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Career Development of Youth

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Guidance & Counselling

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GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

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Theme: Career Development of Youth Editor — Dave Studd

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This issue of *Guidance and Counselling* is devoted to an overview of some of the theory and practice that has led to the development of so many innovative projects on the CAMCRY (Creation and Mobilization of Counselling Resources for Youth) project. We are indebted to Bryan Hiebert, the president of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation, for his energy and dedication to this issue at a time when he is heavily involved in directing the CAMCRY projects as well as carrying out his responsibilities at the University of Calgary. We are certain you will find the articles in this issue particularly interesting since they address important issues related to the career development of youth.

We are also pleased to announce the addition of two new members to our editorial board. Stu Conger is a well known career counsellor and educator who had a distinguished career with Canada Employment, is a past president of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association, and is currently the Executive Director of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation. He is the originator of the ideas that led to the development of the CAMCRY projects and was a major force in developing the proposal that led the federal government to fund the CAMCRY projects. We also welcome Angeline Bushy to the board. She is an Assistant Professor at the University of Utah College of Nursing and most recently published an article on adult learners in the September, 1992 issue of *Guidance and Counselling*.

Comments

All of these developments are part of our efforts to continue to improve the quality of this journal. If you have any ideas or suggestions, please feel free to write to me at the Guidance Centre.

Future issues include the	following:
March 1993	open theme
May 1993	Transitions
September 1993	Health Counselling Across the Life Span
November 1993	Training Counsellors
January 1994	open theme

As always we encourage you to develop and submit articles on these general topics.

Dave

Theme Editorial Career Education: A Time For Infusion Bryan Hiebert Department of Educational Psychology University of Calgary

Career Education: A Time For Infusion

For young people, choice of career path is an extremely important undertaking. Choosing a career is perhaps second only to choice of mate in terms of the pervasiveness of the impact on ones life. In fact, the only objection to the preceding sentence I have heard is from people who say that career is probably not the second most important life decision that people make, but the first, in terms of the far-reaching over-arching effect on a persons personal-life satisfaction. Leaders in business, government and education are beginning to realize that what is needed is an encompassing, all-inclusive movement to raise the profile of career in people's thinking and to provide the sort of instruction that young people need in order to be better equipped to make realistic and informed career decisions.

The encompassing approach to promote career would have at least two thrusts, one focused on public education and the other addressing educational endeavours. Both will be important if Canadians are to realize that more attention must be paid to career-related decisions.

Public Education and Career

Several years ago, many Canadians began to be concerned about fitness, nutrition and health issues and the impact such things were having on our lives. There were comparisons showing that the fitness level of Canadians was lower than that of people from other countries. There was an increase in research activity investigating the health impact of lifestyle factors, nutrition, exercise and so on. The media took up the cause to the point where hardly a week would go by without seeing or hearing several reports about the health benefits of some particular food or certain kinds of physical activity. This sort of activity spawned "Participaction," which has become a household word in Canada and has undoubtedly increased the general health and life satisfaction of Canadian people.

Many people are beginning to realize that a similar program focusing on career planning, perhaps called a Career Development Culture, is both timely and appropriate given our current social milieu. A Career Development Culture would seek to increase people's awareness of the role of career in their life satisfaction and to foster a sense of empowerment and planfulness when approaching career-related concerns. Such a program would acknowledge that it is possible, and in fact good and proper, to be planful about ones career: that there is a means-end relationship between approaching career decisions from an information, exploration and planful perspective and the degree of job satisfaction experienced later on.

A Career Development Culture would address at least three levels of development. At a *personal level*, it would involve helping people establish meaning in their lives, teaching them how to build a motivation to succeed, and developing the self-management skills necessary to follow through on the goals they set for themselves. At a *career planning level*, it would help people identify personally meaningful work, develop decision-making and problem-solving skills, learn how to access information about basic characteristics and qualification of various occupational roles and the preparation necessary for entry into those roles, discover mentors and role models to assist in the career planning process and establish general career path goals. Finally, at an adaptation level, people would learn how to make smooth transitions in their lives. This would involve developing better skills for learning from experience, reducing stress associated with moving into new experiences, becoming more comfortable and fluent in interpersonal interactions, coping with change, becoming more flexible and generally learning the self-management and self-reliance skills necessary for achieving personal/ career goals.

Inherent in a Career Development Culture is the realization that people do not choose a career at a single point in time – careers develop over time as a result of the experiences people have and the types of activities in which they find meaning. The paid employment a person pursues can add varying degrees of meaning to life and can never be separated from other aspects of a person's existence. In a very real sense, career development impacts all facets of life development and all aspects of life development impact career. A Career Development Culture would create an attitude that leads people to be active participants in their career destinies – shapers of their future rather than passive recipients.

Career Education in the Schools

It is obvious that schools can plan an important, central and crucial role in increasing the prominence given to career in life planning. However, this role will not be best realized by isolated courses in junior and senior high school. Rather, what is needed is an infusion or integration of career concepts in all subjects across all grade levels. Some examples will illustrate how this might work.

In elementary school, many classes go on field trips to places like the fire hall, police station or zoo. Usually, they climb on fire engines, perhaps try on fire fighting apparel, walk into a jail cell, sit in the court room or get information about the habitat of various zoo animals. It would be very easy to include in the agenda for a zoo visit some discussion of the worker roles that are part of creating a positive zoo experience. This would include grounds workers, animal trainers, pen cleaners, feeders, dietitians, ticket takers, administrators, gift shop clerk, and so on. All of the worker roles contribute to the total zoo experience and are as important as the animals in making the zoo an attractive place to visit.

The balance between information about the animal and information about the workers would vary from grade to grade and from class to class and could easily be integrated into discussions of animal habitat and the like, either as part of the workers "spiel" or in response to teacher questions, e.g., "That was an interesting explanation about how you train an elephant, I'm wondering if you could tell us a little bit about how a person becomes an elephant trainer and what other sorts of things you do when you are not training the elephants." In addition to providing information about jobs, such an approach would foster the attitude that it is natural and important to ask about the nature of the jobs that people do. In similar ways information about job duties, the sorts of personal characteristics, education or training important for success in a particular job, likes and dislikes associated with the various job-related roles could easily be integrated into a variety of field trips ranging across fire hall, police station, bakery and so on.

To illustrate further, it generally is acknowledged that Canadian young people are not registering in natural sciences and mathematics programs at colleges and universities in sufficient numbers to meet future occupational demand. A variety of reasons have been put forward for this, including the perception on the part of many young people that the sciences are for geniuses, science is the enemy that is responsible for environmental pollution and social problems, and science is boring. Integrating career information about the scope and nature of sciencerelated careers could give science and mathematics teachers a unique opportunity to help students see that science can be part of the solution. An infusion of career information into science and math classes could be a powerful marketing tool to promote scientific study by public school students and begin reversing the current national trend.

The Role of School Counsellors

Clearly, school counsellors can play a vital role in motivating staff to integrate career into their classes, providing information to teachers that will help them infuse career into their classes and in coordinating many of the activities which lend themselves to addressing career matters. This will undoubtedly add an interesting dimension to a counsellors role and help the counsellor become a more integral part of the teaching staff. It will give more prominence to, and some concrete substance for, the "third C" in the traditional configuration of a counsellor's role (counselling, coordinating and consulting).

That is not to say that one-to-one interactions between counsellors and students are unimportant — counselling will always be a vital part of a counsellor's role. However, operationalizing the counsellor's consulting role to include an emphasis on infusing career in the school curriculum will be a way of broadening the counsellor's personal influence in the school and increasing the numbers of students that can benefit from the counsellor's expertise in career-related matters. Allocating a portion of a counsellors time to career infusion activities, and the resulting focus on preventative and developmental student concerns, will undoubtedly increase the meaningfulness of many school subjects as well as help smooth the transition from school to other aspects of a student's life.

The Challenge

There is a clear shift in the career counselling literature away from addressing career as a single choice, point-in-time phenomenon to a careerlife, pervasive, life span focus. This focus emphasizes identifying all the factors that are important to consider when making career choices. rather than the choices per se. True, some high school students will be at the point where they will be able to go one step beyond and actually choose an occupation, others may be able to map out a career path and make initial choices that begin their journey down that path, while others, probably the vast majority, will have a better understanding of the costs and benefits attached to such choice and a more clear understanding of the importance of approaching career-related decisions in a planful manner. Creating this sort of mind set is the challenge that faces counsellors and teachers alike. Career counselling and career education needs to focus on teaching students the skills they need to explore their limits and potentials, to explore the requirements of various occupations and how to organize the results of the exploration, and how to follow through on decisions in a way that fosters attaining goals.

However, if counsellors and teachers are going to be able to surmount this challenge, they will need curricular materials and other information, and probably inservice training in the use of those materials and information. That is where the focus in this special issue comes into play. Two years ago the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation launched an innovative project intended to create a substantial improvement in career counselling for youth, called the "Creation And

Mobilization of Counselling Resources for Youth" or CAMCRY. CAMCRY consists of about 40 projects being undertaken at 18 colleges and universities across Canada. The projects deal with various careerrelated topics, intended to address the needs of different segments of the youth population and are intended to be used in a variety of different settings where career counselling and career education are conducted. The papers presented in this special issue describe some of the projects that are being used in school settings. When the projects are complete, they will have been extensively field tested and teachers and counsellors will be able to use the materials with confidence in the sorts of results they usually produce. Moreover, a comprehensive training program is being developed so that teachers and counsellors will be able to obtain quality inservice in the use of these materials. This will help school professionals who accept the challenge of fostering a Career Development Culture and integrating career into the school curriculum to obtain the necessary skills and curricular aids to assist them in meeting that challenge.

It is a truism to say that we live in a changing world and that the challenges facing young people are greater today than they have been in the past. But it also is the case that teachers and counsellors face increasing challenges to respond to the myriad of demands that are thrust upon them. Few would argue with the importance of assisting young people in establishing a more positive, purposeful, and empowered approach to career planning. Most probably would agree that it lies within the school mandate to assist in developing such an approach. The programs in this special issue are one step in the direction of helping teachers and counsellor to respond to that need.

Bryan Hiebert

President Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation Chair of Counselling Psychology Department of Educational Psychology University of Calgary **Career Counselling in Rural Areas** Mildred Cahill and Sandra Martland Memorial University of Newfoundland

Abstract

Career counselling theory has grown out of a society based on mass production. As a result, many of the assumptions underlying the theories are rooted in an urban-industrial structure. Applying these assumptions to career development programs in the peripheral regions of the country may sometimes be invalid. Rural areas have developed social and economic structures that diverge from the mainstream, and the perspectives their residents hold on some career-related concepts are also different. Career development theory must legitimate rural life and help those people succeed in their home environment as well as in the dominant urban society.

Counsellors who deliver career programs in rural areas face issues that their urban counterparts never have to consider. There are the practical difficulties posed by distance, a scattered population, and in many cases, a higher than average student-counsellor ratio. Perhaps more serious are the problems of relating mainstream counselling programs to people living on the periphery of the urban-industrial culture.

1. Funding for this proposal was provided by the following services: The Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation, which thanks Employment and Immigration Canada for funding the Foundation's contribution; Employment and Labour Relations, Government of Newfoundland and Labrador; Memorial University of Newfoundland; and Telemedicine and Educational Technology Resources Agency (TETRA), MUN. Career development theory has grown out of a society based on mass production and its underlying assumptions naturally reflect that fact. Some of these assumptions may be inapplicable or inappropriate to rural areas, and ignoring this aspect can result in career programs that ignore the values, practices and social order of rural communities. This in turn can make the programs irrelevant to the individuals, and worse, it risks undermining the self-esteem rural residents need to make career decisions.

While rural Canada is very much part of the modern society, it differs from urban Canada in economic and social structures. The dependence on resource-based occupations, the more generalized social roles and the tendency toward egalitarianism and co-operation present life experiences that are quite different from the city. People who grow up in a rural setting therefore develop some perspectives that are distinct from those who grow up in an urban centre. Sensitivity to these differences and how they influence life decisions is important in developing theories that are indeed transferable to rural populations.

The Meaning of Work

Career development theories generally place a lot of emphasis on occupation. This stems from the recognition that, for many people, work is the central source of well-being and self-identity. By matching interests, abilities and personality to types of work, counsellors aim to help students make choices that will provide them with a stable yet progressive path through life.

Recent theories have acknowledged that occupation cannot be seen in isolation from other life roles. However, Super's conclusion that work salience is a major factor in the construct of career maturity indicates the prominence placed on paid work in the broader approach suggested by his "career rainbow". Super associates the "work ethic" with industrialization (Super, 1982), and suggests people who live in non-industrialized areas like parts of the southern United States do not have the motivation to work that exists elsewhere.

The inappropriateness of this conclusion when applied to rural areas lies in the assumption that "work" pertains only to paid labour. In a rural setting, work encompasses a broader range of activities, all of which contribute to the well-being of the household. Cutting wood for buildings and for fuel, constructing new houses, picking and preserving berries, hunting and butchering, gardening and fishing for one's own consumption have helped most rural Newfoundlanders achieve a standard of living that would be unattainable in an urban environment with the same cash incomes.

Not only does non-market production contribute to the financial wellbeing of rural households, but it is an important source of status for the individual. To be known in the community as a hard worker is fine praise and earning such a reputation does not depend totally on jobs found in the labour market. In fact, more status is attached to unpaid work that makes a real contribution to the household than to paid work that is created by governments in response to a crisis in the fishery or the closing of a mine. Work salience among the rural population is high, but it is work defined in the broad rather than the narrow sense (Hill, 1983). The concept of work salience, then, must also take on a broader meaning if it is to be relevant to career development among and within rural populations.

Specialization vs. Multitracking

Career development theories tend to assume the diversity of opportunities for paid work that exists in the urban-industrial setting. The inherent dependence of rural communities on one or at most a few resource industries limits the number and type of jobs in the goodsproducing sector and their small populations limit the opportunities in the service industries. Many services that employ city residents on a fulltime basis either do not exist in rural communities or are provided on a volunteer, in-kind, or part-time basis.

Corresponding to the difference in economic structures is a contrast in the demands of society for labour force skills. Urban society is best served by specialists, and the career counselling goal of helping an individual choose an occupation based on congruence with aptitudes, interests and temperaments is compatible with such an environment. It is less relevant in a setting that benefits more from generalists. To meet the needs of the community and to achieve a desirable standard of living, rural residents are more likely to combine various unrelated work activities.

The tendency of career development theory to assume the diversity and specialization that characterizes the urban labour market may result in programs that are irrelevant to the life experiences of rural residents. Further, by neglecting the strategy of multitracking, programs may logically lead most rural youth to conclude that the only rational alternative for them is to leave their communities. Leaving is obviously a viable path for some and it is a path often taken. However, career development theory must also provide the framework for rural people to explore their alternatives should they decide to stay. It must recognize the legitimacy of the generalist structure in the rural setting, and use this as the basis for determining what skills their rural clients need to make life choices.

Geographical Preference vs. Mobility

The entrenchment of career development theory in the urban-industrial structure assumes diversity of occupational choice but pays little if any attention to the range of geographical options. Yet research has disclosed that location is a major influence on the decisions people make. A British study of engineers, scientists and technologists showed that geographical preference was one of the main reasons they gave for changing occupations within 12 years of graduating (Lewis & Thomas, 1987). An American study found that worker commitment was highest in small, independent firms outside of the major metropolitan areas and lowest in corporate headquarters in the larger centres (Hodson & Sullivan, 1985).

In Canada, more and more people are sacrificing the occupational benefits of the urban centres to achieve what they feel is a better quality of life in the rural areas. As a result, the net migration flow of Canadian residents since 1971 has been urban-rural, a shift from the earlier trend toward urbanization. The growing concentration of population in the country's cities is the result of immigration, not migration (Biggs & Bollman, 1991).

Geographical choice influences people often at a subconscious level, and its relative importance to other goals and values varies with the individual. The strong attachment that many rural people feel toward their community may be due to this choice becoming a more conscious one in the face of perceived and real threats to their culture and to their self-identity.

By acknowledging the role that is played by geographical preference, career development theory may better explain the choices that many rural

people make to stay in their home communities or on the farm despite financial hardships and restricted occupational opportunities.

Occupational Change

If career development theories incorporate the broader definition of work, the validity of a generalist social organization, and the centrality of geographical preference, they must also re-examine the role of occupational change. An apparently erratic career path may in fact be well-anchored.

Newfoundland has the notoriety of maintaining the country's highest unemployment rates. However, the incidence of long term unemployment (over 40 weeks) is no greater in this province than in the nation as a whole (Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment, 1986). Where Newfoundland differs from the national pattern is in the stability of the labour market. Only 39 percent of the labour force held full-time year round jobs in 1984. Many rural Newfoundlanders have adapted to a high incidence of non-standard working arrangements by taking advantage of short term job opportunities as they arise. Others use temporary migration. Facing a shortage of cash, people go to the more lucrative job markets on the mainland to work. Their intention is not to stay but to earn the money they need to support themselves and their families in their home communities (House, 1989). Commuting to the larger towns or cities in the province is another option that is used.

A recent quantitative study of career drifters in Newfoundland gave support to the existence of a group of "drifters by necessity" (Cahill, 1992). Half of the young adults who participated in the study had at some time gone to the mainland for work. Of those, half had quit jobs to come home. The main reasons they gave for coming back were to return to school or for family-related concerns.

Because the goal of many career programs is to direct a client toward a suitable or congruent occupation, there is a tendency to view clients who make frequent career changes as maladaptive. They are often assumed to have personality or psychological defects that inhibit their ability to make a decision or to persevere on one course. Undoubtedly, such people exist. However, it is unfair to assume that all persistent job changers fall into this category. Particularly in rural areas, frequent change may well be part of an adaptive strategy that is necessary in a hostile economic environment.

Career Skills

Regardless of its significance in other areas, occupation is crucial to the financial wellbeing of individuals. Recent crises in the farming and fishing industries have posed a serious threat to the earning power of many rural residents, and therefore to their ability to maintain an acceptable standard of living.

People in rural areas have four basic options in the occupational realm outside of the military. Firstly, they can move to the cities where there are more numerous opportunities. Secondly, they can pursue the traditional resource-based and service (including government) occupations. This option, however, is becoming increasingly restricted by either resource depletion or global market changes, and by cutbacks in public spending. Thirdly, they can combine several work activities that are available on a part-time or temporary basis, perhaps incorporating temporary migration. Fourthly, they can create their own opportunities. No matter what option these people may choose, the career skills taught to urban residents may be inadequate or inappropriate.

Because rural residents should have the option of moving to the city, they need career development programs that prepare them for that environment. Not only do they have to learn the skills their urban counterparts need, they also have to be prepared to adapt to a new culture. They should understand the differences between their home environment and the formal, specialized and time-urgent setting of the city. They should be prepared not only to take advantage of the occupational opportunities but also to access the facilities and programs important to other life roles.

Rural people should also have the option of staying, and for this they need career programs that address the skills they need to succeed in the modern rural environment. Programs must legitimate rural values and practices and be sensitive to the possibility that some skills normally included in career programs may be inappropriate in the rural setting. For example, getting the job you want in a city often requires an assertive approach, selling yourself to the potential employer, following up applications with personal phone calls and so on. In a small rural community, such behaviour would reflect negatively on the individual (Hill, 1983).

Job search skills that make up most career development programs are also inapplicable in some rural communities. A large percentage of rural residents have only one potential employer in their vicinity. Moreover, hiring is generally done through informal channels and selection depends on family and personal reputation and on social networks. The career skills relating to job search in such a context are inapplicable; people know what opportunities exist and they can quite accurately predict their success in getting a job. They are also willing to wait their turn to fill the positions that become open (Hill, 1983).

A major dilemma is to identify what career development programs can do to help the individual who is committed to residence in the rural setting but who either cannot or does not want to work in one of the traditional occupations. It is in this area that programs need the greatest development.

One of the barriers to rural development is the lack of entrepreneurship. There are many reasons why people do not want to take the risk of establishing their own businesses in rural areas, not the least of which is that the personal risk is much greater in their circumstances. Unlike prospective entrepreneurs in an urban centre, rural people have few options for employment should they fail, and taking such a risk entails sacrificing the safety net of unemployment insurance that they would have if they continued to work for someone else (Royal Commission, 1986). In an urban centre where jobs are relatively numerous, there is less to lose in striking out on your own.

Another reason may be that rural people themselves have little faith in new ventures succeeding. This sense of helplessness is perhaps learned. Rural people, particularly in areas of high unemployment, get few positive and many negative messages about their lives from school texts, media, and experts in various fields. Career development programs, based on theories originating in the urban-industrial structure, may inadvertently confirm these negative messages. In areas where creating one's own job may be one of the more viable paths, helping clients unlearn the helplessness that inhibits entrepreneurship is likely one of the greatest challenges facing rural career counsellors. Career development programs must enable potential entrepreneurs to seriously consider this alternative by providing them with the skills they need to identify opportunities, solve problems, access distant sources of information and financing, and with the information they need on educational programs, government and community development organizations, and business and marketing trends.

Global Change and Rural Societies

The economic options open to rural areas are greater now than they have ever been. Thanks to computers and telecommunications networks, the problems associated with distance have greatly diminished and decentralization of economic activity is more plausible. Technology has the potential to free rural societies from the total dependence on natural resources, but the people in these peripheral areas must be prepared to take advantage of the new opportunities. Career development programs can play a major role in this area by passing on skills and information to help rural residents succeed in their home environment as well as in the urban society.

Counsellors who work in rural areas must develop their sensitivity to the values and perspectives of their clients and enhance their knowledge of the social and economic realities that influence life decisions. Providing an effective service will require understanding the nature of work in a generalist society that is not entirely dependent on the exchange of cash and acknowledging the legitimacy of adaptive strategies such as frequent occupational change and short term migration. It will require an appreciation of the importance that many clients place on community and the influence of community norms on occupational exploration and job search techniques. Rural counsellors must keep abreast of the changes that rural societies are undergoing and the new opportunities that arise from rural development initiatives and technological advances. Attending to these tasks will help them provide the appropriate skills training and information to clients who want to develop their careers in rural settings.

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Evaluation of a Transition Counselling Program According to Vocational Personality Types *Danielle Riverin-Simard, Ph.D. Jean-Paul Voyer, Ph.D. Faculty of Education Sciences Laval University*

Abstract

This article presents the results of the evaluation of a transition counselling program aiming to facilitate the interaction of young people according to four central "person-environment" modes, taking into account the strengths and weaknesses of the six vocational personality types and occupational environment types. The evaluation of "input", the logical links between the proposed objectives and the workshops, produced, according to the judges' technique, positive results. The evaluation of the "product" indicates, on the basis of the results of the "Adult Career Concerns Inventory", that the subjects of the experimental group seem to have attained a degree of career adaptability (exploration stage and specification sub-task) significantly superior (p<.10) to that of the subjects of the control group. This review of the study concludes with the formulation of recommendations concerning the dissemination of the program.

A certain number of intervention programs have been created in response to the magnitude of the difficulties that socio-professional transition present for young people. From this perspective, we have conceived an

This research was made possible by a grant from the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation and Laval University.

innovative program aiming to improve the career adaptability of youth seeking employment. In order to do this, we have first based our work on the process of person-environment interaction (P-E), a process that has been recognized as central to the majority of writings on transition (Caplan, 1987; Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987; Moos, 1987; Spokane, 1987) and to the main theories of vocational choice and development (Osipow, 1987, 1990). We have subsequently refined this notion of "P-E" interaction by distinguishing four facets that we label formist, relational, organismic and transactional. This latter contribution is one of the principal elements assuring the innovative character of our program. Until now, pertinent writings on vocational choice and development were minimally interested in refining the "P-E" process. Furthermore, the nuances distinguished among the four dimensions permit the conception of pertinent counselling programs in a more subtle and clarified fashion. Finally, we wished to further clarify the phenomenon of transition by introducing another component into the program: the diverse types of vocational personality and occupational environments (Holland, 1985). Thus, and in a manner that is both more precise and complete, the final and global goal of our intervention program can be formulated as follows: enabling the participants to deal more effectively with the four dimensions of the "P-E" interaction, taking into account both the strengths and weaknesses of each vocational personality type as well as the expectations and demands of one or another of the occupational environments that compose the job market.

Our program is based on the principle that the four basic dimensions of interaction require different tasks for each of the six vocational personalities. Rather than isolating these particularities (conceiving a program that is specific to each type of vocational personality), we have instead sought to take advantage of the richness of face to face interaction by grouping them together (in order that the six personality types be equally represented within any given group of participants). This latter particularity is another element assuring the innovative character of our program. Moreover, in our view, this heterogeneous presence constitutes one of the conditions necessary for the optimal efficacy of our counselling program. Our program strives to give greater power to young people (an expression used by Amundson & Borgen, 1988) by permitting them to better understand and deal with these differences inherent in the job market and among employers.

Conception of Transition

This conception of transition is based on four principles. The first maintains that socio-professional transition is a process of personenvironment (P-E) interaction (Caplan, 1987; Kulik, et al., 1987; Moos,1987; Spokane, 1987).

The second principle states that this interaction process is subdivided into four dimensions. Based on works by Altman and Rogoff (1987), Riverin-Simard (1991) identifies four perspectives of interaction applied to the phenomenon of socio-professional transition.

1. The formist approach is defined as a process of "P-E" pairing; the crucial points of the intervention programs related to this approach translate into objectives aiming to provide information on the "P-E" similarities, affinities or dissimilitudes.

2. The relational conception is identified, for its part, as a process of "P-E" reciprocal actions; the intervention programs linked to this approach are based primarily on objectives of development of interpersonal skills, such as persuasion or inter-influence.

3. The organismic conception is linked to a process of complex reciprocal "P-E" actions, taking into account both the respective current state of the components as well as the fact that they consist of phenomena that are each inscribed in a particular future orientation. As for intervention programs situated within this conception, their objectives would be associated with the development of the following skills: a) to project the "P" and the "E" in both immediate and future perspectives; b) to identify the possible inter-influences between these two series of current realities and middle-term or long-term projects. 4. Finally, the transactional conception is associated with a process of "P-E" fusion within a particular context and moment. The objectives of the transition programs situated within this approach translate as the development of the following skills: a) to undertake a global reading of a situation; b) to detect the unique characteristics of the latter; c) to tolerate the ambiguity of the unknown and unpredictable character that is attached to the singularity of each situation of socio-professional transition.

The third principle of our conception of transition maintains, on the basis of work by Altman and Rogoff (1987), Dewey and Bentley (1949) and Pepper (1942), that the minimal mastering of each of the four modes

of interaction is not only important but necessary for a successful socioprofessional transition.

Finally, a fourth principle states that individuals who improve their degree of preparation for socio-professional transition are evolving positively in terms of vocational maturity and adaptability (Gabbaro, 1987; Super, 1984; Wanous, 1980). More precisely, young adults who improve their degree of preparation for transition will experience the exploration stage, the stage that immediately precedes their actual entry into the job market (Super, Thompson, & Lindeman, 1988), in a more pronounced fashion.

Conception of the Educational Approach

With regards to the intervention program, we have adopted a cognitive counselling approach (Gladding, 1988; Patterson, 1986). Its authors maintain that their perspective enables individuals to learn to respect themselves and tolerate others, due to the modification of incomplete or inadequate ideas about themselves and their environment (Ellis, McInerney, DiGiuseppe, & Yeager, 1988). Our program thus includes, throughout the workshops, the elimination of incomplete and inadequate ideas and the integration of realistic ones. Thus, the aim of our program is that individuals succeed in becoming more conscious of the above, and in acting and adapting themselves to their personal particularities as well as to the heterogeneity of the job market with which they must come into contact (transition) or continue to interact (adaptation).

Conception of the Evaluation

It is important to proceed towards the evaluation of a new intervention program (Stecher & Davis, 1990). Nonetheless, researchers are also unanimous in emphasizing the complexity and multiple risks of an erroneous interpretation (Fretz, 1981). They also suggest that evaluation take several dimensions into account simultaneously (Goldman, 1978). This latter recommendation also explains our decision to choose the "CIPP" model (Context-Input-Process-Product) from among the nine evaluation models proposed and described by Goldman (1978). The consideration and combining of these four dimensions facilitate a continual retroaction that thus assures the control of elaboration or modification procedures of one or another of the components of the program (Stufflebeam & al., 1980). For reasons of practicality, finances and time, this evaluation is focused on two of the four dimensions of the CIPP model: input and product.

The Evaluation of the Input

This dimension of the evaluation, in which the emphasis is placed on the importance of clarifying the goals and objectives (Silberman & Auberbach, 1990), is based on Stecher and Davis' goal-oriented approach (1990). According to the authors of this perspective, the degree of success of a program would be linked primarily to the degree of correspondence between the fixed objectives and the proposed activities. "To the goal-oriented evaluator, generalizability of conclusions is less important than program-relatedness." (Stecher & Davis, 1990, p.27)

Based on this goal-oriented approach, a rationale was developed for the operational procedure (3-4 pages each) for each of the 22 workshops and sub-workshops in the program. This rationale expressly identifies the logical, theoretical and empirical links between each of the proposed activities and the particular and global expected objectives. With the counselling of three judges, we have evaluated these rationale and undertaken certain modifications. Subsequent to these readjustments, the judges estimated that the objectives of the 22 workshops and subworkshops were entirely consistent with both the theoretical elements and the educational approach employed. These positive results lead us to believe in a coherence between the desired objectives, the theoretical elements and the proposed activities.

The Evaluation of the Product

The goal of an evaluation of this order is ultimately to measure the achievement of the expected objectives and to interpret the diverse elements of success and failure in a final global perspective (Phi Delta Kappa, 1974; Stufflebeam & al., 1981). For this type of evaluation, we used the experimental approach (Stecher & Davis, 1990) aiming to establish a causal relationship between the variables. The relative advantage of this approach is that it associates the process of the evaluation with the standards and demands of positivist scientific research. Moreover, it provides a framework permitting the objectivizing of the obtained data, the elaborating of more generalizable conclusions

and the offering of results that are credible in the eyes of decisionmakers. This approach also bears the heavy tribute of reductionism in seeking to link complex influences to simple causal patterns (Stecher & Davis, 1990).

Principal Hypothesis

Using previously explained conceptual elements as a basis, the global hypothesis at the heart of this evaluation is the following. The more individuals master the diverse modes of "P-E" interaction, taking into account the strengths and weaknesses of their vocational personalities, the more they display an elevated degree of vocational adaptability. This hypothesis thus translates, in strictly operational terms, into the following. The subjects of the experimental group, having followed the counselling program, display a greater level of concern about the exploration stage than do the subjects of the control group. It thus seems plausible to believe that it is the specification sub-task that best characterizes the two groups in the exploration stage. The latter is a logical extension of the counselling program's insistence on identification of individual specificity within the heterogeneity of the job market.

Sample

The experimental group and the control group were each composed of 30 subjects and reflected an equal allocation from each of the six types of vocational personality. To assure this latter uniformity of representation within the two groups, we have retained 10 subjects from each of the six types of vocational personality. From this group, the first five volunteers of each type were invited to participate in a training program. With regards to the identification of the types of vocational personality, we used Holland's test, associated with the type of professional training achieved as well as the aspired diverse occupations and jobs. The subjects all completed their post-secondary education at least 6 months ago. At the time of the study, none of the subjects were working full-time, either in their professional specializations or in a field of a connected or different practice.

Experimental Treatment

The subjects of the experimental group participated in the transition counselling program entitled "Strategies of Socio-Professional Transition and Vocational Personalities". This program is comprised of four sections corresponding to the four dimensions of interaction; it includes 22 workshops and sub-workshops. The evaluation of the "input", that is, of the compatibility of the desired objectives and the proposed activities, is a form of validation of the experimental treatment. Lastly, the program was divided into a timetable, two blocks of 2 days, followed by a period of 3 days, that lasted for a period of 3 weeks.

The aim of the program is that young people seeking transition succeed in: 1. grasping the specificity of the efforts that they must make, while simultaneously witnessing the kind of investment furnished by other participants of different personality types; 2. rebuilding confidence in their specificity, while remaining aware of the strengths and weaknesses of others; 3. becoming better motivated at developing skills in harmony with their own identity, while at the same time dealing more effectively with others' divergent orientations (individuals of diverse personality types; employer-organizations associated with different types of occupational environments); 4. better anticipating the particularities of diverse occupational environments; the latter, it must be recalled, are composed, according to Holland (1985), of a group of individuals globally associated with a dominant personality type.

Measures

We have used the "Adult Career Concerns Inventory" (Super et al., 1988) for the evaluation of the product. For Super and his colleagues, the degree of vocational adaptability achieved by individuals is identified both by the stage of development in which they are situated and by the way in which they deal with their tasks within this stage. The psychometric qualities of the test are relatively satisfying, considering the reserves expressed by the authors themselves. These reserves, remember, principally concern the research still necessary in order to establish norms better reflecting reality.

Results

In order to proceed towards the verification of our research hypothesis or the evaluation of our intervention program, we have chosen to use an analysis of variance. ANOVA was used to verify if the means of the subscales of the "Adult Career Concerns Inventory" significantly differ in the experimental and control groups. The level of confidence was fixed at pc<.10 because: 1. the unidirectional character of the alternative hypothesis suggested that the means observed in the experimental group would be higher than those observed in the control group; 2. the small number of subjects in each of the experimental (n=30) and control (n=30) groups meant that only a great difference could be judged significant. In this case, the use of a confidence level that was too severe increased our chances of concluding that no difference existed between the groups, even though one did exist in reality. Univariate ANOVAS were used since it was postulated that the subscales were orthogonal, or independent. **Table 1**

Comparison using an analysis of the variance of the performances of the two groups at different scales of the "ACCI"

		GROUPS				
	experimental		control		F	
	Means	S.D.	Means	S.D.		
Scales & subscales						
Exploration						
-crystallisation	17.60	4.58	16.00	5.74	1.46	
-specification	20.33	3.22	18.38	4.84	3.47	*
-implementation	20.03	2.94	19.09	7.78	0.39	
Total exploration	57.97	8.80	52.34	13.36	3.88	*
Establishment						
-stabilizing	18.77	3.54	19.88	4.60	1.12	
-consolidating	21.50	2.94	20.66	4.97	0.65	
-advancing	18.30	3.91	19.16	4.49	0.64	
Total establishment	58.90	8.84	56.69	12.74	0.08	
Maintenance						
-holding	18.43	4.78	17.97	5.03	0.14	
-updating	19.67	4.43	19.22	4.96	0.14	
-innovating	18.60	5.06	18.19	4.67	0.11	
Total maintenance	56.70	12.51	55.38	13.25	0.16	
* Significant to p<.10)					

The results are presented in Table 1. It must be noted that the means of the subtask of specification and the stage scale of exploration significantly differed among the experimental and control groups (F (1.61) = 3.88 and 3.47 respectively).

The experimental group obtained a relatively higher mean in the two cases, either 20.33 and 57.97 compared to 18.38 and 52.34 for the control group.

These results seem to confirm the central hypothesis maintaining that the subjects of the experimental group will demonstrate a level of adaptability superior to that of the subjects of the control group. To this effect, they seem to indicate a greater preoccupation with the dimensions of exploration and more particularly with the specification sub-task.

Discussion

The results seem to confirm, if not the pertinence, then at least the efficacy of the counselling program. As predicted, the results indicate that the subjects who participated in the program are more concerned about the specification sub-task of the exploration stage. It should also be remembered, in effect, that the experimental treatment (counselling program) was particularly focused on the identification of individual specificity within the heterogeneity of the job market.

This observation, maintaining that the transition counselling program leads to a greater identification of concerns relative to the stage of exploration and, more particularly, to the sub-task of specification, converges in one sense with Super, et al's theoretical claims (1988). The latter maintain that the stage of exploration, and particularly the sub-task of specification, would be principally associated with adults experiencing a career transition. "The specification...is a concern...during career transitions." (1988, p.2). Several authors are precisely defining socioprofessional entry as a transition, not limiting themselves to a very restrictive notion of hiring (Alaluf, Beguin, & Breuse, 1987; Carpenter & Miller, 1978; Carver & Smart, 1985; Cotton, 1985; Gambier & Verniere, 1985; Laflamme, 1984; Morin-Boily & Gauthier, 1986; Sandeen, 1982). In this respect and by way of example, Rose (1984) directly specifies that transition is not limited to a simple analysis of the adjustment between supply and demand. This author believes that the term "professional transition" is a lot more just and better corresponds to the process in question. This notion of transition, according to Rose (1984), conveys the idea of a passage, a displacement, or a movement having a certain duration. The transition stage would be effectively characterized, again according to this author, by the hazy border that separates the end of studies and the beginning of professional life. This phase is thus influenced by the preceding situation and foreshadows the future situation. In sum, if, as several authors maintain, socio-professional insertion is mainly defined as a transition, specification (the typical sub-task of career transitions according to Super et al., 1988, p.2) must be placed at the forefront of concerns if it is to be successful.

From another viewpoint, the very nature of the specification sub-task contributes to rendering it essential to the success of socio-professional transition. It is, in effect, known that the quality of the accomplishment of this sub-task has direct effects on the persistence in the occupational path chosen (Bujold, 1989, p.172). The importance of the specification sub-task with regard to the success of socio-professional transition also results from the twelfth behaviour characteristic of this sub-task. confidence in specific competence (Super, 1963, p.87-88). In effect, according to Pedersen and Smith (1986), the type of clients that are the most likely to find a job are the ones who have confidence in their specific values and skills. Furthermore, the more confidence individuals have in their own choice, the more they will be capable of demonstrating one or another of the attitudes often sought by employers, such as persuasion, creativity, autonomy, maturity and ability to express preferences and to involve oneself in an organized process (Garbin, 1987; Morin-Boily & Gauthier, 1986; Ostroth, 1981; Simonetti & Nykodym, 1987).

There is another argument in favour of the evidence of a tie between the specification sub-task on one hand and the success of socioprofessional transition on the other hand. This is due to the fact that this sub-task aims specifically at elaborating plans of action and at fulfilling precise objectives. "Specification also means... more specific... planning, including planning for implementation" (Super, 1963, p.88). From this perspective, specification assumes a great importance, since the more clearly plans are established the more capable individuals will be of determining efficient means to accomplish them. In a difficult socioeconomic context like the current one, it can be stated that a heightened concern about specification is an excellent gauge of the success of socioprofessional transition. In effect, it is only on the condition of having solidly specified their plans that individuals, faced with fruitless repetitive attempts, can eventually continue to envisage alternative methods and parallel paths and thus actively pursue a process of transition until concretely entering the job market.

In a more general fashion, finally, and in light of the results obtained, certain questions that are likely to become the subject of future research deserve reflection. It can first be asked to what extent a preoccupation with the four essential dimensions of interaction implicit in socio-professional transition serves as the main explanation of the results obtained? It should also be asked, in effect, if the counselling program, in focusing more selectively on one or another of the four dimensions, would not have revealed more conclusive results? In the same way, and again with reference to the conception of transition, is it in particular the fact of having dealt with the four modes of interaction differently, or rather, having considered the specificity of each vocational personality type in its negotiation with one or another of these modes of interaction, that had the most determining effect on the results?

Furthermore, in light of our conception of the educational approach, the results also suggest certain questioning. Can we believe, for example, that the cognitive educative approach used by the counselling program could prove to be one of the principal factors explaining the results obtained? While having few answers to this question, we can nonetheless remind ourselves that with regard to the sub-task of specification, Super affirmed the following: "[The specification]... is best handled cognitively" (1963, p.88).

From another view point, we can again ask ourselves if we would have obtained as much pertinent and useful information if we had concentrated our efforts on the evaluation of the process (one of the four elements of the "CIPP" model explained earlier) rather than on the product? In this regard, remember that the "responsive approach", proposed by Stecher and Davis (1990) as a method liable to being used in the framework of an evaluation of the process, is very critical with regards to the evaluation of the product and the experimental approach in general. "Responsive evaluation is guided by the belief that the only meaningful evaluation is one that seeks to understand an issue from the multiple points of view of all people who have a stake in the program. The responsive evaluator does not believe that there is a single answer to a program question that can be found by using tests, questionnaires or statistical analyses" (1990, p.36).

Practical Implications

On the basis of the results of the evaluation, our socio-professional transition counselling program is most related to those which focus on the sub-task of specification. Among these transition counselling programs concentrating on this sub-task, we primarily find initiatives aiming, for example, to offer information about the professional and organizational demands of future employers (Llorens-Trevino, 1985; Roach, Reardon, Alexander & Cloudman, 1983; Valez, 1985; Weissman, 1985) as well as the conditions and possibilities of hiring (Levin & Kamier, 1986). These programs also aim at a greater selfknowledge (Harris, Golden & Olsen, 1985; Kahn & Ward, 1983) of occupational skills and interests (Dorn, 1987) as well as professional identity (Schoer & Dorn, 1986). A certain number, finally, focus more particularly on hiring criteria (Dyer, 1987; Figler, 1979; Garbin, 1967; Ginsburg, 1976; Grubb & Lazerson, 1975; Voien & Hughes, 1983; Jew & Tong, 1986; Knock, 1977; Moore, 1978; Newton & Richardson, 1976; Ostroth, (1981); (Simonetti & Nykodym, 1987). Beyond the observed results, we can thus consider our program innovative and complimentary to the numerous efforts furnished by researchers and practitioners in this field.

Conclusion

The results of the evaluations of the "input" (type of validation of the experimental treatment or the activities of the counselling program) and the "product" (comparative data of the control and experimental groups of the "Adult Career Concerns Inventory") appear relatively promising. Nonetheless, even if the evaluation of this program would without a doubt merit further research, we nevertheless recommend its dissemination in its current form. This broader or generalized use should be directed towards young postsecondary graduates, with consideration for the reserves earlier expressed.

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Strategic Career Counselling With Clients Who Have Learning Disabilities Fred Reekie, Ph.D. Associate Professor Department of Educational Psychology University of Saskatchewan

Abstract

The career implications of recent economic and labour market trends are reviewed and then contrasted with the characteristics of learning disabilities. General guidelines for adapting career interventions to make them accessible to clients with learning disabilities are outlined.

For the benefit of both the individual and society, there is a need to adapt career counselling techniques and materials to make them more effective with clients who have learning disabilities (LD). While some youths with LD are successful, the majority encounter difficulty making the transition to postsecondary education and the work force (Bruck, 1987; Smith, 1988). Compared to approximately 30 percent of the general population (Pawlovich, 1983), nearly 50 percent of students with LD do not complete high school (Levin, Zigmond, & Birch, 1984). Over 70 percent of individuals with LD who do graduate from secondary school have neither a job nor an adequate plan to obtain a job (Hursh, 1989). When young adults with LD obtain employment, they are often in unskilled or

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There are four compelling reasons to develop strategies for career counselling with youths who have LD. First, in at least one Canadian province more students are identified as having severe LD than all other handicapping conditions combined (Saskatchewan Education, 1987). Second, the central characteristic of LD is that while some areas of learning are deficient, others function normally. Therefore, individuals in this population have clearly identifiable strengths on which to build career plans. Third, the parallel relationship between vocational and social outcomes implies that improving the career prospects of youths with LD would positively affect social outcomes, and in turn alleviate the strain on the social support network of these individuals. Finally, empowering these youths to improve their career outcomes would result in their contributing at a higher level to the general economic wealth of the country and simultaneously decrease the amount of economic support they require from the rest of society.

The skills required in career mapping are incompatible with the deficits experienced by youths with LD. Recent national and international trends further compound the challenge of career planning for these youths. In this paper, the career implications of recent economic and labour market trends are reviewed and then contrasted with the characteristics of LD. General guidelines for adapting career interventions to make them accessible to clients with LD are outlined.

Career Intervention Amidst Rapid Change

As a nation, Canada is experiencing rapid demographic and economic change. Statistics Canada (1989a) reports that since 1976 there has been a steady increase in the percentage of the population over the age of 55 and a simultaneous decrease in the percentage of the population under the age of 24. Also, since 1971 there has been a steady decrease in the

percentage of the population over 65 years who participate in the labour force (Statistics Canada, 1989b). Therefore, despite the current recession and high unemployment rates, trends suggest an impending shortage of young people to fill the demands of the labour market.

There have been fundamental shifts in the occupations that comprise the Canadian labour scene. It has been reported that (a) Canada's electronic industry is larger than its pulp and paper industry, (b) more Quebecers now work in health and medical care than in construction, textile, clothing, furniture, auto, forestry and mining industries combined, (c) Alberta's financial services industry employs more people than the oil and gas industry, (d) more people work in British Columbia's telecommunications industry than in its entire forestry industry, e) more Nova Scotians are employed as teachers and university professors than in fish processing, mining, forestry, pulp and paper and construction combined, and (f) Ontario has more hydroelectric workers than auto workers (Beck cited in Callaghan, 1991, p. 35).

Technological change also has far reaching consequences for the labour force, eliminating some jobs and radically altering others. Osberg (1988) identifies several changes in the patterns of labour in Canada. These include a shift from: (a) fulltime, permanent work to part time, temporary employment; (b) large corporations to small private firms as the employer; (c) employment in one lifelong occupation to several voluntary and involuntary career changes in a lifetime; and (d) working in the employer's building to working at home via telecommunication.

Coping with continually changing circumstances demands that individuals develop a tolerance for ambiguity and a capacity for continual adaptation (Amundson, 1990; Gelatt, 1989; Herr, 1990; Patterson, 1985). The critical skills identified by all four authors include proficiency in: (a) general academics; (b) technological literacy: (c) decision making; (d) problem solving; (e) critical reasoning; (f) goal setting; (g) planning; (h) error recovery; (i) information acquisition, organization and management; (j) networking and interpersonal relationships; and (k) employment mobility including job search, resume writing and interviewing.

Teaching these skills requires a shift away from one time occupational choice counselling to more holistic, dynamic career counselling which considers the entire life space including "psychological, sociological, economic and physical variables" (Amundson, 1984, p. 180). Herr

(1990) recommends use of a psychoeducational model of career counselling which employs didactic techniques such as "simulations, role playing, behavioral rehearsal, modelling, feedback and reinforcement"(p. 53) to teach specific present and future problem solving skills. The goal is counselling for personal flexibility.

There is a fundamental difference between these models of career counselling and more traditional, linear models (Baehr & Orban, 1989; Yost & Corbishley, 1987). The thrust toward competency (Amundson, 1990) and personal flexibility (Herr, 1990) requires that career counselling processes and activities not simply be directed and assigned by the counsellor as part of a lock-step process to address an immediate need. Rather, the emphasis is on clients internalizing strategies which they will later apply independently when they face future career adaptations. In this sense, counselling for competency and personal flexibility applies metacognitive processes such as self-monitoring and self-regulation (Wong, 1986) to life/career planning. The characteristics of youths with LD make it particularly critical that personal flexibility be the explicit goal of career interventions.

Learning Disabilities and Career Counselling

The National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (cited in Hammill, 1990) describes LD as a causal sequence in which impairment of the central nervous system results in information processing deficits (e.g., auditory, visual, memory, sequencing, attention). These deficits in turn lead to a variety of persistent academic, language and social difficulties. The disorder is heterogeneous and manifests itself across the life space. In the career arena, youths with LD may encounter unusual difficulty establishing a career direction, securing and maintaining a job, following employer's instructions, or getting along with supervisors and fellow employees. In the family arena, these youths may be ageinappropriately dependent on parents and other relatives, or may have difficulty getting along with family members. Educationally, youths with LD may have a history of school failure, social isolation and behaviourial problems at school, early school leaving and limited involvement in extracurricular activities. In the community, these youths may have limited involvement in organizations and activities, difficulty obtaining a

driver's licence and difficulty with law enforcement agencies. These deficits impede not only the youths' life/career planning, but also each stage in the career counselling process.

During the initial career counselling interview, needs are identified and counselling goals established. The skills required during this stage of the career counselling process include joining, listening to questions and responding appropriately, completing written intake forms, describing concerns verbally and recalling information in sequential order. Clients are required to focus on one area of the life space long enough to describe it and then shift attention to another area. The deficits which result from LD mitigate against the performance of these skills. In subsequent career counselling sessions, difficulties may be encountered when exploring client interests, preferences and aptitudes, developing and refining career alternatives, choosing among the alternatives, identifying career roadblocks and solving problems, planning for career implementation, searching and interviewing for jobs and working to maintain a position.

Two other major areas are likely to present obstacles. Counsellors generally accept acknowledgement responses (eg., nodding, smiling, "Uh-huh" and "Yeah") as indicators of client understanding. However, many youths with language-based LD use such acknowledgement responses as a camouflage for their lack of understanding a message. Consequently, counsellors who assume that acknowledgement responses indicate comprehension may leave their sessions oblivious to the fact that their clients with LD have actually understood very few counsellor statements.

One final obstacle to career counselling with clients who have LD is counsellor style. Lutwak and Fine (1983) suggest that counsellors working with these clients often limit client options, foster negative dependency, avoid issues and terminate prematurely. Similarly, Nathanson (cited in Lombana, 1982) describes seven counterproductive thoughts and feelings characteristic of counsellors working with clients who have LD including: (a) the belief that all clients with LD are the same, (b) the feeling that these clients are to be pitied and that life is hopeless, (c) the belief that these clients need expectations lowered or someone else to take over the clients' responsibilities; (d) the belief that clients with LD must be protected from failure and, therefore, denied autonomy and self-determination; (e) the feeling of discouragement which leads to client-rejection; (f) the belief that the clients' accomplishments are spectacular as a result of very low expectations on the part of the counsellor; and (g) the feeling of tension which is born out of the counsellor's feelings of inadequacy to work effectively with clients who have LD.

Because of the above factors, it is important to adapt the counselling process appropriately.

Guidelines for Enhancing Career Interventions

Clients with LD require techniques for clarifying the evolving sense of identity, for career information acquisition, organization and management, for employment mobility including job search, resume writing and interviewing, and for critical reasoning, decision making, goal setting, planning and problem solving. Four assumptions guide the process of modifying career interventions to make them more productive with clients who have LD. First, many of these clients are either unaware of or camouflage their disabilities. Second, while the specific career interventions used with clients who have LD are not significantly different from those used with nondisabled clients, techniques may require adaptation to make them accessible to these youths. Third, carefully deployed efforts enhance resiliency and success in the face of challenges in all areas, including career. Fourth, the goal of career counselling is independence in the management of career issues, not simply solving an immediate occupational problem.

Identifying Camouflaged and Undiagnosed Learning Disabilities

The initial interview is critical in the detection of a learning disability. The counselling process usually begins with rapport building and clarifying logistics and then moves on to a statement of the goal or concern by the client. As the interview proceeds, the counsellor explores the identified concern, listening and watching for indicators that a disability may be present. These indicators are essentially the characteristics of LD identified earlier in this paper. Some clients with LD exhibit only a few of these characteristics and only to a mild degree while others exhibit a number of characteristics to a severe degree. The fewer the number of characteristics present and the lesser the degree of severity, the more likely it is that the disability will be previously unidentified. However, even a few mild manifestations of a learning disability can be debilitating as the client attempts to develop and implement a career plan. It is therefore important that counsellors not dismiss the possibility of a disability simply because the indicators are few in number.

When a learning disability is suspected, the counsellor should raise the question with the client. If no assessment has been completed, referring the client for a complete assessment is critical since the confirmation of a learning disability may qualify the client for a number of equity education and employment programs. Moreover, clients frequently experience relief and empowerment as they learn more about the disability. Some clients interpret a learning disability as an insurmountable barrier to career success and consequently want to give up. When this occurs, this issue may become the primary agenda for counselling.

Adapting Counselling Techniques

The counselling process can be enhanced by borrowing accommodations frequently made by classroom teachers. These include: (a) eliminating distracters in the counselling room (e.g., turning off the computer when it is not in use, removing clutter from the desks and walls, unplugging the telephone); (b) using visuals to supplement oral communication; (c) providing advance organizers and making explicit transition statements when moving from one stage of counselling to the next; (d) specifically teaching the language of career and providing a handout of vocabulary as it is introduced; (e) reducing the length of counsellor utterances; (f) having clients paraphrase regularly to ensure their comprehension: (g) encouraging the client to bring a peer or a parent to the counselling session and assigning that companion a supportive role in encouraging follow through (Amundson, 1984); and (h) encouraging the client to tape counselling sessions and review them with peers and/or parents.

An issue in career counselling which has not been adequately addressed is the area of vocational testing. Administering tests to handicapped individuals without altering the standardized administration may violate the standards for test administration with handicapped individuals (Committee to Develop Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing, 1985; Rogan, 1991). Customary adaptations in education and psychological testing include testing-of-limits through direct questioning, cuing, eliminating time limits and providing a reader/ scribe (Sattler, 1988). However, these accommodations create problems with test interpretation and generalization. The best available alternative may be to use real life situations such as work experience placements rather than tests to obtain information about aptitudes and interests.

Promoting Carefully Deployed Career Efforts

A major difference between most nonhandicapped clients and many clients with LD is that the latter frequently have developed learned helplessness; the belief that outcome is not affected by effort (Seligman, 1975). This perceived independence of effort and outcome leads individuals to become lethargic and lacking in persistence. To combat this learned helplessness, the effective counsellor assumes a highly strategic stance creating an environment in which clients with LD become convinced of the efficacy of carefully deployed effort (Cormier & Cormier, 1991; Ellis, Deshler, Lenz, Schumaker, & Clark, 1989).

The strategic career counsellor is explicit about the rationales for the specific interventions used in counselling, carefully describes and models in-session and homework assignments and checks to ensure that the client knows what is expected and can perform the required tasks independently. The counsellor also teaches the social aspects of a counselling intervention to the client (Deshler, 1991). For example, if the client is being asked to interview workers in an occupational family, the social conventions around requesting appointments, asking questions and observing the interviewee's signals for closure are described, modelled and practiced in the counselling room. If the client encounters difficulty with these social conventions, the assignment is delayed to permit further practice and a more gradual generalization of the required skills.

Facilitating Independence in Career Management

It is likely that today's clients will change occupations several times during their careers. Each time a change is required, the client will need to repeat many of the tasks utilized during earlier career counselling. If the client is to develop personal flexibility by becoming independent in the career planning process, it is imperative that they not simply go through the steps, but also engage in the metacognitive processes involved in career planning. The strategic career counsellor continually invites the client to reflect on the process undertaken in the counselling and to forecast generalization of the process in the future. This can be accomplished by asking the client to identify the purpose in each activity that is undertaken, coaching the client in monitoring their own performance in each career planning task, guiding the client in evaluating the effectiveness of each specific intervention in facilitating the career planning process and having the client describe how they might use and adapt the activities when faced with a career change in the future. It is not adequate to simply structure a series of activities which satisfy the immediate need for an occupational or educational decision; rather, the client must gain insight into the activity if the goal of personal flexibility through independence is to be realized.

Summary

Clients with LD present a unique challenge when they engage in career counselling. The characteristics of a learning disability have the potential to impede both the career planning and implementation process as well as the counselling process itself. Nevertheless, youths with LD have clearly identifiable strengths on which to build career plans. For career counselling to be maximally beneficial, it is imperative that the disability be recognized and that counsellors become strategic practitioners. Strategic counsellors enhance the process of counselling by selecting powerful interventions which address the client's needs and coaching the client in the metacognitive processes involved in implementing and monitoring them. Finally, strategic career counsellors facilitate clients talking about how they might use the interventions when faced with similar challenges in the future.

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The Role of the High School Counsellor in Transition Programs for Youth with Learning Disabilities: The Case of Ryan Ruth Anne H. Taves Nancy L. Hutchinson Faculty of Education Queen's University

Abstract

This article describes key elements for the successful transition of adolescents with learning disabilities to postsecondary education. The article focuses on the role of the high school counsellor in these intervention activities. The significance of career counselling and transition programs is demonstrated with the case of Ryan, a young man with learning disabilities who participated in a strong program and made a successful transition to postsecondary education.

Across Canada, youth with learning disabilities are entering college and university in record numbers. Students find these postsecondary settings different from their familiar high school. They experience less contact with counsellors and teachers, more academic competition, different support networks and the loss of a protective environment (Aune, 1991). Many high-ability young people with learning disabilities find themselves unprepared for the demands and report having to make the transition without support (Sitlington & Frank, 1990). Facilitating transition from high school to postsecondary is complex and requires

This study was funded by a grant to the second author from the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation and Employment and Immigration Canada ("Creation And Mobilization of Counselling Resources for Youth" project). planning and goal setting (Brandt & Berry, 1991). This article describes the role of the high school counsellor in a successful transition program. The counsellor's role is illustrated with examples from the case of Ryan, a young man who was part of a strong transition program and is establishing himself successfully in college.

Highly successful adults with learning disabilities report a high degree of control over their lives. Through a desire to excel, they evaluate their strengths and weaknesses, set long and short term goals and take action. They show great adaptability in a world that favours non-disabled people (Gerber & Ginsberg, 1990). In a series of interviews we conducted with special needs counsellors in colleges and universities across Canada, they described highly successful postsecondary students with learning disabilities in similar terms. The characteristics they emphasized included self-awareness and self-advocacy, realistic goal-setting, making appropriate use of accommodations and coming from a high school transition program (Taves & Hutchinson, 1992).

Students with learning disabilities do not "spontaneously" acquire academic and social competencies required for postsecondary success (Seidenburg, 1987). They must be taught these competencies. High school counsellors play a central role in this instruction. Ryan, the learning disabled student described in this case study, recognized the importance of his counsellors and attributed much of his success in college to the transition program provided for him in high school.

Self-awareness

Transition programs for young people with learning disabilities help students develop self-awareness. The more aware students are about their strengths and weaknesses, the easier it will be for them to make decisions about their future. During his early years in high school, Ryan was uncertain about his strengths. Like many other adolescents, he could not decide on a career and had difficulty recognizing the areas in which he was interested. As Ryan expressed it, "I thought I wanted to be a teacher but I really didn't know what I wanted."

Throughout high school, Ryan had a regular period scheduled in the learning disabilities resource room. As well as receiving help with academic work, Ryan was given transition counselling and participated in activities to prepare for the future. The counsellor helped Ryan examine college and university calendars to investigate the requirements for various programs. It was during this investigation, early in Grade 12, Ryan discovered he needed a university education to become a teacher. He also realized that to get high enough marks to go to university it would take him longer to finish high school. Without the prompting from his counsellor, Ryan might not have looked closely into postsecondary requirements until just before he had to apply to university or college, when it might have been too late.

The function of the transition counsellor is not just to encourage checking postsecondary requirements. The counsellor must also find ways to help students match their strengths and interests with career goals. Adolescents with learning disabilities seem to learn this matching process best through experience. Practical experiences in work situations enable them to find out what is involved in a particular career. A transition counsellor can help arrange co-operative education placements for students who are beginning to develop awareness of their strengths and interests. Ryan had worked over the lunch period at his high school with developmentally handicapped students. Ryan's success with his lunch period employment prompted school officials to ask him to complete a co-op placement working with a severely handicapped student who needed individual attention. These positions, along with a co-op placement at a senior citizens' facility, helped Ryan realize how much he enjoyed working with people. However, he was still not sure of the roles in which he could work with people.

After Ryan decided that he was not going to university, a great deal of pressure was removed. In his words, "Once I decided I was going to college it made it a lot easier because I could go into areas I knew I enjoyed." Yet it took a while for Ryan to decide for which college programs he would apply. At first, he considered a program in athletic therapy. His transition counsellor was concerned because she knew admission to the program was extremely competitive. She also felt that Ryan was trying to follow his older brother who had studied physical education at university. She encouraged Ryan to talk to athletic therapists and find out about the job and its educational requirements. Ryan's parents recalled a particular event. "He spoke to a therapist on a university football team who had gone through this program. He had gone in with a university degree. Ryan became scared and then he became realistic." Ryan's transition counsellor was there to ensure Ryan

had enough information to make a good decision, encouraging him to check with another counsellor in the high school. This second counsellor confirmed the course would be very difficult with many applicants having already completed university degrees in physical education. The more information Ryan collected, the more doubts he had about this career goal.

Ryan decided to change his career goal from academic therapist. As he phrased this turning point, "I got cold feet and withdrew from that. When I had made that decision, I knew I was going to go into developmental services and work with the mentally handicapped." Ryan had always been able to get along with these children. He now was able to acknowledge that ability in his career goal. The support from his transition counsellor played an important role in encouraging Ryan to seek out the necessary information for becoming aware of his strengths and weaknesses.

Self-advocacy

Self-advocacy is an essential skill that learning disabled adults must acquire before they graduate from high school. Those who are successful in postsecondary and employment settings understand and accept their learning disabilities. When Ryan entered high school, he was hesitant to even discuss his learning disability and found it difficult to describe to others what help he needed. His transition counsellor showed videotapes on learning disabilities to her class and led the students in small group discussions. She asked the students to express both orally and in written form what their learning disability meant to them. With this support, Ryan began to feel more comfortable in discussing his learning disability.

The transition counsellor also encouraged her students to ask for accommodations, such as extended test time, from their teachers. This practice helped Ryan become more self-reliant in asking for accommodations within the high school setting. It also prompted him to contact the special needs counsellors at the colleges where he was applying so he could arrange for assistance. At the suggestion of his counsellor, Ryan approached the high school's Special Services Department to confirm his learning disabilities to the different colleges. Ryan was becoming more independent, preparing to become his own advocate. After Ryan had been accepted at college, he visited the college's special needs office and was in regular contact with them. He arranged, through the college special needs counsellor, to take a reduced course load for some of his college terms because he did not complete assignments quickly. Ryan had chosen this college's Developmental Services Worker program because it had a co-op experience component and many practical courses with hands-on experience. Encouragement to understand his own needs and to make the necessary contacts to meet those needs came from his high school transition counsellor. The experiences in his final years in high school made it easier for him to handle the same kind of negotiations on his own as he entered college.

Realistic Goal-setting

An important function of a high school transition program for students with learning disabilities is to help them set realistic personal goals. Ryan needed someone besides his parents to provide assistance, as his parents realized. "The counsellor was more familiar with the colleges and the calendars. We didn't know what was available to any real degree and the counsellor was somebody that understood what he was going through but that could give advice." The transition counsellor had often discussed with Ryan his career ideas in an objective manner. She had showed him where he could get information about each career option. She helped him compare the skills necessary for each career with his strengths and weaknesses.

Ryan was able to set realistic career goals for himself after exploring the requirements for athletic therapy. If he had not discussed the program with people in the field, he might have put all his energy into that goal without realizing he had greater strengths and more opportunities elsewhere. Without practical experience working with handicapped individuals, he might not have been able to acknowledge those strengths. The suggestions made by the transition counsellor allowed Ryan to seek more information in making career decisions and choose developmental services as his career goal. "I chose that field because of my work with kids at my high school who are handicapped. With the work I've done I knew I would be teaching them something, and occasionally I'd be doing some sort of physical education work with them and I'd be working with them. So I'd get all three [of my goals] worked in there together." Ryan was satisfied that he had been able to meet all his goals in his choice: teaching, involvement with sports and helping people. Given all the information he had collected, Ryan realized that working with people with special needs would be the area his learning disability affected the least. Furthermore, it was the area where he had the most skills and enjoyment.

The research Ryan did at his counsellor's suggestion helped him become realistic about his goals. He knew in what settings he could work once he graduated from the Developmental Services Worker program. "It would prepare me for working in a group home setting with the mentally handicapped or in a school as a teacher's aide or as a counsellor." Ryan was also aware of the characteristics of the people with whom he would be working.

So from my experience over the last two years, I know what to expect from them. I know what to do with them. I feel that I could have an upper edge on anybody else in the Developmental Services Worker program because of my contacts with mentally handicapped people in the last two years. I realize that I'm working with a 19 year old who is really far behind for his age. Trying to explain how to play a certain game can be difficult. Some of them don't understand and getting them to understand, that is a challenge. Some days it was really quite frustrating but other days it was fun to be there. You saw their faces light up when they knew they did something great. That really stuck out in my mind.

Appropriate Use of Accommodations

Transition programs are an ideal place for students with learning disabilities to practise using accommodations that may be available to them upon high school graduation. The transition counsellor has a vital role to play in students' acquisition of these skills. Students need someone to introduce them to new devices or techniques that may help them deal with their learning disabilities more effectively. They must become comfortable with these accommodations before entering a postsecondary institution.

There are a variety of accommodations that may be appropriate in high school. Since Ryan's handwriting and spelling were poor, the transition counsellor introduced him to the word processor with its spell checking function. She persuaded him to use the computer at home and bring the file to the resource room for further editing. As Ryan moved into higher grades, he received increased support from the transition counsellor with the organization of written assignments. She also arranged for him to have extra time writing tests and exams, writing them in the resource room when necessary.

Ryan's independence increased as he moved through high school. With the encouragement and support of the transition counsellor, he learned to adapt his use of accommodations to his level of need. During his final year in high school, despite his growing independence, Ryan requested help from the transition counsellor in completing college application forms. He valued working independently but his counsellor had taught him the importance of preciseness and neatness in completion of application forms. The same characteristic was evident in his involvement with his college's special needs office. Ryan took the initiative to contact the office early and negotiate future accommodations. His experiences in the high school transition program made Ryan aware of the accommodations appropriate for him and gave him the confidence to make the necessary arrangements.

In college, Ryan continued to use computers for assignment completion and to have extra time on exams. Additional accommodations were provided through tape recording. Taped text helped Ryan's comprehension and allowed him to cope with an increased reading load. A Kurzweil Reader was available for reading material not on tape. Finally, Ryan had a tape recorder for recording lectures.

Ryan found the college special needs counsellor an excellent source of encouragement. Her support made a smooth transition into the college environment easier, resulting in a successful first semester for Ryan (three B's and an A). The skills Ryan had learned in the transition program and the support he received in college were instrumental in his adjustment.

Students with learning disabilities who have received appropriate support in a high school transition program value the independence they achieve. They want to do as much as possible for themselves. Allowing these students to use accommodations, such as computers with spelling or grammar checkers or books on tape, means they can be even more independent. It takes discipline to use these devices but practice in high school can mean students will be familiar with these accommodations when they reach the postsecondary level.

During high school, students must gain expertise not only in using accommodations well but in evaluating those they require. Transition counsellors should help students use self-awareness, self-advocacy and realistic goal-setting to decide on appropriate accommodations. Reaching a balance between seeking help and independence is a reflective process that takes time. A transition counsellor can assist students in working through the stages so they enter college or university prepared to ask for the help and accommodations they need.

The Role of Transition Counsellors in High Schools

Increasing numbers of adolescents with learning disabilities, like Ryan, are succeeding in academic programs in high school. University and college counsellors report that the young people who experience success in postsecondary settings are likely to have worked with a transition counsellor in high school. These counsellors are familiar with the social and vocational implications as well as the learning needs that accompany learning disabilities. They also understand the relation of abilities and interests to careers and are familiar with postsecondary programs. Successful transition programs designate a counsellor who is responsible for transition of the learning disabled from secondary to postsecondary. The students and teachers know who to turn to for advice and information. Like Ryan's transition counsellor, they help young people to understand their strengths and weaknesses, set realistic goals, and take action independently or with needed support. After one year in college, Ryan reported that he worked hard and felt he was on his way to meeting his personal goals for a career that included teaching, working with individuals with special needs and involvement with sports. He credited his transition counsellor with helping him and teaching him to help himself.

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Sitlington, P. L., & Frank, A. R. (1990). Are adults with learning disabilities successfully crossing the bridge into adult life? *Learning Disabilities Quarterly*, 13, 97-111.

Taves, R. A. H., & Hutchinson, N. L. (1992). Why not me? Career development in youth with learning disabilities. Unpublished manuscript, Queen's University Faculty of Education, Kingston, ON. Work Skills Simulation: An Effective Way to Teach Job Readiness Kathleen V. Cairns Dept. of Educational Psychology University of Calgary J. Brian Woodward Knowledge Sciences Institute University of Calgary Laurie G. Hashizume Janus Associates Research Unit

Abstract

This article describes the design and development of a work skills simulation intended to help youth acquire the skills, attitudes, behaviours and affective competencies necessary for making the transition to work. The basic goals and structure of the simulation are described, the formative evaluative procedures are outlined and data from recent field tests of the simulation with high school Career and Life Management classes are presented. The degree to which the current version of the simulation met its objectives in the field tests is discussed, and student learning outcomes are briefly reviewed.

Work Skills Simulation: An Effective Way to Teach Job Readiness

The development of a work skills simulation addresses the welldocumented need to more effectively prepare young people for the transition to work (e.g., Banducci, 1984; Hampson, 1979; Hunter, 1982; National Alliance of Business, 1986; Law, 1985; Sherman, 1983; Spill, 1986; Taggart, 1984). While technical skills are required for most jobs, success in a work environment is a function of a complex array of task skills, interpersonal skills and self-management skills. The latter two

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skill sets are most likely to be involved in problematic performance (Cairns, Woodward, & Magnusson, 1990). Simulations may be a useful method for assisting individuals to understand the complex and interactive skills and tasks which are integral to successful work performance (Kinnear, Dore-Martin, & Novak, 1982; Wholeben, 1984). An effective work simulation can provide learners with a realistic context for learning work-related skills, increase participants' awareness of their abilities, promote cooperative action and group problem-solving and provide insight into various work roles and the demands of those roles (Jamieson, Miller, & Watts, 1988). At the same time, a credible and accurate work simulation may partially compensate for lack of work experience by providing opportunities for participants to develop and practise various work skills and use the resulting feedback to make appropriate changes in work-related behaviours (Kinnear et al., 1982; Wholeben, 1984).

A computer assisted work skills simulation designed to help youth acquire the skills, attitudes, affective competencies and behaviours necessary for making successful transitions to work is currently being developed by the authors. Paper and pencil versions of the simulation have been field-tested with four grade eleven Career and Life Management (CALM) classes, representative of disadvantaged, 'main stream' and gifted high school students. Systematic observation and feedback from the first field test (June, 1991) resulted in a number of modifications to the simulation structure and activities. A second prototype of the program was field-tested in the fall of 1991 with three CALM classes. This article provides an overview of the simulation, reviews procedures and results from field tests of the second prototype and discusses the implications of the field test data for further design and development of the paper-and-pencil and computer assisted versions of the program.

Description of the Simulation and Field Tests

A global objective of the work skills simulation is the facilitation of learners' exploration, understanding and development of important jobrelated skills and decision-making tasks. The simulation presents learners with a realistic problem, requires them to respond by engaging in inquiries, decisions and simulated actions, and provides feedback about the impact of those actions (Gredler, 1988). Essentially, the simulation models a work environment, with specific work roles, processes and demands placed on employees in 4 different functional departments of a simulated toy development and manufacturing company (WonderTech, Inc.). The simulation utilizes Zaks pieces (obtained through a special arrangement for educational projects from Irwin Toys) to produce the company's 'products'. The company is organized into four departments, each with a range of work roles and positions representing various skill/ interest constellations (see Figure 1).

The purpose of the simulation is not to 'train' students in job-specific skills. Rather, activities are structured to facilitate the development and demonstration of five generic skill sets which have been identified by youth, employers and employment counsellors as being important to successful work performance. These skills include: a) basic literacy/ numeracy; b) problem-solving; c) teamwork; d) self-management; and e) leadership (Cairns et al., 1990). Elements of each skill set have been incorporated into all employment positions within the simulation.

Field tests of the second prototype, using the organizational structure described in Figure 1, were conducted with 81 students in three CALM classes. Most participants were grade 11 students and all three classes were taught by the same teacher. Throughout the simulation, members of the research and development team were present to assist with program delivery and to observe student and teacher reactions and outcomes.

Sequence of Activities

This version of the simulation included a total of nine 62-minute periods with each class. Fifty minutes of each class period were devoted to "inrole" simulation activities, sequenced as follows, for days 1 through 9: Day 1 - Introduction to simulation objectives, structure and activities. Students reviewed the organizational chart, job descriptions and company information; and completed and submitted applications for employment.

Day 2 - Management training was provided for those selected to be managers or coordinators and included preparation for conducting interviews. Simultaneously, an interview orientation and coaching session was conducted with students who were to be interviewed. Day 3 - Interviews were conducted by (student) supervisors and coordinators. Each interviewer was scheduled to interview 3 students;

WonderTech, Inc.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART



each student scheduled to observe and evaluate 2 interviews and participate in 1 interview in the role of prospective employee. (Prior to Day 4, students were selected for available 'jobs', based on quality of application, self-identified skills and interview evaluations.) Day 4 - Supervisors oriented their new 'employees' to the company and to specific work roles. Activities included: presentation of job offers, formation of department work groups, review of job descriptions, completion of employee documentation and familiarization with performance appraisal procedures and criteria.

Day 5 - Employees compiled their personnel files and reviewed feedback from their interviews. Work groups analyzed their work environments, assessed departmental and individual strengths and weaknesses for required tasks and prepared for 'startup' activities.

Day 6 - Startup activities were led by 'supervisors'. Students participated in departmental staff meetings, familiarized themselves with departmental tasks and functions, reviewed materials and forms necessary for job performance and underwent job training if necessary. Days 7 - 8 - These were 'full production' days for the simulated company. Supervisors and staff were expected to review "in baskets", prioritize daily tasks, solve problems and ensure that performance deadlines and requirements for their positions and departments were met. Each department had certain core tasks to complete which were essential to the success of the company, enabled the work of other departments and employees and required skill demonstration.

Day 9 - Simulation debriefing involved students completing written evaluations and final journal entry, participating in a 'departmental' debrief and review of the experience facilitated by research team members and reviewing their employee files and final pay cheques. The cheques were retained for use in the "independent living" portion of the CALM program, in which students prepared budgets for independent living based on the pay they had received during the simulation.

Evaluation Methods and Procedures

Evaluating simulation effectiveness is frequently complicated by the difficulty of accurately and consistently measuring attitudinal and affective outcomes (Crookall, 1988). Some authors (e.g., Hsu, 1989;

Jamieson et al., 1988) recommend the use of strategies which study processes as well as outcomes; and the use of reflective evaluation effectively provides feedback about learners' experience and enhances learning (Tennyson, 1989). Jamieson et al. (1988) stress the importance of using a variety of methods to gather information about the simulation and its effects from people who assume different roles within the simulation.

We were interested in determining a) the degree to which program objectives were met by this prototype of the simulation, and b) what further modifications of content, sequence, timing, structure of activities. orientation, and classroom management strategies would be useful. To this end, the following six evaluation procedures were used:

1) Students completed journal entries five times during the field tests, providing responses to questions about effects of specific simulation activities on their understanding of work skills.

2) Field notes based on observations of student and teacher responses to the simulation structure, demands and activities were compiled by research team members.

3) A teacher's journal recorded observations of processes, outcomes and difficulties she observed; and included suggestions for modifications of elements of the simulation or its delivery.

4) An evaluation questionnaire was completed by the 73 students who were present in the three classes on Day 9.

5) A final journal entry designed to identify generalizable learning outcomes was completed by all students present on Day 9.

6) A discussion of the overall simulation experience, held with each department on Day 9, was taped and transcribed to provide further, more detailed feedback from participants.

All evaluations submitted by students included identification by gender, class and job title to allow for detailed data analyses. The final student journal, the teacher's journal, observation notes and the transcripts and notes from the departmental discussions were also reviewed and analyzed. The results of the analyses of quantitative and qualitative data are reported separately below.

Analyses of Evaluation Questionnaire Data

The evaluation questionnaire contained a series of 35 Likert type questions designed to assess specific aspects of the simulation, and a set of four open ended questions requesting that the student identify the most satisfactory part of the simulation, the source of the most difficulty, what they liked the best and how the simulation could be improved.

The Likert questions required students to indicate the extent of agreement with statements about personal reactions to the simulation, degree to which stated objectives were met, consistency with course objectives, materials used in the simulation, realism and appropriateness of content and performance evaluation procedures utilized within the simulation. Analysis of the Likert data included the following steps: a) tabulation of frequency distributions for responses to each question by class, gender and department associated with in the simulation; b) unpaired t-tests to identify gender differences in responses; c) ANOVA to identify between-class differences. Where significant inter-departmental or between class differences were found, Scheffe F-tests were conducted to determine the sources of significance.

An initial analysis of the combined data from all three class groups found systematic, significant between-class differences, with Class 1 scores being consistently lower (i.e., more negative) on a number of questions. These differences appeared to represent an order effect, since, in six of the nine class periods in the field test, Class 1 was the first to experience a particular simulation activity. Based on this class' experience, adjustments were then made for the other two groups. The data were therefore analyzed in two sets to avoid an averaging effect which might obscure important results.

Interpretation and Discussion of Quantitative Data

Results from the analysis of response frequencies were used to identify simulation strengths and weaknesses. To determine which elements of the simulation were working effectively, all questionnaire items to which 60% or more of the class responded positively (reversed for negatively worded items) were identified. Items to which more than 30% of students responded negatively (or positively, where the item was negatively phrased) were identified as areas of concern. When more than 25% of a

group chose the 'undecided' response to an item, it was also reviewed for possible required adjustments or revisions to the simulation.

Class 1 Evaluations (Group 1)

Of a possible total of 26 students, 21 (10 male and 11 female), were present to complete the evaluation questionnaires for Class 1. Students in Class 1 identified fewer strengths and more weaknesses in the simulation than did the students in the other two classes. The majority of students in Class 1 indicated that they understood the simulation objectives, believed others would find it interesting and thought real issues, tasks and problems were represented. They also reported that the amount of work was not excessive, the tasks themselves were not too difficult, and they knew who to go to for help or information. The majority thought feedback from the interview process was useful, and stated that the skills on which they were evaluated were relevant to most jobs. However, they also identified numerous problems, including: boredom; failure to learn about selves, understand what was necessary to succeed at work, or learn new concepts; ineffective class orientation to the simulation; difficulty understanding forms; incomplete job descriptions; lack of opportunity to demonstrate and use skills and abilities; lack of challenge to use new skills or behaviours; lack of clarity about daily tasks; dissatisfaction with supervisors' ability to respond to questions; inadequate training; lack of realism in job interviews; placement in positions which were inappropriate; and the perception that feedback did not help them Identify their strengths or weaknesses. Class 1 students pinpointed a number of sources of their difficulties, including: lack of understanding about job requirements, lack of organization, confusion, lack of leadership, inability to find answers to questions and lack of materials necessary to fulfil job requirements.

Further analyses identified significant gender differences for Class 1, p < .05, on a number of items, with female students consistently evaluating the simulation and learning outcomes more positively than males. A number of significant between-department differences, again with a significance level of < .05, were also found for this class. Generally, these differences represented more negative evaluations by the Materials department employees, who indicated the forms were difficult to understand, instructions unclear; they didn't know what to do

each day, didn't learn to work with others and were unable to get answers to questions from their supervisor.

A review of attendance schedules, of the completed Class 1 organizational chart, and of the classroom observation notes provided additional information about sources of difficulty and about the gender and department differences in Class 1's evaluation of the simulation. As noted earlier, Class 1 was essentially the 'test class' for most days of the simulation, and modifications in presentation for classes 2 and 3 were routinely made as a result of observations in this class. In addition, supervisor absences related to conflicting in-school events were a serious problem in Class 1, resulting in replacement of two supervisors by individuals who had no orientation and few supervisory skills. As well, the primarily male Production department was overseen by a female student who advised her department on orientation day that she did not like her job and had not wanted it.

The well-documented impact of participants' entry behaviour, skills, learning styles and preferences (e.g., Reynolds & Martin, 1988; Shuell, 1982; Taylor, 1987; Tennyson, 1989) on simulation effectiveness may also partially explain the differences in evaluations between Class 1 and Classes 2 and 3. At the outset of the field test process, the teacher commented that Class 1 was "the easiest of the three to teach, because these students were generally more compliant and task-oriented and more inclined to do what they were told, rather than questioning or arguing". It is possible that these students had a greater need for imposed structure than did those in the other two classes.

In summary, problems with the administration of the simulation within this class, the fact that it was the first class to experience most elements of the process, school events outside the control of the teacher or research group and student learning styles may all have contributed to the negative evaluations by this class, and by male students in the Production and Materials departments in particular.

Class 2 and 3 Evaluations (Group 2)

As noted earlier, evaluations from classes 2 and 3 were combined and analyzed as a group. 52 of a possible 55 students from this group, 24 male and 28 female, completed questionnaires. The list of strengths identified by students in this group was extensive, and included strong Identification with the work role, inherent interest in the simulation, opportunity to learn about self, understanding the objectives, understanding what they need to do to succeed, learning new concepts, utility in CALM classes, interest of simulation for others, application of learning to other situations and a useful class orientation. A majority of these students believed the simulation represented the workplace realistically, allowed opportunities to demonstrate their skills and abilities, helped them learn to work with others, provided useful feedback about their interview performance, evaluated them on areas which were relevant to other jobs and helped them identify their strengths as employees. They disagreed with the statement that the work was too difficult.

Class 2 and 3 also identified areas needing improvement, including: clarity of the forms and the instructions for using them; clearer job descriptions; increased challenge to use new skills or behaviours; clarification of daily duties; provision of training before starting production; and increasing the realism of the job interview. A third of the students would have liked more teacher involvement, more effective job placement and more feedback about the weaknesses in their job performance.

Gender and departmental differences for this group were considered to be significant if the probability levels were < .05. Significant gender differences were found for only two items in this group. Female students were more likely than males to agree that the simulation challenged them to use new skills or behaviours to solve problems and to indicate that they would have liked more feedback about their performance.

A number of inter-departmental difference in response to evaluation questions were also found for group 2. Students in the Materials department were significantly more inclined to report that instructions for using forms were unclear, and that they did not know who to ask for help or information. Production workers more frequently disagreed with the statement that the simulation challenged them to use new skills and both Materials and Production workers more frequently disagreed with the statement that they had too much work to do.

Analysis and Discussion of Qualitative Data

The information contained in the student journals, the teacher's journal, classroom observation notes, final student journals, open-ended questions of the Evaluation questionnaire and transcripts of feedback discussions was tabulated to identify specific learning outcomes, as well as suggestions for changes in the simulation materials, structure and procedures. While space does not allow for a detailed discussion of the contents of these materials, the information contained in them consistently supported the feedback obtained on the Evaluation Questionnaire. Many students spent considerable time reflecting on the simulation experience and put considerable thought into making suggestions to help the simulation work more effectively. As might be expected, however, those who evaluated the simulation negatively in the Evaluation questionnaire were less likely to complete their journals thoroughly, or to report significant learning outcomes.

Student Evaluation of Simulation Structure, Content and Processes

The back page of the evaluation questionnaire contained four open ended questions requesting that the student identify the most satisfactory part of the simulation, the source of the most difficulty, what he/she liked the best and how the simulation could be improved.

Many students identified the job interviews as being a valuable component of the simulation and indicated that they now felt better equipped to prepare for and handle real-life job interviews; although some suggested that the interviews would be more realistic with adult interviewers. A significant number of students believed the requirement that they work as part of a 'team' enhanced their experience. interpersonal skills and sense of self-efficacy. In fact, the opportunity to work with other students in a collaborative way and the realism of the simulation were most frequently identified by students as the features of the simulation they liked best. Several students commented on the sense of satisfaction derived from solving problems, being given responsibility and having the opportunity to deal with problems independently; and significant numbers of students indicated that the simulation helped them acquire a better understanding of what a real job environment would be like. Many noted that they gained satisfaction from realizing they could accomplish tasks which were difficult for them.

In each of the classes, a number of students expressed frustration with ambiguity, not knowing exactly what was expected of them and lack of clarity in instructions. Although these features of the program were obviously frustrating for students, they also promoted active problem solving, awareness of interdependency and collaboration. In many ways they mirrored real-life work situations quite accurately, thus increasing the validity of the simulation (Crookall, 1988; Stanislaw, 1986; Vargas, 1986).

Evaluation of the Degree to Which Simulation Objectives Were Met

Successful completion of many of the simulation activities and tasks typically required demonstration of a combination of the five generic skill sets: basic literacy/numeracy, problem-solving, teamwork, selfmanagement and leadership skills. Individual performance appraisals provided each student with specific, concrete feedback about workrelated skills and behaviours and about the degree to which he or she demonstrated competence in each skill set.

As might be expected, some students demonstrated 'uneven' performance across the various skill sets. Student comments indicated that the performance appraisals helped them understand the impact of various skills on their overall effectiveness as employees, although they were able to see how strengths in one skill set (e.g., teamwork) might partially compensate for deficits in another (e.g., individual problemsolving). Some students became aware that specific skill deficits might pose barriers to success in the workplace, as expressed in the following journal entries: "I need to have more patience and I have to start enjoying reading..."; and "I need to improve my math skills and...I have to try and solve my problems."

Throughout the simulation, students' reflection on their experience and evaluation of their own behaviour in journal entries provided information about intended and unintended effects of the simulation, and about their responses to the experience (Jamieson et al., 1988). Despite the diversity in students' entering skills and behaviours, and the assumption of a variety roles within the simulation, a number of common learning outcomes were evident.

Several students in each class indicated that their involvement in the simulation led to the discovery that they are capable of, and enjoy.

working effectively with others. A significant number of students reported discovering that they are resourceful and have good problemsolving abilities and commented on the increased self-confidence resulting from this awareness. As examples, one student wrote "I'm more creative than I thought. I can be a very effective leader.... People under me actually respected me for what I did"; while another noted that having dealt effectively with problems "gave more confidence in myself and my ability to do work even when the going gets tough." Many students indicated that they will be more confident in approaching future work situations as a result of this experience.

Many of the students reported discovering they are capable of working effectively "under stress"; but while some indicated they will seek out similarly challenging work situations in the future, others will avoid stressful positions. A number of students also gained insight into their own learning styles, and how these impact on work performance. For example, one student wrote "I learned that without clear and concise [sic] explanations I do not function to my optimum [sic] level"; while another discovered "that I thrive in a fairly unstructured creative environment that provides me with different challenges every day". Some gained insight into behaviours which might be problematic in work settings, as exemplified by the observation of one student that "I am not very good at getting started ... this often sees me miss deadlines." These students indicated that this knowledge will guide future work behaviour and career planning.

Several students reported that they would use their experience in the simulation as a guide to the type of work or work environment they should avoid. For example, one wrote "I know for sure now that I will go to school (University) because I don't want to spend the rest of my life as an assembly worker", while another stated that he would "choose a job where I have to work with others because I enjoy that and I can work better in that situation."

The journal entries, discussion with students, observation of processes and outcomes and written and verbal feedback from the teacher all provided valuable information about students' experience of the simulation, the impact of various processes and procedures and learning outcomes. Input from the classroom teacher highlighted the importance of ensuring that those implementing the simulation had a good understanding of the principles underlying the use of simulations. Observing the teacher's reactions to various activities, and discussing the process with her, sensitized us to the need for clear specification – to teachers and to students – of the teacher's role and the degree to which the teacher should (or should not) be expected to intervene to resolve student difficulties.

Conclusion

Our findings indicate that providing a realistic context for learning workrelated skills effectively increased participants' awareness of their abilities, promoted cooperative action and group problem-solving and provided insight into various work roles and the demands of those roles, as Jamieson et al. (1988) suggest. On the whole, field test results indicated that students in most roles were challenged to use or develop the skill sets identified as being essential to effective work performance, and gained a clearer understanding of workplace demands. A number of identified program goals and objectives were met, although the field tests also identified a variety of targets for revision. An additional six field tests using a third prototype of the simulation which incorporates these revisions will be conducted shortly.

The data obtained from the field tests has reinforced our belief that, given the opportunity, field test participants can make invaluable contributions to program research and development. Throughout the remaining field tests, we will continue to define field test participants as 'co-researchers' who are vital contributors to the program design, development and refinement process.

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Wholeben, B. (1984, October). Criterion standards for evaluating computer simulation courseware. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Society for Educational Planning, New Orleans, Louisiana. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 254 917) Helping Adolescents to Complete Application Forms and Develop a Resume: A Group Intervention John G. Freeman Nancy L. Hutchinson Faculty of Education Queen's University

Abstract

This paper presents details of a counselling program that has successfully been used in teaching the correct completion of application forms and resumes. Discussion of the components of the program and examination of an intervention using the materials are presented. In the intervention, low-achieving students improved their ability to complete an application form to a level comparable to average-achieving peers. Educational implications and plans for future research are given.

The "Pathways" program is a series of instructional modules designed to assist counsellors and teachers in providing career education for adolescents who experience difficulties in high school. The materials have been under development for the past 2 years, during which time the modules have been used primarily with adolescents with learning disabilities and others at risk for dropping out of school.

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One of the instructional modules focuses on the completion of job application forms and the writing of resumes. Counsellors report that "atnisk" students require assistance in completing application forms. Students also say that filling out of applications is a skill they should acquire before leaving high school. The following sentiment was expressed by Raymond, a student out of high school for 3 years, whom we interviewed.

I didn't really have much luck looking for a job; so I went to a place called the Job Club. And what they do is more or less teach you how to find a job. How to present yourself, how to write perfect resumes, things like that. It would've helped me if I would've learned that in high school and known about it when the time came. In high school you want to learn things that will help you in ... in later life.

There are materials available to provide practice in completing application forms, like "Hire Learning: Schooling that Works" by Duffy and Wannie (1990a, 1990b). However, these materials assume that students can follow sample worksheets independently and monitor their own performance. An additional problem with these materials is their American nature, including use of terms, like social security, that do not appear on Canadian application forms.

Recently, many writers have suggested that cognitive instruction provides a viable framework for enhancing career awareness and preemployment skills (Carnevale, Gainer, & Meltzer, 1990; Peterson, Sampson, & Reardon, 1991). Cognitive instruction generally consists of three stages. First, the teacher models a strategy through thinking out loud while completing a task. Teacher modelling and thinking aloud enables teachers to make their actions, thoughts and reasoning visible to the students. Next, the students take part in guided practice, often working with a partner or small group, while receiving feedback from the teacher. Finally, the students carry out independent practice until they are competent and confident in the task.

Only one study, conducted in the United States, has used a cognitive approach to instructing application skills. Mathews and Fawcett (1984) taught three high school students with learning disabilities, on a one-toone basis, how to complete sample application forms from local businesses and how to write a resume. Their training sequence included instruction, guided practice with feedback and independent practice until mastery. An average of 2.5 hours of individual instruction was required. There were dramatic increases in scores for application forms and resumes, based on criteria developed by the authors.

Our goal was to develop cognitive instructional materials to provide small group instruction in completing resumes and Canadian application forms. These materials are intended for use with students who experience difficulty learning in the high school setting and others at risk for leaving high school early.

Description of Instructional Materials and Procedures

The instructional module contains 11 activities. The first 10 activities are designed to take 40 minutes each, while activity 11 requires two 40-minute periods, although there is a great deal of flexibility for the counsellor or teacher in deciding which activities to use and the length of time spent on each activity. The students are taught to complete a personal data sheet, develop guidelines for completing application forms, fill in application forms, and complete a personalized resume.

The first four activities focus on the personal data sheet. Once students have a complete and accurate personal data sheet, they can copy the information directly from the personal data sheet onto a job application form, avoiding some problems in spelling and wording. Each of the four pages in the personal data sheet deals with a specific aspect of obtaining employment: personal information, education, employment experience and references. The counsellor/teacher models completion of a page, or a portion thereof, through thinking out loud. Students work with a partner, exchanging work at set intervals in order to detect errors. The counsellor/ teacher directs error detection by a series of questions. The counsellor/ teacher also asks questions to focus student attention on the metacognitive aspects of completing a personal data sheet. The actual completion of the personal data sheets encompasses three activities. The fourth activity requires students to examine the changes that are likely to occur on a personal data sheet over time so they are aware of the necessity of periodic updating.

Activity five starts students thinking about application forms, stimulating their interest and helping them develop their own standards. Students work in pairs, examining eight application forms of varying quality actually completed by similar students in another setting. Each student pair selects the three people that an employer would interview based on the application forms. The counsellor/teacher then leads a class discussion to decide which are the three superior application forms. Through this discussion, the students develop a list of guidelines for application forms. These guidelines are written by each student on a cue card. By highlighting the two guidelines that might give the most trouble, each student now has a personal reminder of what to watch for in completing application forms.

Activities six through nine take students through the steps involved in completing application forms. First, the students practise completing a form for a fictitious person, initially watching the counsellor/teacher model and then working in groups. In activities seven, eight, and nine, the counsellor/teacher models completion of an application form and then students complete the application forms for themselves while working with a partner. In each subsequent activity, the application forms are of a greater complexity and prompts are gradually faded. The counsellor's suggestions aid students' metacognitive thinking. Group discussions promote wide use of effective strategies to overcome problems such as the appropriate use of assistance in completing perplexing forms.

In activity 10, students practise writing a resume for a fictitious character. In activity 11, students complete an accurate personal resume, generally over two sessions. The two-session guideline is provided for teacher/counsellors who want students to type their own resumes. However, we strongly suggest that students' resumes be typed or word processed by an outside party, perhaps a secretary, after they are written accurately by the students. In this case, activity 11 requires only one session.

Design of Study

The primary goal of this study was to instruct our "basic" level intervention group so that those students would be able to complete application forms in a manner that would make their application forms comparable to "general" level students who did not receive the instruction.

Subjects

The intervention group consisted of eight "basic" grade 12 students (5 boys, 3 girls) enrolled in a rural high school in Ontario. The control group was comprised of seven "general" grade 12 students (6 boys, 1 girl) at the same high school. The intervention subjects were all registered in a co-operative education program and used our materials as part of their regular classroom activities. During the time of the intervention, the control subjects continued in their regular classes.

High school students in Ontario are presently streamed into three levels. The "basic" stream is designed for students who plan no further education after high school. Because of the lack of further educational opportunities and its low status, the "basic" stream attracts few students, almost all of whom are low-achieving and have low motivation. Students from the "general" stream have the option of continuing their education in community college after high school. The "general" stream has much higher status than the "basic" stream and students are usually of average ability. The "advanced" stream is designed primarily for students who have university as their educational objective. Students in the "advanced" stream are average to above average in ability and motivation.

The counsellor/teacher who used the instructional materials was head of the co-operative program at the school. His responsibilities included on-site supervision and the in-class portion of the cooperative experience for grade 12 "basic" students. He had had several years' teaching and counselling experience, mostly at the school used in the study. Much of his experience had involved working with "at risk" adolescents.

Intervention

The intervention continued for nine sessions of approximately 40 minutes. The sessions were generally as described above with three modifications. First, the teacher/counsellor decided to eliminate activity six. Second, the second part of activity 10 was deleted. Both these activities involve the completion of work for a fictitious individual. The teacher/counsellor decided that the abstractness of the fictitious individual was not appropriate for the students. The first part of activity 10 was used with activity 11 instead. Finally, activity 11 was compressed into one session by having the resumes typed by the first author.

Each session was attended by the first author. He consulted with the teacher/counsellor before and after each session. As well, he provided inclass support, whether in the form of feedback to students or through team teaching. Finally, he kept detailed field notes of each session.

Instruments

All intervention and control subjects were given an application form to complete prior to the instruction. After the intervention group had received the instruction on application forms and resumes, all subjects were again given the same application form to complete.

The application form was based on one used by a major Canadian fast food chain (used with permission). It was modified to ensure differentiation from the original form and to include a section on references. Scoring criteria were developed for correct completion of the form, based on the number of items of information required. All applications forms were scored using these standardized criteria.

Findings

At pretest, the "basic" students in the intervention group, on average, scored 24.44 out of a total possible of 67 points and the "general" students in the control group scored 39.43. This difference was statistically significant (p<.05). After instruction, the gap between the groups was less than two points, 36.94 and 38.79 for "basic" and "general" students respectively, and not statistically significant. The intervention group improved by about 50% from the pretest to the posttest. Even though there were only eight students in the intervention group, this change was highly significant (p<.01). In contrast, there was virtually no change in the scores of the control group.

Discussion

Researchers have suggested that cognitive instruction can be effectively used in teaching pre-employment skills (Carnevale et al., 1990; Peterson et al., 1991). In our intervention, cognitive instruction certainly demonstrated its utility. Low-achieving students not only improved substantially through the instruction. They also narrowed the gap between themselves and average students in completing application forms. As application forms are often the basis on which employers decide whom to interview, this elimination of the difference between the two groups would mean that these "basic" level students would not be precluded from the potential interview pool.

There are two limitations of the present research. First, the small numbers involved mean that the generalizability of these findings may be limited. Second, even though intervention students improved considerably and were virtually indistinguishable from control subjects, neither group completed application forms near the maximum level possible. Both the issue of generalizability and the question of optimal scores will be addressed as the research program continues. However, it is interesting to note that a second field test at the same school with the same teacher/counsellor but different subjects produced nearly identical results.

Educational Implications

The "Pathways" materials have proven successful in teaching students to complete application forms at a higher level than prior to instruction. Indeed, through use of these materials, "basic" students were able to complete application forms at the same level as their higher-achieving "general" peers. Considering the lower achievement of "basic" students in the written domain and the major importance attached to completion of application forms in job-seeking, instruction that promotes competence for low-achieving students is definitely welcome.

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Book Review

A Career Day Or "I Am to Organize What?" By Susan Philips. Guidance Centre, O.I.S.E. Reviewed by Grant Williams, Pearson C.I.

This manual acts as a how-to guide for the organization of a school career day. It reduces what can be an overwhelming nightmare of details to a logical sequence of bite-sized steps.

Under the concept of a career day, people from the community are invited to the school to discuss various careers with the students. The students select two or more career presentations they would like to attend and register for them in advance.

A Career Day outlines three possible timetable formats for a career day and many sample forms ranging from a student career day selection form to a speaker's thank you letter are included. While these sample forms may require modification for a particular school, certainly they serve to reduce preparation time.

Also included are such items as: charts outlining the types of information required by students at different ages; samples of possible student questions for the speakers; teacher responsibilities, evaluation forms and suggested follow-up activities.

A very useful resource.

Standardized Tests: A Practical Handbook. By Robert H. Bauernfeind, Pat Nellor Wickwire and Robert W. Read. Published by VCB Books. *Reviewed by Dave Studd*

Standardized Tests: A Practical Handbook is well-titled. It is a very practical handbook that provides an excellent overview of standardized testing and popular standardized tests.

The book is divided into three major sections – major concepts, major tests and major issues.

The first section outlines practical purposes of standardized testing. The authors discuss briefly the use of tests to classify, promote selfunderstanding, evaluate programmes and to make scientific inquiries. A valuable section outlines where a counsellor can obtain information on tests with which he/she may be unfamiliar. Included are current addresses of prominent test publishers.

Two chapters provide a comprehensive overview of the terms counsellors must understand in order to develop competencies with Essessment instruments. These include discussion of validity, reliability, standard error of measurement, types of scores and normal curves.

The second section provides an overview of major tests. But beyond the overview, the authors provide ideas on using tests effectively, communicating the results and the value of the tests. Sections are devoted to achievement tests, group tests of intelligence, tests of creativity, vocational aptitude tests and career interest inventories.

The third section of this publication is devoted to major issues in testing. The first chapter in this section entitled "Turning Theory Into Practice" provides thoughtful suggestions for developing a testing programme and integrating it with the school programme. Consideration is given to planning, implementing and evaluating, as well as gaining community support.

The final chapter is perhaps the most American chapter in the book with a discussion of S.A.T. scores. But with the coming national tests in Canada, the ideas expressed in this chapter will soon have considerable relevance to Canadian educators.

This book would be a valuable addition to every guidance department's professional library.

Self-Directed Career Planning Guide Series: Getting Started (Booklet One). Discovering Yourself. (Booklet Two). (Alberta Career Development and Employment, 1989). *Reviewed by: Albert Corcos*, Scarborough Centre for Alternative Studies.

As part of the mailings from the *Guidance Centre*, guidance departments have received the first two booklets of the *Self-Directed Career Planning Guide* series. They are glossy, soft cover, eight by eleven booklets, just under twenty pages which have been designed as a five booklet series.

The series, entitled "Self-Directed Career Planning Guide" is intended to be a workbook sequence of booklets to assist students through a career development cycle:

- Getting Started (Booklet One)
- Discovering Yourself (Booklet Two)
- Exploring Options (Booklet Three)
- Deciding (Booklet Four)
- Implementing (Booklet Five)

The series is based on a decision-making sequence to assist adults (seventeen years old and up) to make career choices and decisions. The booklets focus on practical techniques to "discover yourself"; effective ways of "exploring options"; methods for making "decisions"; and strategies for "implementing" your career decisions. The booklets are packaged for students to use independently of counsellor or classroom.

Booklet One, *Getting Started* is designed around the theme of *obstacles* to planning. A discussion of the five major blocks is provided along with a needs' assessment. The needs' assessment is completed by responding to 46 statements by indicating whether each is either true or false. The responses are then categorized into seven sections that isolate areas relating to personal problems, self-esteem and the other booklets in the series.

Booklet Two, *Discovering Yourself*, is a traditional self-assessment workbook. The exercises focus on identifying school subject interests, career interests, work values and transferable skills. At the end of the booklet, the student has an opportunity to summarize the findings into a personal profile.

All in all, the series looks very promising. They are attractive and practically designed for senior students and adults. Keep your eyes open for Booklets Three, Four and Five!

Coming Events

January 25-27, 1993 **NATCON 1993** Ottawa Contact: Angela Shim, Career Centre, University of Toronto 214 College Street, Toronto, Ontario, MST 279 General Information: 416-978-8011 Fax: 416-978-8020 May 24-29, 1993 Innergize 93 Day 1 - Gender Issues Day 2 - Career and Educational Issues Day 3 — Aboriginal Issues Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association Saskatoon, Saskatchewan Contact: Shelley Brown 620 Heritage Lane Saskatoon, SK, S7H 7P5 (306) 374-2433 Fax (306) 955-0806 November 8-10, 1993 CONNECTIONS OSCA'93 Ontario School Counsellors' Association Hamilton Contact: John Nixon (416) 632-2509

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Manuscripts should be prepared in accordance with the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 3rd edition, 1983. Abstracts should introduce the article. All articles should be typewritten and double spaced with one and one-half inch margins. Please submit three copies. To facilitate blind editorial review, please submit articles under a separate cover page. The title page should contain the names of the authors, affiliations, and telephone number of the senior author. All articles should be addressed to Dave Studd, Scarborough Centre for Alternative Studies, 39 Highbrook Drive, Scarborough, Ontario, M1P 3L2, Canada.

A short biographical statement should be included.

Letters to the Editor, reviews of books, assessment instruments, computer programs, and audio-visual resources are also welcome.



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