance is continuous from the time of an individual's initial entry into the educational system, and throughout the period of formal education. The structuring of the content offers time to think about the most suitable implementation strategies, and the resources needed to implement the programme.

Various strategies can be used to assist clients to meet their objectives. It is important to select specific and appropriate strategies for implementation. The school Guidance Committee is part of the selection of the programme

structure, and the established leadership is responsible for the design of the programme. The structure has to take into account the following: Individual Planning, Guidance Curriculum, Responsive Services and Systems Support. When activities are devised, they should provide a comprehensive programme and follow a particular structure, and not be a haphazard collection of topics. These structural components are very important when developing a Guidance and Counselling Programme.

GUIDANCE PROGRAMME: VALUE AND PURPOSE OF EVALUATION

Gibson and Mitchell define programme evaluation as a systematic set of data collection and analysis of activities, undertaken to determine the value of a programme in order to aid management, programme planning, staff development, public accountability and promotion.

Evaluation activities make it possible to make reasonable judgements about efforts, effectiveness, adequacy, and provide a comparison of programme options. They determine the worth of a programme, and provide an opportunity to explore other alternative approaches or strategies to reach specific objectives. Evaluation seeks to provide objective evidence of whether the programme has met the desired objectives. It provides an opportunity for programme planning and decision-making.

It is, therefore, important to evaluate programmes since this offers a chance for continued programme improvement. Shertzer and Stone view evaluation as necessary to provide for the effectiveness of achieving programme goals, in relation to specific standards. Concrete data, indicating the benefits and limitations of the programme, can be accumulated through programme evaluation.

The effectiveness of any programme can be sustained through continuous evaluation, and practitioners need to carry it out rather than pay lip service to it. It should, therefore, be noted that the main purpose of evaluation is to improve the implementation of a programme. It also provides a means of communication among school counsellors, guidance teachers, school administrators, parents and the community in general.

It defines expectations for counsellors, and provides a systematic means of measuring the counsellor's or guidance teacher's performance in relation to programme expectations. The most compelling reason for evaluation is to improve the effectiveness of every counsellor or guidance teacher, as well as the programme itself.

The evaluation process consists of a series of interdependent steps by which a judgement is reached. The success of any programme in achieving its goals depends upon the monitoring and evaluation process used.

This improves the quality of the service, and the support given to staff employed in the guidance and counselling services.

The future of any guidance programme depends on providing concrete data, and helping school personnel to judge how well they are doing, and to determine the improvements needed.

Evaluation should be an on-going process. It provides an opportunity to modify the programme when necessary. Evaluation helps to check:

- Programme effectiveness;
- Programme response to changing needs;
- Strengths and limitations of the programme;
- Staff development; and
- Reporting and follow-up.

Evaluation determines what the programme achieves. It also provides a basis for identifying critical gaps in service delivery, and for planning programme changes.

In evaluating the programme's effectiveness, the following can be measured:

- Student awareness of the services;
- Satisfaction of students involved in individual counselling; and
- Satisfaction of students involved in classroom, and out-of-class, guidance activities.

The following steps can be taken to assess the current/existing programme:

- Identify current resource availability and use.
- Identify current guidance and counselling activities.
- Determine students' outcomes.
- Identify who is served.
- Gather perceptions.
- Determine involvement of personnel in a region or school.

Evaluation offers a programme leader an opportunity to evaluate himself/herself and guidance personnel. It also gives him/her a basis for assessing the attainment of goals. The evaluation of individuals assesses their performance skills and proficiency, while the assessment of goal attainment focuses on the individual's programme and improvement efforts. It checks the quality of the programme, and its attempts to address the needs of students.

It is, therefore, important to evaluate ourselves in terms of skill application and programme leadership. This helps to determine professional competence, though it should not be considered judgemental. Proper supervision and programme monitoring provide an opportunity for checking if the structure and implementation of the programme are appropriate. Programme standards in terms of the guidance curriculum, individual planning, responsive services and systems support, can be set through systematic evaluation, and programme leaders can collect data which enable them to amend their programmes.

It is, therefore, important to decide on an appropriate evaluation design, which will provide feedback on the programme, and the competence and efficiency of the programme leaders. The value of evaluation must be recognized by all programme implementors. It performs several functions which benefit the programme and its consumers. For instance, it:

- Verifies or rejects practices by indicating what works and what does not, and shows the extent to which an activity is effective. It helps the implementors to do away with unproductive innovations.

- Provides a basis for improvement in terms of operation and implementation strategies.
- Suggests a continuous search for better ways of doing things, and a willingness to look at performance, and increases the search for improvement.
- Provides an insight into the programme, and helps implementors to understand their functions and the consequences of what they do.
- Places responsibility on individuals, and increases the participation of beneficiaries. It helps in the allocation of roles and responsibilities.

For the guidance programme to be accepted and valued, there is a need to produce documentation of benefit to the clients. Evidence that guidance services produce designed, demonstrable, behaviour changes in students are demanded by the public, and such information can only be secured through research and evaluation.

Periodic and formalized evaluation yields data in which confidence can be placed. It enables schools to judge how well they are doing, and provides a basis for decision-making on programme improvements. Through it, school personnel can interpret the effectiveness of the programme for the community.

Also, if parents are well informed about the programme, they can help in supporting and defining the direction of the programme. Each school should determine its own evaluation procedure.

The programme leader has to determine the methods of evaluation to be used, the appropriate time for evaluation, the purpose of the evaluation, the rationale, the sample to be used, and appoint the evaluator. This preparation enables the programme leader to carry out the evaluation systematically. The evaluation procedure should explore several methods of evaluation, so that they complement each other in providing the necessary feedback.

TYPES AND PROCEDURES OF EVALUATION

Types of Evaluation

There are two types of evaluation, viz. formative and summative.

Formative Evaluation

This type of evaluation is conducted during the planning and design of the programme. It provides immediate feedback for programme modification and improvement. This type of evaluation is on-going. It helps to determine programme strengths and weaknesses.

Summative Evaluation

This is concerned with the evaluation of an already completed programme. When all that has been planned has been done, summative evaluation can be carried out to determine whether the programme has achieved its goals. It is the kind of evaluation that summarizes the strengths and weaknesses of a programme. It may help programme leaders to determine whether the programme is worth continuing. It is done when the programme is considered to be ready

for general use. It provides potential consumers with evidence of the value of a programme. It helps to check the effectiveness of the programme. Formative and summative evaluations are both important, since decisions are needed in the early and final stages of a programme. The early decisions are needed for programme improvement, while the final decisions help to check its worth.

Evaluation Procedures

The evaluation process involves a series of activities in a sequence. These are:

- *Identification of goals to be assessed:* It is important to establish the limits, or variables, for evaluation in the initial stages. This is to say that evaluation can focus on the entire programme or some aspects of it. Such objectives should be clearly stated, concise, specific and measurable. An example of such an objective would be: *make students attend a career fair by the end of the first term.* This is when the purpose of evaluation is classified, and the issues to be evaluated are identified.
- *Development of an evaluation plan:* After the establishment of evaluation objectives, there is a need to identify the most appropriate way of judging the extent to which a programme has achieved its goals and objectives. There should be specific information on how the data is collected, when it is collected, and by whom. This plan must indicate how the data is organized, and to whom it will be sent. It should provide findings on the future development of the programme. At this stage, the evaluation team is identified, and the techniques to be used are selected and designed.
- *Application of the evaluation plan:* When the evaluation plan has been approved, it can be put into effect. Its validity or success depends on the competence of the evaluator, its timing, and how effectively it has been planned. There is a need for the plan to be effected by someone who understands what it is intended to do. This is when data collection and analysis take place.
- *Utilization of the findings:* Evaluation alone is of little value. It is the application of the findings that makes it worthwhile. Through evaluation, programmes learn their strengths and weaknesses, and the findings offer an opportunity to determine future programme improvements. Adequate use of evaluation findings should be planned, and programme leaders should ensure that they are implemented and followed up. This establishes the extent to which the findings have been incorporated for purposes of programme improvement. A failure to use evaluation findings, adversely affects the programme, and contributes to failure. A follow-up will lead to a review, which will determine whether there is a need for revision of the exercise.

It is important to consider the following, if evaluation procedures are to bear fruit:

- Deciding when to evaluate;
- Deciding what precisely to evaluate;

- Deciding whom the evaluation is intended to serve;
- Deciding who should conduct the evaluation;
- Deciding what questions the evaluation should address;
- Planning the evaluation study;
- Deciding how to report the evaluation study; and
- Dealing with the political, ethical and interpersonal issues in evaluation.

Methods of Evaluation

‘Before and after’ Method

This is when the programme progress is checked after a given period of time, and it checks the results of specific programme activities. For example, if students are introduced to a computer awareness programme, or career exploration, an evaluation of how much has been covered is carried out by the end of the year. It is at this point that the evaluation may check whether clients are different after the exercise.

Comparison Method

This is when groups are compared after different techniques have been used to achieve a goal. The comparative method may be used to judge the results in groups in different localities, *e.g.*, checking the impact of a programme on rural and urban children, or boys and girls. It may also be used to compare the effects of teacher-pupil ratios on the attainment of goals.

The ‘How do we Stand?’ Method

This helps to identify desirable programme outcomes. Various techniques are used to check how the programme has progressed in terms of goal attainment. It compares programmes with generally accepted standards, and offers an opportunity to make comparisons. The method compares a programme with a set standard, as there are certain features with which it will be expected to conform.

EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

There are several evaluation techniques or ways of collecting data. It is important for the evaluator to select the best technique to suit the purpose, and choose which programme leaders can be used to check the value of their programmes. These include tests, interviews, observations, questionnaires, inspection of records, discussions and open box suggestions.

Observations

This is a visual technique where the evaluator observes, and records, any findings. Here, the evaluator decides whether he/she will observe as an outsider, or as a participant. This requires full concentration by the observer, who should study an aspect in detail, after consultation with other programme implementors.

The observer actually serves as a second person for what other implementors are looking for. For this technique to be worthwhile, the observer should report and discuss any findings immediately, so that possible distortions, or failure to remember, do not affect the results. When using this technique, observers need to have sharp eyes and ears to be able to collect adequate data. The observer should carefully guard against bias.

Interviews

Interviews are a basic evaluation technique. They can be structured or unstructured. This requires a good ability to listen. A more structured interview would require the preparation of interview questions prior to the interview itself. It is important that data be recorded. The evaluator may use a tape recorder, in order to transcribe the relevant parts later, or take notes throughout the interview. Some evaluators depend on their memory, but this leads to a great risk of missing out important information. It is important that notes taken are discussed with the person interviewed, to check whether the information was correctly recorded.

Questionnaires

This involves a structured series of questions and statements that enable the evaluators to gather information about a particular programme. The advantage is that it can be sent to clients, to be completed in the absence of the evaluator. Unlike an interview, it also gives the evaluator an opportunity to cover a larger number of people at one time. All evaluation techniques require planning on the part of the evaluator. It is important for the evaluator to consult with relevant beneficiaries on the evaluation techniques they would like to use, so that conflicts of interest are avoided.

PROGRAMME PLANNING

REASONS FOR PLANNING

Guidance and Counselling is a continuous and on-going process. For it to meet students' needs, it must be formalized. The initial stage of programme development planning is of vital importance.

The following reasons are advanced to emphasize the importance of planning, viz.:

- It forms the basis for action.
- It forms the basis for organization.
- It provides the basis for involvement and assignments.
- It forms the basis for programme evaluation.
- It provides the basis for decision-making.
- It provides the basis for commitment.

Planning provides an opportunity to convert ideas into action. It is at this stage that the relevant personnel in the provision of the Guidance and Counselling

service are identified and their roles described. For instance, in a school, the principal, teachers, ancillary staff, students, parents and community members should have their roles in the provision of services clearly defined.

An organization must identify co-ordinators of the programme who will play a leading role in its development. Personnel should include everyone who has direct, or indirect, contact with those for whom the programme is developed, which in a school, are the students. It is at this stage that the programme co-ordinator informs the Guidance personnel of their roles. In identifying the leaders of a programme, there is a need to consider leadership qualities. A true leader should possess some of the following characteristics:

- *A record of success*: It is important to identify a leader with good experience, and who is a competent professional who has had the relevant training. Such leaders can direct a programme competently, and adhere to the ethical and legal issues related to it.
- *Inspires confidence*: A realistic and supportive programme leader inspires confidence and trust among subordinates, and acknowledges the accomplishments of the support staff and gains their confidence. This provides the organization with a group of dedicated and confident staff.
- *Promotes partnership*: A good programme leader ensures teamwork. The success of the organization is shared between him and his subordinates, and this creates a feeling among them of belonging. This partnership is important, since it builds a solid and well-founded programme in which everyone feels responsible for its success. No one looks only to the leader for success but considers it instead a shared responsibility.
- *Motivates*: A good leader should be able to motivate subordinates to realize their full potential. Motivated staff members are always willing to take initiative and promote a lot of activities. This is of vital importance. As the one who understands what the programme is about, it is important that the leader is ready to clarify and explain the approach. The leader should always identify the tasks to be performed and explain them to the staff.
- *Creates a positive atmosphere*: The creation of a professional atmosphere is the responsibility of the programme leader. A positive and conducive atmosphere is dependent on the organization, management and administration of the programme. Planning, for instance, is important to ensure that all those affected are part of the programme from the start.
- *Possesses visibility and vision*: A good leader is readily available to support staff. This is because frequent interaction with staff members allows for informal exchanges of ideas which are vital for success. A leader should have vision. There is a need to plan for the future or anticipate the direction of a programme. This allows for any necessary adjustments.

- *Has good decision-making skills:* An effective programme leader should be able to make appropriate decisions. This rests on the understanding that he/she should consider various alternatives before making a final decision.

The above may assist in the identification of suitable programme leaders. Many programmes have collapsed because of poor leadership, and it is important to choose leaders who possess the right qualities rather than just fill a position. A good leader should be able to use supervisory skills to set up and consolidate the programme. By appraising, motivating and consulting with all the staff, the programme can be sustained. It is the leader who sets the mood and the means of operation. Competence is of the utmost importance. It is important to lead and not to direct, as behaving like a director may result in resentment among subordinates. Planning is crucial to the survival of a programme, because poor planning adversely affects the programme. Planning formalizes it, creates an atmosphere of team work and commitment, and allows consultations and shared responsibilities. An effective plan of action should be developmental, with a logical, sequential pattern, be flexible, provide a basis for resource employment, and give priority to communication, co-ordination and cooperation.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Needs assessment finds out what is needed. It is the basis for accountability, and ensures a greater degree of programme relevance. Any practical programme should address the needs of those it is designed to serve.

An accurate and continuous assessment of the needs of the beneficiaries is vital for the success of a programme. It is the needs that determine the programme goals and objectives. For the programme to serve its beneficiaries, it should address their intellectual, emotional, social and psychological needs.

Apart from accountability, needs assessment allows for programme evaluation. When conducting a needs assessment survey, both the beneficiaries and the environment should be taken into account, as they have an influence upon, or directly affect, each other.

For example a programme designed for a school in Gaborone, Botswana, must consider the needs of the students and the school. When identifying needs, it is important to focus on the personal, social, educational and vocational needs of the clients, in order to provide a balanced and comprehensive guidance programme which is concerned with their well-being.

The programme should also address the varying needs of boys and girls. Needs assessment should allow the service to compare the current status with future outcomes. Steps to Follow in Conducting a Needs Assessment Survey

Step 1

- *Identify and list all those to be served, e.g.:*
 - Students;
 - Teachers;

- Patients;
- School administrators; and
- Ancillary staff.

At this stage, several classifications such as ethnic, socio-economic, political, grade level and educational, may be used. A survey of the people who have direct contact with the programme's beneficiaries is also important. Their opinions or contributions are of value for the quality of the programme.

Step 2

Collect data using any one of the following systematic approaches. These are useful in the identification of guidance-related needs.

The methods include:

- Questionnaires;
- Interviews;
- Brainstorming;
- School and community records;
- Follow-up studies; and
- Stratified random sampling.

Step 3

It is important that after the data has been collected, it is compiled, classified and analyzed. Accumulated data help programme developers to determine priorities.

Classification should be according to the areas of Guidance, namely:

- Personal,
- Educational,
- Social and
- Vocational.

PROGRAMME GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

In order to determine the goals and objectives of the programme, it is important to assess the current situation with regard to Guidance and Counselling. The programme developer must clearly indicate the position of the organization in terms of clients and their problems.

The general needs of the country, which existing programmes have not met, should also be taken into account. After the identification of students' needs and the environment, the aim of a Guidance programme should be to provide beneficiaries with the skills and attitudes necessary to function fully in society. It emphasizes decision-making skills and the development of a positive self-image.

The goal of the programme also emphasizes the need to assist young people to become responsible citizens, who develop realistic and fulfilling plans for their lives based on self-knowledge, their own needs and those of the environment.

The goal of all programmes should be the development of a complete person, capable of surviving in a complex world, and to provide all individuals, despite their socio-economic status, sex and cultural background, the information to fall back on when needs arise. It is after the identification and the prioritization of clients' needs that goals and objectives are formulated. These must be clear since they will determine the programme in terms of the resources required. The objectives should be specific to each topic.

PLANNING OF A GOOD GUIDANCE PROGRAMME BY COUNSELLOR

The School Guidance Programme is the specific set of learning experiences which a school provides in response to the guidance needs of its students. There are a number of principles that underpin the school guidance programme.

PRINCIPLES

The school guidance programme should:

- Be accessible
- Recognise that guidance is a specialist area within education
- Recognise that guidance is a whole school concern
- Be impartial
- Be student centred
- Be transparent
- Be balanced
- Be inclusive
- Be responsive
- Respect confidentiality in Counselling and assessment activities
- Empower participants to take responsibility for their own development
- Promote equal opportunities
- Deploy and make full use of available resources
- Be reviewed on an ongoing basis

WHAT IS THE SCHOOL GUIDANCE PLAN

The school guidance plan is a structured document that describes the school guidance programme and specifies how the guidance needs of students are to be addressed. The school guidance plan is drawn up in consultation with all school partners in order to ensure that it reflects the identified needs of students. The school guidance plan is an integral part of the school's overall plan. It is developmental by design and includes sequential activities organised and implemented as a collaborative effort by guidance counsellors, teachers, school management and the Board of Management, programme teams, students and parents. The school guidance plan outlines and describes the guidance programme, that is, the full range of activities through which the school addresses the needs of the students by helping them in their personal and social, educational and career development.

KEY ELEMENTS OF THE SCHOOL GUIDANCE PLAN

The school guidance plan should address the following questions:

- What does the school aim to provide through its guidance programme? (Aims)
- Who/which persons are the priorities for benefiting from the provision? (Target Groups)
- Which guidance outcomes are intended for the target groups? (Objectives)
- How are these guidance outcomes to be achieved? (Activities)
- What resources are available to support these outcomes? (Resources)
- How does a school find out if the objectives have been achieved? (Monitoring and Review)

Aims

The aims can be derived from a variety of sources, contexts and players for example:

- The definition of guidance.
- The Education Act (1998).
- The Department of Education and Science's Guidelines for Second Level Schools on the implications of Section 9 (c) of the Education Act (1998), relating to students' access to appropriate guidance.
- The school's mission statement, vision and fundamental aims as per the school plan.
- The specific social and economic environment in which the school operates.
- The views of school partners (students, parents, staff, management, local community) on how existing resource provision can best be utilised.
- The identified needs of target groups.
- The demands of the local/regional, national, social and economic environments.
- The school's current guidance programme.

DIFFERENT COMPONENTS OF A PROGRAMME STRUCTURE

INDIVIDUAL PLANNING

This includes the counselling activities meant to assist all students to plan, monitor and manage their own personal development.

Activities of this component of the programme are offered to all students, and are meant to assist them in the development and implementation of their personal, educational, social and career components, in accordance with the skills and information they gather.

This component generally offers students the opportunity for self-appraisal, and to plan for the world of work. One way would be to help students to understand themselves through individual or group activities.

School Guidance and Counselling Curriculum

This refers to a curriculum which is systematically organized according to grade level. It is designed to serve all students at the classroom or group level. The curriculum emphasizes decision-making, self-knowledge, career exploration and career development. The curriculum is organized around three major areas:

- Learning to Live
 - Understanding and appreciating the self
 - Understanding and appreciating others
 - Understanding and appreciating home and family
 - Developing a sense of community
 - Making decisions and setting goals
 - Understanding safety and survival
- Learning to Learn
 - Making decisions, setting goals, and taking action
 - Understanding interaction between home, family, school and community
 - Understanding factors which affect school achievement
- Learning to Work
 - Learning the relationship between personal qualities and work
 - Exploring careers
 - Learning how to use leisure time
 - Learning the relationship between education and work
 - Learning to work together
 - Learning how the community relates to work

This curriculum should state the goals for guidance instruction as well as student outcomes. Here, collaboration with, and the education of, parents and the community are essential. The purpose of the curriculum is to provide students with knowledge and life skills. The curriculum is delivered through the following:

- Classroom activities - classroom teaching of Guidance and Counselling.
- Group activities – offering structured group activities in Guidance and Counselling, *i.e.*, career fairs, plays, *etc.*
- Parent education - this is done outside the classroom and establishes a link with the parents through seminars and meeting.
- **TRANSITION:** The third component of a Programme Structure is Responsive Services.

Responsive Services

This includes services that are responsive to students' concerns regarding their healthy personal, social, educational and career development. This includes

preventive, developmental and remedial counselling. Other than the counselling service, consultation and referral services will also be utilized. Counselling is either individual or in groups. Consultation would be with parents, teachers and other professionals, while referrals would be to other specialists or programmes. Support groups such as Alcoholics Anonymous, people living with AIDS, diabetics, *etc.*, form part of the support services. It is important for the programme leader to understand the role of each service as stipulated in Shertzer and Stone. These services offer opportunities for students as follows:

Counselling Service

It is a social service based on the recognition of an individual's uniqueness, dignity, value and respect, and of the fact that every individual has a right to personal assistance when needed. This service recognizes the need to offer individuals an opportunity for self-knowledge and self-development through individual or small group interventions. The counselling service's main purpose is to nurture a relationship leading to personal development and decision-making, based on an understanding and knowledge of oneself and the environment.

The service provides an opportunity for verbal interaction between the counsellor and the client, with the sole aim of assisting the client to deal with a specific problem which could be physical, academic, emotional/personal, and/or social. Basically, this service offers clients the chance to make decisions and solve problems. This service has a direct link with other services, especially the referral service because, when the need arises, a counsellor may have to refer a client to other specialists. The provision of such a service acknowledges the fact that students need assistance to cope with the complexities of life, since classroom teaching alone may not meet the needs of the client effectively.

Referral Service

Since some problems and concerns are beyond the capability of the school counsellor or guidance teacher, it is important to establish a referral network. This should consist of a team of well-trained and skilled professionals who have expertise in assisting referred individuals.

Referral does not imply the helper might have failed, but signifies strength on the part of the helper, who recognizes his/her limitations, and explores opportunities to maximize the help he/she can offer. A programme leader should, therefore, be well informed about referral services, which include social workers, doctors, psychiatrists, psychologists, priests, police and others.

Consultation Service

This service underscores the fact that other people's opinions and decisions may have a positive impact on the programme. It also emphasizes that clients are not only students but children, sportsmen and women, boys and girls, who work with a number of people who can contribute to, and have an interest in, the students' welfare. It is, therefore, important for the counsellor or guidance

teacher to the students to consult parents, boarding personnel, and other teachers who might be subject teachers and coaches. This will give the counsellor or guidance teacher an opportunity to ascertain various changes in behaviour that might have occurred. Such consultations may also demand referral. The consulting service supports the fact that collective decision-making and problem exploration allow for more objectivity. The programme leader has to promote relations with community agencies, which helps to establish contacts and effective communication channels. Once channels of communication are open, it is easy to exchange information and ideas with other beneficiaries. Consultation with teachers is an important means of increasing teacher awareness of issues their students face.

Appraisal

This service provides essential facts about the learner, giving the counsellor, or guidance teacher, a basis for decision-making. It gathers personal information about the learner, and assists the individual to understand himself/herself better. Once an individual is aware of himself/herself, he or she is able to make informed decisions.

Placement and Follow-up

This service is designed to enhance student development by assisting them to select, and use, opportunities inside and outside the school. It is oriented to the preparation of an individual for admission to other educational, vocational or work-related programmes. Its main purpose is to assist students to achieve their career goals, *e.g.*, by assisting them with subject selection, or placement, in a class or school, based on the subjects offered. It takes into account the interests, aspirations and abilities of the learner. Where educational placement is concerned, a student should be allowed to choose the subjects he/she would like to pursue. Their subject choices should be determined by their self-image, career preference, and the availability of the subject option.

It is the role of the counsellor or guidance teacher to ensure that the curriculum addresses the needs of the client. Career placement should also be seen as an integral part of a student's career development and, as such, the counsellor or guidance teacher has to identify appropriate vocational or career placement centres, in accordance with the career aspirations of their pupils. This exploration is crucial for career decision-making, since it gives students an opportunity to gain an insight into a career which interests them. All students should be thoroughly prepared before career placement occurs, so that they can make the most of it.

As a service, it strengthens the career guidance aspect of the school guidance and counselling programme. It helps the students to know their strengths and limitations and, through this, achieve self-direction. This service offers the counsellor/guidance teacher an opportunity to collect, analyze, and use, a variety of personal, psychological and social data about the students.

Not only does it offer the counsellor an opportunity to understand the pupils, but it also provides them with a guideline for the type of help required. Further, the counsellor/guidance teacher will be able to assist students/pupils to understand themselves better. The learner may contribute to the effectiveness of this service by providing information through self-evaluation activities, such as writing an autobiography or completing self-rating forms. Peers or classmates may also be used to collect information about a learner.

In order to avoid character destruction, peer evaluation must be properly co-ordinated by the counsellor or guidance teacher. The information collected helps the students, teachers, parents, and school administrators, to create and maintain an environment conducive to the healthy growth and development of an individual. It allows the counsellor, or guidance teacher, an opportunity to establish a structure which helps the client. Several activities can be used to appraise students; for instance, naming the 'person of the week', writing about the kind of person one is, naming one's favourite food, naming favourite personalities, naming leisure activities, *etc.* Psychological tests may be issued when they are available. These go a long way towards helping students to understand themselves.

Research and Evaluation Service

Research and evaluation are designed to determine the effectiveness of a guidance programme. Further, they provide the counsellors or guidance teachers with the opportunity to be resourceful and independent. Evaluation and research encourage programme leaders to continue to find solutions to the problems of their clients. It is through active research that counsellors or guidance teachers can upgrade their programmes, to ensure that they address the needs of the clients.

Systems Support

This includes the direct guidance management activities that maintain and enhance the guidance programme. A fully fledged Guidance programme needs systems support. This ensures that the programme is sustained. Such support includes staff development so that the implementors are well equipped for the job, and the necessary resources and facilities for programme implementation, finance, and policy support, are available. The support is crucial and needs to be considered when designing the Guidance programme to guarantee its implementation. The guidance programme should also identify other programmes that need its support, such as special education, vocational education, *etc.*

- It is important that the committee discusses all the topics so that the final agreement will have been considered by all the implementors. It is through programme design that developers will define a programme, state its rationale and decide principles that shape and guide the programme. It is at this stage that documentation is prepared on what should be done to ensure programme sustainability, and to describe the relationship between guidance and other school activities.

It is indicated in the design stage how, through direct and indirect activities, the guidance teachers will work with students, parents, other teachers, the school administration and the general community. A balanced programme with varied activities needs to be directed and designed to meet the needs of all the students. The necessary referral agencies are identified and documented. Consultations and team work are very important at this stage.

THE IDENTIFICATION OF RESOURCES

The programme design and desired student outcomes have a bearing on the allocation of available resources, and may dictate programme design. These go a long way towards providing a comprehensive programme. Resources should be commensurate with needs.

When they are not, programme leaders must ensure maximum utilization of limited resources, which is particularly the case in African countries. Guidance teachers must keep the available resources in mind, and take into account school realities and priorities. Collaboration with other programme leaders is important, and several ideas should be explored on possible alternatives.

Since there are four components of a guidance programme, there might be a need to emphasize some rather than others, when resources are limited. It is, therefore, obvious that resources affect the scope of a programme, and call for serious consideration of priorities lest resources are wasted. This confirms the need to determine priorities. Resources are both human and material. These need to be identified and documented, so that they are readily available. For instance, if a guidance lesson needs clay, it should be readily available on demand. If a class has to make a trip, transport should be available. The lack of the necessary resources will adversely affect the programme.

THE GUIDANCE CALENDAR

The Guidance Calendar is part of a school guidance programme. It takes care of the needs that cannot be met in a classroom, such as tours, career fairs, talent shows, seminars, visits, drama, *etc.* This Calendar shows all guidance activities that are planned in the school. It helps to allocate time to school activities, and avoid clashes. It is for an organization to develop a monthly, quarterly, termly or yearly calendar. Like the Guidance Programme, a school Guidance Calendar is governed by the needs of the clients. It is meant to complement classroom activities.

The Calendar ensures that particular needs are addressed at appropriate times and places, and accomplishes certain activities in a sequence. For instance, after a career talk, a visit to a work place might be the most appropriate complementary activity, or after a lesson on cleanliness, a nurse or health worker could be invited to address the pupils. This is an indication that a calendar is in line with identified needs. A Guidance Calendar promotes good management, and developers will take into account the time of the year most suitable for certain activities.

It also ensures the appropriate use of resources. The programme leadership should involve staff, parents and community members in drawing up the calendar, as not to do so might adversely affect the programme. For instance, a nurse might not be able to address students if he/she was not told the date when needed to support the programme. In drawing up the calendar, there is a need to indicate the date, time, target group, guidance service activity, and human and material resources.

PARENTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAMME

For the effective provision of guidance services, guidance counsellors should aim at facilitating and/or developing regular and effective communication between parents and teachers. It is through such regular and effective communication that the guidance programme can achieve its goal of serving the interests of boys and girls.

Various media can be used to effect communication between teachers and parents. Among them are newsletters, parent-teacher meetings, letters, parents' meetings, prize-giving/open day ceremonies, parents' days, *etc.* There is a need to develop a sense of partnership between parents and teachers.

This can only be done through regular contacts between them. The guidance counsellor should, therefore, facilitate the process of creating a welcoming, friendly, purposeful atmosphere, which promotes contacts between parents and teachers. Parents should cooperate with teachers, especially the guidance counsellors, in helping the child develop his/her potential, as well as overcome his/her problems.

Parents should provide guidance counsellors with background information (about the child), which is necessary to facilitate growth and assist teachers to help children make academic and career decisions based on accurate information. This is to avoid raising false hopes.

This information could include the child's health, developmental concerns, family background, and other data that can be useful in assisting the child. This information should be filed and kept confidentially in the guidance counsellor's office. In addition to providing background information on the child, parents need to help analyse their children's strengths and limitations.

Parents should also work with teachers in developing the right attitudes in children. Guidance counsellors should engage parents as resource persons during career fairs, career talks, guidance seminars for boys and girls, and other activities such as open days and prize-giving ceremonies.

Parents could also participate in cultural activities such as traditional dancing and other related performances. Parents' participation in these activities at school will make them feel they are part of the school. In addition, parents will feel welcome and appreciate that their knowledge and expertise is recognised by the school.

TYPES OF PROBLEMS OF STUDENTS

Student problems are not easily pigeon-holed. Even broad classifications overlap and merge: academic and personal problems interact and often prove inseparable.

EXAMINATION STRESS

Examinations and preparation for them cause most of us a certain amount of anxiety and students can become very stressed at such times.

Setting Achievable Goals

Some students set themselves unrealistic revision targets and then feel overwhelmed by the amount of work they perceive to be necessary. Tutors may be able to suggest alternative approaches to revision and to look with the student at ways of applying these to one or two topics. It is usually helpful if students can break their revision down into a series of quite short manageable tasks which give a sense of progress and achievement once they are completed.

Counselling and Relaxation

Examination stress may, of course, be part of a more complex situation: all kinds of emotional and personal problems surface under the strain of the examination system. Personal tutors need to be able to recognise how serious these are and when to advise students to seek appropriate professional help e. g. UCL Student Psychological Services

Counsellors and specialist consultants encourage self-referrals, both to emphasise the confidential nature of their service and because they need the student's own commitment to the counselling/consultancy process. However, personal tutors cannot always be sure that their advice will be taken and situations in which students obviously require professional help cannot be allowed to drift.

A compromise is for the tutor to telephone the appropriate welfare service on the student's behalf and to make a general enquiry about procedures, waiting times, *etc.*, in order to pave the way for the student to make an appointment. A training in self-relaxation techniques is also provided by UCL Student Psychological Services. Referrals to this service must be by Departmental Tutors. There is a limit on places.

Opting Out of Examinations

Students who cannot face an examination sometimes seek their personal tutor's approval for opting out. They need to be appraised of the consequences of missing an exam and encouraged to reconsider their request/decision. However, students who are genuinely ill or emotionally disturbed should not be pressurised to sit a paper. Students occasionally have to be dissuaded from taking an exam when they are clearly not in a fit state to do so.

Personal tutors advising on situations like this need to take account of:

- The student's condition;
- The status of the exam;
- Departmental and College regulations concerning re-sitting.

Special Arrangements for Examinations

Students' anxieties about examinations may sometimes be caused or heightened by some physical or psychological condition that makes it difficult for them to cope with the conditions under which examinations are normally held. The College makes special arrangements for such students based on a medical assessment of their needs by one of the doctors in the Health Centre.

FINANCIAL DIFFICULTIES

The number of students experiencing financial difficulties has increased significantly in recent years and is likely to continue doing so. Some students are more or less permanently hard up; others create short-term difficulties for themselves by managing their money badly. Personal tutors may help alleviate some financial problems by directing students to the appropriate College support services. Personal tutors should never lend money themselves.

Part-time Jobs

It is now common for students to have part-time employment during term, as well as a holiday job, and some students work long hours in the evening to the detriment of their studies and health. There is a relationship between course options and part-time employment in that some options allow more time for earning than others.

Financial Assistance

Whilst the College can provide valuable support, the sums involved are not large and, in the case of loans, are of course only a short-term solution. Ultimately students must learn to live within their budget and to draw up a realistic financial plan that is not over-dependent on part-time employment. Personal tutors may be in a position to help students do this. Some begin by persuading their tutees to destroy their credit cards.

The Access to Learning Fund (ALF) provides discretionary financial assistance for students to help them access and remain in higher education, particularly those students who need financial help to meet costs that cannot be met from other sources of funding. Students should be aware that ALF is intended to act as a safety net for those in financial difficulty rather than their main source of income. The Student Finance Office, in liaison with the Dean of Students (Welfare), administers a series of loans and bursaries for students experiencing financial hardship.

To be eligible students must have made adequate provision before entering College to meet the expenses of their degree course, their financial means must

have subsequently become inadequate for reasons that could not have been foreseen, and they must have exhausted all other sources available to them. The Student Finance Office also administers a College Emergency Loan Fund from which students may seek a limited advance in an emergency.

RELATIONSHIP DIFFICULTIES

Students usually prefer to sort out problems in their personal relationships for themselves but staff inevitably become aware of situations that are seriously affecting a student's work. Some relationship problems are, of course, so serious or become so over a period of time, that a student has to seek help.

If specialist assistance is required, the UCL Student Psychological Services may be able to help or make appropriate referrals. Relationship difficulties may also overlap with other areas, such as Harassment and Bullying and Socially Isolated Students.

HARASSMENT AND BULLYING

Harassment and bullying can take a variety of different forms ranging from repeatedly ignoring a colleague or subjecting them to unwelcome attention, to intimidation, humiliation ridicule or offence. More extreme forms of harassment and bullying include physical threats or violence. Behaviour that may appear trivial as a single incident can constitute harassment or bullying when repeated, or in the context of the staff/student relationship. Harassment and bullying may not always be intentional but are always unacceptable, whether deliberate or not.

Some of the most prevalent forms of harassment and bullying include sexual and racial harassment, and harassment of people with disabilities or on the grounds of a person's sexuality. Bullying is the exercise of power over another person through negative acts or behaviour that undermine him/her personally and/or academically. Bullying can involve threatening, insulting, abusive, disparaging or intimidating behaviour which places inappropriate pressure on the recipient or has the effect of isolating or excluding them. Bullying can take the form of shouting, sarcasm, derogatory remarks concerning academic performance or constant criticism.

PROBLEMS FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Many of the problems that students experience in adjusting to university life are intensified for students from abroad.

Culture Shock

As well as having to cope with a new institution and educational environment, international students are having to adjust to a different national culture with often unfamiliar social customs and conventions. They may become very homesick.

Where English is not the first language, having to converse with strangers all the time in a foreign language is a strain. Some women students come from cultures where they have had a sheltered life and spent little time on their own or in the company of males outside their family. They may be vulnerable in certain social situations or upset by conventions that they do not understand.

Academic Difficulties

International students are often under considerable pressure to succeed academically and their expectations of themselves may be unrealistic. The transition to a different educational system and new approaches to study is often more challenging than to home students. For example, students from abroad are sometimes unaccustomed to active learning situations, such as participating in discussion and working on a team project. They may have had a much more formal relationship with their teachers and thus be less inclined than home students to seek help from their personal tutors.

Immigration Issues

Some international students experience immigration problems. These range from how to renew a visa to the special procedures for getting married. Some students entering the country are vetted more thoroughly than others and may become involved in protracted negotiations with the Home Office. Travelling to another country, for example to participate in a field course, may create difficulties if essential documents are at the Home Office.

REQUESTS TO CHANGE DEGREE COURSE

Changes of degree course are handled by departmental tutors, but personal tutors can provide helpful guidance and support during the period of uncertainty that normally precedes a decision. Personal tutors should try to identify and maintain regular contact with any of their tutees who are unhappy, for whatever reason, at the start of their course.

Reasons for Changing

Some requests to change degree course are a response to staff expressions of concern over poor performance; others are less predictable and may come from students thought to be making reasonable progress. Decisions to seek a change may have been thought through quite rationally but may simply be an attempt to find an escape route from criticism or other problems that have arisen. Every year there are some undergraduates who seek a change of course or university soon after their arrival; some even want to withdraw from HE entirely. This is often a knee-jerk reaction to the culture shock of coming to university, encountering new courses and ways of working and, in some instances, living away from home for the first time. Reassurances sometimes help, but if students are persistent in their request to change course they need to be encouraged to continue with their programme whilst they explore other possibilities, so that they at least have time to make a rational decision.

Researching Course Alternatives

Whatever the reasons for students wanting to change their degree programme, it is reasonable to expect them to obtain as much information as possible on the alternatives and, in situations where the proposed change is within UCL, to speak to the staff responsible for the course they think they would prefer to follow. Having inspected the grass elsewhere, they may decide that it is no greener than where they are. When a change of course is under discussion students sometimes assume that there is no longer any necessity to meet their current course requirements, indeed that deterioration in their standard of work may enhance their chances of obtaining a transfer. They need disillusioning on this score and informing that they will be required to see their remaining time out satisfactorily on the original course and to pass any exams or tests during that time. Other departments will not welcome failures.

Limitations and Implications

Students have to appreciate that some changes will not be possible because of specific course requirements or pressure on places. Changes to Medicine are never allowed. Students need to be aware of the financial implications of a change of course that extends their period of study. The regulations concerning tuition fees and loans are complicated and students should find an early opportunity to discuss their situation with their departmental or faculty tutor. Personal tutors should not approach LEAs or the Student Loan Company on their students' behalf.

5

Testing Techniques and Psychological Tests

What is a test? It is a set of tasks or questions intended to elicit particular types of behaviour when presented under standardised conditions. It is expected to yield scores that have desirable psychometric properties. This means that testing is the act of asking an individual a particular set of questions in order to obtain a score. The score thus obtained is the end-product of testing, and yields information needed when making a decision.

A commonly used definition of a test by Cronbach is that it is a systematic procedure for observing and describing one or more characteristics of a person, with the aid of either a numerical scale or a category system. Using Cronbach's definition, it is clear that certain tests may yield measurements and a behaviour can be described quantitatively. Other procedures may simply categorise a person's behaviour as 'egocentred' or 'drive-centred'. Testing is different from assessment in that assessment involves comprehending, organising, communicating and creating impressions. In other words, it helps in the perception of a person in impression formation or in attribution. In this way, using scores from a test, a counsellor can form an image or model of the client with whom he/she deals. The image thus formed is a set of hypotheses about a particular person, and his/her potential. A psychological test is essentially an objective and standardised measure of behaviour.

The nature of psychological tests has been described by Anastasi as follows:

- Psychological tests are made, as in any other science in so far as observations are concerned, on a small but carefully chosen sample of an individual's behaviour.

- A diagnostic or predictive value of a psychological test depends on the degree to which it serves as an indicator of a relatively broad and significant area of behaviour. The psychological test can provide quantitative data concerning how well a student will be able to do at a later time, or in other situations. In other words, an individual's future performance, for example in a job, can be forecast or predicted from his/her present test performance.
- A psychological test measures the individual's capacity or potential for learning. For instance, a psychological test can be devised to predict how well an individual can learn addition in arithmetic before he/she has even begun the study of the subject.
- A psychological test is a standardised measure, and this refers to uniformity of procedures in administering and scoring of the test. Uniformity of procedures exists with regard to time limits, instructions, and detailed directions for administering each test. Standardisation also implies that norms (an established normal or average performance on the test) are available.
- A psychological test is an objective sample of some aspects of behaviour. The term *objective* refers to the requirement that its administration, scoring, and interpretation are independent of the individual examiner's subjective judgement. Tests are also objective in the sense that their reliability, validity and level of difficulty are usually experimentally and empirically determined before they are used.
- It has already been pointed out that a psychological test must be valid and reliable. The term validity refers to the degree to which a test actually serves the purposes for which it is intended, and reliability refers to the consistency with which a test yields similar scores from the same group of individuals in two or more tests.

TECHNIQUES IN COUNSELLING

A counselor has a variety of techniques he can use to work with his clients as they are making changes in their lives. These can range from simply listening to exploring alternatives and acting as a sounding board.

LISTEN

In counselling sessions, the counselor's primary role should be as a listener. She should indicate when she understands something her client has said and let her know when she needs clarification.

BE NON-JUDGEMENTAL

When the counselor's client says or does something in session that is shocking, repulsive or amusing, the counselor should try to avoid showing his reaction. Unless the client is sharing something and wants his counselor's empathy, the counselor needs to let the client make his own judgements.

EXPLORE ALTERNATIVES

The counselor needs to do everything she can to give her client the decision-making responsibility. In doing this, the counselor can help the client explore alternatives to his situation.

ENCOURAGE CLIENTS

During a therapy session, the counselor should do everything he can to encourage (and cheerlead) his client in a success the client experienced.

COACH CLIENTS

In the behavioural model, the counselor can act as a coach for her client, discussing and modeling different strategies that are intended to give the client the power to change his situation.

SUPPORTIVE SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES IN COUNSELLING

The skills and techniques employed in supportive therapy provide a counselling patient with tools to affect change in his daily life. A skilled counselor is more than a guide and more than a support system, managing to strike a balance somewhere between the two. A counselor must be able to listen with empathy and understanding to help alleviate stress in the patient, while also teaching the patient through thoughtful, focused education.

EMPATHY

A counselor should be able to demonstrate empathy during counselling sessions with patients. The therapist should practice active listening with the patient and show understanding of the patient's fears, stresses and anxieties. As a result of the empathy shown, the patient feels accepted, more relaxed and more comfortable in the counselor's presence. A patient who does not feel the counselor empathizes with his feelings or does not understand his situation is more likely to feel guarded and unwilling to reveal his innermost feelings during the counselling sessions. The unwillingness to open up in counselling can hinder the positive effects counselling should have in a patient's life and may derail recovery or personal advancement.

COPING STRATEGIES

Successful counselling professionals are able to introduce and implement coping strategies for patients. Counselors help a patient establish coping strategies and techniques to change life situations in addition to coping strategies that help a patient deal with internal thoughts and feelings about external events. A counselor can guide the patient directly by recommending concrete coping strategies to help the patient deal with a specific problem present in the patient's life. Solving specific problems may involve offering advice on the steps a patient should follow to find a new job or place to live. The counselor might also provide a sounding board to spark the patient's creative thought processes and identify problem-solving techniques and strategies on his own.

EXPLANATION AND EDUCATION

Supportive counselling techniques incorporate the ability to teach and educate patients about their circumstances, feelings and about the possible outcomes of certain choices and actions. A counselor who can understand and empathize with the patient's feelings and thoughts is also able to reflect those emotions back to the patient. Accurate reflection allows the counselor to help a patient clarify certain feelings and circumstances in the patient's life. The counselor should also have the ability to educate the patient in a way that is complete, concise and reassuring throughout all stages of a patient's awakening and development.

COUNSELLING TECHNIQUES FOR KIDS

Based on the age difference between children and adults, the two are not always able to communicate effectively. Children can be withdrawn and they can shut down and get nervous or scared if they are not communicated with in a way that they can understand. There are a few counselling techniques that can help adults better communicate with kids to achieve helpful results for both parties.

TRY TO UNDERSTAND

Asking abrupt, very direct questions can intimidate children and make them stay closed up and withdrawn. Try to understand how the child is feeling by asking them questions in a calm and understanding voice that will make them feel at ease. Try to understand what they feel because that could be very different than what you feel as an adult. For example, when talking about divorce, don't say, "I understand you may be sad about your mommy and daddy getting a divorce." Try to gain more insight by asking a questions such as, "What do you think the relationship between a mommy and daddy is like?" That will help get a child to better explain how they feel.

ROLE-PLAYING

Role-playing is a popular tool to get children to express their emotions. They may have trouble understanding and expressing how they feel, but they may be able to express themselves better when asked to show what they actually see. Depending on the age of the child, they may be able to write a "play" or a script about what they see and act that out for you. You may be able to get a child to open up more by saying something like, "Your family is really interesting. Can you show me how they act and how they talk to each other?"

ART THERAPY

Art therapy is a tool used for mental health counselling for people of all ages. Most children take an interest in art and get easily distracted by it. When people are focused on a particular activity such as this, they can be more open

when having a conversation. Art therapy can also help you better understand what children are feeling. Dark images can be a child's way of expressing sadness and grief. Look closely at what the child produces. Ask them to draw family members. Pay attention to how they present people. Is dad always drawn yelling? Is mom drawn crying? That will help you better understand how to deal with particular situations.

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP TECHNIQUES IN COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE

THEORETICAL APPROACHES OF COUNSELLING

Psychodynamic Approach

Psychoanalysis: Psychoanalysis was urbanised in the late 1800s and early 1900s through Austrian neurologist Sigmund Freud. The psychoanalytic perspective maintains sure assumptions in relation to the human behaviour and psychological troubles. Human behaviour is influenced through intrapsychic drives, motives, conflicts, and impulses, which are primarily unconscious. Several adaptive and maladaptive ego protection mechanisms are used to deal with unresolved conflicts, needs, wishes, and fantasies that contribute to both normal and abnormal behaviour. Conflicts flanked by conscious view of reality and unconscious material can result in mental disturbances such as anxiety, depression, *etc.*; Beside the inherited constitution of personality, early experiences and relationships, such as the connection flanked by children and their parents, play a critical and enduring role in psychological development and adult behaviour.

Role of the Counsellor

To encourage the clients to talk whatever comes o their mind, especially the childhood experiences. Help clients to gain insight through reliving and working through the unresolved past experiences that come into focus throughout sessions. Encourage transference in order to help clients deal realistically with unconscious material.

Goals:

- Goals of psychoanalysis vary according to clients but the focus is mainly to reconstruct the vital personality of the client.
- Primary goal is to help the client become aware of the unconscious aspect of his/her personality. The unconscious comprise of repressed memories or wishes that are painful and threatening and the client is unable to handle it.
- Help client work through a developmental stage not previously resolved. Working through unresolved developmental stage requires major reconstruction of the personality. Once these conflicts are resolved client become more productive human being.

- Strengthen the ego so that behaviour is based more in reality and not on the instinctual cravings that the id wants to express.

Techniques:

- *Free Association:* Psychoanalysts create the client lie on a couch and remnants out of view (usually seated behind the clients head and motivates them to recall early childhood memories or emotional experiences. The clients speak whatever comes to the mind even if it appears silly, irrational or painful. The analyst maintains an attitude of emphatic neutrality all through the session, maintaining a non-judgemental stance, without appearing seemingly unconcerned. At times the clients resist free association through blocking their thoughts. The analyst attempts to help clients work through their resistance through assuring that even trivial thoughts are significant and needs to be expressed with a goal of leading the client towards better insights of the hidden dynamics.
- *Dream Analysis:* In Freud's view dreams are the fulfilment of a repressed wish and are main avenue to understand the unconscious. Dreams are made through latent thoughts and manifest content. The manifest content is what the client reports and latent content is the unconscious meaning of the dream.

The therapist works to uncover the disguised meanings that are in the dream through dream interpretation contain:

- Has the client associate to the elements of the dream in the order in which they occurred.
- Create the client associate to a scrupulous dream element.
- Disregard the content of the dream, and enquire the client what events of the previous could be associated with the dream.
- Avoid giving any instructions and leave the client to begin.

The analyst uses the clients association to discover the clue to the workings of the unconscious mind:

- *Analysis of Transference:* Transference is the procedure whereby emotions are passed on or displaced from one person to another; throughout psychoanalytic therapy the displacement of feelings towards others (usually the parents) is onto the analyst. Transference analysis is one of the vital methods in Freudian psychoanalysis. The analyst encourages the transference and interprets the positive or negative feeling expressed. The release of the feelings is therapeutic and moreover the analysis increases the clients self knowledge.
- *Analysis of Resistance:* Resistance occurs when a client becomes reluctant to bring unconscious or repressed thoughts to the surface and explore them. Once to therapeutic procedure may take several shapes such as missing appointments, being late for appointments, persisting in transference, blocking thoughts throughout free association or refusing to recall dreams or early memories. The counsellor immediately needs

to deal with resistance as it helps clients gain insight into it as well other behaviours. The counsellor educates the client in relation to the how to better work with the unconscious material as opposed to resist it. If resistance is not dealt with the therapeutic procedure might come to a halt.

- *Interpretation:* The analyst gives the client with interpretation in relation to the psychological events that were neither previously understood through the client nor were meaningful. Psychoanalytic interpretation encompasses explanations and analysis of clients' thoughts feelings and actions, meaningful statement of current conflicts and historical factors that power them. Interpretations necessity be well timed. If it is employed early it may drive absent the client as the client may not be prepared because of anxiety, negative transference or stress. On the other hand if it is not used at all or used infrequently the client may fail to develop insight. The proper timing of interpretation requires great clinical ability.

Affective Approach

Gestalt Therapy: Gestalt counselling is an existential/experiential form of counselling that emphasizes personal responsibility, and that focuses upon the individual's experience in the present moment. The word 'gestalt' means whole figure. Gestalt counselling is associated with Gestalt psychology, a school of thought that emphasizes upon perception of completeness and wholeness. The approach was popularised through Fritz Perls in 1960's.

Gestalt thinking stresses the importance of one's connection to the environmental field. In Gestalt view an individual cannot be understood in separation. Since people are continually occupied with their environment, they are fully comprehensible only when viewed in context. An individual is seen as part of an ever-changing field which comprises not only one's immediate surroundings but also his or her culture, beliefs, and past experiences. At any scrupulous moment an individual's attention is devoted to exactly one primary figure from the field; the ignored and undifferentiated remainder of the field is described the background, but it is vital that the individual experiences that figure with full awareness, for if the individual fails to totally express feelings in the present, the unexpressed emotions would recede into the background as unfinished business, exerting a harmful power and causing self-defeating behaviour

Gestalt thinking also emphasizes upon the present moment, "now", as what an individual feels and perceives in the "now" is distant more important than explanations and interpretations of the past. Likewise, how someone behaves in the present is of more importance than is understanding why he or she behaves that method. Gestaltian thinking teaches that individuals only know what they experience. Therefore to learn or to solve a problem an individual necessity discover something in his/her field, which can be of help. The whole of the

human experience is greater than the sum of its parts, and any individual is meant to experience this wholeness rather than encountering its components in a piecemeal fashion.

As per Gestalt thinking a well adjusted individual is the one who has the capability to organise his or her field into well-defined obligations which can be dealt with appropriately. He or she revels in the now, livelihood it fully, making choices, freely experiencing and expressing emotion, and leaving behind no unfinished business. This self-awareness leads to the realisation of happiness, fulfilment, and wholeness.

Gestalt model emphasizes, that dysfunction occurs when the natural flow of the figure/background procedure is disrupted. Unfinished business is the result of figures receding into the background before they are totally experienced and dealt with in the now. Painful feelings, never fully and properly expressed, lurk in the background and grow stronger as time passes. Eventually they grow powerful enough to hinder an individual's present moments, and self-defeating behaviour results. This condition persists until the person finally faces and deals with the unfinished business.

Role of the Counsellor

The counsellor works towards restoring the personality to its gestalt, its organised whole through being honest and personally and intensely involved with the clients. Counsellor tries to help the client better understand the connection flanked by himself or herself and his/her environment, *i.e.*, awareness of now.

Gestalt counsellors follow many rules while helping client become more aware of the now:

- *The principle of now:* Always by the present tense.
- I and thou: always addressing someone directly instead of talking in relation to the him or her to the counsellor.
- *The use of I:* substituting the word I for it especially when talking in relation to the body.
- The use of an awareness continuum: focusing on HOW and WHAT rather than WHY.
- The conversion of Question: Asking Client to convert question into statements.

Goals

Gestalt counselling is an existential encounter flanked by people, out of which clients tend to move in sure directions. As an outgrowth of genuine therapeutic encounter it is expected that clients would move towards increased awareness of themselves, be cognizant of every aspect of the present moment, every sensation and emotion, every facet of the environment, and fully experience and respond to every situation in the now Slowly assume ownership of their experience

- Become more aware of all their senses
- Learn to accept responsibility for what they do, including accepting the consequences of their actions.
- Therapeutic connection help clients resolve the past (unfinished business) in order to become integrated.

Techniques

The Gestaltian therapist engages in a dialogue with his or her client, proposing both experiments for the client to perform and therapeutic exercises to be used as interventions. Experiments are creative and spontaneous, with a scrupulous outcome neither expected nor encouraged. For instance, a client may be asked to engage in a seemingly odd action such as “becoming” an substance from a dream. Experiments force the client to face emotions in the present. Exercises are readymade techniques such as role-playing and face-to-face encounters flanked by group members. Again, the goal is to elicit emotions and thereby raze the barriers preventing resolution of unfinished business.

Dream work: Dreams are measured to be the messages that symbolise a person’s lay at the sure time. Dreams are not interpreted as in psychoanalysis rather the client’s present dreams and are then directed to experience what it is like to be each part of the dream. In this method, the clients get in touch with the more multiple characteristics of the self. A person with repetitive dreams is encouraged to realise that there is some unfinished business that is being brought into awareness.

Empty Chair Technique: In this procedure, the clients talks to their several parts of their personality (dominant and passive part). A client may basically talk to an empty chair considering it to be a representative of one part of the self. The client may switch from chair to chair as a representation of dissimilar parts of personality. Through this exercise both rational and irrational parts of the clients comes into focus and enables him or her to deal with the dichotomy within the self.

Confrontation: Counsellors point out to client’s incongruent behaviours and feelings. Confrontation involves asking clients WHAT and HOW questions instead of WHY.

Making the Rounds: It is implemented when the counsellors feel that a scrupulous theme or feeling expressed through a client should be faced through every person in the group. For instance the client may say “I can’t stand anyone.” Then the client is instructed to say this sentence to each individual in the group, adding some remarks in relation to the each group member.

The rounds exercise is very flexible and may contain non verbal and positive feeling too. Through this exercise the client becomes more aware of inner feelings.

I take responsibility: The client creates statement in relation to the perception with the phrase “and I take responsibility for it” the exercise helps client integrate and own perception and behaviour.

Loosening and integrating techniques: Often the patient is so fettered through the bonds of the usual methods of thinking that alternative possibilities are not allowed into awareness. This comprises traditional mechanisms, such as denial or repression, but also cultural and learning factors affecting the patient's method of thinking. One technique is presently to enquire the patient to imagine the opposite of whatever is whispered to be true.

Role Playing: In this clients are asked to play the other persons role. For instance asking a client to be his mother and say what his mother would say if he/she comes back at 2.00 a.m. In this method the client develops full awareness of himself and others. *Enactment:* Here the patient is asked to put feelings or thoughts into action. For instance, the therapist may encourage the patient to "say it to the person". "Put words to it" is another instance. The patient with tears in his eyes might be asked to "put words to it." Enactment is planned as a method of rising awareness, not as a form of catharsis.

Exaggeration is a special form of enactment: A person is asked to exaggerate some feeling, thought, movement, *etc.*, in order to feel the more intense (albeit artificial) enacted or fantasized vision. Enactment into movement, sound, art, poetry, *etc.*, stimulates both creativity and is therapeutic. For instance, a man who had been talking in relation to thesis mother without showing any special emotion was asked to describe her. Out of his account came the suggestion to move like her. As the patient adopted her posture and movement, intense feelings came back into his awareness.

May I feed you a sentence: The counsellor who is aware that sure implicit attitudes or messages are implied in whatever the client is saying, enquire if the client will say a sure sentence provided through the counsellor that create the clients thought explicit. If the counsellor is correct the client will gain insight.

Behavioural Counselling

The behavioural approach has urbanised from a strong scientific base, starting with Pavlov's early work on classical conditioning. Other major powers on the development of behaviour therapy have been Skinner's work on operant conditioning and Bandura's work on observational or social learning. The behavioural approach focuses on overt (*i.e.*, observable) behaviours acquired through learning and conditioning in the social environment. Vital assumptions of behavioural approach contain that all behaviour is learned whether adaptive or maladaptive.

Maladjusted person is one who has:

- Failed to acquire competencies required for coping with the troubles of livelihood or;
- Has learned faulty reactions or coping patterns that are being maintained through some type of reinforcement.

Behavioural perspectives contain principles of operant conditioning, classical conditioning, and social learning:

- *Classical Conditioning:* This refers to the changing of the meaning of a incentive through repeated pairings with other stimuli.

- *Operant Conditioning*: In this kind of conditioning the person's actions produce a consequence that either increases or decreases the probability of the recurrence of behaviour.
- *Social Learning*: In this form of learning an individual acquires new behaviour through observing other people and events.

Role of the Counsellor in Behavioural Counselling

Behavioural counsellor is active in counselling sessions and involves the client in every stage of counselling. The client learns, unlearns, or relearns specific methods of behaviour. In that procedure the counsellor functions as a consultant teacher adviser, reinforces and facilitates.

Goal of Behavioural Counselling

The goal of behavioural counselling is to vary or eliminate maladaptive behaviour and help clients acquire productive behaviour.

Techniques

Behavioural counselling is the mainly technique oriented of all counselling approaches:

- *Contingency Management*: The behaviour to be performed, changed or discontinued and the rewards associated with the attainment of these goals are stated.
- *Token Economy*: It is based on operant conditioning in which desired behaviours necessary for day-to-day functioning are specified and a unit of swap (the token) is presented to the client contingent upon the occurrence of the desired behaviours. The tokens accumulated can be exchanged for other objects or privileges.
- *Shaping*: It is a form of operant conditioning in which rewards are given for successive approximations towards the desired new behaviour, e.g., a mentally retarded child dressing himself. The desired behaviour is broken into several steps, and often the therapist also acts as a model for the child to follow. It is a laborious procedure, and used only if a new behaviour is totally absent from the patient's repertoire.
- *Modelling*: It refers to the acquisition of new behaviours through the procedure of imitation. The person models himself after another's behaviour.
- *Extinction*: In extinction reinforcement is withheld/discontinued of a previously reinforced behaviour, resulting in the decrease of that behaviour. The behaviour is then set to be extinguished. In the extinction technique there is a temporary augment in the frequency, intensity, and/or duration of the behaviour targeted for extinction.
- *Punishment*: Punishment is a procedure through which a consequence immediately follows a behaviour which decreases the future frequency of that behaviour. Punishment can either be positive (incentive added) or negative (incentive removed).

Broadly, there are three kinds of punishment:

- Presentation of aversive stimuli such as spanking, pinching, electric shock, ammonia vapour loud or harsh sounds hair tugging, etc.

Response cost: This involves the removal of a specified amount of reinforce (for, e.g., tokens) that the individual has already earned following a undesirable behaviour.

Time out: This is a technique in which the individual is removed from the region where the inappropriate behaviour is reinforced. This is done either through transferring him/her to a non-reinforcing situation or removing the source of reinforcement from the present situation, for instance a child is separated from classmates when he/she misbehaves.

Habit Reversal: It involves the use of a competing action, which is incompatible with the habit. A nail biter can grasp an substance while a person with motor tics may be taught to contract the muscle of his upper limb isometrically. *Systematic desensitisation:* This desensitisation is a form of classical conditioning in which the anxiety evoking situations are paired with inhibitory responses (relaxation), based on the premise that a person cannot feel anxious and physically relaxed at the similar time, a phenomena recognised as reciprocal inhibition. The client is asked to describe the situation that causes anxiety and then with the help of the counsellor prepare a list of anxiety evoking situations in order of intensity on a hierarchical scale of 0-100.

For instance an individual may have a fear of flying in the plane and the hierarchy would comprise of driving to the airport, waiting in the lounge, boarding the plane, taking off, being in the airplane, etc. To help the client overcome the anxiety the counsellor teaches relaxation. After this the client is asked to imagine the least anxiety provoking situation and indicate his/her anxiety through raising index finger. Thereafter the counsellor instructs the client to stop imagining the scene and relax. The full sequence is: relax, imagine, relax, and stop imaging relax..... The similar procedure continues for the rest of the things prepared in the list. *Exposure:* This is similar to systematic desensitization except that no effort is made to relieve the anxiety throughout the period of exposure. It is based on the premise that with time, the anxiety would subside or disappear through the psychological procedure of habituation. The deliberate exposure aims at confronting the feared the situation instead of avoiding it. Exposure is either done slowly (graded exposure) or the client is made to face the mainly feared situations all at once (flooding).

Cognitive Counselling

Rational Emotive Therapy

The vital theory and practice of rational emotive therapy was formulated through Albert Ellis in 1962. Ellis posited that thoughts power our emotions and behaviour.

In his ABC model he explained that emotional symptoms or consequences:

- Are determined through a person's belief systems.
- Concerning scrupulous activating experiences or events
- The belief system of an individual may be either rational or irrational.

Rational belief and behaviour is viewed as effective and potentially productive, whereas irrational belief results in unhappiness and non-productivity and leads to several kinds of emotional troubles and stand in the method of achieving goals and purposes of an individual's life. Individuals holding unrealistic beliefs and perfectionist values often expect too much of themselves leading to irrational behaviour and consequently feel worthless failures.

For instance a person may continually think "I should be thoroughly adequate and competent in everything I do". Such unrealistic assumptions and self demands lead to ineffective and self-defeating behaviour and an emotional response of self devaluation.

Ellis recognised the following irrational beliefs that might be the root of mainly psychological maladjustment:

- It is absolutely essential for an individual to be loved or approved through every important person in his environment.
- To be worthwhile a person necessity be competent, adequate and achieving in everything attempted.
- Some people are bad, wicked or villainous and these people should be blamed and punished.
- It is terrible and catastrophic when things are not in the method an individual wants them to be.
- Unhappiness is a function of events outside the control of the individual.
- If something is dangerous or harmful, an individual should constantly be concerned in relation to it.
- It is easier to run absent from difficulties and self-responsibility than facing them.
- A person necessity depend on others and have someone stronger on whom to rely
- Past events in an individual's life determine present behaviour and cannot be changed.
- An individual should be very concerned and upset through other individual's troubles.
- There is always a correct and precise answer to every problem and it is catastrophic if is not establish.

Goals of RET

The goal of rational emotive counselling is to reduce or eliminate irrational behaviour through restructuring the belief system and self evaluation especially with respect to the irrational "should's", "musts" and "ought's" that prevents a positive sense of self worth and emotionally satisfying life.

Role of the RET Counsellor

In RET approach counsellors are active and direct. They teach the clients how their thinking, emotions, and behaviour are interrelated. They actively challenge, provoke and dispute the client's irrational beliefs, agree upon

homework assignments which help the client to overcome their irrational beliefs, and in common ‘pushes’ the client to challenge themselves and to accept the discomfort which may accompany the change procedure.

Techniques of RET

In order to challenge the clients’ irrational belief and to strengthen their conviction in a rational alternative the counsellor employs a diversity of cognitive, behavioural, emotive and imagery techniques. *Cognitive Techniques:* Disputation Cognitive disputation involves the use of direct questions, logical reasoning and persuasion. Direct questions may challenge the client to prove that his/her belief is logical through asking ‘why’. Such enquiries enable the client to distinguish flanked by rational and irrational thoughts.

- **Coping Self Statements:** Through developing coping self statement rational beliefs are strengthened. For instance A person fearful of public speaking may write down and repeat” I want to speak flawlessly, but it is alright if I don’t.
- **Reframing:** Re-evaluate bad events as ‘disappointing’, ‘concerning’, or ‘uncomfortable’, rather than as ‘awful’ or ‘unbearable’. A difference of this procedure is to list the positives of a negative event.

Emotive Techniques:

- *Rational emotive imagery:* A form of mental practice, in which the client imagines a situation that would normally upset a great deal, to feel the inappropriately intense feelings in relation to the that event and then change them to more appropriate feelings. The client keeps practising such a procedure ‘many times a week for a few weeks’ then reaches a point where he/she is no longer troubled through the event.
- *Shame attacking exercises:* Contain behaviours that are harmless but dreaded such as introducing oneself to a stranger, wearing loud clothes to draw attention, asking a silly question at a lecture. Through this the client learns that the world does not stop even if a mistake is made and everything need not be perfect.

Behavioural Techniques:

- *Biblio Therapy:* In this client is asked to read a self-help book.
- *Action Homework:* The client actually does behaviours he/she previously thought impossible to do. For instance rather than quitting a job a client may continue to work with unreasonable boss and listen to the unfair criticism and mentally dispute the criticism.

Cognitive Therapy

Cognitive therapy, a system urbanised through Aaron Beck stresses the importance of belief systems and thinking in determining an individual’s behaviour and feelings. It is based on the thought that how an individual thinks (cognition), feels (emotion) and acts (behaviour) all interact jointly.

Aaron Beck used the term “schemas” to describe individual’s thoughts, beliefs and assumptions in relation to the world, people, events and environment. Cognitive schema may be positive (adaptive) and negative (maladaptive). Normal reactions are mediated through positive cognitive schemas that enable individuals to perceive reality accurately. Maladaptive cognitive schema or cognitive distortions (*i.e.*, inaccurate methods of thinking) leads to faulty reasoning and individuals interpret situations negatively which in turn has a negative impact on the actions they take (behaviour) leading to distress and resulting in troubles.

Goals of Cognitive Therapy

Vital goal of cognitive therapy is to remove biases or distortions in thinking. It aims to create individuals become aware of their negative interpretations, and behavioural patterns that reinforce the distorted thinking and helps people to develop alternative methods of thinking and behaving which reduce the psychological distress, so that individuals may function more effectively.

Role of CT Counsellor

The counsellor and client collaborate on the treatment plan and work jointly as partners throughout the treatment.

The counsellor brings an expertise in relation to the cognitions, behaviours and feelings to guide the clients in determining goals for therapy and means for reaching these goals.

Techniques of CT Counsellor

Cognitive Restructuring: It is done following a series of steps:

- *Self Monitoring and Daily Diaries:* Client is instructed to recognise how situations elicit automatic thoughts, which powers subsequent behaviours.
- *Examining Accessible Proof:* In collaboration with counsellor the client evaluates their thoughts with respect to their usefulness as well as their validity.
- *Socratic Questioning:* By this method a client is made to logically analyse his/her thoughts and replace distorted thoughts with more accurate and realistic thoughts. This method helps clients revise negative thinking and beliefs and bring in relation to the more objective thinking. For this questions such as What is the proof for the belief? What is the proof against it? How else can you interpret the situation?

Theoretical Approaches and their respective techniques are applicable both in the individual as well as in group counselling. Though the implementation of the approaches differs when employed with a group because of group dynamics (interaction of members within the group).

Individual Counselling Procedure

Establishing Connection with the Client

The core of the counselling procedure is the connection recognised flanked by the counsellor and the client. The Counsellor takes the initiative in the initial interview to set up a climate conducive to develop mutual respect, trust, free and open communication and understanding in common of what the counselling procedure involves. Counsellors main responsibility always remnants to meet the clients need as much and possible. The counselling connection seeks to assist the clients in assuming the responsibilities for his or her problem and its solution. This is facilitated through the counselor's communication skills, the skill to identify and reflect clients' feeling and the skill to identify and gain insight into the clients concerns and needs.

Problem Identification and Exploration

After the establishment of an adequate connection, the clients become more receptive for in depth discussion and exploration of their concern. Counsellor with the cooperation of client tries to identify the problem as specifically and objectively as possible and begins to explore the changes that are required and obstacles that exist for these changes to materialise.

Scheduling for Problem Solving

Once the counsellor determines that all relevant information concerning the client has been gathered and understood in proper perspective and client has also urbanised awareness and has gained insight into the fact that something needs to be done in relation to the specific problem, counsellor moves on to develop a plan in collaboration with client to remediate the concern of the client.

Solution Application and Termination

In this final stage the counsellor encourages the client to act upon his or her determined solution of the problem. Throughout the time the client actively involves in implementing the problem solution, the counsellor maintains get in touch with as a source of follow up, support and encouragement as the client may need the counselor's assistance in the event things do not go according to plan.

Once it is determined that the counsellor and the client has dealt with the client's concern to the maximum possible extent, the counselling procedure is terminated.

Group Counselling Procedure

Group counselling gives a unique forum for individuals to create changes in their lives. Unlike individual counselling groups give a realistic social setting in which the client interacts with peers who may be sharing the similar or a

similar concern and have some understanding of the problem. The counselling group allows members to be open, honest and frank in relation to their troubles and give a situation in which it is safe to test ideas and solutions to troubles. Moreover through the group procedure and its interactions and sharing of experiences, clients learn to vary earlier behaviour patterns and seek new, more appropriate behaviours in situations that require interpersonal skills.

Group Size

Ideal size of counselling group is seven or eight members with an acceptable range of five to ten members. In small group (three or four members), member interaction diminishes, and counsellors often discover themselves occupied in individual counselling within the group. On the other hand in big groups the intimacy and comfort diminishes and groups become less personal and more mechanical in their procedure. Superior groups also augment the risks that some members may be inadvertently overlooked to the extent that their needs are not satisfied.

Group Procedure

The elements of the group counselling procedure share much in general with those of individual counselling. These may be separated into their logical sequence of occurrence.

The Establishment of the Group

The initial group time is used to acquaint the new group membership with the format and processes of the group, to orient them to such practical thoughts as frequency of meetings, duration of group, and length of group meeting time. Additionally the beginning session is used to initiate relationships and open communications in the middle of the participants. The counsellor also may use beginning sessions to answer questions that clarify the purpose and processes of the group.

The establishment of the group is a time to further prepare members for meaningful group participation and to set a positive and promising group climate. The group counsellor necessarily keep in mind that in the initial group sessions the common climate of the group may be a mixture of uncertainty, anxiety, and awkwardness.

It is not un-general for group members to be unfamiliar with one another and uncertain concerning the procedure and expectancies of the group regardless of previous explanations or the establishing of ground rules.

It is significant in this initial stage of group establishment for the leader to take enough time to ensure that all the groups' members have their questions and concerns addressed; that they understand the procedure and begin to feel comfortable in the group. Of course, the impression that the group counsellor creates in this initial stage is of utmost importance to the smooth and successful procedure of the group.

Identification: Group Role and Goal

Once an appropriate climate has been recognised that at least facilitates a level of discussion, the group may then move towards a second, separate stage: identification. In this stage, the group identity unfolds, the identification of individual roles emerges, and group and individual goals are recognised jointly through the counsellor and group members and are made operational. All these develop simultaneously at this stage of the group counselling procedure.

The early identification of goals in group counselling facilitates the group's movement towards a meaningful procedure and outcomes. Goals are stated in objectives that are not only measurable but are also attainable and observable and are likely to be realised in view of the group strategies planned. It is also significant in this procedure that the sub-goals of each individual group member is recognised and responded to in turn. Counsellors need to be aware of the probable, or at least possible, disagreement and confrontation that may emerge throughout this stage of the group's development. Yalom (2005) labels this second stage "the disagreement, dominance, rebellion stage." He considers it a time when the group shifts from preoccupation with acceptance, approval, commitment to the group, definitions of accepted behaviour, and the search for orientation, structure, and meaning, to a preoccupation with dominance, control, and power. The disagreement characteristic of this stage is in the middle of members or flanked by members and leader. Each member attempts to set up his or her preferred amount of initiative and power. Slowly a control hierarchy, a social pecking order, emerges.

As members effort new patterns of behaviour and new approaches to group goals, dissimilar perceptions as well as differences in solutions generated through the individual members may lead to a range of behaviours from normal discussions to active and open confrontation. In this stage, the counsellor needs to stay the discussions relevant and prevent them group members from making personal attacks on individuals' values and integrity. The counsellor should also remain alert to the possibility that silence of sure group member may be a signal of resistance rather than group compliance.

At this stage the group members might express their dissatisfaction with the group procedure or leadership when controversial issues are discussed or when there is a variation flanked by the method a group member sees himself or herself and the method the group stereotypes the individual, leading to the member's demanding the reactions or impressions of the rest of the group. Though, when conflicts and confrontations happen, a more cohesive group usually emerges, resulting in increased openness in communication, consensual group action and cooperation, and mutual support in the middle of the members.

Productivity

As the group achieves some degree of stability in its pattern of behaving, and the members become more deeply committed to the group, and ready to reveal more of themselves and their troubles productivity procedure begins. This sets the stage for problem clarification and exploration, usually followed

through an examination of possible solutions. In this regard, the group counsellor clarifies the individual and group concern. This clarification comprises a thorough understanding of the nature of the problem and its causes. After that beside with the group members the counsellor identifies what the group desires to accomplish, examines all possible solutions in conditions of their consequences and also whether it is capable of being realised (obtainable). Finally the group members employ the chosen solution to achieve the desired outcomes. In this whole procedure, through making their own decisions members set up their ownership of the problem and the chosen solution.

Realization

Through the time group members reach this stage they recognise the inappropriateness of their past behaviours and begin to attempt out the selected solutions or new behaviours, making progress towards realising their individual goals. They take responsibility of acting on their own decisions. The counsellor at this point encourages the sharing of individual experiences and goal attainment both inside and outside the group. Although success with the new behaviours may give enough reinforcement for several members to continue, for others a support base of important others outside the group needs to be urbanised in order to help them uphold the change once the counselling group is terminated.

Termination

Termination may be determined through the counsellor or through the group members and the counsellor jointly'. Termination, like all other stages of the group counselling experience, requires ability and scheduling through the counsellor. It is mainly appropriate when the group goals and the goals of the individual members have been achieved and new behaviours or leanings have been put into practice in everyday life outside the group.

At times the group members resist termination of a counselling group and continue indefinitely as the counselling group gives a base for interpersonal relationships, open communication, trust, and support. Therefore it becomes significant that from the very beginning the group counsellor keeps on emphasizing the temporary nature of the group and set up, if appropriate, specific time limitations and reminds the group, of the impending termination as the time approaches.

Under less favourable circumstances, groups may be terminated when their continuation promises to be non-productive or harmful, or when group progress is slow and extensive-term continuation might make in excess of dependency on the group through its members. The point of termination is a time for review and summary through both counsellor and clients. Some groups will need time to allow members to work through their feelings in relation to the termination. Even though strong ties may have urbanised beside with pressures from the group to extend the termination time, those pressures necessity be resisted, and the group necessity be firmly, though gently, moved towards the inevitable termination.

Group Leaders of Dissimilar Theoretical Stance

In groups led through counsellors with a *psychoanalytic* theoretical orientation, the counsellor understands that within the group context each member re-experiences emotionally and repeats behaviourally his/her early childhood experiences and needs that were not met. They attempt to discover satisfaction in the group through in much the similar method they tried earlier and failed.

The psychoanalytic group leader teaches the individuals “how” to satisfy the needs in an appropriate and effective method. The leader is also sensitive to the phenomena of group transference as a whole and individual transference occurring simultaneously within the group. The counsellor interprets transference and resistances in order to free the client’s unconscious. The analysis, focus on the behaviour of both the individual members of the group and/or the behaviour of the group as a whole.

The Behavioural Counsellor

The *behavioural* counsellor in the group setting proceeds to systematically identify the members’ troubles in behavioural conditions and set up behavioural objectives for members. Behavioural objectives are accomplished either through modeling or reinforcement paradigm. The group gives rich behavioural possessions and the group leader identifies new appropriate behaviour which may be beneficial for group members and help the members of the group to learn productive behaviour through observing (modeling) other members of the group or the leader himself.

In Behaviourally oriented group, groups are also used to dispense reinforcement. Peer pressure is used either to encourage or discourage sure specified behaviours. Behavioural group leader may help the members learn to provide or withheld reinforcement’s thereby making the consequences of an individual’s behaviour dependent on the group as well as on the individual. This is recognised as group contingencies. This practice teaches the value of cooperation to group members.

The Rational Emotive Therapist

In group counselling the *rational-emotive* therapist, is prominent in promoting client change. Within the group, members help each other in identifying illogical, emotionally driven behaviours and the counsellor seeks to bring in relation to the cognitive and rational behaviour change through cause, persuasion, role-playing, and so forth.

Gestalt Therapist

Gestalt therapy focuses on the integration of the person “getting it all jointly”. It emphasizes that a person’s experiences form a meaningful whole when there is a smooth transition flanked by those set of experiences which are immediately within the focus of awareness (figure) and those that are in the background. The

gestalt group, work towards this end through by some member's perceptions of themselves and others as catalyst for changing other member's cognition of themselves and others in the group.

Cognitive Therapist

Cognitive oriented group leader perceives that the group setting gives diverse emotional, social, and intellectual opportunities to the group member for enriched experiences. Group interactions augment their skill to use their logical processes in order to arrive at a better understanding of the world and of themselves.

Similarities: Individual and Group Counselling

The objectives of both techniques are similar, *i.e.*, helping the counselee achieve self integration, self-direction and responsibility. In both the techniques the counsellor presents an accepting, permissive climate for the clients to participate freely such that their defences are reduced. Both techniques aim at clarifying feelings, restatement of content, and the like. The counsellor helps the client to become aware of their feelings and attitudes and also to look at them. Both approaches give for privacy and confidentiality of connection.

Differences: Individual and Group Counselling

Individualised counselling is a one to one, face to face connection marked through intimacy, warmth and rapport flanked by the counsellor and counselee. In group counselling there is the physical proximity of other members with perhaps similar troubles.

The client may obtain solace from the knowledge that he is not only one with troubles and that there are others who have similar troubles. In group counselling unlike in individualised counselling, the counselees not only receive help but also provide help to others. The more cohesive the group, the more are the members able to help one another. This cooperative feeling brings the members closer, which in turn helps in facilitating the mutual expression of feelings. The counselor's task is somewhat more intricate in group counselling. He has not only to follow sense and appreciate what a member says but also how this affects other members and their reactions. The counsellor in a group counselling situation has more demands to meet and satisfy.

USE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS IN GUIDANCE

Tests are normally used in guidance to collect information about individuals, and use that information to appraise the individual. The guidance counsellor will use test and non-test data appraisal. A guidance counsellor should, therefore, have a good understanding of the general field of measurement. Before we proceed to discuss in detail how tests are used in guidance, it is necessary for us to appreciate the need for testing.

Essentially, the need for testing in guidance is two-fold:

- Firstly, testing is supposed to be a more systematic, objective, precise and valid set of evaluations than is provided by the experience of an individual. Given test data, we can verify, reject or modify, previously held convictions about an individual.
- Secondly, testing provides new information about the quality of an individual's future performance in new situations, or information that is difficult for the individual to extract from prior experience. The overriding assumption in using psychological tests in guidance is that options appear for the individual, and the student must make his/her own decisions and live with them. It is hoped that testing may afford useful information that he/she does not already have, and which can be used in his/her decision-making.

Appraisal using Test Score Information

Appraisal is crucial to the use of test score information in guidance. The guidance counsellor uses test score information to appraise his/her clients as follows:

- Guidance counsellors use tests and other data to determine each student's abilities, aptitudes, interests and other personal characteristics, in order to help the student gain self-understanding. Tests can also help each student increase the accuracy of self-estimates of achievement, intelligence and interests. Tests and other appraisal data can help the guidance counsellor to understand the student better. Such data can help the student to plan and make realistic decisions, because the individual understands his/her personal characteristics well. If guidance is conceived as a developmental process, then providing a student with the results of ability, achievement, interest and personality tests, followed by a discussion of these results with a counsellor, will ensure that the student is aware of his/her present standing and progress in these areas, and that he/she will be capable of putting himself/herself in a dynamic framework. He/she will be encouraged to think of life as involving making many decisions, some of which can be approached in a rational manner by weighing up alternatives based on accurate self-knowledge.
- A guidance counsellor uses appraisal data (test or non-test) to assist students in educational and vocational planning. Tests and other data can help the counsellor to understand a student's strengths and limitations with regard to personal characteristics. By using tests and interpretative devices like expectancy tables and 'regression equations', the student is helped to see the relationship between present levels of performance and educational decision, and his/her future chances of educational and occupational success.
- Guidance counsellors use appraisal data to diagnose students' problems. Such problems as reading disability, study skills deficiencies, and

difficulties in relating to other people, may be identified more precisely, and solutions determined, with the use of test data.

- Lastly, tests are used to evaluate the outcomes of a guidance programme. It is important that any guidance programme be evaluated to find out whether the programme is achieving its objectives or not.

Student appraisal is frequently conceived in a very limited sense, as telling what someone is like from test scores. Appraisal is better seen as arriving at a systematic understanding of an individual's characteristics, within the context of his/her life pattern. Appraisal involves the ability to interpret information accurately. It is not merely the practice of measuring the presence or extent of human attributes or characteristics. It also calls for judgement of their strengths, desirability or unity.

The student appraisal services, as a part of guidance, are designed to gather and collate data about each student, for the purpose of helping him/her carry out his/her plans, and improve in areas where he/she is deficient, and to identify rapidly any difficulties which may interfere with the student's growth. This collection of data should never be intended to be used against the student, but rather for his benefit. A good appraisal service should be integrated, continuous and useful. An integrated appraisal means that it includes a variety of both test and non-test information, for example, the results of aptitude, intelligence tests and achievement tests, autobiographical information, questionnaires, interest inventories and occupational tests. The integrated information will enable the guidance counsellor to have a wider and more accurate picture of the student.

For appraisal to be meaningful, it must be continuous from year to year, recording the student's progress in school, the changes observed by the teacher, his/her attitudes, interests, *etc.* The data collected should be translated into some practical application—the useful aspect of appraisal. Data collected should be put to work for the benefit of the student. They should not be allowed to collect dust in the counsellor's office. A good appraisal programme is always student-oriented.

When putting the collected information to use, the counsellor must guard him/herself against indiscriminate release of the information to outside agencies, or others who have no interest in the student's welfare. The privacy of the appraisal information should be maintained. However, the counsellor can release information which is of an unrestricted nature, such as name, sex, age, race and school attended. Confidential information such as the psychological report, psychiatric evaluation or anything that is personal, should not be released to unauthorised persons. The counsellor must therefore have a clear understanding of what information he/she is entitled to release, and which information is prohibited or discretionary.

Guidelines on the use of Information Gathered

Assuming that the guidance counsellor has safeguarded the privacy of information, how can he/she put it to a constructive use? How does he/she make it useful? The following are some guidelines:

- The guidance counsellor must evaluate the information as a whole, and never rely on a single piece of information. Any piece of information must be assessed in terms of all the information available.
- The guidance counsellor must use his/her interpretative skills in evaluating information instead of accepting it at face value. The counsellor may apply his/her psychological skills and insight in evaluating subjective information and statistical skills when evaluating objective test results.
- In sharing information with other members of the counselling team or school staff, the counsellor assumes full responsibility for the use made of information. In other words, the counsellor is the guardian of information on the student.
- The counsellor should attempt, in his/her interaction with student (clients), to integrate the information he has into the interview.

Despite the sentiments expressed by many that testing is just another instance of depersonalisation, testing is an integral part of the counsellor's specialised appraisal skills. Although testing and evaluation are at times abused, they serve as an integral part of the counsellor's resources. Testing helps the counsellor to identify those students or clients who are most in need of help, remedial, or other forms of guidance. Through testing, the counsellor is able to obtain information about his/her client that is inaccessible through a face-to-face interview, or consultation with teachers, parents and other interested parties.

CLASSIFICATION OF TESTS

The goal of assessment is to help Counsellors to develop an understanding of the client or an individual. By using assessment and appraisal procedures, you will be able to gain understanding of the individual and in turn foster individual's understanding himself or herself. In this sense, you will appreciate that assessment and appraisal processes and procedures are the means of obtaining comprehensive understanding of students thereby fulfilling the goal of Counselling.

It is essential that, you need to be familiar with the major tools and techniques of assessment, the purpose for which they are used and how the information provided by these can be used in understanding the individual. Psychological testing is one of the ways of assessment. The selection of any tool whether quantitative or qualitative depends on the type of information the Counsellor is interested in gathering. In most cases both are required to be used for holistic assessment and appraisal. In this unit, you will read about psychological tests, which are the tools for quantitative assessment.

Psychological tests are designed to assess the characteristics of people such as their abilities, attitudes, motivations, interests, needs and values and so on. Psychological test can be defined as a sample of an individual's, behaviour, obtained under standard conditions and scored according to a fixed set of rules that provide a numeric score. In a standardised test, individual scores are compared with a norm or standard arrived at on the basis of performance of

sample of individuals of the same age or grade level from around the country who took the same test when it was first developed. Good standardised tests are the result of years of research. Tests may take many forms. Usually, they comprise of a series of items/questions with well-defined correct answers such as in case of tests of intelligence or achievement, while others such as personality inventories, do not have right or wrong answers, but are designed to assess person's pre-dispositions, tendencies and preferences.

Tests can be used to compare the same individual on two or more traits and also compare two or more individuals on the same trait. Such an assessment is usually quantitative. Although most of the psychological tests provide relatively objective and quantifiable scores such as tests of intelligence abilities/aptitudes.

Some other tests may also provide descriptive and qualitative interpretations. A standard test has a manual which provides complete information of how the test was developed, evidence of its consistency, accuracy and objectivity. It also consists of detailed instructions for administering, scoring, interpreting the test, its uses and possible misuses.

The test manual thus, provides you the requisite information to allow you to make an informed judgement as to whether the test is suitable for your use. Besides, the requirement to select the appropriate psychological test, a Counsellor needs to develop various skills in test administration, scoring, interpretation and communicating results to clients.

The following part will describe some type of tests and the purpose for which they are used. Psychological tests are classified into different types depending on their content and the way they are administered.

Tests vary in their content depending on the aspect of behaviour that is assessed, for example, some tests are designed to assess abilities, others assess motivation, personality characteristics, *etc.* Psychological tests are also classified into individual and group tests, verbal tests and non-verbal tests and performance tests. Let us discuss one by one quantitative methods and techniques.

INTELLIGENCE TESTS

Intelligence has been one of the most popular psychological terms used in identifying individual differences. It has helped to explain that people differ from each other in their ability to understand complex ideas or to learn from experience. Different theorists have tried to explain intelligence in different ways following different approaches. Theories by Binet, Weschler Spearman and Thustone are based on the psychometric approach where intelligence is considered as an aggregate of abilities.

It is expressed in terms of a single index of abilities. Howard Gardener's theory of multiple intelligences puts forth that intelligence is not a single entity and there exists multiple intelligences, each distinct from others. There are nine distinct intelligences that are relatively independent of each other. These different types of intelligences interact and work together to provide a solution of a problem.

The nine types of intelligences proposed by Gardener are briefly discussed below:

- *Linguistic Intelligence*: The capacity to use language fluently and flexibly, to express one's thinking and understanding others. Used in reading a book, writing a paper, a novel or a poem; and understanding spoken words. Poets and writers exhibit this ability.
- *Logical Mathematical Intelligence*: Thinking logically, critically, using abstract reasoning to manipulate symbols and solve mathematical problems.
- *Spatial Intelligence*: Abilities involved in forming, using and transforming mental images. Used in getting from one place to another, in reading a map, and in packing suitcase in the trunk of a car so that they all fit into a compact space. Pilots, sailors, interior decorators, surgeons, fashion designers generally exhibit this ability.
- *Musical Intelligence*: Capacity to produce, create and manipulate musical patterns. Used in singing a song, composing a sonata, playing a trumpet or even appreciating the structure of a piece of music.
- *Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence*: Ability to use one's body and muscle structure in a coordinated planned way. Used in dancing, playing basket ball, running a mile or throwing a javeline. Athletes, dancers, actors, gymnasts, sports person, surgeon exhibit this more than others.
- *Interpersonal Intelligence*: Used in relating to other people, such as when we try to understand another person's behaviour, motives or emotions, Counsellors, psychologists, politicians, social workers, religious leaders are shown to be high on this ability.
- *Intrapersonal Intelligence*: Knowledge of one's internal strengths and limitations and using that knowledge to relate to others.
- *Naturalistic Intelligence*: Complete awareness to our relationship with the natural world, useful in recognising the beauty of different species of flora and fauna and making a distinction in the natural world.
- *Existential Intelligence*: Can be defined as the ability to be sensitive to, or have the capacity for, conceptualising or tackling deeper or larger questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why are we born, why do you die, what is consciousness or how did we get here.

The multiple intelligences approach focuses on ways in which people can be intelligent. Theorists have also tried to explain intelligence in terms of information processing approach wherein the focus is on how an intelligent person thinks, acts and solves problems.

Sternberg's information processing approach focuses on how solutions are arrived. The critical aspect of what constitutes intelligence is not necessarily the speed with which one arrives at a solution but the processes one uses. Processing information quickly does not mean it was done accurately or correctly. A relative rather than an impulsive style of problem solving has been associated with higher ability to solve problems. Jumping to conclusions without adequate reflection can lead to erroneous thinking.

The notion of emotional intelligence broadens the concept of intelligence and involves:

- Perceiving or sensing emotions,
- Using emotion to assist thoughts,
- Understanding emotions, and
- Managing emotions.

The concept of IQ dominated intelligence testing for a long time. With the emerging view of intelligence as multifaceted, the concept of intelligence as a single unitary ability or a composite of scores on different abilities is not considered valid.

The concept of IQ has been found to be misleading. As Counsellors, the focus should be on a holistic assessment focusing on strengths and weaknesses of the client. This would help to plan remedial measures for intervention. The multiple intelligences approach is an alternative approach to assessment of intelligence.

It emphasises a variety of abilities and skills (and not just an aggregate of mental abilities), which are required for success in life situations. As the meaning of intelligence differs from one culture to another there is a need to understand the cultural context for measuring intelligence. Even though tests of intelligence assist Counsellors and other personnel in providing a view of the clients abilities, the scores of these tests need to be used with caution.

INTEREST INVENTORIES

In order to help students make vocational and educational choices, the Counsellor needs to know his/her interest for activities. The study of interest would help you as Counsellor to better understand the students in terms of his/her likes and dislikes.

In this section, you will learn about the concept of interest and its assessment. You might have observed in your class that some students show more inclination to mathematics, while others in computers, some in literary activities, in painting, *etc.* Interest is an expression of our likes and dislikes or our attractions or aversions. An individual chooses the most acceptable, suitable alternative out of many, go after preferred objectives, activities, *etc.*, and consequently desires satisfaction, success and happiness out of the activities selected. It is because of his or her natural liking for these activities over others. Interest refers to activities that an individual likes to engage in and enjoys.

Types of Interest

Interest can be classified in different ways.

Super classified interest as:

- Expressed
- Manifest or observed and
- Measure or tested.

Interest testing is done to achieve some purpose such as:

- To provide teachers and Counsellors with information regarding the students preference and aversions which will help them acquire better understanding of students and their problems.
- To enable teachers, Counsellors and parents to assist the testes to prepare his educational and vocational terms consistent with his interest.
- To help in the selection of the right person for the right work, and thus same frustration, unhappiness and disappointment in the live of the individuals and increase productive capacity of individual.

We can use:

- Formal assessment techniques and
- Informal assessment techniques to discover a student's interest.

Formal Assessment Techniques

Interest inventories are formal techniques for measuring interests. They are considered more reliable at discovering on individuals interest than interviews as the inventories address a large number of questions representing a broad range of carriers.

There are many inventories now in use and majority of them deal with occupational interest.

Interest Inventories

The Strong Vocational Interest Bank (SVIS) and Kuder preference Record (KPR) are significant milestones in the area of interest measurement and a number of revisions of the original forms have been undertaken. Both the interest inventories however better in terms of approaches in construction and purpose for which they are used.

The SVIB is based on the assumption that a person who has the interest typical of successful people in a given occupation will enjoy and find satisfaction in that occupation. The KPR constructed by G. Frederic Kuder, assesses preferences for specific activities.

Each item contains three choices. The subject has to select one of the three choices as his first choice, and another as his third choice.

An example of the choices given in an item are:

- Build bird houses
- Write articles about birds
- Drawn sketches of birds.

This particular item aims to test three types of interests, namely mechanical, literacy and an artistic. The main difference in the two types of inventories is that in Kuder preference record the subject is forced to say which one of the three activities he likes best and which one he likes least, even though he may not like any of the that, hence it is called forced choice pattern type. In Strong Vocational Interest blank, the subject has to differentiate between L (like), I (indifferent) or D (dislike).

Hence it is called category-response type of assessment. As Counsellor if you want a description of a persons so that inferences could be done regarding suitability for one of the very large number of jobs, Kuder Preference Record is your preferable tool of interest assessment.

On the other hand if the purpose is to appraise the individually interest for a limited number of specific jobs, then strong Vocational Interest Blank is more useful. It is important to remember that the SVIB and KPR tell nothing about the ability or aptitude of an individual. These to be assessed by other methods.

Results of interest inventories or tests are particularly useful to the Counsellor as:

- The items of interest inventories are non-threatening and so the student is more likely to respond honestly.
- The student, with the assistance of the Counsellor, is helped to see the discrepancy, if any, between his/her view of one's interests and those assessed by the interest inventories.
- It also provides the counsellor a view into whether the clients expressed interests are shifted to what s/he is pursuing.

You have read about two distinct types of interest inventories. Besides, these two, some tools are available and used by the Counsellor and the individual her/himself.

Informal Assessment Techniques

It includes client's expression of interests and observation. The clients interviews regarding his/her interests provide the Counsellor a good beginning for understanding the client. For example, the books s/he reads, and the amount of time spent on reading provides on indication of clients interests on the kind of reading s/he does. As Counsellors you can supplement this information by using qualitative techniques of assessment such as observation of the activities a client participates in or information gathered from anecdotal records and written works as sources informal information regarding client interests.

Cautions on the use of Interest Inventories

As Counsellor, you should keep in the following cautions in mind while using the results of interest inventories.

- Interest data of an individual provides a profile of the pattern of their interests (what they like doing) and should not be taken as the strength of the individual).
- Interest results tell us only about the likelihood of an individual finding enjoyment in a particular type of activity or occupation and not s/he is capable of.
- A high score on an interest inventory so should not be considered analogues to success in a career.

It is important to remember interests indicate the clients and not his or her strength. The emphasis of interest inventories is on self-exploration. One should

know about one self and be able to relate this information to what one is doing. Thus the results of interest inventories should not be seen in an isolate manner but should be supplemented with information from other techniques such as observation, interview, informal talk, *etc.*, interest results are of little value themselves. They should be considered with achievement and aptitude scores to help individuals make educational and career choices.

NON-TESTING TECHNIQUES OF GUIDANCE

OBSERVATION

Combined with a good method of recording, the observation is a good techniques of obtaining information about the student. Special stress should laid on an understanding of the dynamics of human behaviour. Every item of information should be interpreted in the light of the total picture presented by the individual data.

INTERVIEW

It is used to elicit predetermined kinds of information for define purpose; such of the intensity of an interviewer's attitudes towards persons and situations which he can not or will not reveal in writing or in response to formalised questions. Interview can also be used to obtain information concerning relationships with other persons and about activities that are carried out with them. It permits flexibility, clarification and explanation of certain points. It provides an opportunity for observation to the sensitive and trained eye of the observer. It helps the observer to collect information to study and to understand the student better.

QUESTIONNAIRE

It may be used to obtain quick meaningful information about the student. It can be of great help in collecting general information about the student, his needs and problems and the adjustment difficulty he may be facing.

ANECDOTAL RECORD

It includes a description of the student's conduct and personality in terms of frequent, brief, concrete observations of the students made and recorded by teachers, Counselling officer, administrator, *etc.*, summarised chronologically these observations presents a fair account of the personality of the student. It can reveal valuable information about the students attitude towards work, how serious he is at class-work, how difficult does he find to concentrate, how hard-working he is, how does he adjust with his peers and teachers, what are his reactions to the institution.

CASE STUDY

It is a techniques of collecting comprehensive information regarding the student, his surroundings and his behaviour, sequence of his development in

different areas like emotional, social, intellectual and personal. It brings together the information collected by the other tools and techniques in such a manner that these data can be systematically reviewed and analysed and clinical weight age given to them.

CASE CONFERENCE

Organised by the co-operative effort of the psychologist, the Counselling officer and the teacher it seeks to help an individual student to realise his full potentiality. It coordinates the psychologist's study of the student, Counselling officer's understanding and the teacher's practical experience with his behaviour in the class. Each one of the three types of information acquires a unique new meaning through case conference which helps the individual workers to develop new insights.

SOCIAL WORK COUNSELLING TECHNIQUES

Every social worker uses techniques that are favourable to her or his personality. Generally, all social workers are trained in a few key skills, transferable over agencies and geography. These are primarily relational skills, vital for helping clients achieve the goals they set with the social worker.

Techniques vary, depending on their application. One uses different methods with an individual client or group than in the process of community organizing.

STARTING AT THE BEGINNING

Social workers are those who are devoted to helping people function as well as they can in their own environments and changing environments to make that possible. When a social worker first meets a counselling client, there is an initial period of establishing the working relationship.

The social worker builds trust by actively listening, asking responsive questions and following up with comments the client makes. The counselor and client both agree: As suggested, work together for change. This is called the beginning phase.

WORKING THROUGH THE MIDDLE

As trust is established, the real "work" gets done. The social worker may employ methods of psychotherapy which involve the client talking through questions, concerns or circumstances in which the social worker gives feedback, continues asking responsive questions, and helps the client "hear his or her own thoughts" by reframing back to the client what he or she shared.

Techniques such as role-playing, representative drawing, or reframing are helpful tools the social worker uses. Other skills that help clients learn to manage their feelings are reaching inside of silences, displaying understanding of the client's feelings and modeling by the social worker sharing his or her feelings. Social workers also employ techniques such as partializing concerns, to help break down a complex problem into more manageable pieces, or supporting a client by extending permission in areas that were seen as "taboo" for the client.

TRANSITIONING TO THE END

As the work between social worker and client is finishing, the social worker will employ methods to help transition the client to new experiences such as closing the relationship, celebratory activities and looking back over the process through talking, memory books, timeline drawings or other creative tools to help the client remember the skills he or she now possesses. These closure activities prepare the client to move into new environments more successfully as a result of the sense of support from the counselling experience.

COUNSELLING SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES

Counselling becomes an attractive and necessary option when people find themselves unable to handle the speed and complexity of modern life. Counselors use several different techniques—such as closed and open-ended questions, active listening and paraphrasing—to evaluate the situation, while searching for ways to change the behaviour. In other cases, the counselor may have to use more aggressive methods to break a client's limited thought patterns.

OPEN-ENDED AND CLOSED QUESTIONS

Learning how to draw clients out through open-ended and closed questions is an important tool in a counselor's arsenal. Open-ended questions require no "correct" answer, and are especially useful in helping to elicit information. The closed question, on the other hand, is better suited to getting short, succinct answers to basic questions, or when the counselor senses the need to bring chatty clients back on track.

RECORDING A THOUGHT JOURNAL

Cognitive behavioural therapists will ask clients to put down their thoughts in a journal. This stems from a belief that thoughts cause feelings and emotions. Clients are typically asked to write down whatever situations they encounter, summarize their feelings on a scale of 0 to 100, and identify what caused them. Over time, it should become possible to categorize certain thoughts, and develop ways to counter or replace them.

ACTIVE LISTENING

In this technique, the counselor makes a point of saying little, while conveying attentiveness, empathy and acceptance. The counselor focuses on the client's body language, phraseology and speech style to gain a deeper insight into particular behaviours. If the client is not talkative, the counselor may have to ask more open-ended questions to help them make a proper assessment.

PARAPHRASING

Sometimes it becomes necessary to paraphrase, or succinctly restate what the counselor believes the client has just said, to ensure that the situation is understood correctly. This technique is considered particularly helpful in eliminating or reducing

the importance of extraneous material that may cloud the counselor's assessment of the situation. Moderation in vocal tone is essential to making this technique work. Often, the way things are said is remembered longer than how they were said.

IDENTIFYING LIMITED THOUGHT PATTERNS

Counselors learn to recognize patterns of limited thinking that may prevent clients from living to their full potential which identifies eight different ways that this can happen. Filtering, for example, is characterized by an overemphasis on negative experiences to the exclusion of positive ones. By identifying these types of thought patterns, and showing how they impact the client, the counselor hopes to make a breakthrough and change the behaviour.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COUNSELLING AND SOCIAL WORK

Social work and counselling share a number of commonalities, but they represent distinct academic and professional disciplines. Social work may involve counselling, and counselors may work closely with social workers or be social workers themselves. Though social work and counselling provide valuable social and individual benefits, the terms cannot be used interchangeably.

ACADEMIC REQUIREMENTS

One difference lies in professional, academic and licensing requirements for each. Licensing regulations and professional standards often vary state to state, but there are some generalizable distinctions.

Social workers are often required to obtain a master's degree, such as a Master of Social Work. However, some social workers may be trained in some area of social work without an advanced degree. Counselors may pursue any number of academic degrees, including a Ph.D. in psychology, a Psy.D. in psychiatry, or a master's in counselling. Both social workers and counselors must be licensed, but different entities oversee the licensing procedure.

MENTAL HEALTH

Both occupations deal in the field of mental health, among other concerns, but counselors are more specifically focused on mental hygiene issues. There are many types of counselling, but counselling is in general more closely associated with the medical profession. A psychiatrist, one kind of counselor, is even authorized to write medical prescriptions.

FOCUS

Social work engages with a wide range of issues and problems. Social workers may deal with substance abuse, poverty, housing, parent-child issues, the foster care system and other areas. Counselling is similar in that it also deals with a variety of problems. People may seek counselling for personal or marital problems, post-traumatic stress disorder, anxiety or depression, family strife and other issues.

PUBLIC VS. PRIVATE

One distinction is the focus on public versus private issues. Social work, as the name implies, is oriented towards society. It engages with people on the individual level to better society as a whole. Trained social workers administer needed social services.

Social workers are almost invariably employed in the public sector. Counselors may be publicly and privately employed, usually privately. Frequently, counselling involves delving into a person's emotional depths in order to resolve fundamental problems.

6

Counselling and Psychotherapy

DEFINITIONS OF COUNSELLING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY

There are many different definitions of psychotherapy, none of which is precise. James Prochaska and John Norcross have chosen to use the following working definition of psychotherapy: “Psychotherapy is the informed and intentional application of clinical methods and interpersonal stances derived from established psychological principles for the purpose of assisting people to modify their behaviours, cognitions, emotions, and/or other personal characteristics in directions that the participants deem desirable”.

Similarly, there are also several possible definitions of Counselling. Christian psychologist Gary Collins has defined Counselling as “a relationship between two or more persons in which one person seeks to advise, encourage and/or assist another person or persons to deal more effectively with the problems of life”. He further states: “Unlike psychotherapy, Counselling rarely aims to radically alter or remold personality”. Some authors therefore try to differentiate Counselling and psychotherapy on a continuum, with psychotherapy dealing with deeper problems and seeking to significantly change personality. However, most authors in the mental health field today do not differentiate between Counselling and psychotherapy, agreeing with Charles Truax and Robert Carkhuff, who, years ago, already used the two terms interchangeably. In fact, C. H. Patterson emphatically asserts that no essential differences exist between Counselling and psychotherapy. This is the view I take in this textbook on Counselling and psychotherapy from a Christian perspective.

John Sommers-Flanagan and Rita Sommers-Flanagan also use Counselling and psychotherapy interchangeably and define it as a process that involves “*a trained person who practices the artful application of scientifically derived principles of establishing professional helping relationships with persons who seek assistance in resolving large or small psychological or relational problems. This is accomplished through ethically defined means and involves, in the broadest sense, some form of learning or human development*”.

PSYCHOTHERAPY AND PSYCHOLOGICAL TREATMENTS

More recently, David Barlow has attempted to differentiate psychotherapy from psychological treatments, which may add more confusion rather than clarity to the already diverse definitions available for Counselling and psychotherapy. He suggests that “psychological treatments” should refer to those dealing primarily with pathology, while “psychotherapy” should refer to treatments that address adjustment or growth.

Psychological treatments are therefore those that are clearly compatible with the objectives of health-care systems that address pathology. He further stresses that the two activities of psychological treatment and psychotherapy would not be distinguished based on theory, technique, or evidence, but only on the problems they deal with.

He is aware that these are controversial recommendations. However, I believe Barlow’s recommendation is not only controversial, but it is also potentially confusing and may not really help to clarify the definition of terms. Examples of psychological treatments provided by Barlow include “*assertive community treatment, cognitive-behavioural therapy, community reinforcement approaches, dialectical behaviour therapy, family focused therapy, motivational interviewing, multisystemic interpersonal therapy, parent training* (for externalising disorders in children), *personal therapy for schizophrenia*, and *stress and pain management procedures*”.

We can see that many of these examples of psychological treatments are already part and parcel of Counselling and psychotherapy.

OVERVIEW OF COUNSELLING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY: THEORY

Although over four hundred varieties of Counselling and psychotherapy presently exist, most of them can be subsumed under the major schools of Counselling and psychotherapy that are usually covered in textbooks in this field of people-helping.

There are ten to twelve major ones, depending on the author and the text. In this book the following ten major theoretical approaches to Counselling and psychotherapy will be covered in some detail, based on the theories and techniques developed by their founders and practitioners: psychoanalytic therapy, Adlerian therapy, Jungian therapy, existential therapy, person-centered therapy, Gestalt therapy, reality therapy, behaviour therapy, cognitive behaviour therapy and rational emotive behaviour therapy, and marital and family therapy.

Psychoanalytic Therapy

The key figure of psychoanalysis and psychoanalytic therapy is Sigmund Freud. He originated a theory of personality development focused on experiences in the first six years of life that determine the subsequent development of personality. Freudian or psychoanalytic theory emphasises unconscious factors, especially sexual and aggressive drives in motivating human behaviour. Psychoanalytic therapy employs techniques such as *free association* (allowing the client to say whatever comes to his or her mind without censorship); *dream analysis* (interpreting the latent or hidden meaning of the dream mainly through the use of symbols that have consistent significance for almost every person); and *analysis of transference* (when the client responds to the analyst or therapist as a significant person of authority from his or her life, thereby revealing childhood conflicts he or she has experienced).

The goal of psychoanalytic therapy is to help make the unconscious conscious and strengthen the ego. Contemporary versions of psychoanalytic therapy such as object-relations theory focus more on attachment and human relationship needs rather than on sexual and aggressive drives.

Adlerian Therapy

Alfred Adler founded Adlerian therapy, which was originally called individual psychology. Another major figure in this approach is Rudolph Dreikurs, who was responsible for making it better known in the United States. Adlerian therapy is based on a growth model of the human person. It emphasises the need for the client to take responsibility in making choices that help determine one's own destiny, and that provide meaning and direction for one's life. Adlerian therapy uses techniques such as *investigating the client's lifestyle or basic orientation towards life* by exploring birth order, early recollections from childhood years, and dreams; *asking "The Question"* ("What would be different if you were well?"); and *paradoxical intention* (encouraging clients to do or exaggerate the very behaviours they are attempting to avoid).

Jungian Therapy

The key figure of Jungian therapy, or analytical psychology, is Carl Jung. Jung's interest in mystical traditions led him to conclude that human beings have a significant and mysterious potential within their unconscious. He described both a personal unconscious as well as a collective unconscious.

Jungian therapy encourages clients to connect the conscious and unconscious aspects of their mind in constant dialogue, with the goal of individuation or becoming one's own person. Jungian therapy techniques include the extensive use of *dream analysis* and the *interpretation of symbols* in order to help clients recognise their *archetypes* (ordering or organising patterns in the unconscious). Examples of archetypal images include major ones such as the persona, the shadow, the anima and animus, and the Self, as well as others such as the earth mother, the hero, and the wise old man.

Existential Therapy

The key figures of existential therapy include Viktor Frankl, the founder of logotherapy; Rollo May; Ludwig Binswanger; Medard Boss; James Bugental; and Irvin Yalom. It focuses on helping clients experience their existence in an authentic, meaningful, and responsible way, encouraging them to freely choose or decide, so that they can create meaning in their lives.

Existential therapy therefore emphasises more the relationship and encounter between therapist and client rather than therapeutic techniques. Core life issues often dealt with in existential therapy include death, freedom, meaninglessness, isolation, and the need to be authentic and real in responsibly choosing one's values and approach to life. Existential therapists can be optimistic or pessimistic to the point of being nihilistic, and they include those who are religious as well as those who are antireligious.

Although techniques are not stressed in existential therapy, Frankl has developed several techniques in logotherapy, a particular approach to existential therapy. Some examples are *dereflection* (encouraging the client to ignore the problem and focus attention or awareness on something more pleasant or positive); *paradoxical intention* (asking the client to do or exaggerate the very behaviour he or she fears doing); and *modifying the client's attitudes or thinking* (especially about the past, which cannot be changed, so that more meaningful or hopeful ways of looking at things become the focus).

Person-Centered Therapy

Carl Rogers founded person-centered therapy, which was previously called non-directive Counselling or client-centered therapy. Person-centered therapy assumes that each person has a deep capacity for significant and positive growth when provided with the right environment and relationships. The client is trusted to lead in therapy and is free to discuss whatever he or she wishes.

Person-centered therapy is therefore not focused on problem solving but aims instead to help clients know who they are authentically and to become what Rogers calls "fully functioning" persons. Three therapeutic conditions are essential for facilitating client change and growth; these are the major person-centered therapy "relationship techniques": *congruence or genuineness*; *unconditional positive regard* (valuing the client with respect); and *accurate empathy* (empathic understanding of the client's perspective or internal frame of reference).

Gestalt Therapy

Frederick (Fritz) Perls and Laura Perls founded Gestalt therapy, an experiential therapy that emphasises increasing the client's awareness, especially of the here and now, and integration of body and mind. The Gestalt therapist assumes a very active role in helping clients become more aware so that they can solve their problems in their own way and time. Examples of Gestalt therapy techniques that

focus on doing include *dream work* that is experiential; *converting questions to statements*; *using personal nouns*; *assuming responsibility*; *the empty chair*; *exaggeration*; and *confrontation*.

Reality Therapy

William Glasser founded reality therapy, which focuses on the present and emphasises the client's strengths. It is based on choice theory as developed by Glasser, which asserts that people are responsible for choosing their own thinking and actions, which then directly influence their emotional and physiological functioning.

Choice theory also posits five basic needs of all human beings: survival, love and belonging, power, freedom, and fun. Reality therapy helps clients to become more responsible and realistic and therefore more successful in achieving their goals. Examples of reality therapy techniques include *structuring*; *confrontation*; *contracts*; *instruction*; *role playing*; *support*; *skillful questioning* (e. g., "Does your present behaviour enable you to get what you want now, and will it take you in the direction you want to go?"); and *emphasising choice* (e. g., by changing nouns and adjectives into verbs).

Behaviour Therapy

The key figures of behaviour therapy include Joseph Wolpe, Hans Eysenck, Arnold Lazarus, Albert Bandura, B. F. Skinner, and Donald Meichenbaum. Behaviour therapy applies not only the principles of learning but also experimental findings from scientific psychology to the treatment of particular behavioural disorders.

It is therefore an empirically based approach to therapy that is broadly social learning oriented in theory. Behaviour therapists view human beings as products of their environments and learning histories. The behaviour therapist plays an active and directive role in therapy. Behaviour therapy has developed many techniques that continue to be refined through systematic empirical research. Examples of therapeutic techniques used in behaviour therapy include *positive reinforcement* (reward for desirable behaviour); *assertiveness training* (role-playing with clients to help them learn to express their thoughts and feelings more freely); *systematic desensitisation* (pairing of a neutral or pleasant stimulus with one that has been conditioned to elicit fear or anxiety); and *flooding* (exposing the client to stimuli that elicit maximal anxiety for the purpose of eventually extinguishing the anxiety).

Cognitive Behaviour Therapy and Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy

The key figures of cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) and rational emotive behaviour therapy (REBT) are Aaron Beck, the founder of cognitive therapy (CT), and Albert Ellis, the founder of REBT. Donald Meichenbaum is also often noted as an important figure in CBT because he developed cognitive behaviour modification (CBM) and stress-inoculation training (SIT), which are

incorporated into CBT. Beck's CT approach focuses on how maladaptive and dysfunctional thinking affects feelings and behaviour. It attempts to help clients overcome emotional problems such as depression, anxiety, and anger by teaching them to identify, challenge, and modify errors in thinking or cognitive distortions.

Similarly, Ellis developed REBT as an active and directive approach to therapy that focuses on changing clients' irrational beliefs that are viewed as the root of emotional problems. CBT and REBT assume that clients have the capacity to change their maladaptive thinking and hence to change problem feelings and behaviours.

CBT and REBT employ a wide range of therapeutic techniques, many of which have been empirically supported by documented results or systematic research. Examples of CBT techniques include *coping skills training* (helping clients use cognitive and behavioural skills to cope more effectively with stressful situations); *cognitive restructuring* (helping clients to change or modify maladaptive, dysfunctional thoughts); and *problem solving* (helping clients to explore options and implement particular solutions to specific problems and challenges). Examples of REBT techniques include *use of the A-B-C theory of REBT* (A refers to Activating Events, B to Irrational Beliefs, and C to Consequences—emotional and/or behavioural—of such beliefs) and more specifically *keeping an A-B-C diary* of daily experiences; *disputation* (of irrational beliefs); and *action homework*.

Marital and Family Therapy

Marital and family therapy is an umbrella term referring to over twenty systemic therapies. The important figures in this approach include Salvador Minuchin, the founder of the *structural* approach; Jay Haley and the Milan Group, who developed the *strategic* approach; Murray Bowen, who developed family systems theory and transgenerational (multigenerational) family therapy; and Virginia Satir, who developed conjoint family therapy. More recently, Susan Johnson and Leslie Greenberg have become well known for their development of emotionally focused therapy for couples.

Other key figures include Nathan Ackerman, Carl Whittaker, Ivan Boszormenyi-Nagy, Steve de Shazer, Michael White, Neil Jacobsen, John Gottman, and Alan Gurman. Marital and family therapy approaches assume that the crucial factor in helping individuals to change is to understand and work with the interpersonal systems within which they live and function. In other words, the couple and the family must be considered in effective or efficacious therapy for individual problems as well as marital and family issues.

Examples of marital and family therapy techniques that seek to modify dysfunctional patterns of interaction in couples and families and effect therapeutic change include *reframing* (seeing problems in a more constructive or positive way); *boundary setting* (either to establish firmer limits or lines of separation or to build more flexible boundaries for deeper connection); *communication skills training*; *family sculpting* (asking a couple or family

members to physically put themselves in particular positions to reflect their family relationships); and constructing a *genogram* (a threegenerational family tree or history).

Counselling theory is important. It provides a framework of understanding and practice that guides the Counsellor and psychotherapist in their attempts to help clients. Every one of us has his or her own implicit, if not explicit, theory of Counselling. We may, or may not, be aware of our basic assumptions and views of how to best help people with their problems in living.

Kevin Fall, Janice Holden, and Andre Marquis have provided the following questions for clarifying and articulating one's theory of Counselling, which you may find useful in formulating your own theory, no matter how basic it may be:

- *Human nature:* Are people essentially good, evil, or neutral? How much of personality is inborn or determined by biological and/or other innate factors? Are there inborn drives, motives, tendencies, or other psychological or behavioural characteristics that all human beings have in common? How much of a person's individuality is determined by heredity or other innate factors?
- *Role of the environment in personality development:* How influential is one's physical and/or social environment in one's personality development, and how does the environment affect personality development?
- *Model of functionality:* What constitutes functionality/mental health or dysfunctionality/mental unhealth in an individual? How do innate and environmental factors interact in influencing a person's functioning, be it relatively healthy or unhealthy?
- *Personality change:* How does personality change after it is to some extent developed? What conditions are necessary but not alone sufficient for personality change to occur, and what conditions are both necessary and sufficient?

These are the kinds of questions we need to ask ourselves in reflecting on our own theory of Counselling. Combs has noted that many Counselling theorists value a theory of Counselling that is complete, clear, consistent, concrete, current, creative, and conscious, that is, that has the seven Cs.

OVERVIEW OF COUNSELLING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY: RESEARCH

Theory plays an important role in guiding the Counsellor or therapist in helping clients. However, every theory must be subjected to research to determine its truth or validity, as well as the efficacy and effectiveness of its applications in actual practice. Research is therefore another crucial dimension in the field of Counselling and psychotherapy. Scientific and systematic research on the processes and outcomes of Counselling and psychotherapy only began in the 1940s when Carl Rogers started recording his therapy sessions, which could subsequently be studied and evaluated. Since then, research in this field has mushroomed, although some controversies and issues still remain.

OVERVIEW OF COUNSELLING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY: PRACTICE

As suggested, briefly cover the following topics: primary theoretical orientations of Counsellors and psychotherapists in practice in the United States; major types of therapists or mental health practitioners and the settings in which they practice; several contemporary developments in the practice of Counselling and psychotherapy; and examples of major professional organisations and their Web sites for Counsellors and psychotherapists.

Primary Theoretical Orientations of Counsellors and Psychotherapists

Prochaska and Norcross have summarised the major findings from several surveys or studies of the self-identified primary theoretical orientations of clinical psychologists, Counselling psychologists, social workers, and Counsellors in the United States. The most popular theoretical orientation self-reported by most of these mental health professionals has been *eclectic/integrative therapy* (using theories and techniques from various approaches): 29 per cent of clinical psychologists, 34 per cent of Counselling psychologists, and 26 per cent of social workers.

However, *cognitive therapy* is self-reported as the primary theoretical orientation by 28 per cent of clinical psychologists and 29 per cent of Counsellors (the highest percentage for Counsellors). Only 23 per cent of Counsellors selected eclectic/integrative therapy as their primary theoretical orientation.

Judith Todd and Arthur Bohart note that while eclecticism is the most popular approach among practicing psychotherapists, cognitive therapies and theories are now the dominant therapeutic orientation in many professional contexts including university clinical psychology programmes.

Prochaska and Norcross have also summarised the main findings of a Delphi Poll they conducted with sixty-two expert panelists; its composite ratings indicate what will happen in the field of psychotherapy over the next ten years. In terms of primary theoretical orientations of the future, *cognitive behaviour therapy* was ranked first for the greatest increase over the next decade, followed closely by culture-sensitive/multicultural therapy, cognitive therapy (Beck), interpersonal therapy (IPT), technical eclecticism, theoretical integration, behaviour therapy, and systems/family systems therapy. There was also consensus that psychotherapy will become more directive, psychoeducational, technological, problem focused, and brief in the next ten years. One of the major predictions concerns the length of therapy: long-term therapy will significantly decrease, while short-term therapy will become predominant.

Major Types of Mental Health Practitioners and Practice Settings

There are over a dozen major types of mental health practitioners in the United States who may provide Counselling and psychotherapy.

Les Parrott lists the following:

- *Psychiatrists* are medical doctors who have specialised training in the diagnosis and treatment of mental disorders. They are qualified to prescribe

psychotropic medications and can practice Counselling and psychotherapy. Some psychiatrists have also been trained in psychoanalysis.

- *Psychoanalysts* have received advanced training of at least three years in Freudian psychoanalysis or some other more contemporary version of psychoanalysis at institutes of psychoanalytic training. Such training institutes often require their psychoanalytic trainees to be licensed psychologists or psychiatrists.
- *Clinical psychologists* are educated at the doctoral level (PhD, PsyD, or EdD), including internship training in psychological assessment and psychotherapy. They must be licensed in the state in which they practice.
- *Counselling psychologists* are usually educated at the doctoral level with internship training in helping people deal more effectively with their problems in living. Counselling psychologists also must be licensed to be in independent practice. They function very much like clinical psychologists do, except that Counselling psychologists tend to see clients with less severe psychopathology, although this is less often the case today than in the past.
- *School psychologists* are usually educated at the doctoral level to closely work with educators and others to facilitate the holistic development of children in school. They often assess and counsel children with different types of problems, as well as consult with teachers, parents, and other school staff.
- *Industrial/organisational psychologists* are educated at the doctoral level. They are involved in enhancing the effectiveness of organisations and helping to improve productivity and the well-being of employees as well as management staff.
- *Marriage and family therapists* are trained at the master's or doctoral level in marital and family therapy. In most states they must be licensed to practice as marriage, family, and child Counsellors (MFCC) or marital and family therapists (MFT).
- *Social workers* usually have a master's degree in social work. They also must be licensed in many states as clinical social workers in order to do individual as well as family Counselling and therapy.
- *Psychiatric nurses* have an associate's or baccalaureate degree, specialising in psychiatric services. A psychiatric nurse with a master's degree in nursing (MSN) and psychiatric/mental health certification can also do private practice.
- *Pastoral Counsellors* are ministers, usually with master's degrees in theology or divinity, who also have had special training and experience in Counselling from a spiritual perspective. Many of them have received training from a clinical pastoral education center in the United States, which has over 350 such centers.
- *Vocational Counsellors* have a master's degree that prepares them to counsel people in order to help them in their vocational choices and professional development.

- *Occupational Counsellors* have a bachelor's or master's degree and internship experience that prepares them to help people with physical challenges to make the best use of their resources.
- *School Counsellors* have an advanced degree in Counselling psychology and are involved in helping people with career and educational issues.
- *Substance-abuse Counsellors* have bachelor's or master's degrees and counsel people with alcohol and/or drug addictions or substance-abuse problems.
- *Paraprofessional or lay Counsellors* have limited training in Counselling but do not have advanced degrees in Counselling and are not licensed mental health professionals. They usually do their Counselling work under the supervision of a licensed mental health professional.

Another group of mental health practitioners not mentioned by Parrott (2003) is the category of *professional Counsellors* or *licensed professional Counsellors* (LPCs) with master's degrees in Counselling who have also been licensed in the state in which they practice. There are several major practice settings in which mental health professionals do Counselling and related work including: private practice, community mental health centers, hospitals, human service agencies, and schools and workplaces.

Some Contemporary Developments in Counselling and Psychotherapy

Several significant contemporary developments in Counselling and psychotherapy have occurred in recent years. Not surprisingly, given the computer and Internet revolution in this information age, one such development has been in the area of *technological applications and innovations*.

Examples include the use of computer technology in *virtual therapy*, in which virtual reality is used as a therapy intervention for the treatment of anxiety disorders. Psychotherapy can also be provided by telephone, videoconferencing, and videotelephone, in what has been called *telepsychotherapy*. Such therapies, of course, raise serious ethical and logistical issues, but such technological innovations in psychotherapy are here to stay.

Another contemporary development in clinical practice is the *integration of religion or spirituality and psychotherapy*. Since Allen E. Bergin published his seminal article on psychotherapy and religious values over three decades ago, religiously or spiritually oriented psychotherapy has become an important part of the current practice of Counselling and psychotherapy. More specifically, Christian approaches to therapy have further developed in recent years, and research findings so far have provided some support for the efficacy and effectiveness in actual clinical settings of Christian therapy.

Contemporary clinical practice has also been significantly impacted by multicultural perspectives, feminist therapy, and postmodern approaches such as narrative therapy, solution-focused brief therapy, and social constructionism. As a final example of another significant contemporary development in

therapeutic practice, let us turn to a major movement in psychology today called *positive psychology*. Martin Seligman and Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi introduced the emerging science of positive psychology over a decade ago, referring to the study of positive emotion, positive character, and positive institutions and how to nurture them. This movement has really taken off with a mushrooming body of literature as well as recent empirical attempts to validate or support positive psychology interventions. Martin Seligman, Tayyab Rashid, and A. C. Parks reported findings from two research studies that provided empirical support for the effectiveness of *positive psychotherapy* employing exercises or interventions explicitly aimed at increasing positive emotion, engagement, and meaning in treating depression. A more recent meta-analysis of 51 positive psychology interventions with a total of 6,018 participants showed significant enhancement of well-being (effect size = .29) and significant alleviation of depressive symptoms (effect size = .32). Positive psychology (including positive psychotherapy) focuses more on identifying the character strengths and virtues of clients and less on their psychopathologies or psychological deficits.

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT IN COUNSELLING

Personal development is at the heart of our journey as counsellors and therapists. It is the core condition of recognising ourselves and one another as human beings and not human doings. Without it we are detached from the ideology of the meaning of human. What we are depends upon our lived experiences and feedback from others about how we impact on people with whom we come into contact and who we touch, emotionally and spiritually, and who touch us in a similar way. These are the fundamental core elements of our craft as therapists and counsellors.

This is what we are in the business of attempting to do-to teach our clients how to become more human through being in touch with others who have embarked on a journey of personal development. In order to know where we are it is important to have some idea of how we got there and it is our intention to attempt to illustrate this path by showing how our personality develops over a life-long period. What we become depends on multifarious forces that shape and mould our identity-some of which we have control over and others of which are completely out of our control.

The Chambers Dictionary defines 'identity' as, simply, "who or what a person is", while the Open University D103 Glossary offers, "the characteristics by which individuals or groups are recognised by others and by themselves-who or what they are and where they belong in human society". Both these definitions encompass class, gender, and ethnic origin, national and other identities. In order to see how identity changes through the process of personal self-development it seems necessary to compare how personal identity is seen by different perspectives.

Rogers (1961) emphasised how important it is to maintain one's own identity while grasping the client's world; Kelly (1955) suggests that, 'You are not the

victim of your own autobiography, but you may become the victim of the way you interpret (it)', in his promotion of his personal construct theory; Satre (1934) from the viewpoint of the existentialist states, 'We are our choices, with the freedom to redesign our lives by those choices.

There are four different perspectives that are presented here, namely the phenomenological, the psychoanalytical, the biological and the social. It is worth considering in this case whether all are actually looking at the same thing but for the purpose of this article we shall only compare the phenomenological, Humanistic and the biological models as we see those as models fitting in to the development of the counsellor and which contrast most widely in their explanation of our identity and how it changes throughout life, particularly when experiencing personal reflection through the cycle of personal exploration.

The phenomenological perspective, (phenomenon of self), emphasises that we as human beings actively interpret and make sense of our lives and our worlds through symbolic thoughts, reflecting on our own feelings and actions and those of the world surrounding us. This reflective awareness can be described as, "the human capacity to be aware of one's self as being a particular person distinct from all others and to reflect on the experience of being that person and who that person is". (Stevens, 1985). This self-awareness generates other factors such as the importance of language and thought which enable us to transcend time and space, think about past and future and to use our imagination.

Also generated is an awareness of our own mortality, choice and the need for a meaning to our lives. This experience of personal identity depends not only on self-awareness but also on a sense of personal continuity and of agency, which is, having the power to produce an effect, for example, "I am going to cheer him up". Self-awareness and personal agency is not something which we are born with, however, in fact we acquire the sense of self-awareness and personal agency as we develop from infancy to adulthood. Erich Fromm (1960) calls this stage individuation and relates it to being a bit like a double edged sword, where the transition from autonomy out of childhood is replaced by realisation of independence but results in separateness and perhaps aloneness so our inner identity changes.

Everyone entering into the counselling contract as a client has the right to expect their counsellor to be capable of attending their needs; needs which can place great demands on the counsellors emotional resources. We as counsellors have needs of our own and those of us that are drawn into the 'helping professions' are often more comfortable giving than receiving.

For this reason it is important to consider the reasons behind the career choice as clients should not be expected to fulfill the needs of the counsellor of being in control, virtuous and resourceful. The counselling setting is often the place where feelings which seem too dangerous to be expressed anywhere else can emerge safely and through personal exploration of the self it can be established if the counsellor can cope well with feelings of anger, desperation, sadness and grief, hurt and rejection, not only in the client but in oneself.

The phenomenological perspective implies that we are able to self-create by actively participating in the building of our individual identities and this provides the main support of this particular theory. Glover (1988) reasoned that, “shaping ourselves is a more important aspect than is usually supposed. It should be given a central place in our thinking about social issues,” (Glover, 1988, p.110).

He goes on to explain how simple everyday decisions give leverage to who we become. What needs to be taken into account here is the fact that our simple individual decisions are often influenced by social construction. By consciously adapting our personality to fit in with the expectations of family, friends, employers and, in relation to this topic, clients, for example, we may in fact be acting in response to our own unconscious expectations. It is not suggested that we should never be confused, frustrated or unhappy in our work as counsellors. Our work is to help clients locate in themselves the resources they need to exist creatively which should be reflected in our work with them. Counsellors do not accept things at face value, particularly when it comes to human resources but this can mean discovering painful truths about our clients and ourselves along the way. Glover (1988) argues that we create ourselves in the image of those expectations and by telling others what our self-created belief is we not only deceive them but also deceive ourselves.

It would appear that ideology puts blinkers on our eyes for to assume a personal style and express it as our own is failing to account for our private choices being influenced by public representations both locally and globally. If we were to develop within the counselling field in Salisbury, for example, our personal and professional identity would be very different from that if we had developed our real sense of self in London.

Different regions help shape our personal and professional identities in different ways and changes of location might also alter our identity further. From a personal perspective we can see the value, for the furtherance of our career, of a move to London where we have only recently secured work as a senior counsellor in an all-male prison.

A further existential issue to the phenomenological perspective is the search for meaning. For some the way to understand the representations of our belief system sees them joining religious sects in their search for meaning, or, as Cottrell (1979) suggests, it is more common within modern United Kingdom for people to find meaning by, “creating everyday projects related to work and family”.

Counsellors face uncertainty at many levels and the search through skills and theories often leaves us not knowing what brings about emotional healing. We work in a field where, as yet, no clear career path has been defined leaving us to compete for work which we can only take if it is within our own personal level of competence. Our work involves looking introspectively which creates some level of risk for us as counsellors and for our clients who may present us with painful and difficult aspects of life: loss, relationship difficulties and all kinds of abuse.

We also have to consider if the satisfaction of ‘doing’ the job is more important than the financial reward. This is not a career where you can get rich quick and

much of one's earnings in the early stages of the counselling career are minimal, if there is any gain at all, and most of the time further training, personal therapy, supervision, insurance, *etc.*, has to be maintained to protect oneself and the client. It might be quite tempting to take on a client who was rich even if the counsellor were not the best person to deal with the issues presented.

So how actively do we participate in the making of our own identity and how much are we influenced by ideology within the phenomenological perspective? Bandura (1989) claimed that 'perceived self-efficacy', is the most relevant factor. Our individual differences depend on how capable we see ourselves of achieving what we want to do. This is linked to ideas that the more we want to change the more likely we are to try which is similar to the idea of self-fulfilling prophecy. Bandura believes in perceived self-efficacy and therefore in the idea that we can create our own identity changing to suit ourselves with perhaps an acceleration of the process with limitations of mortality.

The biological perspective sees personal identity and development from a different angle and has two aspects that will be looked at separately. Firstly, it is concerned with the body and sees it as an intrinsic part of identity and personality believing that it is through the ways that we relate to other people and to the world around us.

How we relate to our clients is the core element of the work we do and we have to be ever vigilant about the way we sit, look, hold our hands, move and even dress. We often use body language and movements to express our feelings, (if only by fluttering our eyelashes to attract a mate) and these subtle moves also allow us to interact with others on a social level. If the ability to use our body is taken away then our ability to connect and develop is more restricted. Contact with others is through bodily actions and if the body is mistreated or hurt, for example, then the personal identity is too, according to the biological perspective and approach.

We are aware of how our body feels, if it is tired or excited and we are aware how effective it is as an instrument. If our body hurts then we hurt too.

We are also affected by our body image and how we appear to others knowing that our appearance affects their attitude which affects how we feel about ourselves and this may influence what we do to self-create. We learn to promote our best assets in order to maximise the most beneficial attention in the hope that others identify us as what we would like to be rather than what we really are. People who have often aged, for example, may often feel that they look younger than they do and this is often apparent in men like myself who are approaching mid-life.

Levinson's (1978) idea about the physical changes throughout the seasons of a man's life are particularly appropriate here where men, like myself, get older and see an gradual yet effective change in the body such as hair loss, memory loss, loss of faculties and in my case, the inability to retain information!

How we are perceived by clients should not get in the way of our work but often It has been found that wondering what a client thinks about me. This was

an issue I needed to explore in supervision and realised that there was some erotic transference about in my session with the client. This biological transformation can be drastic, take for example one of my clients whose feelings about himself in both the public sphere and private domain were affected by others because of his disability after an horrific road traffic accident in which he lost mobility and now has to use a wheelchair.

Other influences such as chemical imbalances in the brain can affect our personality and sense of self and these can be brought about by abuse or misuse of alcohol and drugs used socially. A lot of my work has been in the addiction field working with people who cannot live without some mood altering chemical to get them through their pain. I too was an addict once and the importance placed upon working as a counsellor with several years clean time cannot be stressed highly enough. Depression often results from this type of imbalance and often the results can give false perceptions of ourselves by others, and ourselves. This theory was explored in depth by Hans Eysenck who believed that aspects of personality are inherited. He claimed to have identified underlying personal dimensions which provide a hierarchical model of personality and self which reveals patterns of surface traits as well as the continuity of identity.

Eysenck (1985) believed that the human personality is divided into two major traits which could be scientifically measured using psychometric testing to measure extraversion (E) and introversion (N) and he regarded environmental influences as of little importance. Intra version and extraversion were terms used to describe personality traits of impulsiveness, risk taking and stimulus seeking. Eysenck believed that they were physiologically based.

The consequences of the physiological differences enabled Eysenck to categorise people into clusters or groups and based on his research he found that social people in general were impulsive. Another dimension Eysenck measured was that of neuroticism or stability. He believed that an average person would be placed centrally on his two dimension chart of E and N. If extraversion and introversion is biologically based then it is reasonable to argue that some aspects of identity are inherited and indeed physical characteristics are passed on from our parents in the form of genes.

Eysenck tested the theory of hereditary personality and self in a study of identical twins who were brought up separately but whose E and N scores correlated. Kamin (1974) argued that social factors may have played a part in the results claiming that children may have grown up in similar environments which relates back to the part of this essay dealing with social factors in the phenomenological approach and how the suggestion that the world environment helps determine personality. Secondly, the socio-biological approach is based on the belief that social behaviour is determined by inherited pre-disposition characteristics of humans. The outcome of natural and sexual selection also focuses on the evolutionary origins of the behavioural patterns arguing that the origins of consciousness, and a sense of individual identity, may develop because of the value in understanding, relating to and co-operating with others.

It goes on to say that some differences in identity and behaviour may originate in the reproductive strategies which are considered optimal for our male and female ancestors. Humanistic development took place in the 1950's largely as a reaction to behaviourism and psychoanalyses, fitting well with the social and political emancipation of the 1960's. It concentrates more on the orientation to psychology than on a coherent set of ideas and theories, assuming that subjective experience is primary to personal growth, and is phenomenological rather than behaviourist as a perspective and that all people possess a capacity for personal growth and personal agency having some choice and responsibility for what they become. It suggests that each individual is a whole and takes into account the many aspects of feelings, thoughts and bodily awareness which make up our experience of being a person.

The existentialist theory sees people as being directly responsible for their own life choices, placing strong emphasis on the ability to say "no" and accept the consequences, maintaining that people are responsible for their own actions. Acknowledgement of the constraints on our lives is an important part of existentialism and our culture widely accepts that we are unable to control certain things in our lives, for example, our own mortality, which our parents are and our language.

By taking responsibility for our own actions we act authentically but allowing others to make choices for us is seen as acting unauthentically. Many people are afraid of their own freedom of choice and behave in conventional ways avoiding the act of self-actualisation. I remember working with a client who was so desperate to please me that he would say what he thought I wanted to hear rather than what was really going on for him. Through my own personal journey which identified me as a 'Yes-man', I was able to recognise the pattern and avoid falling into that trap.

It might have been so easy to allow this behaviour to continue because it made me feel good rather than become increasingly aware and willing to share when we don't really know what is going on for us, or when we are afraid to speak, or do not feel comfortable in another's presence. To reveal ourselves is to take a risk and that is so for our clients. We can, however, create an atmosphere in which we can make the client feel safe enough to explore these feelings because we have experienced them ourselves in our own therapy and supervision.

Victor Frankl (1959) highlighted significant ways that we develop purposive intrinsic selves through action, in particular creative activity, experience, love and attitude. A criticism here is that Frankl's ideas failed to take into account the social context in which we live where in reality individuality is influenced by society where change and progress is synonymous with autonomy.

Continuing on from Frankl's idea of personal agency bringing about change was the work of Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Maslow's idea was that certain needs require meeting before self-actualisation can be realised. Maslow's theory of motivation (1954/1987) suggested that in order to become what one is capable of becoming needs have to be met. His hierarchy of needs theory

suggests that a physical need is related to survival and consists of basic requirements for food, drink, warmth, sleep and sex, and is the first step to self-actualisation. This is followed by the need for safety being met, safety in this case being physical, economic and psychological security. If these needs are met then a need for love, belonging and affection through intimacy is the next step followed by the need for self esteem which is a requirement for competency, adequacy, self-respect and respect from others. Once these needs are met self-actualisation is reached. Maslow indicated that needs are not always defined and an analysis of self-actualisation was conducted by him with a sample of people most of whom were over sixty years old. From this he deduced that self-actualisation develops with maturity and concluded that the potential for personal growth comes from making a choice rather than remaining with the safe option thereby realising the possibility of peak experiences.

Carl Rogers has been the most significant figure in humanistic psychology and he developed his theory of personality using three main concepts. He refers to the term “organism” as an organised, whole individual, emphasising concepts of drive and motivation. The phenomenological field, referred to earlier, Rogers refers to as a person’s life experiences including those which are unconscious. He stressed that self-awareness of the person on a conscious level is the most important and best way to work in understanding behaviour by making reference to the internal framework.

The third concept is that of the self, when there is a development of the I and the Me. The self develops from childhood experiences of what we can or cannot do, does or does not like and what is enjoyed or disliked doing and by evaluation of the self by other’s who are significant in one’s life, for example parents and teachers, employers and counsellors. Positive regard by these significant others is often conditional except in the case of counsellor. Rogers indicated that it is more appropriate to help one realise that it is okay to have feelings of anger and jealousy but it is not okay to act on those feelings because of the resultant damage that behaviour might cause.

Maslow and Rogers both believed that self-actualisation is the core to development of the self and that restoring a person to his full potential requires a form of non-directive counselling which enables the person to realise and bring out feelings repressed from childhood. By offering a safe environment and unconditional positive regard the person can develop their real sense of self thus enabling them to move on. This form of personal change Rogers calls person-centred. It is experiential, allowing the person to get in touch with their true feelings. Personal change is therefore seen as the result of being given therapeutic space where repressed feelings are allowed out into the open. Unconditional positive regard enables the person to move on and get in touch with their real feelings.

It can be seen that the phenomenological perspective is approached in the form of a philosophical investigation and is not measured but described in terms of meaning through introspection, reflection and ‘thought experiments’ while the biological approach uses statistical analysis as a method to measure behaviour

in order to identify personality changes and a change of one's self. The phenomenological perspective presents the strongest support for this essay strongly arguing that self-awareness, self-motivation, choice and the capacity to consider alternatives are intrinsic to the human condition of identity and change while the biological perspective submits that people's identities are largely determined by their personality type and dependent on inherited biological characteristics. We should not overlook the fact that all perspectives have something in common: the biological, social and psychoanalytical stress factors beyond our individual control while the phenomenological emphasises agency and choice.

I believe that all four perspectives can help to account for change and play a part in forming, shaping and reshaping our identities and that, as individuals, we each react differently to the influences placed upon us. All approaches to therapy and counselling have a vocabulary of their own and all theoretical models have explanations and agreed forms of contact, speaking and being which are based on these fundamental values and conventions regulating our social and professional conduct. These do differ between each orientation, school, organisation and individual but this is what makes for the richness of our profession.

The invitation is to participate fully in a frank observation over a lifelong period about our differences in attitudes, beliefs, intentions and actions as our modesty, fearfulness, confusion, need for and fear of recognition and belonging allow. When we embark on a career as a counsellor we embark on the risky journey into our own dark interior and agree to do so in the company of men and women who have also promised to travel alongside in a shared adventure (!) of personal discovery filled with trials and tribulations leading to new and unknown pastures green.

We cannot know in advance who we will become but can only give of ourselves allowing the process of growth to unfold revealing our own unique qualities of strengths and shortcomings. The difference by this time is that we can accept the criticism or praise and work with it rather than against it. Throughout this we continue to be tied up in our own personal webs of the responsibility of jobs, relationships, families, partnerships or communities and we need to ensure our financial and material survival. Our challenge as counsellors should be to find a workable compromise between attaining the freedom to discover who we are and a secure means of living at the same time placing responsibility on us all to continue working on establishing our personal identity through self-reflection and support of each other along the way.

Our learning through our peers, trainers, tutors, and supervisors will help us identify our own strengths and manage or change our shortcomings. To realise that to give your best requires an inward journey instead of an outward search shows that you possess greater wisdom than most in this day and age. Sometimes, on journeys inward, people run into roadblocks or personal turmoil and where in the past this would have been seen as self-defeating behaviour, with courage and perseverance, a counsellor embarking on this trip of self-discovery will see it as an opportunity to learn more about themselves which in turn will benefit the client.

APPROACHES TO COUNSELLING

INTEGRATED APPROACH

At Riversdale, we adopt an integrative approach to our counselling. By 'integrated' we mean that we take what is best from a number of approaches and apply it to your unique set of needs, circumstances and experiences.

COGNITIVE BEHAVIOURAL COUNSELLING

This type of counselling pays particular attention to the way you think and act and helps you identify whether or not your thinking and behaviours are actually gaining positive outcomes for you in your life. Our thinking, formed from our childhood, can heavily influence the way we view our experiences and therefore the way we respond to them.

Many clients are unaware that they can choose to change or adapt the way they view things and are equally unaware that sometimes their own thinking can serve to embed them in a negative cycle that can lead to stress and depression. Once you become aware that you can change and influence your thinking then you become freed to see that if you can change the way you think and see things, you can change the way you feel about these events.

Fundamentally, cognitive therapy helps you to choose the way you view life and helps you to see that there is often at least one other way to view a problem or problem situation. We often find that we are overwhelmed by life simply because we have temporarily lost our perspective. Cognitive therapy helps us to restore and rebuild our sense of perspective and context thus assisting us in realising our full potential.

PERSON-CENTRED COUNSELLING

While cognitive and behavioural counselling (CBT) addresses the way you think and behave, Person-Centred counselling looks at your whole person and your whole life, from childhood to the present day. It can be a longer term approach than CBT. Person-Centred counselling seeks ways to assist you in overcoming more deep-rooted problems that persist in preventing you from achieving your potential and in achieving self-actualisation, *i.e.*, becoming the person you have the potential to become. There may be deep unresolved issues in your life that you now feel ready to address for the first time.

Person-Centred counselling operates around a number of core principles:

- Unconditional positive regard—always placing you first and always having regard for your worth as an individual as well as a concern for your well-being;
- Non-judgemental—never judging your actions and thoughts even if you do
- Empathy—always trying to see life as you are seeing it and experiencing it

FIELDS OF COUNSELLING

EDUCATIONAL COUNSELLING

A term first coined by Truman Kelley in 1914, educational counselling is a process of rendering services to pupils who need assistance in making decisions about important aspects of their education, such as the choice of courses and studies, decisions regarding interests and ability, and choices of college and high school.

Educational counselling increases a pupil's knowledge of educational opportunities.

PERSONAL/SOCIAL COUNSELLING

Personal counselling deals with emotional distress and behavioural difficulties, which arise when individuals struggle to deal with developmental stages and tasks. Any aspect of development can be turned into an adjustment problem, and it is inevitable that everyone encounters, at some time, exceptional difficulty in meeting an ordinary challenge.

For example:

- Anxiety over a career decision
- Lingering anger over an interpersonal conflict
- Insecurities about getting older
- Depressive feelings when bored with work
- Excessive guilt about a serious mistake
- A lack of assertion and confidence
- Grief over the loss of a loved one
- Disillusionment and loneliness after parents' divorce

VOCATIONAL COUNSELLING

Vocational counselling is defined as individual contacts with those counselled, in order to facilitate career development.

This definition and category encompasses counselling situations such as these:

- Helping students become aware of the many occupations to consider
- Interpreting an occupational interest inventory to a student
- Assisting a teenager to decide what to do after school
- Helping a student apply to a college or university
- Role-playing a job interview in preparation for the real thing

PRINCIPLES OF COUNSELLING

We have already discussed the meaning and principles of guidance. Now as suggested, discuss the principles of counselling. The principles on which the process of counselling is based are:

- It involves a face-to-face relationship between two persons.
- It is emotional rather than purely intellectual attitude.
- It is more than advice giving. The progress comes through the thinking that a person with a problem does for himself.
- It involves solution of immediate problem as well as the future decision of the individual.

The counsellor should follow the principles while counselling to make the process of counselling effective. It is not an easy task. To make the process successful the counsellor should also follow certain principles in his own self to develop his skills. He should follow the principles as given below during counselling.

- *Warmth*: The Counsellor should communicate personal warmth and make the client feel welcome valued as individuals.
- *Acceptance*: The Counsellor should accept the person and his feelings for what he is without criticizing him. He should also accept the person irrespective of age, race, sex, *etc.* *Genuineness*: The counsellor should be very honest with himself and with client he should be very open, friendly and undefensive.
- *Empathy*: Instead of showing sympathy to the person having problem, the counsellor should show empathy, which means to sense the feelings and experience of another person.

In order to make good relationship the qualities should be acquired by a counsellor. He should imbibe these qualities to follow the principles of counselling properly.

FUNCTIONS OF COUNSELLING

Like guidance, counselling has also three fold functions adjust mental, oriental and developmental.

ADJUSTMENTAL FUNCTIONS

Rapid social change brought about by industrialization and urbanization has led to several perplexing problems. The pace of this change is ever on the increase, thus making adjustment a continuous process of grappling way with new situations. Counselling helps the student in making the best possible adjustment to the current situations be it in educational institution, occupational world, in the home and in the community. Professional and individualized aid is given in making immediate and suitable adjustment at problem points.

ORIENTAL FUNCTION

Oriental function means to orient the person about his environmental constraints and resources and her personal constraints and resources by giving information and awareness in problems of career planning, educational programming, *etc.* Awareness of the need to plan in the context of the complexity of the world of work is an essential pre-requisite of going through education and preparation for after education. So oriental function is the important function in the counselling process.

It is a link between adjustment and development function. If the person is properly oriented, he can develop his plan properly and adjust suitable with himself and society.

DEVELOPMENTAL FUNCTION

Developmental function means not only to help the students having problems but also to help the students before the problems arise. For example, we are giving vaccination to the child as a preventive measure. Even then when the child suffers from a particular disease we take the help of special doctor to cure it. So both the processes are coming under health development. Likewise in the counselling process the function of counselling is to prevent emergence and maladjustment and cure the person having maladjustment to adjust with the problem situation. Therefore the development function helps in.

- Self-development
- Self-realization
- Development of society and
- National development

So we can say that counselling has not only its functions towards the individual but to the society and nation also.

COUNSELLING SERVICES

OPERATING ARRANGEMENTS FOR COUNSELLING SERVICE IN SCHOOLS

Counselling in schools is not a substitute for the existing pastoral care systems which operate in schools. Rather it is a service which compliments that which is already taking place in school. The counselling service is independent, confidential and young person centred.

Independence is an important aspect of this service, particularly when dealing with those pupils who may feel alienated from school. This does not prevent the service being seen as a supportive part of the school community. Successful counselling is based on trust, self-motivation and commitment. It must be a voluntary activity and is therefore not part of the disciplinary procedures of schools.

While the counsellor is ultimately accountable to the young person, the nature of their work means that the counsellor will be accountable to the organisation which employs them, and to the school system in which they work. It is imperative to have in place operating arrangements, which are based on the welfare of the child being paramount. In his book “Counselling Supervision, Theory Skills and Practice” Carroll points out that counsellors employed in organisations have responsibilities to those organisations that employ them as well as to individuals and the contextual situation in which they work. The BACP Good Practice Guidelines for counselling in schools 4th edition states that a school counsellor needs to be:

- “Aware of and sensitive to the different needs and demands that a school community imposes on clients and those who have responsibility for them.”

What do we Mean by Counselling?

It has been said that counselling is one of those words that everybody understands but no two people understand in precisely the same way. It is therefore necessary to emphasise certain conditions if counselling is to be effective as a helping process for pupils experiencing difficulties.

- Counselling is a specific activity: The task of counselling is to give the client an opportunity to explore, discover and clarify ways of living more resourcefully and towards greater well-being. ”
- The counselling relationship by its nature is confidential
- The foundation of the counselling process is the relationship between counsellor and client in which the element of genuineness or authenticity is most basic to a relationship.
- Counselling is understood as a professional activity, the purpose of which is to help pupils with social, emotional and behavioural problems.

Counselling may be concerned with developmental issues, addressing and resolving specific problems, decision-making, coping with crisis, developing personal insight, working through conflict and improving relationships with others, whether at school or at home. The peripatetic structure of the counselling service gives all school ‘s access to a flexible service which can adapt to the needs of individual schools.

SCHOOLS RESPONSIBILITIES

The counsellor’s main point of contact in the school will be an individual known as the Key Contact, this can be the designated teacher for child protection, the head of pastoral care or other teacher. Each school will nominate this staff member. It is important that the individual who carries out this role is seen as approachable by the young people and does not have any direct linkage to the schools disciplinary policy. The ICSS Schools counsellor and the Key Contact will work in partnership to meet the needs of the young people who avail of the service.

Each school will work with the ICSS to establish a clear understanding of the purpose of the counselling service, its codes of practice and role within the school. It is good practice to set this information out in an Operating Plan with the school.. Consideration will be given to each school’s unique culture and contextual setting. Each school will agree its own arrangements for making referrals to the school counsellor. These will then be shared with all staff, parents and the young people. Implicit consent from parents must be sought by the school.

To ensure an effective service the school will need to provide:

- *Suitable facilities for the counsellor:*
 - Room suitable for counselling young people, taking account of confidentiality, and safeguarding issues.
 - Secure lockable cabinet for confidential records
 - Post box—a point of contact between the ICSS and the school
 - Access to a telephone for confidential calls

- Access to the Key Contact to ensure he/she is available to meet the counsellor at an agreed time;
- The name of an individual to be the substitute Key Contact in the event of long term absence.
- Notification and details of the number of sessions required should be given in advance to the counsellor by the Key Contact

The school and the counsellor will work together to establish:

- A clear understanding of the purpose of the counselling service, its codes of practice, and how it might function in that school;
- A clear procedure for referring pupils;
- A respect for inter-professional boundaries;
- The need for on-going assessment through regular meetings with Key Contacts and as appropriate pastoral staff/year heads, class teachers.

Counsellors working to ICSS standards will:

- Work within the school's child protection guidelines as set out in the relevant legislation and guidance;
- Respect the ethos of the individual school;
- Report all incidents of suspected or actual abuse to the designated child protection teacher.
- Work with and alongside other agencies in a collegial manner whilst maintaining appropriate levels of confidentiality

School staff will be introduced to the counsellor through an agreed pathway in each school. This may involve, but is not limited to, staff meetings and/or pastoral care meetings. Such meetings are ultimately determined by the school and agreed in consultation with school personnel.

ACCESS TO THE ICSS

All schools will be notified of the Independent Counselling Service for Schools by the Department of Education when new service providers are appointed. Service Providers will be expected to contact schools in their area to establish if they wish to avail of the service.

Partnerships with Children and Young People

Pupils can only benefit if they want counselling. Counselling is voluntary and takes place with the agreement of the young person. This will be referenced in the contract established between the young person and the counsellor. Referrals may be made by the young person, parents or school personnel. User-friendly information will be displayed, and distributed as agreed to inform the school community of the service. A post-box or other referral system may be used as agreed by the school community. Where a post box is used, both the counsellor and the Key Contact will hold a key to allow access in the event of a critical incident or unplanned event involving a pupil when the counsellor is not on the premises.

It is important that there is dialogue and agreement in respect of forms or other mechanisms used for referral with school staff. The ICSS will ensure that all

requests for the service receive a response within 5 working days. In the case of an emergency request from a school regarding an individual there should be a response within that school day. Good practice dictates that at the beginning of a counselling relationship the young person and the school counsellor enter into a contract. This clearly sets out what boundaries exist in the context of a school-based counselling service. Young people actively work in partnership with practitioners in case planning, decision making, reviewing and evaluation. The young people will not be offered levels of confidentiality that cannot be kept.

Parental/Carers Involvement

If a parent/carer wishes their young person to seek counselling support this will happen in consultation with the Key Contact or head teacher, the child and the counsellor. A young person still retains the right to engage or not engage in counselling. A specimen information leaflet for parents/carers is attached.

A question constantly raised and which can present many ethical dilemmas is that of parental right to know their son/daughter is accessing counselling in the school environment. While it is acknowledged that working in partnership with parents/carers can benefit the counselling relationship, there is the need for a clearly stated policy of a commitment to protecting counselling confidentiality, which sets definitive limits to parental involvement, decisively underpinned by both ethical and legal factors. It is the counsellor's responsibility to explain to pupils clearly and periodically exactly what this means in practice. Pupils' welfare should be safeguarded and promoted, preferably with the young person's knowledge and consent.

- "Young people requiring counselling who have sufficient understanding and intelligence do not have to consult their parents, nor does the counsellor have to inform parents that counselling has taken place. "

The Fraser competency, previously known as the Gillick competency, sets out what a counsellor must do in seeking to consider the young person's capacity to access counselling without their parent(s)/carer(s) wishes.

Lord Scarman determined:

- "Parental right yields to the child's rights to make his own decisions when he reaches sufficient understanding and intelligence to be capable of making up his own mind on the matter requiring attention"

As this service is being offered in post-primary schools we must take account of these legal findings in the ICSS operating arrangements.

Informing Parents/Carers of the Service

In all instances the welfare of the young person remains our paramount concern. Within our post-primary counselling service the following steps will help ensure there is no conflict between the parental rights and the young person's rights.

- Schools inform parents at the beginning of the counselling service of its existence and that an opportunity is given for them to opt in or out at this initial stage. Schools to date have used a standard letter to obtain implicit consent from parents.

- Parents are given opportunities to meet the counsellor both in person (at open nights, school concerts) and via school news-sheets.
- If a parent wishes to meet the counsellor long before any issue arises for their child, this could be arranged in the school.

If a child/young person requests counselling, then the school and the Counselling Service, together, can assess if he or she is “Gillick Competent”. If this is deemed to be so, then they may access counselling without their parent’s knowledge or consent.

Key factors to be considered in the assessment of Fraser/Gillick Competency are:

- Maturity of the child or young person.
- Sufficient intelligence and understanding to enable him or her to understand what is being proposed, *i.e.*, counselling.
- Sufficient intelligence and understanding of the consequences of his or her actions.
- What would happen if they didn’t get help regarding a possible deterioration in their mental health?

Referral by School Staff

School staff who wish to consider a referral must in the first instance discuss this with the young person involved. This approach values the young person and respects their right to be informed and involved in decisions concerning themselves. It is important to emphasise that counselling is not compulsory and a young person may choose not to continue counselling. Staff can encourage a self-referral or with a young person’s permission seek an appointment via the Key Contact.

Referral to Other Services

After the initial assessment, or indeed during the agreed counselling sessions, it may become apparent that the young person requires referral to specialist services. When required, referrals to other services will take place. Protocols used in this onward referral will be based on both existing and any new working in partnership guidance that becomes operational. No onward referrals will take place without the Key Contact’s involvement.

STRUCTURE OF SERVICE

The Counselling Sessions

The ICSS will provide an independent counsellor on-site in school, as agreed once a week, offering up to three counselling sessions. While the face to face session may last up to 50 minutes, details will be agreed with each school. Using this model ensures both staff and pupils swiftly become aware of the counsellor’s availability.

Morning appointments provide the opportunity for any issues of concern to be addressed and resolved before the end of the school day. Students will be given appointments which ensure no one subject is repeatedly missed during the counselling process.

Often issues raised in counselling by young people are complex, and frequently being explored for the first time. Ethical practice requires that the counselling session be sensitively managed with appropriate time allocated to a beginning, middle and end to the session.

BACP in their document Counselling in Schools state that:

- “Individual sessions can vary depending on the style and orientation of the counsellor, the needs of the child or young person and the school’s timetabling structure. A session is usually about 40-50 minutes or the length of a normal class period. ”

This emphasises the need for any school counselling intervention to be centred on the young person and their identified issues. It also highlights that the timetabling within each school must also be taken into consideration.

This assists in school counselling being accepted as an integrated part of school life and can help normalise the concept of counselling. While it has been the experience of those involved in school counselling that on average a young person may participate in four to six sessions during the period of counselling, the amount of counselling offered must be relevant to the young person’s need and agreed with them through the review process set out in the contract, between the young person and the counsellor.

All the counsellors deliver the service according to the ‘Ethical Framework for Good Practice’ of their professional body. Supervision and record keeping (within data protection guidelines), evaluation forms and complaints procedures are also delivered within the ethical code of the provider’s professional organisation.

CONFIDENTIALITY AND INFORMATION SHARING

At the beginning of a counselling relationship the counsellor will explain confidentiality and its limitations to the young person. The contract entered into will clearly identify what confidentiality means in a way that is relevant to the young person’s maturity and level of understanding. Absolute confidentiality cannot be guaranteed—the welfare of the young person will, at all times, take precedence over confidentiality.

Confidentiality may need to be discussed with the young person at different stages of the counselling process. The Independent Schools Counselling Service will treat with confidence all personal information about young people whether obtained directly, indirectly or by inference.

Such information includes name, address, biographical details and other descriptions about the young person’s life and circumstances that might result in identification.

Disclosure of Information with Consent

The counsellor will seek the young person's consent in advance of any disclosure of information, which could be construed as a breach of confidentiality. The rationale for disclosure of information and the implications of the process for the young person will be explained. This sustains our commitment to support the young person's autonomy and capacity for informed consent at every stage of the counselling process. Any disclosure of information will be made in the young person's best interest.

The Counsellor will only disclose information obtained from the counselling relationship in the following exceptional circumstances:

- The young person requests, and feels that it is within their best interest, that certain information be passed on.
- Circumstances where the counsellor has sufficient grounds to believe that the young person is suffering or is likely to suffer significant harm, for example, through neglect, physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, domestic violence or drug abuse.
- If the young person discloses that they are aware of significant harm of another person.
- In the event that the young person is under a care order, or when child protection issues arise, the counsellor, with the permission of the young person, may attend case conferences and continue to honour the confidentiality contract.

Signed permission detailing the terms upon which the counsellor may disclose and to whom, will be logged in all instances of disclosure by consent.

Breach of Confidentiality

Whenever possible a counsellor's decision to breach confidentiality, without the young person's consent, will be made after consultation with their manager. Any breach of confidentiality will only relate to the immediate situation and will only be relayed to those services that can provide appropriate support required by the young person.

The counsellor will initiate the school's child protection procedure before leaving the school and will remain as long as necessary to support the young person through the disclosure process. The counsellor will log all revisions to individual confidentiality in the young person's contract. This will track actions taken, outcomes and implications. The process will be reported on the step by step to their organisation and ensuring the Key Contact is fully aware of the situation. The Key Contact will be an active partner in any decision making where the child's safety or welfare is considered at risk.

Sharing of Information

While the school Key Contact may have a general overview of the presenting reason for referral the content of sessions will remain confidential unless the welfare

and safety of the young person is considered at risk. In these cases the school's child protection policy will be activated. Current guidance on information sharing will direct the manner in which information is shared.

Geldard, Kathryn and David in Counselling Adolescents Sage 2004 state:

- “Where there is a disclosure of abuse or suicide plan or plans to harm self or others, Counsellors have a duty of care to the client and others and need to take appropriate action.”

DATA PROTECTION AND RECORD KEEPING

The ICSS in partnership with the school needs to keep records in order to provide an effective service to the young person. The counsellor will keep notes about what has been discussed in the sessions. These remain confidential and the responsibility of the counselling provider. In the event of a disclosure or an allegation regarding child protection issues the actions taken will also be recorded and shared with the designated teacher for child protection as required for UNOCINI or other purposes.

Any information retained on school premises should be locked in a secure cabinet within school premises. It is important that counsellors recognise that a young person can request to see his or her case records but cannot see any information from a third party without their permission. Each young person's records should be kept under an anonymous ID number and stored securely. The Independent Schools Counselling Service records statistical information on client gender, age, ethnicity, reason for referral and other issues. This statistical data will be made available to schools on an annual basis. All counsellors must adhere to the Data Protection Act 1988 which covers manual notes kept in a systematic way identifying individuals as well as those held on computer.

QUALITIES OF A SCHOOL COUNSELLOR

The school's counsellors are qualified to at least Diploma level in counselling and have a minimum of 150 hours clinically supervised practice. Every counsellor will have undergone an enhanced check prior to commencing work in schools and will have undergone their Organisation's induction training as well as any specific training on working with young people provided by the organisation, or other training set up by the ICSS. The Provider will have Professional Indemnity Insurance and ensure regular clinical and managerial supervision is provided. Counsellors in schools must be approachable, have good listening skills and a manner that encourages a climate for safe and trusting relationships.

LINE MANAGEMENT AND CLINICAL SUPERVISION

Line Management

Line management responsibilities and boundaries must be clear within any contract between the counsellor and employing organisation. Counsellors also

require separate line management supervision to help with administrative requirements, accountability and the development of the service. This is not the same as clinical supervision.

Clinical Supervision

Clinical Supervisors must be experienced practitioners, competent in supervising the approach used by the counsellor. Each school counsellor receives clinical supervision as set out in his or her professional guidelines. The provider must ensure their counsellors have individual supervision which follows the current recommendation of their professional body. BACP currently recommends a minimum of one and a half hours of supervision per month. The amount of clinical supervision required is relative to a counsellor's experience, caseload and the challenging nature of the issues young people bring to counselling.

The clinical supervisor is required to have knowledge of the issues young people bring to the counselling room and an understanding of the various stages of adolescence development. The organisation must ensure there is a protocol in place which allows the clinical supervisor to raise any concerns about the school counsellor's ability to practice safely and effectively in the school environment.

CHILD PROTECTION

All schools have a child protection policy which complies with the current guidance from the Department of Education. The policy sets out the procedures to be used when there is a disclosure about child abuse concerns or an allegation against a member of staff. This policy applies to all staff, pupils and visitors.

The school and the counsellor will also work together using pastoral care documents/circulars and other relevant information as supplemented by local Safeguarding Boards, Health and Social Services Boards and Trusts. All counsellors attached to the school need to be provided with a copy of the school's child protection policy and any other relevant pastoral care documents, i.e. g. anti-bullying policy and discipline policy.

Each Counsellor will be required to undertake the Child Protection training facilitated by the Regional Child Protection School Support Service. Though the provider may have their own child protection policy this does not replace the counsellor's responsibility to attend the training and follow the school's child protection procedures in all cases. Child protection referrals will be monitored as part of the quality assurance responsibilities.

7

Cognitively Oriented Counselling Approaches

COGNITIVE APPROACHES

As Feorge and Cristiani have pointed out, in the cognitive approaches, the process of counseling is the curing of unreason by reason; *i.e.*, to help clients eliminate most emotional disturbances by learning to think rationally, to help them get rid of illogical, irrational ideas and attitudes and substitute logical, rational ideas and attitudes. It is believed that this process helps the client to attain rational behaviour, happiness, and self-actualization.

For example Transactional Analysis aims at the internal dialogues of individuals, which occurs between:

- Counseling is aimed at helping people make choices and act on them,
- Counselling is a learning process, and
- Counselling enables personality development

A recent and much accepted definition is:

- Counseling denotes a professional relationship between a trained counselor and client. This relationship is usually person-to-person, although it may sometimes involve more than two people. It is designed to help clients to understand and their self determined goals through meaningful resolution of problems of an emotional or interpersonal nature”.

The merit of the definition by Burks and Steffler is that it is sufficiently theoretical and at the same time reasonably operational.

NATURE AND PROCESS OF THERAPY

PSYCHOTHERAPY

Psychotherapy, or personal counseling with a psychotherapist, is an intentional interpersonal relationship used by trained psychotherapists to aid a client or patient in problems of living. It aims to increase the individual's sense of their own well-being. Psychotherapists employ a range of techniques based on experiential relationship building, dialogue, communication and behaviour change that are designed to improve the mental health of a client or patient, or to improve group relationships. Psychotherapy may also be performed by practitioners with a number of different qualifications, including psychiatry, clinical psychology, clinical social work, counseling psychology, mental health counseling, clinical or psychiatric social work, marriage and family therapy, rehabilitation counseling, music therapy, art therapy, drama therapy, dance/movement therapy, occupational therapy, psychiatric nursing, psychoanalysis and those from other psychotherapies.

It may be legally regulated, voluntarily regulated or unregulated, depending on the jurisdiction. Requirements of these professions vary, but often require graduate school and supervised clinical experience. Psychotherapy in Europe is increasingly being seen as an independent profession, rather than being restricted to being practiced only by psychologists and psychiatrists as is stipulated in some countries).

HISTORY

In an informal sense, psychotherapy can be said to have been practiced through the ages, as individuals received psychological counsel and reassurance from others. Colin Feltham, *"The Stoics were one of the main Hellenistic schools of philosophy and therapy, along with the Sceptics and Epicureans. Philosophers and physicians from these schools practised psychotherapy among the Greeks and Romans from about the late 4th century BC to the 4th century AD."* Psychoanalysis was perhaps the first specific school of psychotherapy, developed by Sigmund Freud and others through the early 20th century. Trained as a neurologist, Freud began focusing on problems that appeared to have no discernible organic basis, and theorized that they had psychological causes originating in childhood experiences and the unconscious mind.

Techniques such as dream interpretation, free association, transference and analysis of the id, ego and superego were developed. Many theorists, including Anna Freud, Alfred Adler, Carl Jung, Karen Horney, Otto Rank, Erik Erikson, Melanie Klein, and Heinz Kohut, built upon Freud's fundamental ideas and often formed their own differentiating systems of psychotherapy. These were all later categorized as psychodynamic, meaning anything that involved the psyche's conscious/unconscious influence on external relationships and the self. Sessions tended to number into the hundreds over several years. Behaviourism developed in the 1920s, and behaviour modification as a therapy became popularized in the 1950s and 1960s.

Notable contributors were Joseph Wolpe in South Africa, M.B. Shipiro and Hans Eysenck in Britain, and John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner in the United States. Behavioural therapy approaches relied on principles of operant conditioning, classical conditioning and social learning theory to bring about therapeutic change in observable symptoms. The approach became commonly used for phobias, as well as other disorders. Some therapeutic approaches developed out of the European school of existential philosophy. Concerned mainly with the individual's ability to develop and preserve a sense of meaning and purpose throughout life, major contributors to the field in the US and Europe and later in the 1960s and 1970s both in the United Kingdom and in Canada, Eugene Heimler attempted to create therapies sensitive to common 'life crises' springing from the essential bleakness of human self-awareness, previously accessible only through the complex writings of existential philosophers. The uniqueness of the patient-therapist relationship thus also forms a vehicle for therapeutic enquiry. A related body of thought in psychotherapy started in the 1950s with Carl Rogers. Based on existentialism and the works of Abraham Maslow and his hierarchy of human needs, Rogers brought person-centered psychotherapy into mainstream focus.

The primary requirement of Rogers is that the client should be in receipt of three core 'conditions' from their counsellor or therapist: unconditional positive regard, also sometimes described as 'prizing' the person or valuing the humanity of an individual, congruence and empathic understanding. The aim in using the 'core conditions' is to facilitate therapeutic change within a non-directive relationship conducive to enhancing the client's psychological well being. This type of interaction enables the client to fully experience and express themselves. Others developed the approach, like Fritz and Laura Perls in the creation of Gestalt therapy, as well as Marshall Rosenberg, founder of Nonviolent Communication, and Eric Berne, founder of Transactional Analysis.

Later these fields of psychotherapy would become what is known as humanistic psychotherapy today. Self-help groups and books became widespread. During the 1950s, Albert Ellis originated Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy. A few years later, psychiatrist Aaron T. Beck developed a form of psychotherapy known as cognitive therapy. Both of these included generally relative short, structured and present-focused therapy aimed at identifying and changing a person's beliefs, appraisals and reaction-patterns, by contrast with the more long-lasting insight-based approach of psycho-dynamic or humanistic therapies. Cognitive and behavioural therapy approaches were combined and grouped under the heading and umbrella-term Cognitive behavioural therapy in the 1970s. Many approaches within CBT were oriented towards active/directive collaborative empiricism and mapping, assessing and modifying clients core beliefs and dysfunctional schemas. These approaches gained widespread acceptance as a primary treatment for numerous disorders. A "third wave" of cognitive and behavioural therapies developed, including Acceptance and Commitment Therapy and Dialectical behaviour therapy, which

expanded the concepts to other disorders and/or added novel components and mindfulness exercises. Counseling methods developed, including solution-focused therapy and systemic coaching.

During the 1960s and 1970s Eugene Heimler, after training in the new discipline of psychiatric social work, developed Heimler method of Human Social Functioning, a methodology based on the principle that frustration is the potential to human flourishing. Postmodern psychotherapies such as Narrative Therapy and Coherence Therapy did not impose definitions of mental health and illness, but rather saw the goal of therapy as something constructed by the client and therapist in a social context. Systems Therapy also developed, which focuses on family and group dynamics—and Transpersonal psychology, which focuses on the spiritual facet of human experience. Other important orientations developed in the last three decades include Feminist therapy, Brief therapy, Somatic Psychology, Expressive therapy, applied Positive psychology and the Human Givens approach which is building on the best of what has gone before.

A survey of over 2,500 US therapists in 2006 revealed the most utilized models of therapy and the ten most influential therapists of the previous quarter-century.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

Psychotherapy can be seen as an interpersonal invitation offered by psychotherapists to aid clients in reaching their full potential or to cope better with problems of life. Psychotherapists usually receive remuneration in some form in return for their time and skills. This is one way in which the relationship can be distinguished from an altruistic offer of assistance. Psychotherapists and counselors often require to create a therapeutic environment referred to as the frame, which is characterized by a free yet secure climate that enables the client to open up. The degree to which client feels related to the therapist may well depend on the methods and approaches used by the therapist or counselor. Psychotherapy often includes techniques to increase awareness and the capacity for self observation, change behaviour and cognition, and develop insight and empathy. A desired result enable other choices of thought, feeling or action; to increase the sense of well-being and to better manage subjective discomfort or distress.

Perception of reality is hopefully improved. Grieving might be enhanced producing less long term depression. Psychotherapy can improve medication response where such medication is also needed. Psychotherapy can be provided on a one-to-one basis, in group therapy, conjointly with couples and with entire families. It can occur face to face over the telephone, or, much less commonly, the Internet. Its time frame may be a matter of weeks or many years. Therapy may address specific forms of diagnosable mental illness, or everyday problems in managing or maintaining interpersonal relationships or meeting personal goals. Treatment in families with children can favourably influence a child's development, lasting for life and into future generations. Better parenting may be an indirect result of therapy or purposefully learned as parenting techniques.

Divorces can be prevented, or made far less traumatic. Treatment of everyday problems is more often referred to as counseling but the term is sometimes used interchangeably with “psychotherapy”. Therapeutic skills can be used in mental health consultation to business and public agencies to improve efficiency and assist with coworkers or clients. Psychotherapists use a range of techniques to influence or persuade the client to adapt or change in the direction the client has chosen. These can be based on clear thinking about their options; experiential relationship building; dialogue, communication and adoption of behaviour change strategies. Each is designed to improve the mental health of a client or patient, or to improve group relationships. Most forms of psychotherapy use only spoken conversation, though some also use other forms of communication such as the written word, artwork, drama, narrative story, or therapeutic touch. Psychotherapy occurs within a structured encounter between a trained therapist and client.

Because sensitive topics are often discussed during psychotherapy, therapists are expected, and usually legally bound, to respect client or patient confidentiality. Psychotherapists are often trained, certified, and licensed, with a range of different certifications and licensing requirements depending on the jurisdiction. Psychotherapy may be undertaken by clinical psychologists, counseling psychologists, social workers, marriage-family therapists, adult and child psychiatrists and expressive therapists, trained nurses, psychiatrists, psychoanalysts, mental health counselors, school counselors, or professionals of other mental health disciplines. Psychiatrists have medical qualifications and may also administer prescription medication. The primary training of a psychiatrist uses the ‘Bio-Psycho-Social’ model, medical training in practical psychology and applied psychotherapy.

Psychiatric training begins in medical school, first in the doctor patient relationship with ill people, and later in psychiatric residency for specialists. The focus is usually eclectic but including biological, cultural, and social aspects. They are advanced in understanding patients from the inception of medical training. Psychologists spend their early years in school receiving more training intellectually and in psychological theory used for, in part, psychological assessment and research, and have in-depth training in psychotherapy but psychiatrists have far more clinical experience with people at the end of formal training.

MDs tend to lag behind psychologist in academic knowledge as they are entering residency training. Over the years psychologists gain clinical experience and MD’s usually improve in intellectually so that a kind of equality in competence occurs. Today there are two doctoral degrees in psychology, the PsyD and PhD. Training for these degrees overlap but the PsyD is more clinical and the Phd stresses research and is ‘ more academic ‘. Both degrees have clinical education components, Clinical Social Workers have specialized training in clinical casework. They hold a masters in social work which entails two years of clinical internships, and a period of at least three years in the US of post-masters experience in psychotherapy. Marriage-family therapists have specific training and experience working with relationships and family issues.

A licensed professional counselor generally has special training in career, mental health, school, or rehabilitation counseling to include evaluation and assessments as well as psychotherapy. Many of the wide variety of training programmes are multiprofessional, that is, psychiatrists, psychologists, mental health nurses, and social workers may be found in the same training group. All these degrees commonly work together as a team, especially in institutional settings. All those doing specialized psychotherapeutic work, in most countries require a programme of continuing education after the basic degree, or involves multiple certifications attached to one specific degree, and 'board certification' in psychiatry. Specialty exams are used to confirm competence or board exams with psychiatrists.

REGULATION

Continental Europe

In Germany, the Psychotherapy Act restricts the practice of psychotherapy to the professions of psychology and psychiatry. In Italy, the Ossicini Act restricts the practice of psychotherapy to graduates in psychology or medicine who have completed a four-year postgraduate course in psychotherapy at a training school recognised by the state; French legislation restricts use of the title "psychotherapist" to professionals on the National Register of Psychotherapists;. The inscription on this register requires a training in clinical psychopathology and a period of internship which is only open to physicians or titulars of a master's degree in psychology or psychoanalysis. Austria and Switzerland have laws that recognize multi-disciplinary approaches; other European countries have not yet regulated psychotherapy.

United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, psychotherapy is voluntarily regulated. National registers for psychotherapists and counsellors are maintained by three main umbrella bodies:

- The United Kingdom Council for Psychotherapy
- The British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy
- The British Psychoanalytic Council.

There are many smaller professional bodies and associations such as the Association of Child Psychotherapists and the British Association of Psychotherapists. The United Kingdom Health Professions Council has recently consulted on potential statutory regulation of psychotherapists and counsellors. The HPC is an official state regulator that regulates some 15 professions at present.

ETYMOLOGY

The Oxford English Dictionary, psychotherapy first meant "hypnotherapy" instead of "psychotherapy". The original meaning, "the treatment of disease by 'psychic' methods", was first recorded in 1853 as "Psychotherapeia, or the

remedial influence of mind”. The modern meaning, “the treatment of disorders of the mind or personality by psychological or psychophysiological methods”, was first used in 1892 by Frederik van Eeden translating “Suggestive Psychotherapy” for his French “Psychothérapie Suggestive”. Van Eeden credited borrowing this term from Daniel Hack Tuke and noted, “Psycho-therapy ... had the misfortune to be taken in tow by hypnotism.” The psychiatrist Jerome Frank defined psychotherapy as the relief of distress or disability in one person by another, using an approach based on a particular theory or paradigm, and a requirement that the agent performing the therapy has had some form of training in delivering this. It is these latter two points which distinguish psychotherapy from other forms of counseling or caregiving.

FORMS

Most forms of psychotherapy use spoken conversation. Some also use various other forms of communication such as the written word, artwork, drama, narrative story or music. Psychotherapy with children and their parents often involves play, dramatization and drawing, with a co-constructed narrative from these non-verbal and displaced modes of interacting.

Psychotherapy occurs within a structured encounter between a trained therapist and client. Purposeful, theoretically based psychotherapy began in the 19th century with psychoanalysis; since then, scores of other approaches have been developed and continue to be created. Therapy is generally used in response to a variety of specific or non-specific manifestations of clinically diagnosable and/or existential crises.

Treatment of everyday problems is more often referred to as counseling. However, the term counseling is sometimes used interchangeably with “psychotherapy”. While some psychotherapeutic interventions are designed to treat the patient using the medical model, many psychotherapeutic approaches do not adhere to the symptom-based model of “illness/cure”. Some practitioners, such as humanistic therapists, see themselves more in a facilitative/helper role. As sensitive and deeply personal topics are often discussed during psychotherapy, therapists are expected, and usually legally bound, to respect client or patient confidentiality. The critical importance of confidentiality is enshrined in the regulatory psychotherapeutic organizations’ codes of ethical practice.

SYSTEMS

There are several main broad systems of psychotherapy:

- Psychoanalytic - it was the first practice to be called a psychotherapy. It encourages the verbalization of all the patient’s thoughts, including free associations, fantasies, and dreams, from which the analyst formulates the nature of the unconscious conflicts which are causing the patient’s symptoms and character problems.
- Behaviour Therapy/applied behaviour analysis focuses on changing maladaptive patterns of behaviour to improve emotional responses, cognitions, and interactions with others.

- Cognitive behavioural - generally seeks to identify maladaptive cognition, appraisal, beliefs and reactions with the aim of influencing destructive negative emotions and problematic dysfunctional behaviours.
- Psychodynamic - is a form of depth psychology, whose primary focus is to reveal the unconscious content of a client's psyche in an effort to alleviate psychic tension. Although its roots are in psychoanalysis, psychodynamic therapy tends to be briefer and less intensive than traditional psychoanalysis.
- Existential - is based on the existential belief that human beings are alone in the world. This isolation leads to feelings of meaninglessness, which can be overcome only by creating one's own values and meanings. Existential therapy is philosophically associated with phenomenology.
- Humanistic - emerged in reaction to both behaviourism and psychoanalysis and is therefore known as the Third Force in the development of psychology. It is explicitly concerned with the human context of the development of the individual with an emphasis on subjective meaning, a rejection of determinism, and a concern for positive growth rather than pathology. It posits an inherent human capacity to maximize potential, 'the self-actualizing tendency'. The task of Humanistic therapy is to create a relational environment where this tendency might flourish. Humanistic psychology is philosophically rooted in existentialism.
- *Brief* - "*Brief therapy*" is an umbrella term for a variety of approaches to psychotherapy. It differs from other schools of therapy in that it emphasizes:
 - A focus on a specific problem and
 - Direct intervention. It is solution-based rather than problem-oriented. It is less concerned with how a problem arose than with the current factors sustaining it and preventing change.
- Systemic - seeks to address people not at an individual level, as is often the focus of other forms of therapy, but as people in relationship, dealing with the interactions of groups, their patterns and dynamics. Community psychology is a type of systemic psychology.
- Transpersonal - Addresses the client in the context of a spiritual understanding of consciousness.
- Body Psychotherapy - Addresses problems of the mind as being closely correlated with bodily phenomena, including a person's sexuality, musculature, breathing habits, physiology, *etc.* This therapy may involve massage and other body exercises as well as talking.

There are hundreds of psychotherapeutic approaches or schools of thought. By 1980 there were more than 250; by 1996 there were more than 450. The development of new and hybrid approaches continues around the wide variety of theoretical backgrounds. Many practitioners use several approaches in their work and alter their approach based on client need.

MEDICAL AND NON-MEDICAL MODELS

A distinction can also be made between those psychotherapies that employ a medical model and those that employ a humanistic model. In the medical model the client is seen as unwell and the therapist employs their skill to help the client back to health. The extensive use of the DSM-IV, the diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders in the United States, is an example of a medically-exclusive model. The humanistic model of non medical in contrast strives to depathologise the human condition. The therapist attempts to create a relational environment conducive to experiential learning and help build the client's confidence in their own natural process resulting in a deeper understanding of themselves. An example would be gestalt therapy. Some psychodynamic practitioners distinguish between more uncovering and more supportive psychotherapy. Uncovering psychotherapy emphasizes facilitating the client's insight into the roots of their difficulties. The best-known example of an uncovering psychotherapy is classical psychoanalysis. Supportive psychotherapy by contrast stresses strengthening the client's defences and often providing encouragement and advice. Depending on the client's personality, a more supportive or more uncovering approach may be optimal. Most psychotherapists use a combination of uncovering and supportive approaches.

SPECIFIC SCHOOLS AND APPROACHES

In practices of experienced psychotherapists, the therapy is typically not of one pure type, but draws aspects from a number of perspectives and schools.

Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis was developed in the late 19th century by Sigmund Freud. His therapy explores the dynamic workings of a mind understood to consist of three parts: the hedonistic id, the rational ego and the moral superego. Because the majority of these dynamics are said to occur outside people's awareness, Freudian psychoanalysis seeks to probe the unconscious by way of various techniques, including dream interpretation and free association. Freud maintained that the condition of the unconscious mind is profoundly influenced by childhood experiences. So, in addition to dealing with the defence mechanisms used by an overburdened ego, his therapy addresses fixations and other issues by probing deeply into clients' youth. Other psychodynamic theories and techniques have been developed and used by psychotherapists, psychologists, psychiatrists, personal growth facilitators, occupational therapists and social workers.

Techniques for group therapy have also been developed. While behaviour is often a target of the work, many approaches value working with feelings and thoughts. This is especially true of the psychodynamic schools of psychotherapy, which today include Jungian therapy and Psychodrama as well as the psychoanalytic schools.

Gestalt Therapy

Gestalt Therapy is a major overhaul of psychoanalysis. In its early development it was called “concentration therapy” by its founders, Frederick and Laura Perls. However, its mix of theoretical influences became most organized around the work of the gestalt psychologists; thus, by the time ‘Gestalt Therapy, Excitement and Growth in the Human Personality’ was written, the approach became known as “Gestalt Therapy.” Gestalt Therapy stands on top of essentially four load bearing theoretical walls: phenomenological method, dialogical relationship, field-theoretical strategies, and experimental freedom. Some have considered it an existential phenomenology while others have described it as a phenomenological behaviourism. Gestalt therapy is a humanistic, holistic, and experiential approach that does not rely on talking alone, but facilitates awareness in the various contexts of life by moving from talking about situations relatively remote to action and direct, current experience.

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF COUNSELLING

Theory and practice should go hand in hand. Many trained counselors initially adhere to the theory while starting their career as counsellor. However, even those who are fanatically tied down to one theory appear to change over time. This is because the client is a human being and he is the link between the theory and practice of the counsellor. Rigid theories, like the Procrustean bed, repel the human psyche. When the man does not fit into the theory the counselor is compelled to change his theory.

This is one of the most demanding challenges of counselling. Counselors should keep their minds more receptive and flexible. The psychological concept of individual difference must be understood thoroughly. Individual clients differing in their personalities come with dissimilar problems, goals and aspirations. To believe that all those clients would benefit from one kind of theory is unrealistic. It is useful to know that all the well-known theories have emerged from the practice of individual counselor’s personal experience with counselees.

This is why we have different theories and practices. Trying to know theories as old and new broadens our perspective. But what would be ultimately useful is the one that is carved out from the counselor’s experience with the various ego states and the struggles between the real parts of their behaviour and the behaviour of others by identifying which ego state is in power at any given time. TA thus gives the clients information about the various types of transactions that occur among individuals and to help them identify the kinds of behaviour in which they are involved.

The goal of TA is to help clients review their past decisions and make new decisions about their present behaviour. It is assumed that this would change their life direction into developing an autonomous life style characterized by awareness, spontaneity. This, it is believed that would, eliminate a life style characterized by manipulative game- playing a self- defeating neurotic tendencies.

Directive teaching is the core in all the cognitive approaches. For example in *Rational Emotive Therapy* (RET) the counselor takes up an active teaching role to educate clients. The RET counselor makes the client understand that the latter's internationalized sentences are quite illogical and especially the current illogical thinking are self-defeating verbalizations of the client.

The success if the counselor lies in bringing illogical thinking forcefully to the client's attention. He must also show to the counselee how these thoughts are maintaining his unhappiness and how a rethinking and maintenance of logically and rationality make him happy and contented. In reality therapy, the meaning of reality and the necessity to act responsibly are taught by the counselor.

TRAIT AND FACTOR ORIENTED COUNSELLING APPROACHES

The trait- factor approach has developed from a marriage of differential psychology's research and theories to Parson's vocational guidance concepts. The approach was born at the Minnesota Employment Stabilization Research Institute and the University of Minnesota Test Bureau as a practical response to educational and vocational adjustment problems of the unemployed and students.

It is still closely identified with educational and vocational counseling. The approach has placed heavy reliance on the scientific method by attempting systematically to observe and measure individuals. Traits are categories that are used for describing individual differences in behaviour, and statistical methods of factor analysis are used to ascertain how many factors are sufficient to account for similarities and difference in individuals.

Trait- factorists have relied heavily on empirical objective data for a logical problem-solving approach to client problems. Thus, the approach may be placed in the constellation of theories that are more cognitively than affectively oriented. Its basic model of analysis, synthesis, diagnosis, prognosis, counseling, and follow-up is a structured, stepwise attempt to help the client become self-counseled. The major component of the model is the integration of objective test data with client subjective data to arrive at a differential diagnosis.

As it has evolved, the trait-factor approach has become more developmental, dynamic, process-oriented, and eclectic. It has moved to a person times environment fit approach, which is seen not as static but as reciprocal and dynamic. Vocational counseling, in particular, is not seen as fixed but as a continuing experience with definable stages. The contemporary approach is eclectic in that it sees merit and utility in cognitive therapies such as the reality, rational-emotive, and behavioural approach is eclectic in that it sees merit and utility in cognitive therapies such as the reality, rational-emotive, and behavioural approaches.

The logical basis of the approach relies heavily on a mentoring and teaching role by the counselor to influence and change the irrational thinking and behaviour of the client. A great deal of knowledge, experience, and expertise is assumed of the counselor. Trait-factor counseling is most commonly founding school, employment, and rehabilitation counseling. By including a broader

diagnostic scheme, more advanced information-processing concepts, and a more adaptive counseling style, the person times environment fit approach has matured beyond the old trait-factor model. The person times environment model includes these elements by organizing personal constructs, the world of work, person times environment interactions and then applying them in a problem-solving sequence. Including current concepts of problem solving, information processing, and attitude change has reinvigorated a venerable approach to career counseling.

Frank Parsons' Trait and Factor Theory of Occupational Choice

People perform best when they are in jobs best suited to their abilities Frank parsons is regarded as the founder of the vocational guidance movement. He developed the talent- matching approach, which was later developed into the Trait and Factor Theory of Occupational Choice. At the centre of Parsons' theory is the concept of matching. He states that occupational decision making occurs when people have achieved.

- An accurate understanding of their individual traits
- A knowledge of jobs and the labour market
- Rational and objective judgement about the relationship between their individual traits, and the labour market.

This three-part theory still governs most current practice. The trait and factor theory operates under the premise that it is possible to measure both individual talents and the attributes required in particular jobs. It also assumes that people may be matched to an occupation that's a good fit.

Parsons suggests that when individuals are in jobs best suited to their abilities they perform best and their productivity is highest. In his book, 'Choosing a Vocation' Parsons maintains that personal counsel is fundamental to the career search. In particular, he notes seven stages for a career counsellor to work through with clients:

- *Personal data:* Create a statement of key facts about the person, remembering to include every fact that has bearing on the vocational problem.
- *Self-analysis:* A self-examination is done in private and under the instruction of the counsellor. Every tendency and interest that might impact on the choice of a life work should be recorded.
- *The client's own choice and decision:* This may show itself in the first two stages. The counsellor must bear in mind that the choice of vocation should be made by the client, with the counsellor acting as guide.
- *Counsellor's analysis:* The counsellor tests the client's decision to see if it is in line with the "main quest".
- *Outlook on the vocational field:* The counsellor should be familiar with industrial knowledge such as lists and classifications of industries and vocations, in addition to locations of training and apprenticeships.
- *Induction and advice:* A broad-minded attitude coupled with logical and clear reasoning are critical at this stage.

- *General helpfulness:* The counsellor helps the client to fit into the chosen work, and to reflect on the decision.

Much of Parsons' "work still guides career counselling today, though it is not without criticism. Matching assumes a degree of stability within the labour market. However, the reality is that the markets volatility means individuals must be prepared to change and adapt to their circumstances. It has been criticized for being overly cognitive and reductionistic.

That is, relying on objective measurements of traits may lead to an oversimplified view of the human condition. Further, the very existence of valid and reliable objective tests, and of stable traits, remains highly questionable. Trait-factor counseling is also limited insofar as it only seeks to describe a client's potential rather than help him achieve it. E.G, Williamson was the only trait-factor theorist to address this question: he argued that the counselor has the responsibility to promote the self-actualization of his client, rather than just measuring it.

Behavioural therapy, like trait-factor counseling, is firmly grounded in the scientific method, and it is committed to bringing experimental findings into clinical practice in order to change clients' behaviour and resolve personal and social problems. Behaviourism has its roots in Pavlov's. Trait-factor counseling is the only counseling method which has its root in vocational counseling.

It dates back to 1908, when Frank Parsons founded the Boston Vocational Bureau and stated his conviction that in order to choose the best career, one had to understand oneself, the characteristics of different job environments, and the relationship between these variables. Trait-factor theory was further developed during the testing movement in the U.S./during the 1930's by psychologists like E.G., Williamson, John Darley, and Donald G. Paterson. Trait-factor counseling is an extremely cognitive approach based on the scientific method and the theory of individual differences. Its major underlying assumptions include the following:

- Each person has a unique pattern of traits that are relatively stable and rarely change after adolescence.
- These traits are measurable.

PSYCHOLOGY & ADJUSTMENT AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE & COUNSELING

Psychology and Adjustment, along with Educational Guidance and Counseling, are integral components of supporting students' overall well-being and academic success in educational settings. Psychology and Adjustment delve into understanding human behavior, cognition, and emotions, particularly focusing on how individuals adapt and cope with challenges and changes in their environment. This field explores factors influencing adjustment, such as personality traits, social interactions, and life experiences, and aims to promote positive adjustment and resilience among students. Educational Guidance and Counseling, on the other hand, encompass a range of supportive services aimed at assisting students in making informed decisions about their academic, career, and personal development. Counselors and educators provide guidance on academic planning, career exploration, and social-emotional issues, offering individual and group counseling sessions to address students' diverse needs. By integrating principles from psychology and adjustment with guidance and counseling techniques, educational professionals can create supportive learning environments that foster students' personal growth, academic achievement, and overall well-being. The book on Psychology, Adjustment, Educational Guidance, and Counseling offers comprehensive insights and practical strategies for educators and counselors to support students' psychological well-being, social adjustment, and academic success through effective guidance and counseling practices.



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