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RESPONSE TO CHANGE - A STUDY OF
GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING IN SECONDARY
AND GRAMMAR SCHOOLS AND TECHNICAL
COLLEGES IN NORTHERN IRELAND.

A thesis submitted by

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The roots of guidance and counselling are to be found in the works of the great philosophers who have written on education. However, the modern concept of guidance, as a service distinguished from normal classroom practice, is a relative newcomer on the educational scene and derives from three main sources, the psychological-educational, the medical-psychiatric and the vocational-occupational. The first two have been described as constituting the mental health (personal-emotional) aspect of guidance and counselling, the third as the forerunner of contemporary vocational guidance (help with decision-making).

Since the early work in psychometrics, vocational guidance and guidance for maladjusted children, guidance has acquired a much wider meaning. It now covers guidance in all aspects of development for all children. This broader concept appears to have been the response of twentieth century educational practice to the unique complexity of contemporary social and political life.

Counselling is described as one of the activities, for many pupils perhaps, the most important activity through which the objectives of guidance can be achieved. This is not to devalue in any way the significant contribution made to education by the contemporary counselling movement. It is an important strand of the wider mental health movement in education which does not attempt to deny the validity of academic objectives but seeks to give at least equal importance, if not priority, to the all-round personality development of the pupils.

Although some references can be found to guidance in government reports of the late 1930's, the growth of the guidance services in Northern Ireland is a post-war development. Local authority school psychological

services now cover the whole province, but the provision of child guidance clinic facilities is limited. The Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service was set up in 1962. Three years later responsibility for the service was transferred from the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance to the Ministry of Education, but new proposals have suggested a return to the Department of Manpower Services as part of an all-age guidance and placement unit.

Surveys were carried out to examine the structures for guidance and counselling in schools, the facilities available, the role of counsellors and the attitudes of teachers and other professional groups in education to counselling. A marked growth in the school-based guidance and counselling services in Northern Ireland has taken place in the last ten years, although there is strong evidence that there has been much less emphasis on the mental health and personal counselling aspects than there has been on careers guidance. Nearly all secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges have a careers teacher. About 34% of the schools and colleges claim to have a teacher-counsellor but only a few have taken an extended training course in school counselling.

The arrangements for "pastoral care" in the schools are based in nearly all cases on the year and/or class group. The organisational systems in most schools are loosely structured and the procedures for taking and communicating decisions about referrals correspondingly informal. Thus the roles of those involved in guidance and counselling tend to be ill-defined and unclear. Generally school counsellors and guidance teachers are operating with inadequate facilities (most lack even a room exclusively for guidance) and an insufficient time allowance which means that much of the work is done outside school hours. There appears to be a lack of

curriculum development in the guidance field, although in some schools evidence of new thinking is now becoming apparent.

The factor analysis of the results to the attitude questionnaire has identified three broad groups of issues concerning guidance and counselling in schools. The first refers to the organisational relationship of the guidance and counselling system to the other school systems (integrated v. supplementary), the second to the nature of the service (all aspects of development v. vocational-educational) and the third to the responsibility of counsellors and schools to the individual and to society.

In Northern Ireland, there is little doubt that a substantial majority of all the groups which took part in the study see guidance and counselling as an educational service integrated with other services provided by the school. In general, the consensus is that counsellors should do some teaching but should not be involved directly with disciplinary procedures, although a minority of teachers dispute this. Most of the teachers believe that the service should be provided by trained specialists and that confidentiality is a necessary basis for its effective operation, although in both cases some disagreement was expressed. Majorities in all groups except the youth employment officers, the educational welfare officers and the technical college principals thought that the recruitment of counsellors should be restricted to the teaching profession. The counsellor groups, the school psychologists and the youth employment officers agreed with the view that counsellors should operate as an agent of change with respect to the school, but the teacher groups, with the exception of the technical college principals, were reluctant to accept this point of view. Half of the grammar school principals disagreed

or strongly disagreed with it.

The guidance and counselling service was thought by a large majority of each group to be necessary. Most took the view that it should be concerned with all aspects of the development of young people rather than confined to vocational and educational matters. Similarly the majority opinion in each group was that the primary objective of the service is individual development rather than manpower considerations. Certain conditions seem to be perceived as necessary for an effective guidance and counselling service. These include a senior position for the senior counsellor in the school, appropriate use of tests and records, adequate time for counselling and the support of a teaching staff knowledgeable about and committed to guidance philosophy and practice.

There is wide acceptance of the view that the responsibilities of counsellors extend to all the children in the school. However, there is evidence to suggest that some feel that inevitably counsellors should be prepared to discriminate positively in favour of those with problems. There is disagreement within each group about the responsibility of counsellors as agents of change or "coolers" with respect to society. It is clear that majorities of all groups agree that social adjustment is an acceptable and valid aim for counsellors.

In the discussion of the major themes in education in Northern Ireland, it was suggested that guidance and counselling will grow in importance. If this is the case, a coherent training and research programme is required to inform and sustain future developments.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It is only in the last ten years or so that guidance and counselling has become a well-known phrase in the educational vocabulary in Britain. Yet its roots can be found in the works of the great philosophers who have written on education. In Plato's Republic, it is pointed out that "Education.....will be an art of doing this, an art of conversion, and will consider in what manner the soul be turned round most easily and effectively. Its aim will not be to implant vision in the instrument of sight. It will regard it as already possessing that, but as being turned in the wrong direction and not looking where it ought and it will try to set this right."¹ As Morris has said, some of the modern ideas about guidance are apparent in the work and writings of such great figures in educational thought as da Feltre, Rousseau, Montessori and Dewey.²

To look for landmarks which will clearly indicate the exact time and place when social movements like counselling start is mistaken. What invariably is the case is that a number of strands of human knowledge and endeavour converge on a problem or series of problems that arise from the social environment. In 1965, the Universities of Keele and Reading established the first courses in Britain on guidance and counselling in schools and colleges. Soon these were followed by Exeter and Swansea. Short courses on aspects of counselling multiplied. During the late 1960's, counselling as an educational innovation in Britain gathered impetus in the face of the economic stringency of the period when the education budget did not allow much money for new developments.

Despite this chilly Spartan upbringing, interest in counselling has markedly increased. A number of indices confirm this view. Books and articles on the subject are appearing in larger numbers, and a national journal concerned with the whole field of guidance and counselling has been launched. The number of university and college training courses has increased at least fourfold, and the courses provided have not suffered from any lack of applicants. On the contrary, the number applying has consistently been substantially larger than the number of places available.

In Scotland and Northern Ireland, similar trends are discernible. All the colleges of education in Scotland have appointed lecturers in guidance to encourage developments in this field, particularly by running in-service courses. A large number of schools have organised guidance departments. In Northern Ireland, both universities have established advanced diploma courses in guidance and counselling for serving teachers, and an increasing number of schools are making teacher-counsellor appointments. The Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service, established in the early 1960's, is now making a significant contribution to vocational guidance in schools throughout the province, and nearly all secondary and grammar schools have appointed a careers teacher.

The responses of teachers to guidance and counselling vary from enthusiastic acceptance to strong, if passive resistance. Some of those who take the former position argue the case for school counselling on philosophical grounds, some on social grounds, some on educational grounds, while others do not even see the need for argument. They point out that counselling is intended to help people and this is its own justification. Thus Halmos finds the case for counselling proven "because in its absence

we would have to take up the callous and inhuman position of not even trying."³

Many of those who resist the introduction of counsellors into schools do so for strongly held philosophical reasons, generally argued in terms of what they believe the aims and purposes of schools should be. For example, those who hold that the primary aim of schools is to promote and foster the intellectual development of the pupils and that the responsibility of the schools for other aspects of development is at most only peripheral, will restrict guidance to educational and vocational decision-making. A more controversial view is put forward by Holly. Writing from a marxist perspective, he finds even the notion of "careers guidance" unacceptable, that of counselling "insidious". He argues that the introduction of a school counsellor "casts teachers in the role of interpreting received perceptions and official attitudes - however skillfully this is mediated in a so-called personal relationship between counsellor and counselled."⁴

On a more practical level, many teachers feel threatened. After all, teachers give advice, exhort, counsel, "do counselling". Is the school counsellor going to take over some of the teacher's professional functions? Are teachers going to be deprived of those duties which many of them feel is the kernel of teaching as they have understood it and, indeed, those aspects which may have been primarily responsible for attracting them to teaching in the first place? Are there not dangers in assigning functions which were once held to be within the teacher's competence to some other professional?

Questions such as these, while often reflecting a misunderstanding

of the nature of counselling and of the role of the school counsellor, nevertheless do represent the views of a number of teachers. The implications are by no means confined to the purely professional sphere but have a much wider reference. However, most teachers take a more balanced view. What is required is neither unthinking rejection of the concept of guidance and counselling nor uncritical acceptance of the American model, which may serve schools and colleges in the U.S.A. well, but may have to be modified to fit conditions in other countries.

The working out of a consensus on the role of counsellors and their contribution to schooling here will take some time. As has been indicated, differences of view exist. Furthermore, educational systems and practices tend to respond slowly to innovation, so that radical short-term change is unlikely and the most that can be expected is steady, if unspectacular, growth.

Plan of the Study.

The broad objectives of the present study are:-

- (i) to assess the present position of guidance and counselling in secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges;
- and (ii) to make, if possible, some suggestions regarding lines of development in this field which might be profitably pursued so that the schools and colleges will be enabled to make appropriate provision for the guidance of all their students.

The study falls neatly into two parts. Part 1 is concerned with the historical antecedents of guidance and counselling in Great Britain, the U.S.A. and parts of Western Europe (Chapter 2), the development of guidance

services in Northern Ireland (Chapter 3) and a description of the provision of secondary education in Northern Ireland and the major issues currently facing schools and colleges in the province (Chapter 4). In Part II the results of a survey on guidance and counselling in secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges in Northern Ireland are presented and discussed (Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8).

Part I.

Since a true understanding of the contemporary position of guidance and counselling in schools demands a knowledge of the origins of the concepts, developments in the history of the movement are examined in some detail. The modern concepts of guidance and counselling have a number of roots, notably vocational guidance, psychometrics, personality dynamics and medical and educational work with maladjusted and delinquent children. As the guidance services developed, the terms guidance and child guidance acquired different meanings, particularly among the various professional groups involved in the work. This led in some cases to not a little professional acrimony. The analysis of the historical developments is carried out under three headings, namely (i) the educational-psychological (ii) the medical-psychiatric and (iii) the vocational-occupational.

In Chapter 3, the historical development of the guidance services in Northern Ireland is discussed. For this chapter, the guidance services are divided into two categories, the mental health services (the school psychological and child guidance services) and the vocational guidance services.

Mortensen and Schmuller have rightly pointed out that "Guidance draws its meaning and purpose from education, which in turn has no utility apart from the society of which it is a part."⁵ Therefore, to assess the relevance of guidance and counselling for schools and colleges requires some knowledge of the educational system of the province and the major challenges it faces as it endeavours to respond to the rapid social changes which are taking place. The most important issues regarding schools, particularly those at the secondary level are (a) the structure of secondary education (the selective v. comprehensive issue), (b) the controversy about "integrated schools" (should children be educated in common schools or denominational schools), (c) the role of schools in a society in which a marked dissensus exists and in which both teachers and pupils are subject to stress resulting from civil strife, and (d) the development of guidance and counselling in the schools. These issues are considered in Chapter 4.

Part 11.

The following instruments were used in the study, viz:

1. A short questionnaire (Q/UK/1) mainly concerned with the administrative aspects of the school or college. A copy was sent to the principal of each secondary school, grammar school and technical college in the province. The purpose was to ascertain the numbers of children attending the school, the number and proportion of staff specifically engaged in guidance and the organisation of guidance in each school. The principals were also asked how they would allocate extra resources if any were made available for guidance.

2. A questionnaire (Q/UK/2) was constructed to attempt to find out (i) the facilities available to guidance staff (rooms, furniture and equipment, access to telephone, secretarial assistance and finance), and (ii) the main duties undertaken by guidance staff in schools. A copy was sent to the teacher in each school who had been designated by the principal as the senior guidance and/or careers guidance teacher.

Two additional studies were carried out to supplement the information gained from Q/UK/2.

- (a) A small group of trained counsellors (all had completed award-bearing courses of one year full-time or equivalent) were asked to complete a record sheet for five designated weeks during the academic year 1971-72. The information requested concerned the number and type of interviews carried out, the time spent on guidance activities and the agencies with whom the counsellor was in contact. Each counsellor also supplied his weekly timetable.
- (b) Five schools were selected and the guidance structure and provision in each was studied. Each school was visited for almost a day and discussions were held with the principal and/or the deputy-principal, the guidance and counselling staff and other staff members.

The results of Q/UK/1, Q/UK/2 and the two supplementary studies are discussed in Chapter 6.

3. An inventory of counsellor activities (Q/UK/4) containing forty-three activities, in which counsellors in schools are

engaged, was drawn up. The list represents the whole spectrum of guidance activities. The inventory was sent to a sample of counsellors and their principals in order to find out their views on the role of the school counsellor.

4. An attitude inventory (Q/UK/5) was designed to try to assess the attitudes and opinions of a number of professional groups closely involved with guidance in schools. In its final form, the scale contains thirty-five items on sixteen issues related to guidance and counselling, to which respondents were asked to indicate the strength of their agreement or disagreement on a five-point scale. The scale was completed by sample groups of counsellors, teachers, principals, school psychologists, youth employment officers and educational welfare officers.

In Chapter 7, the responses to Q/UK/4 and Q/UK/5 are presented and the results discussed. Finally, in Chapter 8 implications of the findings for the development of guidance and counselling in the school and colleges of Northern Ireland are examined. A number of tentative suggestions with respect to future action in this field are put forward for consideration.

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PART I

CHAPTER 2.

Historical Trends in Guidance.

It is neither surprising nor remarkable that there should be differing opinions about the precise meaning of guidance and about the range of activities which it comprises. One manifestation of the plurality of definitions is that nearly every writer on the subject feels it necessary to formulate his own. A fuller discussion of the nature of guidance will be presented later. It is sufficient now to point out that one of the main reasons for the divergence of views that exists is that guidance springs from a number of different sources.

In the history of child guidance, three fairly distinct strands of development can be discerned, although, of course, they are closely inter-related. The three can best be considered as three separate services, namely:

- (i) a predominantly psychological-educational service which had its origins in the work of Galton, Sully, McDougall, Burt and others in the late nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth;
- (ii) a predominantly medical-psychiatric service which originated in the work of Healy, Meyer and others in the U.S.A. and was introduced into Britain in the 1920's;
- and (iii) a vocational-occupational service which (in the U.S.A.) had its origins in the social reform movement in the northern

industrial cities in the late nineteenth century and in Europe in either applied psychology laboratories (Spain) or in response to the difficulties created by large-scale unemployment, particularly among young people (Great Britain).

The Psychological-educational Service.

In a certain sense, the entire child guidance movement could be said to have been initiated by and in its early years largely sustained by the great reform movements of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in the industrial countries of Western Europe and North America. The early pioneers were at least as interested, many probably more so, in effecting changes in society as they were in helping those who required and sought their assistance.

Two developments crucial to the future growth of child guidance were gaining momentum at this time, namely the scientific study of childhood and a growing concern for the physical and spiritual welfare of all children. In the case of the latter, the proliferation of philanthropic societies and the even larger number of humanitarians who were working for the welfare of children testify to the growing public recognition of the problems to be met. As Heywood has shown, "Rescue work among children, inspired by charitable motives and aiming to prevent the destruction of morality and character, became pre-eminently the field of the great voluntary societies in the last half of the nineteenth century."²

Furthermore, legislative action was taken on many of the social problems which the social reformers had highlighted. For example, the Royal Commission under Lord Egerton, which reported in 1889, had its

initial terms of reference extended as a result of strong public pressure. The original intention to confine the commission to a study of the condition of the blind, the opportunities available to them in education and employment, and the means by which improvements could be effected. The extended terms of reference included the deaf and dumb " as well as such other cases as from special circumstances would seem to require exceptional methods of education."³ The physically and mentally handicapped were thus brought within the competence of the commission. No lobbying or pressure group was required to urge their inclusion; indeed, Pritchard takes the view that the change was forced on the government, not by outside representation but by the realisation, made more obvious by the introduction of compulsory education, that "the mentally handicapped constituted an educational problem."⁴

Burt⁵, among others, concurred with this assessment of the situation. He noted that there were many complaints by teachers about the problems they faced because of the large numbers of apparently unteachable and uncontrollable children who were attending school after 1880. The advent of universal compulsory education brought new problems within the scope of the school. Teachers found themselves having to cope with disciplinary problems and curricular issues of which many of them had had relatively little experience.

A number of investigations were initiated to establish the scope of the problems, among them an anthropometric survey carried out by the British Association at Galton's instigation, and one by Dr. F. Warner on behalf of the Charity Organisation Society. Warner's findings showed that there was a large number of children who could be considered incapable in their

existing state of health of profiting from normal education.

A large number of questions had to be answered. What educational provision should be made for these troublesome children? Many were to be found in the lower classes in elementary schools, having failed to make the scholastic improvement required for normal year by year advancement. The problems thus created in the classroom seemed intractable to teachers. Should these "failing" children continue to be taught in the elementary schools in the ordinary classes or should other arrangements be made? What kind of school was appropriate? Whose responsibility was it to provide it?

It was in an attempt to answer these questions that an inter-departmental committee was set up in 1897. The terms of reference were "to enquire into and advise upon any changes to the existing system of education of feeble-minded and defective children not under charge of Guardians and not idiots and imbeciles; to report upon the means of discriminating between educable and non-educable children and between those who were taught in the ordinary school and those in special classes; and to enquire into the provision of elementary education for children suffering from epilepsy."⁶

As a result of the deliberations, the Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act was passed in 1899. It gave legal recognition to the label "feeble-minded" children, who were defined as those "who not being imbecile and not being merely dull or backward are, by reason of mental defect, incapable of receiving proper benefit from the instruction in the ordinary public elementary schools, but are not incapable by reason of such defect of receiving benefit in such special classes or schools as are in

this Act mentioned."⁷ It is noteworthy that the criterion adopted for selecting the children was the ability to benefit from schooling, that is, an educational one. It demanded a reliable and valid method of measuring individual differences. Under the 1899 Act, no change was contemplated in the existing procedure for selecting children for attendance at special schools. The selection was carried out by doctors, largely on a physical basis. Psychological tests had not yet been developed to the extent necessary for their use for this purpose.

However, at this time, progress was being made on a new and scientific approach to the study of children. As has been shown by many writers, this movement "owed little to the general psychology which was the offspring of philosophy or to the physiological psychologists, led by Wundt, who concentrated upon man as a neurological mechanism (but rather to).....the work of the evolutionary biologists of the latter half of the nineteenth century."⁸ Under the influence of Darwin, psychology became more biological and less physiological, more dynamic and less mechanistic, more functional and less structural. As Murphy pointed out, "Psychology was certain to become more biological; mental processes tendedto be stated in terms of functions served in the task of adjusting to the world."⁹ Without the evolutionary orientation, it is doubtful if child study and the study of disturbed and subnormal children would have developed as they did. Particularly influential was the article written by Darwin and published in *Mind* (1877) called "The Biographical Sketch of an Infant". It was the forerunner of a number of similar studies written from the genetic and developmental standpoint and using the same methods of systematic and objective observation, notably by Perez (1878, 1886) Compayre (1893) and Queval (1893) in France, by Preyer (1882) in Germany and by Moore

(1896) and Shinn (1900) in the U.S.A.¹⁰ The work of these, of Stanley Hall in the U.S.A. and Sully in England made child psychology "a field for a new international enthusiasm."¹¹ Galton, whose work in the related fields of individual differences and mental testing, was very influential, considered child study an essential part of the teacher's knowledge. The scientific study of an individual pupil was, for Galton, an essential prerequisite to the making of informed decisions about the type of schooling from which the child could profit. The increase in knowledge about children would provide the basis for appropriate advances in educational methodology.¹²

Probably the most influential figure in Britain in the developing field of child psychology and its application to education was James Sully who became Professor of Mind and Logic at the University of London in 1893. A year later he set up an education section under Dr. Mitchell and the establishment of a psychological laboratory followed in 1896. Although he contributed much to education, psychology and guidance, Sully has not been accorded recognition commensurate with his contribution. One of those who saw the importance of his influence was Gertrude Keir. Writing in 1952, she pointed out that his general programme for the psychological examination, guidance and training of children which "he sketched out in his addresses, his lecture-courses and his books, has provided the essential basis for nearly all subsequent work and training in child psychology, not only in London but in most other university departments in this country."¹³

According to Burt, Sully was the initiator of "systematic instruction on child psychology into the courses for teachers and students proposing to enter the teaching profession."¹⁴ He advocated that the content of

training courses, both initial and in-service, should include the theory of child study (he called it paedology) and its practical applications in the fields of child management (paedeutics) and educational and vocational guidance (paedagogy). Despite the criticism of many eminent educationists and psychologists, notably William James, he urged teachers in his lectures and writings to realise the importance for them of a study of psychology. Among the tasks he recommended for inclusion in training college courses was "a piece of methodical work in observing and recording some facts in child life." Another suggestion was the recording "of some aspect of a child's.....progress during a certain period."¹⁵

The courses run by Sully and his assistants generated great interest and enthusiasm among the teachers, educational administrators and others who attended. The attempts to introduce changes in the schools along the lines suggested, and the growth in the number of local organisations devoted to child study during these years, are indications of the level of interest which prevailed. Many of the local societies became affiliated to the British Child Study Association which, with the support of teachers and other groups Sully formed in 1893. The main object of the association was "the scientific study of the mental and physical condition of children and also of educational methods with a view to gaining greater insight into child-nature and securing more sympathetic and scientific methods of training."¹⁶ Sully argued that reliable and valid methods of measuring individual differences were required.

Galton was an early pioneer in trying to obtain measures of intelligence. Flugel referred to him as "the true father of the mental test"¹⁷ and Anastasi wrote that "he was primarily responsible for launching the

testing movement on its course."¹⁸ His now famous anthropometric laboratory first set up at the International Health Exhibition in 1884-85, was one of the earliest attempts to obtain objective mental measurements, but perhaps his most enduring contribution was in the field of statistics, where his work led Pearson to discover a method of calculating a coefficient of correlation.

The work of Sully, Galton and Burt had its parallels in Europe. Its effects cast an interesting light on patterns of academic influence. Wall¹⁹ has maintained that Taine's book *De L'Intelligence*, which owed much to the ideas of Herbert Spencer, provided the starting point for the later work of Binet, who made the significant breakthrough when he published the first version of his famous intelligence scale in 1904. A year later, Binet established in Paris a pedagogical laboratory for the psychological, medical and educational examination of subnormal children.

In other countries, notably Italy and Switzerland, attempts were being made to deal with the problems of detecting and measuring subnormality in children and in devising an appropriate education for them. In the latter, Claparede, at the insistence of a young teacher, began to study the educational problems of a class of subnormal children. In 1904, he published a series of articles on "*La Psychologie de l'enfant et la Pedagogie experimentale*" which he later developed into a book. He attempted to give the first integrated course on educational psychology, the health of the school child and the pathology of childhood to student teachers, but his course was turned down by the Faculties of Arts, Science and Medicine. His other initiatives included the establishment of *l'Ecole* (later *l'Institut*) *des Sciences de l'education* at Geneva which made "an

immense contribution.....to the development of experimental education and child study."²⁰ Claparede, like Sully and Burt, saw clearly that the basis for improving educational practice and child guidance was child study.

Contributions came also from those who were concerned with the practical problems of teaching subnormal children. Itard and Seguin were pioneers in this field and their work was continued by many including Decroly (Belgium), Descoedres (Switzerland) and Montessori (Italy). Thus what has come to be called special education has contributed not only to the understanding of problems of subnormality but also to the wider field of guidance. Similarly general classroom practice has gained many insights from methods first developed to teach subnormal children.

Post-Binet developments in the U.S.A. were concerned with adapting the scale to local conditions. A number of revisions were made, the best known being that produced by Terman in 1916. The testing movement was given a significant impetus in the U.S.A. by the First World War, and as a result, in 1916 a team of psychologists, which included Wechsler, Otis, Boring and Yerkes, constructed the Army Group (Alpha and Beta) Tests for classifying recruits entering the armed forces.²¹ The new group tests were thought to provide a fairly reliable, quick and easy way of measuring intellectual characteristics.

The applications of mental tests in the educational field were obvious. From the point of view of guidance, mental tests had many uses, in research, in clinics and in schools. However, the speed of the developments created a bandwagon effect which was not without its difficulties. One result was that over-zealous advocates made somewhat unwarranted claims

for the effectiveness and validity of the new group tests. Another particularly unsatisfactory consequence was that, in the U.S.A. at least, clinical psychology became identified with mental testing. As Louttit succinctly put it, "Tests appeared to be universal and foolproof diagnostic tools - they were easy to administer; they gave definite numerical scores; they appeared to be easy of interpretation."²²

The chief significance of the mental testing movement was that it provided the technology necessary to make possible many of the advances in the fields of education and child study. Furthermore, it was in line with the evolutionary approach of Sully and McDougall. In this regard, two points are worth noting. First, the central position was given to the normal, and the abnormal was considered to be a deviation from the normal rather than qualitatively different from it. Second, it made possible the scientifically-based, direct assessment of intellectual and emotional qualities rather than making inferences from physical symptoms and signs.

In order that the schools should benefit from the new knowledge and techniques, it became clear that a new type of education specialist, a psychologist with appropriate practical and theoretical training was required in the education service. Sully concurred with this view and came to the conclusion that the psychologists should be based in local centres and the obvious place was in the education departments of the local authorities.

One of the results of the legislative enactments on education from 1902 to 1908 was to transfer the powers and duties of the Poor Law, regarding the services ancillary to education, to the local education

authorities. For example, the 1906 Education (Provision of Meals) Act gave the authorities the power to provide school meals. In the following year, the School Medical Service, which in 1945 became the School Health Service, was established by the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act (1907), by which local authorities were obliged to provide for the medical examination of all the children in public elementary schools and empowered to provide treatment. It was a natural extension of this development that the local authorities should eventually assume responsibility for the work of the school psychologist.

Thus, despite some vigorous opposition, the London County Council decided in 1913 to appoint Cyril Burt as educational psychologist, initially for an experimental period of three years. He was made a member of the inspectorate and was given an office in the administrative centre and branch offices in the various districts. He wrote later "My formal instructions on appointment were to assist teachers by developing means both for the examination and ascertainment and for the education or training of various types of children needing special provision or attention."²³ Some time afterwards, he drew up a fuller statement of his duties. As well as those relating to individual children, which could properly be referred to as child guidance, he also included advice to the education committee on the psychological aspects of education and the formulation and carrying out of surveys and other research projects.

In his work with individual children, Burt co-operated closely with school doctors, health visitors (called care committee workers), teachers and voluntary assistants. He relied heavily on all of these groups for information. The procedure he evolved was multidisciplinary, comprising

four lines of investigation, psychological, educational, medical and social. The person who referred the case was sent a report which recommended what course of action should be followed. Burt claimed, with justification, that his office "developed into the first child guidance centre in the country."²⁴ Hughes has made a further point, namely that from the time of Burt's appointment "the progress of the child study movement can be identified with the development of educational and child psychology as a profession."²⁵ Thus in the early years in England guidance was closely associated with teaching, schools and educational psychology. It was considered to be educational service to be provided by local authorities for individual children.

In Scotland, as in England, child guidance started in the universities. In the early 1920's, the Universities of Glasgow and Edinburgh each established a postgraduate honours degree in education and psychology, called the Bachelor of Education.²⁶ The teaching for the degree was shared between the education and psychology departments. To facilitate the carrying out of the practical work required for the degree, each university established a child guidance centre, that in Edinburgh in the psychology department under Professor Drever and that in Glasgow in the education department under the direction of Dr. Boyd.

Furthermore, the training college staffs in Scotland have always been closely associated with child guidance. In 1923, the Provincial Committee in Glasgow for the Training of Teachers and the Glasgow Education Authority agreed to the joint appointment of an educational psychologist.²⁷ As psychologist to the education authority, he carried out duties similar to those which Burt had undertaken in London, and as a member of Jordanhill

Training College staff, he assisted in the training of teachers of mentally handicapped children for the whole of Scotland.

A number of other training colleges and universities were involved in setting up child guidance centres or clinics. Perhaps the best known is that established in association with Notre Dame Training College, Glasgow, which, under its first director Sister Marie Hilda, achieved an international reputation. It worked in close collaboration with the schools and with the psychologists of the Glasgow Education Authority.

The Medical-psychiatric service.

In the 1920's, the Commonwealth Fund, a trust founded by the Harkness family of New York, provided the finance to set up a child guidance clinic in London. The trustees of the fund were at that time providing the support necessary for demonstration clinics in a number of American cities. These clinics were concerned mainly with the study, diagnosis and treatment of problem children, particularly delinquents.

Unlike the situation prevailing in Britain, where a number of university departments of psychology were closely involved in the early work in child guidance, in the U.S.A. this was not the case. The only exception was at the University of Pennsylvania where Lightner Witmer, with the encouragement of his head of department, Professor J.McK. Cattell, opened a child guidance centre.

Witmer's main concern was children who manifested deviations in behaviour. In his method he emphasised the importance of four main aspects of the study of an individual, the psychological, the educational,

the psychiatric and the social. He seems, too, to have recognised the value of the team approach, and co-operation between psychiatrist, psychologist and social worker. Furthermore, his work was based on what has been called "a concept of diagnostic education"²⁸, but could be better described as diagnostic teaching. He felt that one could not understand an individual child until one had tried to teach him something. The teaching and the diagnosis continued together throughout, so that "repeated measurement of actual achievement validated the correctness of the ongoing diagnosis and the effectiveness of the remedial treatment."²⁹ This method involved close contact between clinic and school with frequent visits by the clinic personnel to the school and by the teachers to the clinic.

Witmer's work did not attract much attention or enthusiasm except from his students. Some attribute this to the fact that his interests did not coincide with those of the mainstream of American psychology. Others have suggested that his experimental orientation was narrow, but Levine and Levine dispute this view. Part of the answer may be that he was an aloof and somewhat eccentric figure who on occasion was particularly scathing in his criticism of many of his eminent professional colleagues. However that may be, his influence was felt more in psychiatric than in psychological circles.³⁰

Helen Witmer³¹ maintains that there are three main lines in the development of psychiatric services for children in the U.S.A. The first of these was an extension of the scope of the work carried on in mental hospitals, a small number of which had initiated the provision of clinic services for outpatients in the 1890's. The main functions were (a) the prevention of mental disease through early diagnosis and treatment,

(b) keeping in touch with mental patients who had been paroled, and
(c) the education of the public regarding the nature and treatment of mental diseases.

Adolf Meyer, one of the leading psychiatrists of his day, used his prestige to persuade other mental hospitals to provide the service and to extend it to include the diagnosis and treatment of emotionally disturbed children. His interest in children was a logical consequence of his viewpoint, which he described as psychobiological as it emphasised the importance of such concepts as adjustment, origins and growth. In his acceptance of the concepts of the evolutionary school, at that time strong in British psychology but not in American, he seems to have been influenced by Hall and William James, who, although they both studied under Wundt, had moved away from the "Leipsic physiological and experimental approach and into the area of biology instead."³² Since the original practice in the mental hospital clinics was based on the prevalent belief that mental disease was caused by organic factors, they had, at the beginning, little to offer disturbed children. However, under Meyer's influence, psychiatrists began to recognise the importance of social and emotional factors in mental illness and, therefore, began to take more interest in the diagnosis and treatment of emotional disturbance in children.

Another line of development was the increase in the number of clinics attached to the juvenile courts dealing with the problem of delinquency. The pioneer in this field in the U.S.A. was William Healy, whose views corresponded closely to those of Meyer. In 1908, he wrote that " It was readily discernible that blazing new trails would involve not only research and accumulating new knowledge in separate scientific

fields, but also the specific co-ordination of studies to be undertaken in the realm of medicine, psychology, psychiatry and social work."³³ Healy's work, like that of Burt in Liverpool and London, began to draw attention to factors other than the psychiatric. Attention was focused on the importance of environmental influences, educational and minor emotional difficulties, and factors related to problems in the home.

The third strand of development in the U.S.A. mentioned by Helen Witmer led to the establishment in 1909 of the National Association for Mental Hygiene. Although agitation had been going on periodically for some time to try to ensure that the public would have a greater awareness and understanding of mental illness and its concomitant problems, the immediate impetus for the foundation of the Association was a book published in 1908 called "A Mind that Found Itself". The author was Clifford Beers, who, during the years 1900-1903, had been a patient in three mental hospitals. The practices he witnessed in these institutions, particularly with violent and troublesome patients, caused him deep distress. It was because of his desire to expose what was going on and see that reforms were initiated that he wrote the book and helped found the association.

It is clear from Beers' writings that he intended the association to be an energetic and crusading pressure group whose job was to educate public opinion and agitate for reform. However, this did not happen. Under the influence of the professionals in the organisation, mainly psychiatrists and doctors, it developed into an organising and educational body. "As time went on, the National Committee for Mental Hygiene distinguished itself for its pioneering efforts in establishing mental

hygiene and child guidance clinics, generally accepted as appropriate means of instituting early treatment of mental illnesses and vehicles of public information about emotional disturbances."³⁴

After the First World War, the interest of workers in the field of mental hygiene began to focus on social problems and their mental health consequences, particularly with regard to children. This was due partly to the results of Healy's work and partly to the increasing influence of Freudian insights and concepts on American psychiatry and psychology. Freud's emphasis on the importance of early childhood experiences and upbringing made it inevitable that the relationships of children with adults, and particularly the child-parent relationship, would be closely studied. Therefore, attention was given to the establishment of clinics devoted to the diagnosis and treatment of emotionally disturbed children, principally as a measure for the prevention of future mental illness. As White, one of the early pioneers of the movement, said, childhood became "the golden age of mental hygiene."³⁵

With Healy's clinic providing a useful model, the Commonwealth Fund trustees agreed to finance the building and maintenance of a number of demonstration clinics, the purposes of which were outlined in the 1926 Commonwealth Fund Committee Report on the Prevention of Delinquency, as follows, "to develop the psychiatric study of difficult, pre-delinquent and delinquent children in the schools and juvenile courts; to develop sound methods of treatment based on such study; and to provide courses of training along sound lines for those qualified and desiring to work in this field."³⁶ Therefore, the clinics were to function as diagnostic, remedial and therapeutic centres, training centres for staff, and research

centres for the development and refinement of new theories and techniques.

The organisation of the professional services within the clinic was based initially on existing practice and developed into what has become known as the team or multidisciplinary approach. Both in Chicago and later when he moved to Boston, Healy had employed psychologists on his staff but had depended on probation officers to carry out social work duties. Some of the mental hospitals had adopted the practice of using a social worker, a practice said to have been initiated by Meyer, whose wife acted as a home-visitor attached to one of the hospitals which he served as consultant. Thus the demonstration clinics, incorporating both ideas, were established with a team of three professional workers, psychiatrist, psychologist and social worker.

The early clinics were attached to juvenile courts but, for a number of reasons, the disadvantages associated with this arrangement soon became apparent. Many who were guilty of delinquent behaviour did not appear before the court at all. Probably more important was the fact that working wholly through the courts made it difficult to achieve one of the main goals of the clinics, namely prevention. Thus the original concept of the psychopathic clinic attached to the courts was broadened and subsequent clinics were established in other situations, and parents, teachers, doctors and others were encouraged to make use of their facilities by referring difficult children to them.

The efforts being made to deal with the problems of delinquents by the Commonwealth Fund clinics were studied with much interest outside the U.S.A., particularly in England. Mrs. St. Loe Strachey³⁷, wife of the editor of the Spectator and a juvenile court magistrate, suggested that

she should approach the trustees of the Commonwealth Fund to inquire about the availability of funds for establishing a clinic in London.

The times were propitious. Informed public opinion recognised the need to provide resources for helping handicapped and disadvantaged children. Discussions were taking place among educationists about the changes brought about by the Education Acts of 1918 and 1921. As part of the general plans for the resulting organisation of the education services throughout the country, Burt drew up a "Report on the Future Organisation of the Psychological Services for Schools".³⁸ In this document he outlined a scheme, which included the establishment in certain areas of psychological centres or clinics of the type he himself had set up in London.

In order to enlist support for Mrs. Strachey's initiative, a meeting was called by Burt and Sir Percy Nunn to hear the views of psychologists, psychiatrists, educationists and other interested people. At the meeting, held in London Day Training College in 1924, a Child Guidance Council was formed. A plan was drawn up for a demonstration clinic in London and was forwarded to the Commonwealth Fund, the directors of which accepted it with only minor modifications. The clinic opened in Islington in 1928 with a grant of £6,000 a year for five years. If the venture were successful, it was to be taken over by the London County Council.

The original aim of Mrs. Strachey, as might be expected of one who had considerable experience of juvenile courts, was the prevention and treatment of delinquency. However, many of the educationalists attending the conference argued that subnormal and backward children should be in-

cluded also. Kunn argued that even this latter approach was based on a restrictive concept of guidance, and suggested that, since every child may at some stage need guidance, it should not be confined to subnormal and delinquent children but extended to all. "Why", he asked, "must a child be subnormal before he can claim the psychologist's help? Every child at some stage or other may need guidance; and as often as not, we shall be concerned with 'guidance' given to the teacher or the parent, as well as to the child."³⁹ This view represented a significant change from accepted thinking. It could be argued that it was not new, but simply a restatement in contemporary terms of what educationists had been saying since Plato's time. Nevertheless, in the context in which it was put forward, it added a new dimension to the discussion which was not fully taken up until quite recently. Kunn's view incorporated a concept of guidance which is accepted by many of those involved in the guidance and counselling movement in Britain in the last ten years.

It is clear that the early efforts in the field of child guidance in Britain deriving from the practices of Sully, Burt and others, and the demonstration clinics established with the support of the Commonwealth Fund reflected two somewhat differing concepts of guidance. The former were based initially on educational needs, particularly the necessity to help the dull, the backward and the educationally subnormal, who were often difficult and troublesome. The latter, on the other hand, developed from the study and treatment of the mentally ill and the delinquent. Thus, although both were concerned primarily with deviant children, there were important differences, including the settings in which the treatment or re-education took place, the target population, the goals, techniques and criteria used for defining maladjustment or deviance.

Mental health services for young people (1890-1945)

	Psychological-educational	Medical-psychiatric
Some early names.	Sully, Burt, Witmer (USA), Binet (France).	Healy (USA), Meyer (USA), Moodie (GB).
Settings in which work is carried out.	Local education authority based service working in schools and other centres (e.g. diagnostic centres).	Child guidance clinics.
Target population.	Dull; backward; educationally subnormal; difficult children.	Delinquent; pre-delinquent; emotionally disturbed.
Goals (primary focus only).	Educational, remedial.	Therapeutic.
Objectives.	Diagnosis, selection, re-education, training, treatment.	Diagnosis, treatment.
Main techniques.	Psychological tests, interviews, teachers' opinions, environmental change, teaching and training programmes.	Psychiatric interviews, home visiting, therapeutic programmes.
Criteria used for defining maladjustment.	Educational and psychological (defined widely).	Psychiatric categories (defined narrowly).

Thus the two types of child guidance service, namely the school psychological service, based on Burt's work, and the child guidance clinics, modelled on the Commonwealth Fund clinics had to find an accommodation with each other. This was to prove difficult. In many areas, the clinics and the school psychological service operated more or less in isolation. At the professional level, this led to a lack of understanding and communication, and at worst to undignified inter-disciplinary quarrelling, both of which impeded the development of an efficient service. It was the proposals of the Underwood Committee in 1955 which found solutions to some of the difficulties and provided the framework for the present child guidance service.

These internal factors, the constraints imposed by the economic difficulties of the 1930's and the upheavals caused by the second World War, hindered the growth of the service at a crucial time. This is not to say that much good work was not done during this period. During the War, work with evacuated children provided many insights which were later to prove useful during the rapid growth of the school psychological and child guidance services during the late 1940's and early 1950's in response to the requirements of the 1944 Education Act.

Probably the best known of the investigations into the effects of evacuation on children was carried out at Cambridge⁴⁰, where the teachers and administrative officers in charge of children from the Tottenham and Islington boroughs co-operated with psychologists and sociologists from the London School of Economics, Bedford College and the London Institute of Education. Another reception area was South Wales where a Psychological Service for Difficult Children was set up as part of the evacuation scheme.

The service was responsible for children in the area, which comprised six counties to which about 60,000 children were evacuated. The staff was initially a senior psychologist and two part-time psychiatric social workers; later an assistant psychologist, two part-time psychiatrists and two full-time social workers were added. The situation gave a unique opportunity to study the effectiveness of a range of facilities in treating emotional disturbance in children which, as Seth pointed out at the time, was an inevitable consequence of the "mass-transfer of children from one area to another, and more particularly from their own homes to temporary foster-homes."⁴¹

The comprehensive range of duties and powers laid on local education authorities by the terms of the Act and its associated regulations, not only with regard to handicapped children, but also concerning such features as the raising of the statutory school leaving age and the reorganisation of educational provision for children over eleven years of age, made it clear that the local education authorities would need skilled psychological advice in order to cope with the tasks entrusted to them. The Association of Education Committees set up a working party to consider the implications of the 1944 Act for the local education authorities, especially in the field of child guidance. Reviewing the statutory framework then prevailing and the charges proposed under the new Act, the working party said: "While it may have been true that the Act of 1921 implicitly expected Local Education Authorities to provide a psychological service, and indeed the child guidance service has **grown within the terms of that Act**, it is clearly true that the 1944 Act explicitly requires a Local Education Authority to maintain an adequate service to meet the educational needs, interpreted in the

widest sense, of all children within the area."⁴² The working party further pointed out that the Act and the ensuing regulations made it clear that the authorities were expected to "maintain a school medical service which includes adequate provision for the ascertainment of all children who require special educational provision. This means that the Local Authority must have a means of advising the ordinary schools, of advising parents, of conducting such surveys or test procedures as may be necessary for the allocation of children to different types of school, for the diagnosis and treatment of individual children whether their problem be physical or mental or emotional."⁴³

The Report went on to advise the authorities of the alternatives open to them. "The child guidance clinic, as we have known it, must either have added to it a psychological service as an advisory and diagnostic service of the authority or alternatively the child guidance clinic, as we have known it, must give place to a child guidance service adequately staffed to provide for all those needs, varying as they will do from the severe emotional problem, requiring detailed psychiatric treatment, through the whole range of behaviour and emotional maladjustments to the relatively simple case where a whole age group has to be surveyed and advice offered regarding the general type of secondary education appropriate to their needs."⁴⁴

Encouraged by the advice and support of the AEC working party, a large number of local education authorities in England and Wales decided to establish a school psychological service in their area. A survey⁴⁵ carried out in the early 1960's, for which 94 out of 135 local authorities completed returns, showed that about 50% of those responding had appointed

their first educational psychologist between 1945 and 1954.

It was at this time of expansion of the services that the tensions, which had existed for some time between the two approaches to guidance, the psychological-educational and the medical-psychiatric, came to a head. It has been suggested earlier that between the two there was a fundamental difference in philosophy, in ways of defining maladjustment, and of the mental health dimension in education. As a result, a clash developed between psychologists and psychiatrists working in the service, the main issue, overtly at least, being the role of the psychologist in the child guidance clinic. In the U.S.A., his role was confined to appraising the intellectual status of the child by means of intelligence and educational attainment tests, a position which has largely been due to the narrow almost exclusively behaviouristic orientation of American psychology between the wars. In Britain, on the other hand, the major thrust of psychology was biological and dynamic, with the result that applied psychology, particularly in the field of education has always held an important, some might even say a paramount place. The attempt to confine the psychologist to a similar role was, therefore, strongly resisted.⁴⁶

When it became clear that the development of the child guidance service was inevitable as a consequence of the 1944 Act, and equally clear that such a desirable development was being hampered, if not completely jeopardised, by the inter-professional conflict, the editor of the British Journal of Educational Psychology invited seven eminent members of both professions to contribute to "A symposium on psychologists and psychiatrists in the child guidance service."⁴⁷ This provided a forum in which misunderstandings could be resolved and meaningful communication started.

But perhaps the most important factor in resolving the difficulties and providing a new impetus to child guidance was the Underwood Report on Maladjusted Children which was published in 1955. Their remit was "to enquire into and report upon the medical, educational and social problems relating to maladjusted children, with reference to their treatment within the educational system."⁴⁸ The members of the committee maintained that "if arrangements for child guidance are to be successful, they must:

- (a) deal with children, not in isolation, but in and with their families;
- (b) prevent maladjustment by dealing with minor troubles at as early a stage as possible;
- (c) have roots in the school;
- (d) be closely connected with the school health service and other health services; and
- (e) inspire confidence in parents, teachers and other adults in contact with children."⁴⁹

It was suggested, therefore, that the optimum conditions would prevail where the school psychological service, the child guidance clinics and the school health service work closely together as a comprehensive child guidance service. The report recommended that each area should have such a service. In order that the link between the school psychological service and clinic should be strong, "the educational psychologist in the child guidance service should work part-time in the child guidance clinic and part-time in the school psychological service and should be the

main link between the schools and the clinic."⁵⁰ This seems to have been the pattern adopted by the great majority of local education authorities. Thus, by the time that school counselling emerged in the mid 1960's, the child guidance service in most areas of England and Wales had settled down into the pattern described. It would be wrong to infer that all the problems have been satisfactorily resolved by the restructuring suggested by Underwood. Difficulties still exist but the organisation for dealing with them in many places is working effectively. It would seem that there is some justification for suggesting that in some areas at least the two strands, the psychological-educational and the medical-psychiatric, have come together and in others are beginning to do so. If this development can be advanced it will mean that a comprehensive child guidance service will be available to support the efforts of schools in promoting the mental health of all the pupils.

Vocational-occupational service.

Many of the advances in psychological knowledge and expertise which informed and underpinned the developments in the psychological-educational and medical-psychiatric fields helped to promote and sustain a pattern of services designed to provide for young people guidance, advice and help in finding suitable employment. A notable example is mental testing. As has already been mentioned, the first World War had a significant influence on the use of mental tests for the purposes of occupational selection. In the armed services during the War, it was necessary to be able to select candidates for jobs quickly and economically, and tests were developed for this purpose. As Freeman said, "The mental test movement acquired a tremendous impetus as a result of the

large number of examinations which was given in the army and of the publicity received."⁵¹

The application of psychological knowledge and method to occupational and industrial concerns developed into a major field of applied psychology in the early twentieth century. Although successful efforts had earlier been made in studying specific occupational skills, for example those of morse code operators, stenographers and others,⁵² Munsterberg's book "Psychology and Industrial Efficiency"⁵³, the English translation of which appeared in 1913 one year after its original publication, is generally held to be the first comprehensive and systematic textbook in the new field of occupational psychology.

In Britain the expansion of occupational psychology is closely bound up with the development of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology, the first director of which, C.S. Myers, took up office in 1922. Indeed, Hearnshaw considers that, since it was the most important source of employment for psychologists in the inter-war years when few other openings existed, "its service to British psychology was of incalculable importance, without which the expansion of psychology in the Second World War and after would have been virtually impossible."⁵⁴

However, interest among psychologists in Britain in vocational guidance had been apparent for some time. Shortly after Burt's appointment with the London County Council, a study was initiated in London to examine some of the psychological aspects of vocational guidance. The project was abandoned because of the problems created by the war, but the idea was taken up again and developed further after the National Institute of Industrial Psychology had been established. From the start, one of

the major functions of the Institute⁵⁵ was the carrying out of research. The main findings of the early studies highlighted the necessity of basing vocational guidance on accurate and systematically gathered information about the person to be helped, and a clear understanding by the helper of the world of work and the nature of the adjustments which have to be made in it.

Important though the contribution of psychology was to the development of a vocational guidance service in Britain, it was only one of a number of influences at work. The public concern for the social problems already mentioned in connection with developments in the psychological-educational and medical-psychiatric fields, was a major factor in the emergence of a service designed to provide guidance, advice and help for young people in finding suitable employment. Furthermore, the pattern of development was similar in all three cases. First, the existence of a social problem or network of problems was recognised. Second, action to help was initiated and carried out, often within the framework of a voluntary organisation set up specifically for the purpose. Finally, the need having been established, the state intervened and undertook wholly or partly the administration and financing of the service.

The social problems associated with employment and unemployment, and the abuses from which many of these problems resulted, were particularly acute in the latter half of the nineteenth century. By the beginning of the twentieth, concern was being expressed by many people and organisations. As Daws put it, "National consciences were responding with growing vigour to the occupational inhumanities of an industrial revolution whose speed had evaded the customary vigilance of social control processes."⁵⁶

Heginbotham⁵⁷ has suggested that two priorities gradually became apparent, one related to manpower considerations, the other to education and guidance. To combat industrial inefficiency and other problems arising out of large-scale unemployment, it was suggested that a system of labour exchanges should be established throughout the country. Those who pressed this viewpoint were concerned primarily with the difficulties of adult workers. This is not to say that they did not recognise that young people presented special problems out, even in this regard, the difficulties were seen mainly in terms of placing them in employment.

Another group, mainly teachers and those involved in social welfare work with young people, came to recognise "the need for an organisation capable, by reason of expert knowledge, of offering advice to boys and girls on the choice of employment."⁵⁸ The intention was that guidance should be the primary function of this service. As far as help for young people was concerned, the two proposals seemed to be complementary, one providing guidance, the other placement. Yet the differences in emphasis, reflecting the interests of those involved, contained the elements of a conflict, which to a limited extent still faces the vocational guidance movement.

Before the end of the nineteenth century, a number of ineffective efforts, both voluntary and statutory, had been made to ameliorate the difficulties associated with unemployment. For example, a number of town councils and local bodies had set up labour exchanges⁵⁹, but in national terms, at least, their direct influence was marginal. The first meaningful action was the recommendation by the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws (1909) which advocated that a national system of labour exchanges

be established. These would provide "machinery for the interchange of information about vacancies and unemployed workers, thus introducing a measure of organisation into the labour market.....(and a means of collecting) statistics on a trustworthy and scientific basis about the numbers and types of workers unemployed."⁶⁰

One other feature was the provision of a guidance service for children leaving school. There was a general concern, shared by members of the Commission, about the problem of schoolboys entering dead-end jobs from which they would be sacked at eighteen or nineteen years of age. It was felt that, in order to tackle this difficulty effectively, "there should be established a special organisation for giving boys, parents, teachers and school managers information and guidance as to suitable occupations for children leaving school."⁶¹

The 1909 Labour Exchanges Act incorporated many of the suggestions of the Royal Commission. A system of labour exchanges was established under the control of the Board of Trade, and some of them included a department concerned with the employment of young people. Special advisory committees with representatives from both educational and employment interests were appointed to help with this aspect of the work. Despite this, most educationists did not find the procedures satisfactory. They argued that the main purpose of the labour exchanges was to deal with the problems of adult employment and their social consequences. On the other hand, youth employment was an area of concern in which educational considerations were paramount, and labour exchanges did not provide a suitable setting for the quite different problems involved.⁶²

The Board of Education reflected this concern, and in 1910 intro-

duced the Education (Choice of Employment) Bill which became law later that year. The main effect was to give local education authorities power to draw up schemes to give advice and guidance to young people up to the age of seventeen years on the choice of employment. The 1910 Act brought out clearly that both educational and occupational interests were involved and that close co-operation and consultation between the two at all levels was required. The Boards of Education and Trade issued a joint memorandum in which such a strategy was urged. Only a minority of education authorities exercised their powers under the Act. Those that did so were advised, because of the wide range of new duties which they had incurred, to appoint an education officer, one of whose main tasks would be liaison with the labour exchanges.

It was evident that the possibility of overlap and conflict existed between the educational and employment interests, and the scheme proposed attempted to effect a reconciliation. However, the dualism inherent in the structure proved difficult to work out in practice and, more important, as the Ince Report later noted "the will to co-operate was not always present."⁶³ In a circular letter the Association of Education Committees referred to "the interference of the Ministry of Labour in the administration of the Act."⁶⁴ Other factors complicated the position. The major social upheaval of the 1914-18 War had profound effects on employment and on social problems generally. The 1918 Education Act raised the school leaving age unambiguously to fourteen and this had consequences for earlier legislation. The Unemployment Insurance Act of 1920 also caused some complications.

Because of the difficulties which were impeding the efficient

administration of the service, between 1920 and 1926 two committees were set up to examine the situation. The first under Lord Chelmsford⁶⁵ recommended only one major change, namely that the local education authorities should undertake the administration of unemployment insurance. When this failed to provide a workable solution, another committee, under Mr. D.O. Malcolm⁶⁶ recommended the abolition of dual central control by bringing the whole service under the Ministry of Labour, but permitting the local education authorities to continue to administer the service locally. This radical change was confirmed by a survey in 1933-34⁶⁷ which found that the procedure seemed to be working well and suggested that no change should be made.

Two features of the juvenile employment service as it developed during the first half of the twentieth century are worth noting. First, it originated in action by the state in response to the problems arising from rapid industrial and technological growth, such as chronic unemployment, the abuse of child labour and the need to bring some organisation into the labour market. Second, it was based outside the school and was considered by those who initiated it to have purposes which were mainly concerned with industry and the economy. Despite the efforts of many people, notably educationists, this led to an overemphasis on the administrative and industrial aspects and a consequent neglect of the educational and individual.

However, a second system of vocational guidance, with its base securely in the schools, developed alongside and relatively independently of the juvenile employment service. It was confined, initially at least, to public and grammar schools and was a response to the increase in the

number and type of jobs in the commercial, technical and managerial fields resulting from the rapid industrial, economic and technological growth. Therefore, a wider range of occupational opportunities was afforded to the pupils, whose traditional aspirations, and those of their parents for them, lay mainly in the professions, government service and the church. As a consequence, it was found necessary to have someone in the school who would have the knowledge and the expertise required to help pupils and parents to make decisions about the occupation they wished to choose. Thus the position of careers master (mistress) was created.

Part of the traditional role of the headmaster in the public and the grammar school was usually concerned with the giving of advice and guidance to pupils and parents on a wide range of questions, including those involving choice of employment and further education. Therefore, as King has pointed out, "the genesis of the office of careers master lay in the traditional role of the headmaster and, in the boarding school, the house master as head of a community to whom was committed the total welfare of each of its members."⁶⁸ Help in choosing and planning a career was but one strand in a system which endeavoured to provide for all the guidance needs of the pupils.

The practice of placing responsibility for careers guidance on one or more staff members in each secondary school quickly spread. The schools, however, soon found out that specialist help from outside the school was required if they were to carry out their task effectively and so, in conjunction with the Ministry of Labour, bureaux were set up in London and a number of other large industrial cities to help pupils, who

had stayed on at school beyond the statutory school leaving age, to find employment or arrange for appropriate further education. Despite the increased number of schools which appointed careers masters, and the general concern about the need to provide careers guidance for all the pupils, there is, as King has shown, some evidence to suggest that the facilities that were available were either inadequate or unused. In an investigation carried out in four London boroughs, under 10% of the boys leaving grammar schools over a five year period had received advice from either the local bureau or the school. It was estimated "that some 30% of the educational elite of the younger generation were judged to be misfits in their jobs on a very generous interpretation of suitability."⁶⁹

It is interesting to note that the two systems emerged as responses to the same set of social conditions which had a differential impact on two groups of pupils, those who left school at the statutory school leaving age and those who stayed at school beyond it. The latter were able, at least after the years of the depression, to take advantage of the increased range of job opportunities available to them as the need for skilled manpower developed. For this group, the purpose was to assist them to select an occupation suited to their abilities and talents. As for the former, it was not so much a case of taking advantage of the positive effects of economic growth as of mitigating the harmful ones. For those concerned with these young people, the early attempts at vocational guidance were motivated more by sentiments of social welfare and reform than by strictly educational considerations. Features of both systems were incorporated into the Youth Employment Service when it was set up after the Second World War.

In the case of youth employment as with other social services, the immediate post-war period was one of searching re-examination to ascertain if the systems, structures and methods were appropriate to meet the contemporary challenges. The Report of the Committee on the Juvenile Employment Service under the chairmanship of Sir Godfrey Ince was published in 1945 and provided the blueprint for the Employment and Training Act (1948) under which the Youth Employment Service was established.

After surveying the history of juvenile employment and exploring the defects of the system then in operation, the committee set out the functions of an employment service for young people. "A Juvenile Employment Service must play its part in helping the boy and girl in their passage from school to the world of adult independence..... The main hopes and ambitions.....that youth has are related to the job and we conceive the chief function of a Juvenile Employment Service is to enable every boy and girl to play the best part possible as a worker and so to help them to develop their potentialities through work to the utmost. If it is successful it will make a contribution of incalculable importance in the life of every worker, and the results will overflow into the whole personality of the worker as a citizen."⁷⁰ The brief was noble in conception and comprehensive in scope but, although much good work was done, the expectations, perhaps inevitably, were hardly fulfilled in practice.

The main recommendations of the committee were incorporated in the Employment and Training Act (1948). There was to be for all school-leavers from all types of school one employment service under the Ministry of Labour. A Central Youth Employment Executive composed of representatives from the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education

Department is responsible for the central organisation. Under Section 10 of the Act, local education authorities were given the powers to operate the service and those which elected to do so covered about 80% of the young people of the country. 52 local education authorities decided not to do so. A committee under the chairmanship of Lord Piercy was set up to consider the recruitment and training of youth employment officers (YEO's) Its report published in 1951 recommended a minimum of one year's training for all new entrants, a proposal shelved in the interests of economy.⁷¹

In 1963 the National Youth Employment Council set up a working party, under the chairmanship of Lady Albermarle, "to define the main issues facing the Youth Employment Service in the light of recent developments in education and the changing needs of industry."⁷² The report of the working party, published in 1965, made a number of recommendations designed to remedy some of the deficiencies in the working of the service, e.g. contact between school and YEO, the lack of training of YEO's. The aim of the report seems to have been to try to improve the procedures and practices of the existing system rather than effect any radical change in organisation. Hughes describes it as "this hesitant document" and criticises the failure "to make the point that until schools become educated about the critical importance of vocational guidance within the school it is most improbable that YEO's will be able to provide anything but a superficial version of the vocational guidance service for young people for which the service was instituted."⁷³

Perhaps the Albemarle Report appeared two or three years too early, for the awareness among teachers about which Hughes is concerned became more apparent in the late 1960's as the schools, under the influence of the developing counselling movement, began to become more ambitious about the

scope of the guidance services they provide. As Daws has pointed out, the expansion of the work of the schools in vocational guidance and the development of all age occupational guidance services in the Department of Employment are making inroads into the "traditional empire.....of the Youth Employment Service at both ends of the spectrum."⁷⁴ These changes are demanding a reappraisal, not only of the youth employment officer's role but of the assumptions on which the Youth Employment Service was established.

Contemporaneous with these developments in Britain, vocational guidance in the U.S.A. was expanding steadily. Because of social, cultural and educational differences, a somewhat different pattern emerged. The dual system in Britain derived from the needs of two different groups of pupils in two different types of school. In the U.S.A. on the other hand, the differential effects on the schools were somewhat blurred by the existence of the common high (secondary) school, which gradually became the focus for the provision of vocational guidance.

The vocational guidance movement in the U.S.A. was initially a social reform movement, which started in the northern cities in the late nineteenth century to help alleviate the problems of rapid industrialisation and urbanisation. The difficulties were compounded by the need to assimilate large numbers of immigrants from various countries. Miller has described the situation graphically, "The world in which vocational guidance had its beginnings.....was one of strident industrial growth and often ruthless conflict; of 'robber barons', of sweatshops, child labour, and struggles by labour for recognition and rights."⁷⁵ Vocational guidance was part of the efforts at social reform which this situation evoked. For

example, Jesse B. Davis, one of the early vocational counsellors, was, as Borow has pointed out, "a product not of an emerging applied psychology or of vocational education but of the social reform movement which dominated his era. Almost without exception, the earliest pioneers of vocational guidance were social workers."⁷⁶ It is notable in this connection that many of them referred approvingly to contemporary British social welfare legislation.⁷⁷

Much of the early work of vocational guidance was financed by philanthropic institutions or business organisations, but it soon became apparent that it was an educational process and most appropriately a function of the schools. After the establishment by Parsons of his Vocational Bureau in Boston in 1908 and the publication of his book a year later⁷⁸, there was a rapid growth in the number of schools which established vocational guidance departments and the number of universities which offered training courses in vocational guidance and facilities for research. By 1913, when the National Vocational Guidance Association was formed, educators had begun to play a dominant role in the vocational guidance movement, so much so that Miller categorises the period 1916-1930 as "the schools take over."⁷⁹

In his presidential address to the National Vocational Guidance Association conference in 1915, Davis summed up the change thus: "The first object was to serve the great armies of child labourers who were leaving the public schools to become wage earners under unfavourable conditions. The effort was to guide them into the better occupations and to divert them into further training so that they might escape the fate of the misfit and the unskilled worker. Gradually experience is proving that this problem is not one of charity, industry or business, but that it is one of education and, therefore, belongs wholly within the jurisdiction

of the Board of Education."⁸⁰ Indeed, when Davis became a school principal, he introduced the study of self and occupation into the English classes "because they reached every pupil in the school and because composition work in English classes lent itself to his technique of occupational study. In order to help students think about careers he had them write themes on such topics as 'The kind of man (or woman) I should like to be', 'What I will do when I grow up', 'A call to service', and 'To what extent am I indebted to the social interest of others'."⁸¹ Therefore, from an early date, the secondary schools in the U.S.A. have been the centre of the provision of vocational guidance for young people.⁸² This meant that guidance developed in an educational context with a set of goals and assumptions derived from education.

The guidance programme of the American high school in the period between the wars has been outlined by Keller and Viteles.⁸³ Briefly it comprised -

- (1) the maintenance and use of cumulative records;
 - (2) the administration and interpretation of tests (intelligence, achievement, vocational interest etc.);
 - (3) individual interviews and conferences;
 - (4) the provision of varied vocational experiences;
 - (5) occupational information;
 - (6) placement;
- and (7) follow-up, in order both to help students progress in their jobs and to evaluate the efficiency of the programme.

As has already been noted, social movements grow out of a number of sources and vocational guidance conforms to this pattern. One can readily distinguish the major influences which contributed to its establishment and early development. In contradistinction to the situation in the U.S.A., where schools occupied the central role, in Europe the most significant influences were applied psychology, the selection and training of apprentices and guidance in relation to problems of unemployment.

Vocational guidance services (1890-1945)

Type	Educational-vocational	Manpower	Applied psychology
National setting.	Mainly American.	European, British.	European, British.
Setting.	Mainly schools - later support services located outside schools.	Unemployment exchanges.	Applied psychology laboratories.
Target population.	All pupils.	Apprentices, unemployed.	Apprentices (training) All pupils (research).
Objectives.	Initially social reform, later more broadly educational including guidance and placement.	Manpower e.g.adequate support of trained labour; training of apprentices.	Research, training, selection.
Main techniques.	Interviews, tests, giving of occupational information, advice-giving.	Administration, interviews.	Psychological tests, interviews, job analysis, advice-giving.

DIAGRAM 2.

In Switzerland, early guidance efforts centred "for the most parton the apprentice, indentured and unindentured."⁸⁴ In 1915, the Association of Employers of Apprentices, an organisation founded some years earlier, changed its name to the Swiss Association for Vocational Guidance and Apprentice Welfare, thus illustrating its increased range of functions. In Spain also, help for apprentices was one of the early concerns of those interested in vocational guidance. The Secretariat of Apprentices was founded in 1915 in connection with the Industrial University of Barcelona. It was converted three years later into an Institute of Vocational Guidance, which emphasised the importance of medical data and aptitude testing in formulating advice for young people about jobs. The Barcelona Institute and another established five years later in Madrid were the forerunners of the two most prestigious institutes of applied psychology and psychotechnology in the country.⁸⁵

The early history of vocational guidance in Italy was closely associated with applied psychology. Notable among the psychologists working in the field were Gemelli, who was concerned with the selection of military pilots during the first World War, and de Sanctis, who in 1919 published his book, the Psychology of Vocations.⁸⁶ Reference has already been made to the work of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology in Britain.

Although schools in Europe were not central to the early efforts in vocational guidance, it soon became apparent that future developments depended on a close relationship between guidance and education. As Keller and Viteles have pointed out with regard to Italy, "the origins of vocational guidance are to be found largely in the laboratory of applied

psychology (but) the development of the guidance movement has come through the association of guidance with the programme of vocational education."⁸⁷ In Britain too, there has been historically a close association between vocational guidance and technical education, and in Belgium the importance of the school in the guidance process was recognised from the start. In Switzerland, L'Institut J.J. Rousseau "a school for the study of the science of education, created soon after its founding in 1912 a section on vocational guidance, the work of which has become authoritative."⁸⁸

However, despite the ties between education and vocational guidance in schools in Europe, the schools at no time achieved the position of primacy which they reached in the U.S.A. For example, for the majority of children in Britain, the most important source of help in getting a job was the bureau-based service of the Ministry of Labour, where selection and manpower needs tended to dominate. One of the consequences of the difference between Europe and the U.S.A. was that in the former, between the two world wars, the concept of guidance remained restricted to the vocational aspects, even to vocational selection, while in the U.S.A. under the influence of educators, the same period was characterised by the articulation of a broader and more liberal concept, in which the focus of concern was the individual in development.

Indeed some enthusiasts advanced a concept of guidance which equated it with education. As one put it, it was possible to make "no valid distinction.....between education and guidance in purpose, method, or results."⁸⁹ Although this extreme position was not widely held, most educators felt the need for a concept of guidance less limited than vocational guidance.

One of the major factors in the extension of the concept of guidance was the growth in importance of mental testing. During this period "organised testing programmes.....began to mushroom in public school systems all over the country."⁹⁰ In the light of modern developments in social education programmes, it is interesting that Shertzer and Stone consider that the major influence was a pamphlet called "Cardinal Principles of Education" issued by the Bureau of Education in 1918. It declared that "the goal of education was effective living in seven areas of human activity: health, fundamental mental processes, home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure time, and ethical character."⁹¹ In attempting to give effect to these principles, guidance workers found themselves undertaking a widening range of activities including the administration of tests and educational guidance, like advice on choice of courses and how to study.

The importance of the close link between education and guidance in the U.S.A. in the first half of the twentieth century in explaining the differences in British and American guidance practice at the time cannot be overestimated. For as Cremin has shown, in the U.S.A. there was "a close and inextricable tie between the guidance movement and the broader progressive movement of which it was part."⁹² Indeed, the three main aspects of guidance mentioned here, vocational guidance, educational guidance and the use of mental tests, are reflections of "the principle facets of progressive education", namely social reformism, the attempt to "individualise" education and the effort to develop a science of education.⁹³

The publication of Carl Roger's book "Counselling and Psychotherapy" was the stimulus for the next phase of development in guidance. Rogers

has often been referred to as the "father" of the counselling movement and, while such a title perhaps underestimates the contributions made by many other eminent people, it is almost impossible to overstate his importance. His work stimulated a re-examination of the assumptions, purposes and methods of guidance by his emphasis on the motivational-emotional determinants of behaviour, and the relationship between counsellor and client as the primary agent of change. One of his major contributions was his research into the process and skills of counselling.

But his influence extends further than this. His work was the catalyst that initially in the U.S.A. and later in Britain and other countries brought together the mental health and vocational aspects of guidance and provided them with a basis of psychological research on which to develop. In the vocational guidance field Super's work is evidence of this widening of horizons. "More than any other single writer-researcher, Super has been instrumental in freeing vocational guidance from the static, single-choice-at-a-point-in-time concept, in drawing attention to the potential contributions of sociology and economics to the field, and in placing the study of vocational behaviour in the context of human development."⁹⁴

It is noteworthy too, that Rogers was one of a number of eminent American psychologists who added a new dimension to American psychology, a phenomenon referred to by Bugenthal⁹⁵ as "the third force". Since the beginning of the twentieth century, American psychology had been dominated by behaviourism and Freudianism. While owing much to both, Rogers and others, notably Maslow, Allport, Lewin and Goldstein attempted to formulate a humanistic alternative to the mechanistic philosophy of the behaviour-

ists and the deterministic philosophy of the psychoanalysts. In short, their purpose was to put the "psyche" back into psychology. In doing so, they revitalised American psychology with a tradition which Europe had never lost. The contemporary influence of existential psychology in the U.S.A. is evidence that their work was well done.

As a result of these developments, the 50's and 60's became known in the U.S.A. as the golden era of guidance and counselling. Counselling became the central concern and activity of guidance workers. The number of counsellors in schools increased, new training programmes were established and research activity developed. The National Defence Act passed in 1958, provided funds for the development of guidance programmes in schools and for the necessary training programmes. Two influential reports on secondary education, the Conant Report (1959) and the Trump Report (1961) identified the improvement of the guidance services as crucial to the development of schools necessary to meet the challenges of contemporary society.⁹⁶ It was at this time in the development of counselling in the U.S.A. that educators in Britain began to consider the advisability of introducing counselling into British secondary schools.

SUMMARY.

In this chapter, the historical development of the guidance services for young people in Great Britain, U.S.A. and parts of Western Europe has been adumbrated. Three major strands of development were identified and discussed, the psychological-educational, the medical-psychiatric and the vocational-occupational. In Britain, the pattern of growth in each case is similar. A need becomes apparent as a social problem or series of problems is recognised. A response to the need is made by committed individuals who often establish a voluntary organisation within which to work. Finally once the need is established, central and/or local government intervene and undertake wholly or partly the administration and financing of the service.

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CHAPTER 3

The Development of the guidance services in Northern Ireland.

From the establishment of the Northern Ireland Parliament in 1920 to the beginning of the Second World War, developments in the province in the field of child guidance were few and sporadic. A new system of education based on local authorities was set up under the 1923 Education Act and the amending Acts of 1925 and 1930. Guidance did not become an important focus of concern until the major developments in this field took place in Britain immediately after the 1944 Education Act.

In describing and analysing the trends in pupil guidance in Northern Ireland, it is proposed to use Daws's two-fold classification rather than the three divisions used with regard to Britain. Daws suggests that historically one can contrast a mental health with a vocational guidance orientation. Therefore, one can divide the guidance services into two types, the mental health services, that is the school psychological and child guidance clinic services, and the vocational guidance service.

In the case of Northern Ireland, it is appropriate for three reasons to use Daws's classification and take the psychological-education and medical-psychiatric services together. Firstly, there is only one full-time child guidance clinic of the traditional type and this is run by the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority. Secondly, in the formative years for child guidance in Britain after Burt's appointment to the London County Council, the establishment of the Commonwealth Fund clinic in Islington and the early attempts at vocational guidance, no similar developments took place in Northern Ireland. The establishment of the first child guidance

clinic in Northern Ireland in 1943 and the starting of the first school psychological service in the province in Belfast five years later occurred at a time when experts in Britain were beginning to seek a more integrated approach. It was 1955 before the Underwood Report outlined the administrative changes necessary to bring the two closer together, and even today all the difficulties have not yet been resolved. Nevertheless, it is true to say that developments in both areas have tended to become more interrelated. Thirdly, in the late 1940's, the first tentative steps were taken to establish a service to advise young people on the choice of employment, although the Youth Employment Service did not start until 1962.

Mental Health Services.

The main mental health developments in the educational field in the 1920's and 1930's were concerned with provision for handicapped children. The 1923 Education Act (Northern Ireland) followed fairly closely the provisions of the 1921 Education Act in England, Wales, which in turn consolidated earlier legislation.¹ However, the 1923 Act introduced a new concept, that of affliction. Part IX referred to afflicted children, that is blind, deaf and dumb children, crippled children, epileptic children and mentally defective children. The category of mentally defective was divided into three subgroups, idiots, imbeciles and feeble-minded children, and these were defined in substantially the same terms as in the Acts relating to England and Wales. Thus, feeble-minded children were described as those "in whose case there exists from birth or from an early age mental deficiency not amounting to imbecility, but pronounced to such a degree that they require care, supervision and control for their own protection or for the protection of others, or that they, by reason of

such deficiency appear to be permanently incapable of receiving proper benefit from the instruction afforded in ordinary schools, but not incapable by reason of such deficiency of receiving benefit from instruction in such special classes as may be provided under this Act for such children."²

Under Section 55 of the 1923 Act, local education authorities were required to "make arrangements for ascertaining what children in their education area are afflicted children within the meaning of this Act."³ They were further required under Section 56 to provide suitable instruction for these children, either in special schools or in special classes certified by the Ministry as suitable for this purpose. As the reports of the Ministry of Education for the time show, developments took place slowly and soon teachers and others began to express concern about children who were described as "dull and backward". Some schools tried to initiate special classes, but as the 1929 Ministry of Education Annual Report pointed out, "It is only in the large schools which are now being built that special classes can be formed for backward children and special treatment employed."⁴ In the smaller schools in rural areas and small towns, it was found more difficult to make arrangements to provide appropriate educational experience. In the large schools it became the practice to assign a "highly efficient"⁵ member of staff to teach the special class and, according to the 1930 Annual Report of the Ministry of Education, "the progress has been described as remarkable."⁶ The report added that "the whole question of the treatment...of children of a lower group of mentality is, at the moment, under the consideration of the government."⁷

The Ministry of Education were concerned at the tardiness of the local authorities in making provision for defective children. In 1930 an amending Act was passed. The chief purpose of this act related to various provisions regarding church schools transferring to the control of local authorities. In Section 22, however, the government took the opportunity of acquiring powers "to establish, maintain and manage a school or schools for educating, boarding and lodging feeble-minded children for whom suitable provision is not otherwise made, and to appoint officers and do all such things as may be necessary for the said purpose."⁸

In the following year, a committee, which included educational and medical interests, was formed under the chairmanship of Mr. J.H. Robb, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Education, to look at the possibility of establishing a special school in the Ormeau Road district of Belfast, where a building at Haypark was available. It was March 1936 before all the difficulties were resolved, the buildings adapted and the school opened as a central special school serving the whole province. It was financed by direct grant from the Ministry of Education and administered by a management committee. Although able to take 80 boarders and 40 day pupils, there were 20 boarders and 64 day pupils in the first year of operation, 1936-37.⁹

As was the case in Britain, children had to be certified by a school medical officer in order to qualify for attendance. "The selection of children suitable for admission to the school is entrusted to school medical officers. The children selected are those who, whilst not sufficiently intelligent to profit to any great extent from attendance at ordinary public elementary schools, are still quite intelligent enough to

derive great benefit from the course of instruction they will receive at Haypark Special School."¹⁰ It is notable that, although the selection was carried out by medical doctors, the criterion used was an educational one, namely the inability to profit from attendance at public elementary schools.

Two issues, which were raised by the establishment of Haypark School and the method of selection of applicants, had been the subject of much controversy in Britain since the beginning of this century. The first was the segregation of the feeble-minded in special central boarding schools and the second was certification as the preferred method of selection. With regard to the former, the Royal Commission on the Care and Control of the Feeble-minded (1904-08) asserted that institutional care and education were superior to day schools or classes, which should be relegated to the status of diagnostic centres for observing and classifying children thought to be in need of certification.

The problems associated with certification took longer to manifest themselves but opinion had been building up against it over a long period. Doctors were justifiably reluctant to certify children except in extreme cases because of the associated stigma. Therefore, "children had been deprived of special education which they badly needed, because it was thought that deprivation was a lesser hardship than certification."¹¹ It was the Wood Committee's recommendation which resolved these two related issues and provided the basis for the provisions for handicapped children in the 1944 Act.

The Wood Committee was an informal committee convened by George Newman, Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education. The

members were asked to concentrate on two questions, ascertaining the number of feeble-minded children and examining the system for educating them, and to make recommendations for changes thought necessary. The conclusion reached was that certification would have to be discontinued, not only because of the stigma involved but because this step was a necessary prerequisite to the reforms in the system of provision which the committee thought desirable. Research had shown that in England and Wales 105,000 children were mentally defective within the meaning of the acts, and of these 30,000 had been certified and about half that number were in special schools.¹² Additionally, there was a much larger group of children who were failing at school for a variety of reasons, but who were not mentally defective and for whom no statutory provision existed. The committee considered that for statutory purposes the two groups should be amalgamated into one group which, under the regulations associated with the 1944 Act, became known as the educationally subnormal (ESN).

An inevitable consequence of this decision was the ending of certification. The Wood Committee duly recommended "the abolition of the requirement that the local education authority should certify a particular type of child as mentally defective as a necessary preliminary to providing him with the type of education he requires."¹³ Similarly any stigma associated with special schooling would have to be removed as far as possible and the Committee suggested this could best be achieved by bringing the public elementary and special schools closer together. "If the majority of children for whom these schools for retarded children are intended are, ex hypothesi, to lead the lives of ordinary citizens, with no shadow of a 'certificate' and all that it implies to handicap their

careers, the schools must be brought into closer relations with the Public Elementary School system and presented to parents not as something both distinct and humiliating but as a helpful variation of the ordinary school."¹⁴

Therefore, unlike Haypark School, the special schools advocated by the Wood Committee were to be within the ordinary school system; the special school would be an ordinary school giving a special type of education for a much larger group than the feeble-minded. Legislative approval was given to these proposals in the United Kingdom by the Education Acts (1944-47).

Up to the outbreak of war, the main developments relevant to the future child guidance services in Northern Ireland were the provision of special classes for backward children in large public elementary schools and the establishment of a special school for children unable to profit from attendance at ordinary schools. In addition, the school medical service had been built up to cover the whole province, although the quality of the service provided was variable, chiefly due to the shortage of staff. Even in Belfast, the chief school medical officer wrote in 1932, "It is physically impossible for the number of children due to be seen in any one year to be inspected in the calendar period, and a balance of work is being carried forward year by year, gradually accumulating as time goes on. The time factor tends to be the controlling influence rather than the need of any particular pupil for examination."¹⁵

Developments in child guidance - post 1939.

The first time that the phrase child guidance is used in official reports in Northern Ireland is in the report of a committee set up in 1935

by the Minister of Home Affairs on the Protection and Welfare of the Young and the Treatment of Young Offenders.¹⁶ The committee, under the chairmanship of Sir Robert Lynn, M.P., published its report in 1938. Much of it deals with an analysis of juvenile delinquency and the factors associated with it, and with ways of coping with the attendant problems. For example, the report made recommendations concerning improved probation services, better housing conditions, approved schools and an expansion of recreational facilities.

As part of the provision thought necessary the committee recommended that a central child guidance clinic should be established. The members had in mind as a model the Commonwealth Fund Islington Clinic which, like the Institute of Medical Psychology, had received a deputation of members of the committee. The purpose of the proposed clinic "would not be the treatment of mentally defective children but the provision of help for children of average intelligence suffering from all kinds of behaviour and personal difficulties."¹⁷ Although it was in response to a growth in juvenile delinquency that the recommendation for the clinic was made, the committee took the view that its effectiveness would be diminished by a direct association with the courts. "We feel..... that, if the clinic is to serve the general public, it would be unwise to associate it directly with a place to which juveniles would be remanded by the courts. The services of the clinic should, however, be available to the juvenile and adult courts."¹⁸ It was suggested that the most suitable base for such a clinic should be Queen's University, Belfast, and a recommendation was made that a grant should be given to Queen's towards the cost of establishing such a clinic.¹⁹

It was unfortunate that the exigencies of the war did not allow this imaginative proposal to be implemented at the time. As well as providing treatment, it would have enabled comprehensive research programmes to be put into operation, and given proper direction, it could have provided for fruitful co-operation between the departments and disciplines of child guidance. However, a child guidance clinic under voluntary management was set up in 1943, the original finance being a sum of £2,000 which was allocated for this purpose by the Queen from the "Bundles for Britain" Fund.²⁰ This fund was subscribed in the U.S.A. and was to be used in the interests of children who suffered because of the war. It was used in many cases to provide services, including psychological services, for evacuees.

In 1946-47, the clinic received a grant of £1,000 from the Ministry of Health and Local Government to enable its work to be continued until a decision about the future management was taken. On 5th July, 1948, it was transferred to the Hospitals Authority, which assumed overall responsibility for the development of a child guidance service for the Province. The clinic was associated with the Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children and was able to call on the facilities of the hospital and services of its staff. It was housed in a separate building at the edge of the hospital complex for, as the Hospitals Authority Report of 1950 pointed out, it was "considered that the apprehension of children attending the clinic might thereby be diminished."²¹

The main part of the work of the clinic was concerned with children who suffered from speech defects or various emotional or behaviour disorders with the former being responsible for between 30% and 40% of the new cases seen annually. (Table 3.1).

TABLE 3.1

Child guidance clinic, Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children -
number of new patients, referred and seen (1952 - 1955).

Patients	YEAR			
	1952	1953	1954	1955
New patients referred	494	562	601	605
New patients seen (i) psychiatric	330	361	360	353
(ii) speech defects	199	130	206	202
Total number of new patients seen	529	491	566	555

Referrals came from a variety of sources including general practitioners, education authorities, hospitals, probation officers, clergy, teachers, parents and social and welfare agencies. (Table 3.2).

TABLE 3.2

Child guidance clinic, Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children -
sources of referral - new patients (1952 - 1955).

Source	YEAR			
	1952	1953	1954	1955
General practitioners	136	73	108	72
Education authorities	97	95	63	100
Probation officers	37	31	33	19
Hospitals	197	254	298	348
Parents/teachers/clergy/social agencies	62	38	64	16
Total	529	491	566	555

The number of new patients seen each year showed only a marginal increase through the early fifties, referrals from hospitals being the only category for which there was a marked increase. The number referred from general practitioners halved, that from parents, teachers, clergy and social agencies dropped by 75% in four years. The slow development seems to have been due mainly to lack of staff since the numbers on the waiting list increased in the same period by about 20%. (Table 3.3).

TABLE 3.3

Child guidance clinic, Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children - numbers on the waiting list.

Types of disorder	YEAR			
	1952	1953	1954	1955
Psychiatric	460	489	501	594
Speech defects	94	98	26	68
Total	554	587	527	662

In 1950, the Hospitals Authority appointed a child guidance sub-committee, with the following terms of reference:

- "(a) The action to be taken to foster the development of child guidance work in Northern Ireland; in this matter the committee are required to consult local bodies who may be interested in the promotion of the service.
- (b) The obtaining of suitable premises for child guidance clinics.

- (c) The formation of a small team of experienced officers in child guidance work who would visit centres in Northern Ireland and undertake duties at clinics.
- (d) The steps to be taken to make a survey throughout Northern Ireland in an endeavour to discover the nature and extent of the problems to be considered.
- (e) Arrangements for the selection of suitable medical and other officers for training in child guidance.
- (f) The financial implications of the recommendations made and the order in which the necessary steps should be taken to improve and extend the service."²³

The remit was a comprehensive one, but, in fact, the subcommittee achieved very little. Due to its efforts, agreement was reached in 1952 with the North Armagh Hospital Management Committee to open a clinic at the Lurgan and Portadown Hospital.²⁴ This initiative was initially postponed and finally abandoned because of discussions then going on between the Hospitals Authority and the local health authorities about the division of responsibility between them.

In 1955, the child guidance subcommittee was disbanded. The Hospitals Authority made a policy decision not to establish any more clinics although the existing clinic at the Royal Belfast Hospital would continue. The responsibility for providing additional clinics should belong to the local health authorities, who should provide accommodation and auxiliary staff, with the Hospitals Authority providing the child psychiatrists and the other consultant help required. In the next ten years no new clinics were opened and, in what can only be described as understatement, the chief

medical officer of the Ministry of Health and Local Government wrote in 1962, "Extension of the child psychiatric services in Northern Ireland has been disappointingly slow."²⁵

Until the mid-fifties, the expansion of the school psychological service had also been slow. Only one of the eight local education authorities had established a service, namely Belfast, where two educational psychologists were employed. However, by 1964, another six had initiated a service and the last, Tyrone, did so in 1967. One of the stimuli to the quick expansion after 1955 was the publication in that year of a report on Special Educational Treatment by the Northern Ireland Advisory Council for Education under the chairmanship of Dr. Eric (now Lord) Ashby, then vice-chancellor of Queen's University.²⁶ The report was one of the most important official statements on special education and the school psychological, child guidance and school health services in Northern Ireland.

Great concern had been expressed in many quarters about the deficiency in provision for handicapped pupils, particularly those in the category of educationally subnormal. In successive years, the Ministry of Education Reports had adverted to the dearth of available places. In 1950-51, the annual report of the Ministry noted that "The awakening interest in the needs and problems of handicapped pupils did not result in 1950-51 in any considerable increase in the provision for their appropriate special educational treatment..... It is a matter of concern that the necessary accommodation and staffing for the formation of small classes of educationally subnormal children are available in so few schools."²⁷ The remarks in the following year were no less plaintive, "The year under review has seen very little expansion of the facilities available in Northern Ireland for the

special educational treatment of handicapped pupils."²⁸

The Ashby Report laid the blame for the lack of urgency on the separation of the responsibilities for handicapped children between the health and education authorities. In matters concerning handicapped children the 1947 Education Act (Northern Ireland) had followed closely the provisions of the 1944 Act in England and Wales. Section 30 of the 1947 Act made it "the duty of every local education authority to ascertain what children in their area require special educational treatment." Similarly Section 42 required every local education authority "to provide for the medical inspection at appropriate intervals of pupils in full-time attendance at any grant-aided school in their area." But on the day that the Act came into operation, the responsibility for the school health service, including the ascertainment of handicapped children in need of special educational provision, was transferred from the local education authorities to the health authorities. The legal basis was the Transfer of Functions (No. 2) Order made in 1948 by the Ministry of Health and Local Government under the Public Health and Local Government Act (1946). Therefore, one had the extraordinary situation of a departmental order made in 1948 under an Act of 1946 changing the provisions of an Act passed by Parliament in 1947, which clearly intended that the local education authorities should operate the school health service.

There is no doubt, as the Ashby Report clearly shows, that the consequences for the development of the child guidance services and the expansion of special provision for the educationally subnormal and the maladjusted were unfortunate. There was a lack of integration between the education and health authorities which meant that neither knew what the other was planning

or doing. Thus there were both gaps and duplications. As the Report noted, "Education committees cannot plan to provide educational treatment when they do not know how many children need it and especially where physical handicaps are involved, in precisely what manner it is required; and medical officers consider it a disservice to handicapped children to ascertain them as in need of special educational treatment when they consider that the means of providing treatment are lacking."³⁰ On examining the records of the health and education authorities, the Advisory Council found that there were "notable discrepancies." For example, in Northern Ireland as a whole, 2,410 pupils had been ascertained by the health committees as ESN but only 1,404 of these had been notified to the education committees. The corresponding figures for the maladjusted were 223 and 14. It should be noted that the probable incidences (at that time) of educational subnormality and maladjustment in Northern Ireland calculated on the basis of returns from England and Wales were 18,144 and 1,856 respectively, (Table 3.4).³¹

TABLE 3.4

Some discrepancies in the records of health and education authorities
(adapted from Ashby Report, appendices IV, V and VI.

Category	Total number of pupils ascertained by the Health Committees	Total number of pupils ascertained by the Health Committees and notified to the Education Committees	Probable incidence (based on returns from England and Wales)
ESN	2410	1404	18144
Maladjusted	223	14	1856

Other consequences are admirably summed up by the Ashby Report thus:

- "(a) the medical officer (of the school health service) has no authority and insufficient influence within the educational system;
- (b) he is unable to take the teacher and other officers within the educational service into his confidence as colleagues so that consultation in the interests of the handicapped child is a courtesy rather than an obligation on the medical officer's part, and the information about the child's mental and physical condition available to the education service (which has to provide the educational treatment for him) is arbitrary and incomplete;
- (c) the ascertainment of children with mental handicaps especially is not a decision made after prolonged observation and consultation by medical officer, psychologist, teacher and such other education officers as may be able to assist, but is likely to be a decision made after one or more formal examinations by a medical officer alone; and
- (d) the division of the special educational treatment service between the health authorities which are responsible for ascertainment and the local education authorities which are responsible for treatment has necessitated as general practices the continuance of the formalism and certification which the 1947 Education Act had sought to bring to an end."³²

Another unfortunate result of the division of responsibilities

between the health and education authorities was the reluctance of each local education authority to establish a school psychological service. Without duties in the operation of the ascertainment procedures, many education authorities felt that there would not be enough work for psychologists to do. Even in Belfast, where two educational psychologists were employed, the arrangements for ascertainment did not allow them to play as effective a role as they could have.³³

The Advisory Council also pointed out that the child guidance service, unlike that in Britain, was operated by the hospital authorities and this also could have unfortunate consequences. In 1948, the clinic at the Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children had been attached to the special care service of the Authority (that is the service concerned with 'in-educable' children) and any expansion along these lines "would perpetuate the association in Northern Ireland of child guidance with mental deficiency."³⁴ Furthermore, if the child guidance clinics and the school psychological service developed in isolation from each other, it was certain that wasteful duplication and inefficiency would occur. Therefore, a strong recommendation was made that the child guidance and speech therapy services should become educational services.³⁵

On the basis of the analysis made and despite the misgivings of some medical witnesses, the Advisory Council made an unanimous recommendation that "the school health service, together with the responsibility for the ascertainment of handicapped children, should be integrated with the education service."³⁶ The method proposed was similar to that suggested in the Underwood Report, namely, that medical officers should accept joint appointments under the health and education authorities at local government level

and under the Ministries of Health and Local Government and of Education at central government level. The Government did not wholly accept this recommendation. By the Education (Amendment) Act (1956), the duty of ascertainment was transferred back to the local education authorities from the health authorities, but the latter retained the responsibility for the school health service.³⁷ With minor changes due to the re-organisation of the health and hospital services, this is the present position. Most of the problems identified in the Ashby Report remain and have inhibited promising developments in the child guidance field since that time.

Many of the recommendations of the Advisory Council were endorsed by an advisory committee appointed jointly by the Ministers of Education and of Health and Local Government in 1956 "to consider how the Child Guidance and Speech Therapy Services in Northern Ireland may best be developed and to make recommendations."³⁸ The committee under the chairmanship of Dr. Frank Main, Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Health and Local Government, reported in 1958.

Their recommendations are mainly in the practical and administrative fields for, as they pointed out, they were helped by the Underwood Report and the relevant reports of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland³⁹, and it was unnecessary to go over again ground already well covered. On the basis of figures quoted in these reports, it was estimated that five full-time clinics would be required in Northern Ireland, but "our witnesses were agreed that shortages of trained staff would make immediate development even on this scale out of the question, and discussion centred on the type and scale of provision that was practicable and desirable."⁴⁰ Thus, having

adopted a cautious stance, the committee recommended the establishment of another full-time clinic in Belfast to be run jointly by the local education authority, the local health authority, and the Northern Ireland Hospital Authority, and part-time clinics in other parts of the province.⁴¹

With minor variations to suit local conditions, the Main Committee followed closely the recommendations of the Underwood Committee regarding staffing, administrative procedures and referrals. There was strong support for the expansion of the school psychological service, the psychologists of which should be members of the child guidance clinic team. The additional clinics required should be planned and operated by the local education and health authorities in consultation with the Hospitals Authority, who would supply the psychiatrist and, in most cases, the psychiatric social workers. The committee also emphasised the importance of good working relationships with the existing services and of flexibility in referral procedures.

As a response to the Main Committee's recommendations that a second full-time child guidance clinic was urgently required in Belfast, the local education and health authorities in conjunction with the Hospitals Authority began to consider how best this could be established. In the early sixties, a large house was acquired in Fortwilliam Park, a residential area in North Belfast and a clinic opened there in 1965. It was the first clinic to be organised in Northern Ireland on the lines suggested in the Underwood Report and, had it succeeded, it would have enabled a much more comprehensive service to be provided in the Belfast area for the diagnosis and treatment of children with emotional or behaviour disorders.

It seems to have been a somewhat ill-starred venture from the start.

It was scheduled to open in February 1965 and a waiting list was opened the previous month. However, only a limited service was possible until October 1965 because it was not until then that the services of a psychiatrist could be obtained. In addition, the lack of other professional time made it difficult to examine and treat the numbers who were referred. But the main difficulty, as the head of the Belfast school psychological service reported in 1966, "has centred on the different conceptions of the nature of an LEA child guidance clinic. In particular, the members of the team supplied by the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority have stressed the desirability of restricting referrals entirely to medical practitioners."⁴²

This was contrary to the policy recommended in both the Main and Ashby reports. After mentioning that initially most of the referrals will come through the school health and school psychological services and members of the clinic team, the Main Committee went on "We hope.....that as circumstances permit and the functions of the service are more clearly understood by the community that there will be no difficulty about receiving cases from a variety of sources."⁴³ Direct referral from a number of sources is established practice in Britain and in many European countries and was also the policy of the Underwood Report and Circular 347 of the Ministry of Education (England and Wales).⁴⁴ It would seem, however, as if the question of referral was only part of the problem, and that the real difficulty was the lack of acceptance by the medical staff of the concept of an Underwood-type local education authority child guidance clinic. However that may be, the clinic, at least in its original form, gradually drifted to an end.

It was regrettable that such difficulties were allowed to impede

developments at that time, because the problems had been fully discussed at a conference held in Portstewart in 1964. It was sponsored by the Northern Ireland Association for Mental Health, which had been inaugurated in 1959, and the large attendance was fully representative of all the interests involved. Points of professional disagreement were referred to by many speakers, and few doubted the detrimental effects which such divergences of view had had on the expansion of the service.

At the conference, the senior assistant secretary, Ministry of Health and Local Government, Mr. N. Dugdale, described the developments of the six years after the Main Committee reported as "a meagre achievement." No full-time clinics had been opened, but a number of part-time clinics had been established either under the local health authorities or local hospital boards. Some were held weekly (Belfast City Hospital, Whiteabbey Hospital), some fortnightly (Ballymena, Armagh, Portadown), some monthly (Coleraine, Magherafelt, Enniskillen) and others "intermittently."⁴⁵ None of these clinics had a full range of trained staff.

Apart from professional disagreements, two further reasons were given for the slow development of child guidance clinics and both are still relevant. The first is the lack of administrative co-ordination. The agencies involved in the administration include the Ministries of Education and of Health and Social Services, the Hospitals Authority, hospital management committees, local education and health authorities and probably welfare authorities. The administrative machinery is thus complicated and cumbersome. No one seems to have direct responsibility for seeing that things are done and this probably "explains the very jerky progress that has been made, encouraging starts followed by very discouraging stops, a process that has been repeated in more than one

area on more than one occasion."⁴⁶ The other factor inhibiting expansion is one that plagues development elsewhere, namely shortage of trained staff. Although their number has increased appreciably, there is still a shortage of psychiatrists, particularly child psychiatrists. As regards psychiatric social workers the position, although improved recently, is still acute. Up to 1970, no provision for training psychiatric social workers was available in Northern Ireland and, consequently, there was little, if any, increase in the number in practice. In that year, the training of social workers was reorganised by the introduction of generic training for all types of social work, with specialist options for specific work areas to be taken within the main training course. In Northern Ireland, part of the training is provided at the Department of Mental Health at Queen's University, Belfast. The new arrangements have eased the situation somewhat, although shortages elsewhere in the United Kingdom, together with the general situation here, has made the recruitment position difficult.

As far as psychologists are concerned, Northern Ireland has been somewhat more fortunate. Since the early 1950's, professional training for psychologists intending to work in a school psychological service has taken place in the Department of Psychology, Queen's University, under Professor George Seth, first head of the department. It was done first by a conversion course for practising teachers leading to a B.Ed. degree, a post-graduate unclassified honours degree similar to the B.Ed. or Ed.B. taken in Scottish universities, and more recently by an M.Sc. (Educational and Developmental Psychology) course, normally taken after a first degree in psychology.

The school psychological service has developed fairly rapidly since

the mid-fifties. In 1955 there were two psychologists employed by one authority, in 1964, sixteen employed by seven, and at present in the five local areas, formed from the original eight in the local government re-organisation in 1972-73, there are at present twenty-three psychologists working full-time in the service and two working part-time. (Table 3.5).

TABLE 3.5

Number of psychologists working in each education and library board area (with corresponding establishment).

Area	Numbers (at present working)	Establishment
Belfast	6½	9
North-East	5	8
South	3	6
South-East	6	6
West	3	6
Total	23½	35

One of the reasons why shortages still remain seems to be that a proportion of psychologists trained here prefer to work in England and Wales, where they get the opportunity of experiencing "the full range of child guidance activities (which) tend to be entirely within or under the control of the education system."⁴⁷

The total number of established posts for Northern Ireland is thirty-five, a number calculated on the basis of the Summerfield Report minimum ratio of 1 : 10,000 school children for each area. Lately local

education authorities (now called Education and Library Boards) have been considering a more generous psychologist/school pupil ratio and it is possible that the establishment figure will increase, perhaps even double. A change has taken place in the legal position of the psychologist under the Education and Libraries (Northern Ireland) Order 1972. Each board has "the duty.....to determine what children in its area who have attained the age of five years or who have not attained that age and are in attendance at school —

- (a) require special educational treatment; or
- (b) are suffering from a disability of mind of such a nature or to such an extent as to make them unsuitable for education at school."

In carrying out this duty, a board should consider "the advice given by a medical officer and an educational psychologist."⁴⁸ No previous legislation had included an educational psychologist in this process.

Vocational guidance services.

Until the increased activity in the education and social service fields after the Second World War, the efforts made to provide vocational guidance for young people in Northern Ireland were like those for the school psychological and child guidance services, sporadic and ineffectual. The first labour exchange was set up in Belfast in 1910 under the provision of the 1909 Labour Exchanges Act. Twenty years later a separate section for young people was formed, but the major preoccupations were manpower and insurance considerations rather than guidance for individuals. As one commentator said "Little attempt was made at considered placing and

none at vocational guidance."⁴⁹

The community generally expressed virtually no interest. There are probably many reasons for this, historical, social and economic, two of the most important being (1) the preponderance of small family firms which had specific and informal recruitment procedures; often generation followed generation into the same firm; and (2) the large-scale unemployment, which was chronic between the wars and has persisted at a high level, in some areas rising to 40% of the insured population. The effect of the consequent plentiful supply of cheap labour has been that the operative has not been held in the same esteem as in areas like the Midlands of England where unemployment is relatively small. For these reasons, an employment exchange was perceived as a place where one "signed on", hoping to get work rather than a specific job. In these circumstances it is hardly surprising that informed vocational guidance was neglected.

Under the 1923 Education Act (Northern Ireland) local education authorities were empowered to provide school leavers with assistance in choosing employment. Section 45 states that "The powers of an education authority shall include a power to make arrangements, subject to the approval of the Ministry, for giving to boys and girls on leaving school assistance with respect to the choice of suitable employment by means of the collection and communication of information and the furnishing of advice. For this purpose an education authority may make a joint arrangement or agreement with any other education authority or with any local authority, voluntary agency or Local Employment Committee established under the Labour Exchanges Act, 1909."⁵⁰ It is indicative of the general lack of concern that none of the education authorities exercised the powers

given to them.

As in other countries during the 1920's and 1930's, the major problem with regard to work and young people was unemployment, and it was in the field of guidance in relation to unemployment that the first tentative steps in vocational guidance were taken in Northern Ireland. In 1930, a juvenile instruction centre was set up in Belfast, while a number of the smaller authorities arranged for the type of work done in such a centre by forming special classes for unemployed young people or by admitting them to technical classes. Under the 1936 Unemployment Insurance Act, the education authorities had the duty to provide the courses considered by the Ministry to be necessary. It is noteworthy that many educationists and social scientists had an ambivalent attitude towards juvenile instruction centres. At their best, much useful work was done, but in the case of many the practices justified much of the criticism they attracted. No less a thinker than R.H. Tawney was opposed to such centres, pointing out that an appropriate curriculum was lacking and arguing strongly that what was needed was the raising of the school leaving age.⁵¹

In 1936, the Minister of Labour set up a committee under the chairmanship of Mr. F.W. Ogilvie, Vice-Chancellor of Queen's University, "to advise on the types of course of instruction (suitable for unemployed juveniles) to be provided in accordance with section 80 of the Unemployment Insurance Act (Northern Ireland) 1936, and the extent to which such courses should be provided, and to make recommendations on the arrangements connected therewith."⁵² The report, published in 1938, made a number of recommendations about courses, called "junior courses" for unemployed young people, e.g. the courses should not be given in association with

existing schools: certificates should be given for satisfactory completion of the courses, not only because they motivated the pupils to learn better or because they might lead to better employment prospects for those who obtain them, but also because such a system of awards would ensure that the courses and the juvenile employment service of the Ministry of Labour would be brought to the notice of employers.⁵³ This comment would seem to suggest that, at least up to that time, neither the junior courses nor the employment service for juveniles made much impact on employers and the methods they used to recruit workers.

The report also suggested that "one teacher should be put in charge of the educational side of the work and be responsible to the Ministry of Labour for recommending juveniles for employment."⁵⁴ It is doubtful, however, if the members of the committee considered that the role of such a teacher should include a specific guidance function. They urged that "time spent upon investigating by private discussion the personal needs and prospects of each juvenile can seldom, in our view, be time wasted", but saw this duty as being "closely associated with the placing function of the Ministry of Labour."⁵⁵

Despite the rather narrow and restricted view of guidance which emerges from the report, it is clear that the members of the committee were aware of the wider issues. They recognised that the limitations imposed by the terms of reference restricted them "to the task of devising the best arrangements for boys and girls who are out of work", and they pointed out that the instruction of unemployed young people was "not something standing in isolation, but that it should be regarded as an integral and important part of the general education system."⁵⁶ It follows that

school and work are interrelated phases of a young person's development and the transition from one to the other should be smooth. If the change from school to work is too sudden, the result is "waste of human energy and often.....exploitation. How best to link school to industry is a problem made urgent by the existence of unemployed juveniles; but unemployment did not create the problem and stop-gap measures will not overcome it."⁵⁷ In this statement there is a clear recognition that unemployment was only part of the problem which required more fundamental action than palliatives such as courses in juvenile instruction centres.

Therefore, although the concept of vocational guidance, in so far as one emerged from the Ogilvie Report, was a limited one, the views expressed by the committee about schooling and work were liberal and progressive. Another report reflecting similar attitudes was that of a committee set up by the Minister of Education in 1942 on Youth Welfare. The committee under the chairmanship of Mr. H.M. Thompson reported in 1944.⁵⁸ The report recommended that nursery schools should be available for the children of all parents who desire it, and that the school leaving age should be raised in the first instance to fifteen, as the 1938 Education Act had proposed, and then as soon as possible to sixteen with part-time schooling continued to eighteen.⁵⁹

The committee welcomed the proposal of the Lynn (1938) Committee that a central child guidance clinic should be established in association with Queen's and added, "We would like to see developing, in association with the Child Guidance Clinic, a Vocational Guidance Clinic, which will provide some scientific basis for directing young people into employment for which they are physically and mentally suitable and which they can

follow with interest."⁶⁰ It is interesting to note that this was the model which Witmer's clinic in Pennsylvania had developed as one of Witmer's students, Morris Viteles, had opened a vocational guidance section there in 1921.⁶¹

The Thompson Committee did not envisage that the clinic would be used by all children, but only by the minority who had vocational problems. "Only a proportion of children leaving school will need the advice of the Vocational Guidance Clinic and, for many, the advice of officials of the Juvenile Employment Exchange in conference with teachers and parents will be adequate. These conferences, which have become the usual practice in Great Britain, are held during school hours and we would recommend the adoption of this system in Northern Ireland."⁶² It is clear from this statement that the members of the committee recognised that the "laissez faire" approach to vocational guidance, if such can be called an approach, was inappropriate in the circumstances then prevailing, and that a more purposeful and systematic response from schools was required. No action was taken on either of the committee's proposals.

The next phase in the development of vocational guidance in Northern Ireland was initiated by the publication of the Ince Report which evoked much interest in the province. For the first time, vocational guidance became a focus of concern rather than a peripheral issue. The years between 1948 and 1959, when finally a committee was set up to look at the question of a youth employment service for Northern Ireland, were characterised by continually increasing pressure by educationists, trade unions, employers, some members of parliament, local government members and officials, and other interested groups, and by an ill-considered,

obscurantist and basically illiberal response by the Government.

One of the earliest organisations to express interest was the Institute of Personnel Management which, from immediately after the war, included in its training courses for personnel officers lectures and seminars on youth employment and relations with schools. In 1949, it sponsored a conference in Belfast called "The Young Worker", at which the senior youth employment officer for Manchester spoke on the Youth Employment Service. At the conference, which was widely representative of all interested groups, there was a general recognition, both implicit and articulated, that a youth employment service comparable to that being established in Britain, was not only desirable but essential in Northern Ireland.

The local branch of the New Education Fellowship was also involved from the beginning in discussions about a youth employment service. A special commission was formed by the branch to consider the implications for Northern Ireland of a service based on the recommendations of the Ince Report. The report of the commission was published in 1947 and later that year a deputation from the Fellowship saw first the Minister of Labour and later the Ministers of Labour and Education together. The response was not hopeful and, as part of its campaign, the branch held a public meeting addressed by the senior youth employment officer in Birmingham, Miss M. Stuart-Miller.

Apart from such extra-parliamentary activities, a number of members of parliament were pressing the government to set up a youth employment service or at least to form a committee to examine the issues involved. On five occasions between 1946 and 1954, questions were asked and dis-

satisfaction expressed during the debate at the resistance of the government. The responses were invariably negative, e.g. "Expert assistance is given at all the Ministry's (of Labour) offices", and "I see no reason why, with close co-operation between the Ministry of Education, the local education authorities and the Ministry of Labour, arrangements cannot be evolved under existing provisions to provide a juvenile employment service satisfactory to all concerned." (Minister of Labour). It was also pointed out that there were differences between Britain and Northern Ireland, notably the high rate of unemployment which, it was suggested, made a service such as had been recommended in the Ince Report unnecessary.

Other less widely articulated differences existed, many of which related to methods of recruitment of workers. Some employers, for example, employ workers only from their own community, which in Northern Ireland is defined on religious grounds. As a consequence, in some work areas a mixed religion work force is unknown. In addition, sponsorship, the practice where one requires a sponsor, generally a relative already working in the firm or trade, also contributes to "employment ghettoism."

The difficulties created for youth employment officers by such practices are not to be minimised. Nevertheless, given certain conditions of stability and peace, it could have been argued that a professional youth employment service could have had an educative role in encouraging the dismantling of these discriminatory procedures and, therefore, on wider social grounds, such a service was more necessary here than elsewhere. A criticism of the early days of the Youth Employment Service when it was set up in 1962 was that it acquiesced, however unwillingly, in this situation by having the young person's job vacancy card coded so that the

religious affiliation of each was known. This had been the practice in the Belfast local education authority Youth Advisory Service, the forerunner of the Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service, and it was continued after the new service was established. Many have argued that this was both justifiable and realistic. One had to accept the situation in order to change it and, indeed, individual officers did much to change attitudes and the practice was discontinued after some time. A contrary argument is that a statutory authority, however circumscribed by the facts of the situation, should not be a party to divisive and discriminatory practices.

After the passing of the Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1947, Belfast Education Committee began to consider the feasibility of setting up a youth employment service for the area. By Section 56 of the Act, local education authorities were empowered "to make arrangements, subject to the approval of the Ministry, for giving to pupils on leaving school, assistance with respect to the choice of suitable employment by means of the collection and communication of information and the furnishing of advice."⁶³ After initial approaches by the local committee, the Ministry of Education invited the Belfast Education Authority to submit a scheme for approval. In the course of a short historical note included in the first report of the Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service (1963) it was stated that in 1947 "The Ministry of Education invited the Belfast Education Committee to establish an advisory service."⁶⁴ The validity of this statement is hardly borne out by subsequent events.

The draft scheme was prepared and forwarded to the Ministry early in 1948 and given approval in September of that year. It was pointed out

that the juvenile employment service should be an educational service and that no easy division of responsibility was possible between the advisory and placing functions. The draft scheme had four main points:

- (1) the formation of a juvenile employment committee, representative of all major interests including parents, teachers, trade unions and employers;
- (2) a central agency should be responsible for the gathering and dissemination of information;
- (3) there should be at least one careers teacher (called a teacher-adviser) in each school responsible for giving information and general advice and for liaison;
- (4) the juvenile employment officer should be responsible for specific advice to individual pupils and placing them in employment.⁶⁵

After Ministry approval had been granted, events moved with commendable speed. The 1948-49 Report of the Belfast Education Committee noted that "A youth Employment Service has been inaugurated under the direction of a subcommittee consisting of members of the Education Committee and representatives of teachers, parents, employers, employees, the Ministry of Labour, the Institute of Personnel Management, the Standing Conference of Youth Organisations, and the New Education Fellowship. Two assistant organisers have been appointed and a course for teachers who are to assist the work of the service in the schools has been held."⁶⁶

However, in February 1950, the Education Committee received a letter from the Ministry of Education expressing the view that the service had tended to act outside the statutory power conferred by Section 56 of the

Education Act. The Ministry had been advised that the wording of this section seemed to exclude the placing function, and "the impasse occasioned by (the) differing interpretations" hindered the development of the service at a time when rapid progress was being made in response to the demand from schools.⁶⁷ To attempt to resolve the difficulties, a small commission consisting of representatives of the Ministries of Education and Labour and the Education Committee was set up and, after a number of discussions, an agreement was worked out. The 1950-51 Belfast Education Committee report recorded it thus: "The Authority (was) confirmed in its right to undertake all the vocational guidance work detailed in the original approved scheme. The actual placing of young people in employment becomes the responsibility of a reorganised Ministry of Labour Juvenile Exchange co-operating closely with the Youth Advisory ServiceThe renaming of the Service reflects the agreed limiting of function."⁶⁸

It emerged clearly from the agreement that the youth employment officer's freedom of action in placing children in employment, as originally detailed in the scheme approved by the Minister of Education, had been taken away. This was a disappointment to many who had campaigned for an Ince-type youth employment service. Furthermore, the division of responsibility between the youth advisory officers and the employment exchange officers of the Ministry of Labour with regard to placing was not clearly defined and, as in England during the 1920's, the practical effects of this lack of clarity were less than satisfactory.

The 1954-55 Report of the Belfast Education Committee expressed the disquiet felt by the officers of the service and by many others closely involved. It is worth quoting this extract at some length for it sums up

well the general trend during the decade of the 1950's when educational interests were striving to win a stronger position vis-a-vis manpower control considerations. "Section 56 of the Education Act does not permit the Local Education Authority to provide a Youth Employment Service similar to those existing in Great Britain where employment placing is part of their recognised function. For this reason, a system of dual operation mentioned in last year's report was established but, because of serious defects in this system, the Youth Advisory Committee felt it necessary to have a detailed report on the development of the Advisory Service, particularly in its relations with the Ministry of Labour Employment Office. After consideration by the Youth Advisory, Further Education and Education Committees, this report was submitted to the Ministry of Education with a request that a deputation of Education and Youth Advisory Committees be received by him to discuss the implications of the report. The Minister twice refused to meet this deputation because he felt that the Minister of Labour should be consulted first. It was finally decided to ask the Ministry of Labour to discuss with the deputation certain specific difficulties which had arisen in the joint operation. The Minister in his written reply made it clear that he had no intention of making any legislative or administrative changes in connection with youth employment, but he would provide for a series of inter-departmental discussions which he hoped would help to make the existing arrangements more effective."⁶⁹

This simply reiterated the position outlined by the Minister of Labour in Parliament when he replied to a series of questions about the working of the agreement. On 29th April, 1954,⁷⁰ he was asked (1) why

the Belfast Employment Office had not passed on to schools the information circulated to it by the Central Youth Employment Executive in London for use in schools, and (2) why the promise made by the Minister during the committee stage of the Employment and Training Bill in 1950 that appropriate training would be given to employment office staff, had not been fulfilled. In a purely evasive and negative reply, the Minister answered neither of these points.

As a result of renewed consultations a new agreement was arrived at between the Education Authority and the Ministry of Labour officials. The new procedures were to be governed by three principles, namely that the Advisory Service would be (1) represented at all placing interviews undertaken by the Ministry of Labour; (2) responsible for follow-up and for apprenticeship or betterment vacancies; and (3) allowed to receive notice of vacancies from employers but required to pool them with those of the Ministry.⁷¹ This clarified the situation a little, but the general position of the Advisory Service was unchanged, a position described at the time as "weak.....in relation to the Ministry (of Labour) which is backed on every point by Act of Parliament or regulation."⁷²

The normal procedure was as follows:

1. When a young person registered, a card was sent by the employment exchange to the Youth Advisory Service. The youth advisory officer completed the card, filling in the young person's school record, general comments and an un-specific employment recommendation. The information necessary to complete the card had been obtained previously from one or more interviews with the young person, the careers teacher and, if possible, the parents.

2. The completed card was returned to the exchange where it was combined with other information relating to the young person.
3. Placing was done on the basis of this material. Although it had been agreed that a youth advisory officer was to be present at all placing interviews, this practice was not always adhered to. In any event, placing was done by the employment officer, who was a clerical officer with no guidance training. The youth advisory officer could make suggestions and proffer advice but he had no power. If the young person refused to accept the placement, a statement of his reasons for doing so was taken down and passed to the insurance officer for a decision about whether or not unemployment benefit should be stopped.⁷³

Criticisms can be made of this procedure on many grounds. Firstly, it was cumbersome and inefficient. It demanded the attendance of one of the youth employment officers at the employment exchange one week in every three and in most cases, therefore, the officer present would not be the one dealing with the particular case. As was pointed out later, "Divided responsibility for advisory work and employment placing imposed a limitation which seriously affected the logical development of vocational guidance and resulted in inefficiency and confusion."⁷⁴ Secondly, guidance was conceptualised almost wholly in terms of placing and thus the interests and needs of individuals tended to be submerged by manpower, insurance and economic considerations. A further unfortunate result was that, in a high unemployment situation, failure to get a job was perceived

as a failure of the system. Consequently, young people had little trust in the system or in those who worked it. A third criticism often voiced was the ambivalence of the youth advisory officer's position at the placing interview. He had no real power and was often dismissed by the young person as irrelevant.

Despite its obvious limitations, the service developed steadily. It was wound up in 1962 with the advent of the Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service and, by that year, the number of officers had risen to fourteen. In the years between 1952 and 1962 (see Table 3.6) the number of school leavers interviewed more than doubled as did the number of pupils who went on industrial visits. In addition, the increase in the number of youth advisory officers enabled a wider range of activities to be undertaken, e.g. follow-up interviews.

TABLE 3.6

Development of the Belfast Youth Advisory Service (1952-1962).

Activities	YEAR			
	1951-52	1954-55	1960-61	1961-62
Number of school leavers interviewed in school	2292	2786	4404	4945
Number of interviews at which parent(s) was present	1056	1398	1905	2039
Number of interviews at central office	1073	740	2101	2684
Number of follow up interviews	-	-	559	561
Visits: (i) number of parties	191	256	361	387
(ii) number of pupils	3590	5024	7451	7967

An additional indication of the increasing demand for the service was its growth in the city grammar schools, most of which are voluntary schools, that is financed partly by direct grant from the Ministry of Education and partly by fees and money from voluntary sources. Many of the grammar schools co-operated fully with the advisory service by inviting the officers to speak to the pupils and by sending those interested to the central office of the service on Saturday mornings. Furthermore, a large number of grammar school leavers used the service independently of the schools, especially during the summer vacation.

In the meantime, pressure continued both inside and outside Parliament for a more reasoned response from the Minister of Labour. In November 1956, the youth advisory committee of the Belfast local education authority sponsored a conference "Youth and the Job", which was held in Belfast College of Technology. Lord Coleraine, then chairman of the Central Youth Employment Executive in Britain, spoke on the Youth Employment Service. At the conference, a resolution was passed calling on the Minister of Labour to set up a committee of inquiry into an employment service for young people in Northern Ireland. In February 1957, the Minister was asked in Parliament if he had received the resolution and he replied, "I have concluded that the establishment of such a committee at the present time would not of itself afford young people more and better opportunities of employment."⁷⁶ The negative tone of this answer prompted the initiation of a debate into the adequacy of the vocational guidance and employment services for young people. The debate covered the usual arguments, including comparisons with the practice in Great Britain, the constraints imposed by the system on the officers of the Belfast youth advisory service, and the lack of any provision outside

Belfast. In his reply to the debate the Minister again refused to set up a committee, but two months later he changed his mind and in May 1957 a committee, with Lord Coleraine as chairman, was formed. The terms of reference were "to examine vocational guidance and youth employment services for young persons under the age of 18 in Northern Ireland; and to recommend such changes as may be required to meet local needs and conditions."⁷⁷

The report, published in January 1959, contained twenty-five recommendations of which the following are the most important:

- (1) A comprehensive Youth Employment Service should be established for young people up to the age of 18 (recommendation 1).
- (2) Central control over the Youth Employment Service should be exercised by the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance in consultation with the Ministry of Education, with the Minister of Labour and National Insurance bearing parliamentary responsibility for the service (recommendation 3).
- (3) Any Local Education Authority should be empowered to undertake the work of organising a vocational guidance and placing service in its own area, provided it can satisfy the Minister of Labour and National Insurance and the Ministry of Education that the service it intends to provide will be adequate in all respects (recommendation 4).
- (4) In all other areas the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance should provide a service (recommendation 5).⁷⁸

The system proposed was similar to that in Britain except for two important differences. First, no body comparable to the Central Youth Employment Executive was envisaged either as part of the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance or independent of it to carry out the Ministry's functions in respect of youth employment. Second, it was recommended that the local education authorities running "a vocational guidance and placing service.....(should not be) obliged to administer claims to unemployment benefit and assistance grants."⁷⁹

The report was accepted in principle by the Government and was given a generally welcome reception both among the general public and in the schools. The Ministry of Education began consultations with the Association of Education Committees (Northern Ireland) about the proposed scheme and particularly about the possibility of each of the eight local authorities operating a youth employment service. It was found that only five were in favour of doing so. However, all the authorities recognised that "the findings of the Coleraine Committee and the general weight of public opinion point to the need to develop a service which is integrated with the education service so that the giving of vocational advice and the introduction to employment may be geared to educational guidance and form part of the preparation of boys and girls for life in all its aspects including that of earning a living."⁸⁰ Furthermore, it was clear that in a small area such as Northern Ireland, some uniformity of provision was desirable and this could best be achieved by a common administrative structure for the whole province.

Thus, in an agreed policy memorandum, the Association of Education Committees suggested that a Joint Authority should be appointed by the

Ministry of Labour and National Insurance to operate a province-wide youth employment service. The memorandum continued, "The Joint Authority would be representative of the local education authorities, grammar schools, teachers' organisations, employers, work people and those interested in the welfare of young people. Local Advisory Committees similarly constituted would be appointed by the Local Education Committees in consultation with the Joint Authority. The executive and advisory staff necessary for the operation of the Service throughout the Province would be appointed by and be responsible to the Joint Authority."⁸¹

The government accepted the arguments put forward and the Youth Employment Service Bill, enacted in 1961, made provision for the establishment of a statutory authority called the Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service Board, whose members were to be appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Insurance in accordance with a schedule to the Act.⁸² The functions of the Board are stated in Section 3(1) of the 1961 Act and are "to provide such facilities and services as it considers expedient for the purposes of assisting persons for whose benefit this Act is passed (i.e. persons under the age of eighteen years and persons over that age who are attending school) to select, obtain and retain employment suitable to their age and capacity and of assisting employers to obtain suitable employees from amongst such persons."⁸³

The Youth Employment Service commenced operation in September 1962 with nineteen youth employment officers, fourteen of whom had been transferred from the Belfast youth advisory service. As it expanded throughout the province, the number of officers increased steadily to eighty-four. (Table 3.7).

TABLE 3.7

Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service - youth employment officers (1966-72).

YEAR	Number of YEO's
1966-67	64
1967-68	69
1968-69	72
1969-70	69
1970-71	80
1971-72	84

As can be seen from tables 3.8, 3.9 and 3.10, the development of the service over the past ten years has been impressive, the decrease in activity in some categories for the year 1971-72 reflecting the present difficulties in the province. In particular, the number of visits and the number of children taking part in them, as is the case with almost all outside school activities, have both dropped dramatically.

TABLE 3.8

Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service - number of school talks and interviews (1966-72).

	number of schools	number of school talks	Interviews			
			in school	in office	subsequent	total
1966-67	438	880	17032	7464	3687	28182
1968-69	386	1100	20235	4216	8078	32529
1971-72	320	2216	23395	4668	12784	40847

TABLE 3.9

Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service - numbers placed in employment (1966-72).

YEAR	school leavers	others	subsequent	total
1966-67	3058	3227	1894	8179
1968-69	3880	3620	1468	8968
1971-72	3660	3557	814	8051

The figures for 1971-72 in Table 3.9 are incomplete. Some were destroyed when the premises were bombed.

TABLE 3.10

Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service - number of industrial visits (1966-72).

YEAR	Number of schools	Number of individual establishments	Number of visits	Number of pupils
1966-67	127	280	857	16084
1968-69	143	314	1228	23556
1970-71	194	449	1668	31008
1971-72	191	345	1091	19630

With the advent of the Youth Employment Service and the extension for the first time of such a service outside the Belfast area, it became apparent that there should be an examination of the role of the careers

teacher, the duties he should perform, the time allowance necessary to do the job properly and the training required. In 1966, the Ministry of Education convened a working party to advise on these issues and the report was circulated to schools in September 1968.⁸⁵ The working party made a number of practical suggestions, two of which provided the stimuli for future action. For example, there was an insistence on a specially equipped careers room in each school as necessary for the efficient operation of a careers service, and a number of schools have made this provision. Secondly, with regard to a time allowance for careers work the working party suggested the following formula, "In any school year there may be allocated in the time-table for the work of the careers teacher or teachers, a maximum time equivalent to one hour per week for every 20 new pupils, or part thereof, enrolled during the previous calendar year, such time to be considered equivalent to teaching time for the teachers concerned."⁸⁶ Using this formula, a school with an intake of 80, which would probably have had a total roll of over 400 pupils, would have been entitled to four hours of careers work a week. However, the Ministry was not prepared to accept even this small and inadequate step forward. In a circular⁸⁷ issued at the same time as the report, schools were advised that the Ministry was prepared to relax the twenty hour minimum requirement of class instruction demanded of a teacher, provided that the teacher undertook class instruction for not less than fifteen hours per week and school duties including class instruction for not less than thirty hours per week. The circular further pointed out that the reduction of the twenty hour minimum would not be accepted as grounds for increasing staff beyond the normal school establishment. The attitude reflected in the circular seemed to be that school-based careers guidance was only a marginal activity which could be provided

without any alteration in staffing ratios. From the start it was clear that the proposed time allowance for careers teachers was insufficient to allow them to provide even a minimal service to the pupils. There is little doubt that but for the extensive use by teachers of free periods and time after school, the provision for vocational guidance in secondary and grammar schools would have been meagre. Although Circular 1968/54 is still in operation, the Ministry now adopts a more sympathetic and flexible attitude in response to requests from principals in relation to arrangements for guidance work. This is partly due to a growth in understanding of and expertise in guidance, an increasing interest in counselling and small group work in schools, and a more sophisticated approach to school organisation generally which has made the use of such a method of calculating a teacher's time allowance inappropriate.

The report of the working party and the circular had both positive and negative consequences. On the positive side, close co-operation between the schools and the youth employment service has developed and has been one of the features of the service. However, the insufficient time allowed for careers guidance teachers to carry out their duties has had unfortunate results. It has denied teachers the opportunity to initiate and develop comprehensive guidance programmes. Activities in many schools are confined to interviewing leavers and sometimes other pupils at points when choices of subjects have to be made. There has been little or no curriculum development in the guidance field and the use of small group methods is uncommon. In addition, the lack of time allowed to school-based staff has forced the youth employment officers to concentrate perhaps too much on work in schools, providing information services and carrying out interviews, which could more appropriately have been done by guidance teachers.

One estimate asserts that a youth employment officer spends on average about 50% of his time in schools, and about 30% in his office, leaving insufficient time for the development of contacts and the acquisition of knowledge of industry.⁸⁸ It could be argued that when systematic careers work was beginning in schools, such an emphasis was inevitable, perhaps even desirable. However, with increased opportunities for guidance teachers to undertake in-service training and the growth in the expertise available in the schools, it is now timely to question whether the skills of the youth employment officers are being used to greatest effect and whether their role has to be re-examined in response to the changing circumstances.

A few months ago in March 1974, a consultative document⁸⁹ was prepared by an interdepartmental working party composed of officials of the Departments (formerly Ministries) of Education and of Manpower Services. This report, while noting with approval the successes of the Youth Employment Service, states clearly that the current system is open to criticism and proposes an alternative structure. It is argued that the small size of the service reduces the promotion and career prospects of the staff, limits the amount of internal training that can be provided and restricts the opportunities for research. The working party maintains that staffing problems, notably an unacceptably high turnover of staff, and recruitment difficulties have impaired the efficiency of the service. For example, "in many cases, firm links have not been maintained with the schools and lasting liaison has not been established between individual youth employment officers and careers teachers."⁹⁰

Another difficulty, highlighted in the report is the statutory age

limit of eighteen years, which is said to cause "an unnatural break in the continuity of the guidance received by the individual."⁹¹ More seriously perhaps it makes follow-up and evaluation difficult. As an indication of this, the working party points out that the current procedure for reviewing a young person's progress and satisfaction in employment is to invite him to the youth employment office after work on one or two occasions between leaving school and his attaining the age of eighteen years, but that this facility is only used by about 7% of those invited.

Many youth employment officers, teachers and others would admit the strength of at least some of these arguments. More controversial, however, is the claim that "a statutory board responsible to the Department of Education is divorced from the mainstream of employment and other aspects of manpower policy and administration for which the Department of Manpower Services is responsible. This leaves the present Youth Employment Service with responsibility for the placement of young persons, but with insufficient means and resources to exercise that responsibility as effectively as it would wish."⁹² The alternative proposed by the working party is that the Youth Employment Service should become part of an all-age guidance and placement unit within the Department of Manpower Services. To many this arrangement reflects a view at variance with the concept of a vocational guidance service as an educational rather than as a manpower service, the central concern of the latter being economic and industrial interests rather than those of the individual. The fear is that those involved, including careers teachers, will be looked upon as "hidden persuaders" whose primary function is to channel young people into jobs as dictated by manpower shortages.

However, there is evidence in the report to suggest that the members

of the working party are aware of these issues. In making the recommendation about the future of the youth employment service, they make the proviso that "the priority of developing young persons to the fullest extent of their individual potential would be safeguarded."⁹³ They further point out that "the concept and objective is that of a professional client-centred service", in which the emphasis will be placed on "developing individual potential."⁹⁴ There seems to be a recognition that efficient manpower policies depend on the understanding that there is a well-documented relationship between personal adjustment and mental health on the one hand and job satisfaction and productivity on the other.⁹⁵

One of the most important consequences of the proposals is that the change in function of the youth employment officer will require the schools and the education authorities to provide a school-based service operated by trained staff. Commitment to an adequate training programme for careers guidance staff is essential to the success of the scheme. External support for careers teachers is also necessary and the report suggests that for this purpose each education and library board should appoint a careers adviser. The decision about the proposals is awaited with some interest. Providing that the dangers already mentioned are obviated, the commitments to training, to an adequate time allowance for staff and to related matters are fulfilled, many will welcome the new structure. In so far as schools are concerned, it will provide each with an opportunity to establish a comprehensive, integrated guidance service of which careers guidance will be a significant part.

In contrast to the position in England and Wales, the education-based services in Northern Ireland have been rather less successful in

developing into areas which were the subject of disagreement between these services on the one hand and the medical services and manpower services on the other. They have made little headway in securing autonomy from the medical services in respect of the diagnosis and special educational treatment of the educationally subnormal, the maladjusted and the emotionally disturbed children, and from the manpower services in respect of the field of preparation for post-school work roles and experience. For the last twelve years, there has been a somewhat ambiguously placed youth employment service, but it now looks as if this is going to become part of the manpower services with which responsibilities in this field were traditionally lodged.

SUMMARY

Although some references to guidance can be found in government reports of the late 1930's, the growth of the guidance services in Northern Ireland is a post-war development. Local education authority services now cover the whole province; the last authority to exercise its responsibilities in this field was Tyrone in 1967. There is only limited provision of child guidance clinic facilities and local education authority involvement ended with the closing of the Fortwilliam clinic, the only Underwood-type clinic established in Northern Ireland.

The Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service was set up in 1962 after a long struggle carried on by educationists, trade unionists and others with the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance, to which the Youth Employment Service Board initially was responsible. Responsibility was transferred in 1965 to the Ministry (now Department) of Education. New proposals suggest a return to the Department of Manpower Services as part of an all-age guidance and placement unit.

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CHAPTER 4

Issues in education in Northern Ireland

In the previous two chapters, the historical antecedents of the guidance and counselling movement in Britain, the U.S.A. and parts of Western Europe were described and then specific reference was made to developments in Northern Ireland. Current school guidance theory and practice owe much to ideas and concepts refined and developed over the past years. Equally important for an understanding of contemporary approaches to guidance and counselling in schools is the nature of the schools themselves and the challenges they have to face.

Educational innovation arises from a felt need for change within and outside the schools. Influences outside the school can create a climate of opinion within the school in favour of change, but the extent to which the new ideas are put into practice and the direction in which they develop ultimately depend on the degree of sympathy for the new thinking among the teachers and the strength of their commitment to make the change. In countries where more centralised direction is a salient feature of the educational system, it is possible that the teacher's position, while still important, is less crucial than it is in the United Kingdom, where the relative autonomy of teachers means that no innovation can take root and flourish without the active support and assistance of dedicated and informed teachers to nurture it.

Therefore, insight into the educational system and its workings and a knowledge of the environment in which it functions are essential pre-

conditions to understanding how guidance has developed in Northern Ireland and the main issues confronting schools in the field of guidance and counselling. What follows is an account of secondary education in Northern Ireland with particular reference to guidance and counselling within the schools. It is impressionistic in that it conveys one person's impressions, beliefs, attitudes and prejudices, but it has historical, contemporary and statistical reference points which will hopefully sustain many of the arguments advanced. Therefore, it is not intended to be a comprehensive historical survey but a picture, as seen by one observer, of the educational provision for young people from eleven to nineteen years of age and the values that permeate it.

One of the most effective ways of describing the functioning of an educational system is to take as themes the major issues relevant to it and show how the system, the schools and the associated power structures deal with problems involved. Thus, with specific regard to secondary education, four major themes are identified and discussed, namely:

- (1) the structure of secondary education, that is, should secondary education be organised on a comprehensive or a selective basis;
- (2) the controversy over what have been called "integrated schools" (schools in which all children would be educated together rather than separately according to religion - these schools will be referred to as shared or integrated schools);
- (3) the role of schools in a society in which dissensus and strife are quite overwhelming and the response of children and teachers to the resulting stress;
- (4) the beginnings of guidance and counselling in secondary and grammar

schools and technical colleges in Northern Ireland and the shaping of the concepts by the values of the system and by those seeking to develop counselling in the schools. Reference will be made to developments in England and Wales which played an important part in the growth of counselling here. Before taking each theme in turn, the main features of the system of secondary education will be described.¹

The educational system.

An outsider looking at the educational scene in Northern Ireland could well be forgiven if he arrived at the conclusion that the differences between the systems here and in England and Wales were unimportant and marginal. The similarities are readily apparent. In Northern Ireland, there are primary schools, secondary and grammar schools, even a small number with labels such as comprehensive or junior high. There are three colleges of education, a polytechnic (The Ulster College) and two universities. There is an expanding programme of nursery education which aims within the next few years to raise substantially the number of nursery school places available to three and four year olds.

At the administrative level the functions of central government are discharged by the Department (formerly Ministry) of Education. The duties of local education authorities are performed by five local education and library boards which came into existence on April 1, 1973, the date on which the Education and Libraries (Northern Ireland) Order 1972 became operative. One of the effects of this order was to reorganize the original eight local education authorities created by the 1923 Edu-

ation Act into five new administrative units (one each for Belfast, North-East, South-East, South, and West). In addition, almost every school has a management committee or board of governors. Thus the same administrative levels pertain in Northern Ireland as in Great Britain. This is hardly surprising since the principle of parity of social services between the two areas has meant that, as far as general educational matters are concerned, developments in Northern Ireland have followed closely those in the rest of the United Kingdom.

Nevertheless, despite the similarities in legislative provisions, differences which have more than a superficial impact exist between the two systems. In the opinion of this writer one of the most influential differences lies in the capacity of the educational system in England and Wales to respond more quickly to social changes than that in Northern Ireland, which displays an acute lack of sensitivity to both external and internal pressures.

The reasons for these differential rates of response to change have not yet been fully explored, but it seems that the significant factors are related not so much to the schools themselves but to the delicate socio-political-religious-cultural balance existing in society which makes major institutional changes at school level unlikely. Slight structural movements, as has been patently obvious over the past five or six years, can disturb the balance and produce earthquakes, and for this reason educational changes are more likely to come about by tinkering with the current situation in and among schools rather than by any major redirection of policy. In fact, this has been the story of education since the 1947 Education Act. There has been no lack of willingness to experiment within the existing

structure and some major advances were pioneered, for example, in teacher training, but no radical structural changes have taken place.

The system of secondary education is a particularly good example of this feature of minimal structural change. The structure of the system initiated by the 1947 Education Act could best be described as tripartite with grammar, technical and secondary intermediate schools. The pupils were allocated to each mainly on the basis of a qualifying examination at 11+. Since that time, what the Advisory Council for Education has called a "complex evolution" has taken place and there is at present "a remarkable variety of secondary schools."²

The phasing out of the technical intermediate schools from 1964 changed the system from a tripartite to a bipartite structure, although in many of the county towns, some of the pupils leave the secondary (intermediate) school at fifteen years of age to attend the local technical college. This introduces a tripartite division for the last year of compulsory schooling and is a source of great irritation to those teaching in the local secondary schools. Local circumstances in some areas of low population have led to quasi-comprehensive or bilateral school experiments, but these and other changes are not much more than marginal. The principles on which the system was built, selection and the preservation of the dual (county and voluntary) system remain intact.

Secondary education, that is, the education of students between 11 and 19 years old is provided mainly in two types of school, secondary and grammar. Secondary schools, formerly called secondary intermediate were intended for those pupils who have failed to qualify for a place in a grammar school. There are two possible ways of gaining entrance to grammar

school. The first is by winning a grammar school scholarship on the basis of the selection procedure at 11+ or the subsequent review arrangements (at 12+ and later). The second is to obtain one of the places reserved for those who do not obtain a scholarship and whose parents pay the required fees. In addition to secondary and grammar schools, an increasing number of pupils are attending institutions of further education which provide full-time and part-time education for those over compulsory school leaving age and full-time for some students over fifteen years of age. Although officially designated as institutions of further education, they are more commonly called technical colleges, and will be referred to as such in this thesis. The number of pupils in secondary and grammar schools is given in Table 4.1.³

TABLE 4.1

Pupils and teachers in secondary education

Type of school	No. of schools	No. of pupils	No. of teachers (full-time)	No. of part-time teachers (in full-time equivalent)	Pupil- teachers ratio
Secondary	177	89,163	4887	80	18.0
Technical intermediate	1	12*	-	-	-
Grammar	81	46,577	2703	116	16.5
Total	259	135,752	7590	196	17.7

Cutting across the categories of secondary and grammar schools is the operation of the dual system. Grant aided schools are of two types:

*These pupils are in a technical college.

- (1) Controlled schools which are schools under the management of the local education and library boards. Before 1st October 1973, such schools, then under local education authority management, were known as county schools;
- (2) Voluntary schools which are either maintained or non-maintained. Prior to the 1968 Education (Amendment) Act, which introduced the category of maintained school, voluntary schools received 65% grant aid in respect of building and maintenance costs. Under the provisions of the 1968 Act, those schools which accepted one-third local authority representation on their management committees were granted maintained status. This meant that building and extension grants were increased to 80% and all maintenance costs were met by the local education authorities. Schools which did not accept public representation continued on the existing 65% grant aid.

The number of pupils in each category of school are shown in Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

TABLE 4.2³

Number of pupils and teachers - secondary schools

Type of school	No. of schools	No. of pupils	No. of teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio
County	88	48,040	2588	18.6
Voluntary/ maintained	87	39,916	2230	17.9
Voluntary	2	1,207	69	17.5
Total	177	89,163	4887	18.2

TABLE 4.3³

Number of pupils and teachers - grammar schools

Type of school	No. of schools	No. of pupils	No. of teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio
County	21	11,535	676	17.1
Voluntary	60	35,042	2027	17.3
Total	81	46,577	3703	17.2

The selective V. comprehensive controversy.

Since the 1947 Education Act was passed, there has been a continuing public criticism of the system of secondary education or more accurately of the principle of selection. Not unnaturally, as far as the majority of parents are concerned, the chief target was the 11+ examination. This was described by the white paper issued by the Ministry of Education in 1964 "Educational Development in Northern Ireland" as "the most serious educational problem at the present time"⁴ and this is still the case. The fundamental question is "whether the existing system of secondary education should be continued or should be replaced by a new system based on some form of comprehensive school."⁵ There have been a number of attempts to make this change, but these have been largely unsuccessful. In most areas where comprehensive schools exist, they were established because local factors made it necessary or expedient rather than because of a commitment to the non-selective principle.

A number of commentators have expressed the view that the lack of success which protagonists of comprehensive schools have had is largely due to the 1947 Act and the spirit in which it has been interpreted. Donaghy⁶ has contrasted the position here and in England and Wales and has documented fully the differences between the two white papers, Educational Reconstruction (England and Wales - 1943) and Educational Reconstruction in Northern Ireland (1946) and between the subsequent acts. For example, in paragraph 1 of the 1943 white paper, reference was made to the importance of "the social unity within the educational system which will open the way to a more closely knit society" and warning against the danger of its being impaired by diversity of provision.⁷ No such laudable sentiments grace the 1946 white paper which confined itself to noting that any changes would have to help the achievement of the twin objectives of equality of opportunity and acceptability to different interests.⁸

However, the major difference between the two enactments was in the capacities of the systems which were set up under each to respond to change. As Lord Butler later affirmed, the 1944 Act was a flexible document. He said that "one could have done anything in the field of secondary education - one could, for example, build up a whole system based on the non-selective principle."⁹ In contrast, the 1947 Act provided a rigid framework which has proved difficult to change. The reason for the rigidity was the need to achieve the acceptance of the various interests in order to preserve the socio-cultural balance in the community.

Donaghy has suggested that "while the Westminster legislation tended to be child-centred and idealistic, to leave room for the adapting of the system to suit the child and was, therefore, a most potent factor in the

emergence of the comprehensive secondary school in the years that followed its passing, the Northern Ireland Act tended to systematise education along lines already plotted out, to require the adaptation of the individual child to the system and, therefore, to retard the growth of comprehensive secondary education in the province."¹⁰ This is true as far as it goes, but what Donaghy has omitted to take into account is the significance of social factors in determining what was done in Northern Ireland.

Probably the most important of the existing sectional interests to which the new arrangements had to be made acceptable was the voluntary grammar schools. This represented a very influential body of opinion, since it reflected the views of the elite of both communities, Roman Catholic and Protestant, neither of which had shown much sympathy with the concept of comprehensive schools and both of which were concerned to see the salient features of the existing arrangements preserved. In 1944, the boards of governors of a number of grammar schools set up an organisation called the Association of Governing Bodies of Grammar Schools in Northern Ireland. No records of the association are extant but according to the historian of one of the schools most active in it, negotiations were conducted with the Ministry up to 1950. The negotiations included discussions on "the right of schools to take into account their own preparatory departments and family connections in deciding who should be admitted, to have a voice in the selection of other pupils and to be provided with funds on acceptable terms for the inevitable expansion which they would have to be prepared for."¹¹

The question of the preparatory departments of grammar schools is an important one. Out of a total of 81 grammar schools in the province,

40 have preparatory departments (see Table 4.4). One noteworthy and somewhat ironic feature is that 13 of the 21 controlled (county) grammar schools run fee-paying preparatory departments in competition with the controlled (county) primary schools offering "free" education.

TABLE 4.4³

Grammar school preparatory departments

Type of school	No. of schools	No. having preparatory departments
Controlled	21	13
Voluntary	60	27
Total	81	40

About $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ of the total number of children at the primary school level attend preparatory schools (see Table 4.5) and one might expect that this small percentage would have no significantly distorting effect on the school system. In fact quite the reverse is true. Wealthy parents can ensure grammar school places for their children by paying for them to attend the preparatory schools, the pupils from which in most cases have reserved for them one of the fee-paying places in the secondary department of the grammar school they have attended. This provides a convenient method by which wealthy parents can opt out of the consequences of the selective system, thus creating an elite who have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo.

TABLE 4.5

Pupils and teachers - primary schools and preparatory departments
of grammar schools

Type of school	No. of schools	No. of pupils	No. of teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio
Primary	1158	213,827	7687	27.8
Preparatory	40	5,507	217	25.4
Total	1198	219,334	7904	27.7

One of the major concerns of the grammar school lobby was and still is to preserve the existence of fee-paying grammar schools, thus making a clear and unambiguous distinction between them and the secondary intermediate schools which provide free education. Section 57(1) of the 1947 Education Act forbids fees to be "charged to a parent in respect of the admission of any pupil in any primary, intermediate or special school or in respect of the education provided for him thereat."¹² On the other hand, section 58 states that "the managers of a grammar school may, with the approval of the Ministry, determine the fees to be charged in respect of pupils admitted to the school."¹³ Given this distinction, parity of esteem between secondary and grammar schools was at best a meaningless fiction and at worst dishonest deception.

An aspect of fee-paying peculiar to Northern Ireland is the capital levy which a voluntary grammar school is allowed to impose on the parents of each child at the school in order to finance the school's proportion

of grant-aided building and equipment. The amount varies between what are known as Group A and Group B schools. A Group A voluntary grammar school is one which has agreed to reserve 80% of the places in the school for qualified pupils. The amount of the fees charged is settled in consultation with the Department of Education but the money cannot be used for capital projects. In return the school receives 65% of all capital expenditure and this can be raised to 80% under the 1968 Education (Amendment) Act if up to one-third of the governing body is made up of nominees of the Department. The remainder of the cost of building and equipment can be funded from the capital levy which initially could not exceed £3. This figure has now been raised to £15.

Of the sixty voluntary grammar schools, only four are in Group B. These schools have made no agreement about the reservation of places nor do they receive a grant. With regard to qualified pupils, the Department of Education pay a proportion of the fee charged to them and the rest is paid by the parents. No limit is placed on the capital levy which Group B schools can impose. The existence of the capital levy, which has been since its introduction a burning issue, is a dilution of the concept of free education. As a recent report of the Advisory Council pointed out, "Many parents find it difficult to accept that they must meet such charges in a system of free education."¹⁴

Probably the most far-reaching effect of the fee-paying concept was the influence it had on the public's perceptions of the qualifying examination at 11+, which was looked upon as a scholarship examination. Passing the "qualifying" was perceived as winning a scholarship, not passing was talked of as failing to get a scholarship and thus having to attend a school

where education was free. The homilies read at frequent intervals by the Advisory Council about the "misunderstandings and antipathies (which) abound"¹⁵ could not change this simple fact.

The concept of the scholarship has persisted to the present time. In 1971, the Advisory Council in discussing the selection procedure which replaced the original qualifying examination, noted that "Selection Procedure is a misleading title as the Procedure does not in fact select pupils to attend particular types of secondary schools; it selects pupils for the award of grammar school scholarships, provides information that is useful to parents when they have to take decisions on the future schooling of their children, and assists receiving schools in assessing new pupils."¹⁶ More recently, another report stated, "A qualified pupil at a grammar school is awarded a scholarship, the value of which includes the cost of tuition and an amount necessary to cover the cost of essential books and materials."¹⁷ Given this situation, it is difficult to see how the attitudes and perceptions of teachers and the public generally can be altered without a radical change in the system.

A number of attempts have been made to try to develop a structure where selection would be unnecessary. The first in the early 1950's was by Dr. Stuart Hawnt, then Director of Education for the Belfast Local Education Authority. In 1952, Hawnt made a three-month study tour of the U.S.A. and he seemed to have been impressed by the common secondary or junior high schools that he visited. On his return he prepared a report in which he suggested the establishment of a limited number of comprehensive secondary schools. The title which he wanted to use, "combined secondary schools" showed that he had in mind a type of bilateral school, which he

proposed establishing in areas of the city not well provided for in respect of grammar school places. His proposals were rejected by the Ministry in March 1953.

In October 1953, he put forward another plan in which he outlined a two-tier system not unlike that subsequently devised in Leicestershire, with junior high schools up to 15 years and senior high schools from 15 to 18 years. This was turned down by the Belfast Education Committee. It should also be noted that Hawnt resisted pressure from the Ministry of Education to build technical intermediate schools in Belfast and thus, unlike the rest of the province, the city had a bipartite rather than a tripartite system.

After the rejection of his reorganisation proposals, Hawnt set out to get parity of esteem¹⁸ for secondary intermediate schools. His decision to recommend a bipartite structure was one move in this direction, as was his backing for the secondary intermediate schools in their successful campaign to be allowed to enter pupils for the Junior Certificate and Junior Technical Certificate examinations, which initially had been confined to grammar and technical intermediate schools.

Hawnt's speeches at this time showed an insight into the question which few other educational administrators have exhibited. He showed himself aware not only of the technical problems associated with selection but with the social consequences of the system being operated. At the Ulster Teachers' Union conference in 1953 he said that "The dichotomy in our society being produced by the present system will in the long run prove anti-social in its consequence. Compulsory education cannot be justified as a conditioning process for some prescribed form of society, but rather

must provide standards of value for individual and community living, and act as a prophylaxis against the social diseases menacing us today."¹⁹ In February of the following year, he made a not very oblique reference to the grammar school: "No type of school should use its position in the educational system to bar experiment or to freeze the existing system so that it is unable to move forward into a new type of society."²⁰

The most interesting aspect of this affair is not that a non-selective system was not adopted, but that the leading educational administrator in the province was unable to make any appreciable change in the direction he wished to take, despite the support of a substantial section, probably a majority of teachers and of the general public. It seems to suggest that the balance of power and influence in Northern Ireland education was always biased towards the maintenance of the essential features of the educational status quo and confirms the view that the power within the structure to resist radical change is greater than the power to generate and promote it. This statement is still substantially true.

A somewhat more favourable climate of opinion prevailed when the next attempt was made to institute a system which would obviate the need to retain selection at 11+, against which pressure continued to build up from teachers and parents. By the mid 1960's, psychological and sociological research had developed a corpus of knowledge derived from empirical studies showing the detrimental effects of the system which was being operated. The work of Douglas and his collaborators²¹, Floud, Halsey and Martin²², and Husen²³ on the educational correlates of social class differences, of Yates and Pidgeon²⁴, and Rudd²⁵ on streaming, of Hargreaves²⁶ on attitudes, perceptions and other sociopsychological variables in schools

and of many other researchers contributed to an increased awareness of the undesirable concomitants of a system of selective schools. In addition, between 1951 and 1973, the Advisory Council for Education spent more time on selection, the structure of secondary education and related topics than on any other aspect of education.

When in 1965 Mr. W.J. Dickson, then Director of Education for County Armagh (now Chief Education Officer of the Southern Education and Library Board) began to consider the provision of secondary education for the new city of Craigavon, which was to be formed by the amalgamation and development of the two existing towns of Lurgan and Portadown, he began to think in terms of a non-selective system. The new city afforded the opportunity to experiment. The time was opportune for the previous year the Ministry of Education in a White Paper had pointed out that it was "the policy of the Ministry to encourage experiments designed to dispense with the necessity of selecting pupils for different types of secondary school. The Ministry will consider sympathetically agreements reached locally to reorganise the secondary schools of an area on a non-selective basis and proposals to establish in developing areas non-selective schools."²⁷

The development of the Dickson Plan as it came to be called has been described and analysed elsewhere.²⁸ It is a variant of the Leicestershire Plan on which it was originally modelled, with all pupils attending a junior high school from 11 to 14 years and then transferring to a senior high (grammar) school or technical high school providing further education and vocational types of courses. It differs from the Leicestershire Plan in a number of ways, for example, the method of transfer is not choice but selection, on the basis of which scholarships are given to attend fee-paying

grammar schools which can accept fee-paying pupils. Therefore, it seems that McStravick is right to argue that the Dickson Plan is a "comprehensive concept only as far as fourteen years."²⁹

The main significance of the non-selective reorganisation in Craigavon lies not in the details, but in the fact that it was the first time that a structure for secondary education had been devised without selection at 11+. The example set by the Armagh local education authority and the qualified support given to non-selective schemes in the 1964 White Paper have encouraged more debate on the issue of the reorganisation of secondary education and at least one other area in the province is considering the feasibility of a two-tier system similar to that in Craigavon.

A stronger commitment to the non-selective principle has been articulated by the most recent report of the Advisory Council, "Re-organization of Secondary Education in Northern Ireland" published in February 1973. The remit from the Minister to the Council was to consider the age of transfer from primary to secondary education and the existing selection procedure, but as Alan Burges, the chairman of the Council, in presenting the report to the Minister wrote in an accompanying letter, "Early in the course of our consideration we decided that recommendations concerning the age of transfer should be made only after the conclusion of a study into the application to Northern Ireland of various forms of school organisation."³⁰

The members of the Council considered six possible structures and itemised the advantages and disadvantages of each in appendix one of their report. Their main recommendation was quite unequivocal, "The Minister

of State (should) make now a declaration of intent to eliminate selection at 11+ as soon as possible through a restructuring of the educational system."³¹ Four of the sixteen members of the Council dissented from this course of action, arguing that "the province may best be served in the future by promoting a variety of educational institutions with extended and improved use of systems of transfer."³² They were particularly concerned with "the implications of the proposal.....that secondary education would be free."³³ Pointing out the strength of the voluntary grammar sector, proportionately much greater than the group of direct grant schools in England and Wales (75% as against 20% of the total number of grammar schools in their respective areas), they argue that the benefits of independence, individual initiative and parental involvement have been gained without "the development of a substantial, completely independent, 'Public School' sector as in Great Britain."³⁴ The obverse of this argument has been one of those used since the 1950's by those who favoured the selective system. It was strongly argued that the establishment of a comprehensive system of secondary education would inevitably lead to a number (the figure most widely quoted is six) of voluntary grammar schools opting for independent status, thus introducing into the Northern Ireland educational system another divisive factor and it has too many of these as it is. Others take the view that while such a step would be regrettable, the maintenance of a selective system with its attendant problems would be worse. Thus the price would have to be paid.

The debate will continue over the next few years. Not many people doubt that in a very short time selection at 11+ will disappear. The details of the structure of secondary education that will replace the present one is much more difficult to forecast.

Integrated schooling.

Perhaps an even more controversial question than that of selective or comprehensive secondary schools is what in Northern Ireland is called the "integrated education" or "integrated schools" issue, that is, should there continue to exist in the province two separate groups of schools, one attended largely by Protestant schoolchildren, the other by Roman Catholics, or is it desirable to move towards a system of common schools for all? It is a debate which has generated little light, a great deal of heat and no action.

It would be untrue to say that the present troubles are responsible for the current emphasis on this issue, because it has been the subject of lively if largely uninformed and polemical debate since the late 1950's for the same reason that attention was focused on the adverse consequences of selection, namely the prevalence of more liberal attitudes in relation to education generally. Mention has already been made of the phasing out of technical intermediate schools in the early 1960's, thus changing a tripartite into a bipartite system. It is somewhat ironic, as Knox has pointed out, that since technical schools were attended by pupils of all religions, "the liberalisation of educational provision has had the paradoxical effect of tending to diminish the existing integration not only at junior technical level but in grammar schools."³⁵

Much of the writing on integrated schooling tends to focus on the historical aspects of the problem. There were two attempts to set up a state system of integrated schools and both failed because none of the churches would accept the conditions on which they were based. In 1831, the National Board of Education for Ireland established a system of schools

in which secular instruction and religious education were kept separate, the latter being confined to outside school hours. Because of opposition from the churches, the policy of the Board was abandoned and the expansion of the existing sectarian system was tacitly accepted.

The 1923 Education Act, the first education act of the new Northern Ireland Parliament, established eight local education authorities to administer the education service which had hitherto been the function of central boards. The churches were invited to transfer their schools to the newly established authorities and all their expenses would be paid. The conditions of transfer were a prohibition on religious instruction during school hours and no account should be taken in the appointment of teachers of a lack of willingness to teach religion. Those schools which remained independent would receive teachers' salaries only. All the churches refused to transfer their schools. Over the next seven years the Protestant churches conducted a vigorous campaign, using such slogans as "The Bible is in danger" and "Protestant teachers for Protestant children", which in 1930 forced two fundamental changes in the original act.³⁶ Under the provisions of the 1930 Education (Amendment) Act, local authorities were obliged to provide religious instruction and teachers were obliged to teach it. Only then did the Protestant church schools transfer to the county system. As Darby later noted "In effect the state system had adjusted to satisfy Protestant objections, and by doing so had reinforced determination among Catholics to maintain their own schools. Neither side was to show much subsequent readiness to rediscover the compromises so emphatically rejected in 1930."³⁷ It is worth noting that the 1947 Education Act contained a clause enabling teachers to be excused from

giving religious instruction on grounds of conscience, the requirement in the 1930 Act having been pronounced ultra vires the 1920 Government of Ireland Act.

The influence of the churches both formally and informally in the present structure is both strong and pervasive. Since 1930, the transferors, that is the Protestant clerical managers who transferred their schools to the county system, have been represented on the local education and school management committees. More recently they have been joined by representatives of the maintained (i.e. Roman Catholic) school system. Under Schedule 2 of the 1972 Education and Library Order, the Minister appoints to each education and library board certain members representing various interests including the "transferors of schools in the area of the board" and "trustees of maintained schools in the area of the board."³⁸

The influence of the Catholic clergy is powerful at all levels in the maintained school system. In most dioceses, it is they who control the system at the school management committee level; it is generally priests who represent the maintained schools on the education and library boards; it is the bishops or their nominees who negotiate with the Department of Education and are identified by their statements as the public voice of Catholics on educational issues; and at the level of expert statutory committees and working parties priests are frequently nominated to represent the interests of Catholics. Although practice varies from area to area, parent-teacher associations are few in number, and little encouragement is given to parental, or other lay involvement.

The increase in the attention lately paid to school integration has not resulted, as one might have expected, in a growth of research work in

this and related areas. For example, the amount of mixing at school level is obscure. The first attempt to apply sociological method to the educational issues here was by Barritt and Carter in 1961. Their estimate that 98% (and probably more) of all Catholic children of primary school age attend Catholic schools has not been challenged.³⁹ In 1973, there were 177 secondary (intermediate) schools, 89 of which were voluntary or maintained (Catholic) and 88 were controlled (county). This indicates the parallel development of the two subsystems with a duplication of schools in all areas. Some blurring of the edges is discernible at the grammar school level, particularly in schools which have built up a tradition of a mixed enrolment due to the absence of a Catholic grammar school in the area. All institutions of further education (technical colleges) are attended by Roman Catholics and Protestants as are the two universities and the Ulster College (the Northern Ireland Polytechnic), but the three colleges of education are divided according to religion.

Therefore, it can be readily seen that at all levels with the exception of higher and further education, but including the training of most teachers, the split is fairly complete. Many argue that such a situation could not do other than impair social unity and they lay great emphasis on the contribution the schools can make to achieving the change in attitudes necessary to reducing conflict and tension. Others take an opposite view, insisting that the schools are ineffective in producing changes in attitudes. Thus Salters says that "Many people believe that formal education is a potent force in attitude formation. The view taken in this survey is that the role of the school in this field is marginal and secondary to that of the family and neighbourhood and the wider social

groupings to which the individual belongs."⁴⁰

A third and growing group adopt a position somewhere between the two. They would agree with Elvin that the optimism of many social reformers was "pitched too high..... The underlying forces of change are social. The role of education is subsidiary."⁴¹ But they would not accept in an unqualified form that the effects of schools on the attitudes of the pupils are negligible or marginal, if only for the reason that schools have been and are being used effectively for this purpose. One does not have to agree with either the means or the ends to notice the success of nazi or communist education in producing the changes in attitudes that were considered necessary by those who governed the state. The effectiveness of the early American common school in communicating attitudes to the new country and its values among successive waves of immigrants is a good example of the way in which a democratic country has coped with the problem. The mission schools of the various churches would seem to be physical embodiments of man's belief in his ability to exercise an influence on the development of attitudes in the young.

The point at issue is not the ability of the school to act as an agent of change but to act as a change agent against the wishes or attitudes of the community. There is plenty of evidence to suggest that schools can confirm and add weight to feelings, attitudes and beliefs that are already apparent in the community and to which the community is in some sense ready to respond, perhaps after being given an impetus and a lead. The school is relatively impotent to effect changes that run counter to current trends, beliefs and attitudes. It is, therefore, not a primary force for change but a secondary reinforcer, an agent of socialisation complementary to the primary agents. In this respect schools are like politicians in the sense

that they cannot get too far ahead of where people are ready to be led. As Lewin in a classic study put it, "As long as group standards are unchanged, the individual will resist changes more strongly the farther he is to depart from group standards."⁴²

Therefore, it is the nature of schooling in the specific social context, its purposes, curricula, methods and relationships, which are central to the problem and should provide the subjects of the debate and the topics for research. Unfortunately, the amount of research is minute and the chief characteristic of the debate has been uninformed polemic which has obscured important issues and inhibited potentially fruitful discussion and research. Furthermore, there has been in the main a notable imprecision in defining many of the relevant terms and concepts and a lack of understanding of the practical implications of many of the proposed solutions. The concept of integration which is central to the whole issue has rarely been satisfactorily analysed by those who use it. This is particularly true of politicians with axes to grind and it is often difficult to distinguish between what is said publicly and the philosophy of education and society which lies behind the statements.

In general, integration is defined almost solely in institutional terms. One group argues that relations between the communities will be markedly improved as a result of putting the children in common schools; the other group says that it will make no difference. Thus a former Minister of Education declared his "basic belief that the mixing of school children would contribute to a reduction in community tension in Northern Ireland."⁴³ On the other hand, a report of a local education and library

board meeting noted that one of the members, a Catholic priest, said "that he did not believe that integrated education would necessarily lead to a lessening of community tensions. In fact, there was sociological evidence to suggest that schools have a limited effect on the community and are not agents of social change."⁴⁴

These two statements provide a fair picture of the way the debate even at an informed level has been carried on. Indeed both are measured statements in comparison with some of the wilder claims that have been made. But the consequence is that differences are brought sharply into focus on the basis of beliefs and perceptions and the argument becomes polemical and doctrinal with definitive, absolutist and contradictory responses which are ineffectual in providing answers or in formulating questions for the purposes of research.

Research in Northern Ireland on the "integrated schools" issue is scanty and what little there is tends to suffer from lack of conceptual clarity and the presence of polemical argument. In the main, it has been confined to two aspects:

- (a) a description of the differences in content and emphasis in a few subjects of the curriculum, notably history; and
- (b) empirical studies of the differences in certain social attitudes of children in the two types of schools.

History is the obvious place to look for differences, and some researchers, including Robinson⁴⁵ and Hadkins⁴⁶ have indicated that schools are socialising children into two cultures which are not only different but exclusive and antipathetic. The part played by the teaching of history in this process both in Northern Ireland and in the Irish Republic has been

documented in a definitive article by Magee.⁴⁷ Darby has argued that this difficulty is not peculiar to Ireland but has had to be faced by all ex-colonial countries in coping with the problems of history in schools.⁴⁸ It has been suggested that music, literature and religious education are other areas where differences would be found but very few studies have been carried out in these fields.

The different cultural backgrounds can also be seen reflected in extra-curricular activities, notably sport. For example, Roman Catholic schools play Gaelic football and hurling and state schools and Protestant schools play rugby and cricket. Soccer is common to both systems and provides a point of contact in certain areas of the province. Darby⁴⁹ has blamed the authorities of the schools for giving little encouragement to inter-school contacts, but it can be said in mitigation that out of school activities have been seriously hampered by the troubles. Teachers are unwilling to take children out of the safety of the school. In addition, there is some evidence that the detrimental effects of the almost complete segregation are beginning to be understood and more energetic efforts are being made to promote inter-school contact in fields such as drama, sport, debates and holidays.

A small number of studies have been carried out to try to ascertain what differences, if any, there are in certain social attitudes between children in the Catholic and Protestant schools. This type of research is not centrally concerned with integrated schools but in answering such questions as, "Are children in Roman Catholic schools more or less tolerant (or civic-minded, or authoritarian) than those who attend state or Protestant schools?" The results are somewhat contradictory. Salters⁵⁰ found that pupils in Catholic schools were somewhat more tolerant and at

least as civic-minded as those attending state schools. McCormick⁵¹ measured differences between two groups of secondary schoolboys and found that the Catholic group were significantly less authoritarian and more tender-minded than the Protestant group. On the other hand, Graham⁵², using the semantic differential applied to three concepts (a typical Catholic, a typical Protestant, and segregated education) with four groups of thirty fourteen-year-old children (Catholic middle and working class, Protestant middle and working class) found no differences between the working-class groups but that middle-class Catholics were significantly more prejudiced than middle-class Protestants. No differences were found between the Catholic middle-class group and both working-class groups. Russell⁵³ found that Catholics were more likely to have negative attitudes towards government. Russell's study is the most comprehensive carried out so far (about 3000 school-children between the ages of 8 and 15 years completed questionnaires) and many of his findings are of interest. One perhaps significant item is that he found that violence for political purposes was more likely to be endorsed by those who were strongly religious, whether Protestant or Roman Catholic.

None of these researches has as its central focus the gathering of knowledge about integrated schools, although all the authors make deductions about it from their work. Both Salters⁵⁴ and Russell⁵⁵ are agreed that schools have only a limited effect on social attitudes. As Russell puts it, "The schools teach best what they have a monopoly upon: Greek, physics, etc. They certainly have no monopoly on political or religious education in Ulster. For instance, this study confirms findings in Scotland that school 'civics' has little effect upon basic political attitudes."⁵⁶ He then goes on to adumbrate some of the practical diffi-

culties of trying to set up a system of integrated schools, for example, the control and management of the schools, the appointment of teachers, and curriculum content especially in subjects where differences might be expected to exist such as religion, civics, history and literature.

Russell's points are finely and thoughtfully argued but are based on a concept of integration which is defined almost exclusively in administrative terms. This concept of integration is a static one. It diverts attention away from important dynamic elements in the situation, two of the most important being the conditions within the school which influence community attitudes and the dynamic relationship which exists between school and society. No attempt has been made, nor can it be until a pilot study of integrated schools in at least a small area of Northern Ireland can be carried out, to estimate the effects of common schools for Protestant and Catholic children on the members of a society in which consciousness of religious affiliation is so important that it is the characteristic by which most people define themselves. The question "What are you?" will in Northern Ireland almost invariably be answered by the respondent's religious affiliation.

Many of the conceptual difficulties are overcome by distinguishing, as many American social scientists do, between desegregation and integration. For example, Weinberg says that the purpose of desegregation is to try "to create new patterns of interaction by altering the organisational and administrative structures that contribute to segregation."⁵⁷ In the context of education in Northern Ireland, desegregation would involve taking decisions and carrying through administrative measures with regard to schools, the most obvious consequence of which would be to have Protestants

and Roman Catholic children educated together. Desegregation is, therefore, an administrative matter in the sense that it can be carried out solely by using administrative measures.

Weinberg defines integration as "the realisation of equal opportunity by deliberate co-operation and without regard to racial or other social barriers.....Education which is equally bad for everyone is not integrated education.....integrated education of low quality is a contradiction in terms."⁵⁸ What he seems to be urging is a more dynamic concept of integration of the type already mentioned, in which attention will be focused on the motivations, aspirations and perceptions of individuals and groups relative to society and to schools. It also highlights the process aspect of integration. The concept only makes sense when it is related to a context, that is, integrating with something or somebody. Thus teachers would be concerned with developing the children's capacities for integrating, a goal which requires the identification and learning of the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes.

To try to give a comprehensive account of the "integrated schools" issue as it relates to Northern Ireland is beyond the scope of this short account. It is sufficient to say in conclusion that it is a problem of great complexity, the solution of which has been hindered by the nature of the debate which tends to follow the pattern of meaningless statement and counter statement. It is necessary to cut through the welter of myths, misunderstandings and slogans and this can only be achieved when a soundly based research programme, which up to the present has been notably lacking, provides the insights and information necessary to inform the discussion.

The effects of the current unrest.

Not unnaturally, the stress imposed on pupils, teachers, and the general functioning of schools by the current unrest in the province is a subject of great concern. The effects of the "troubles" are particularly acute in the cities of Belfast and Londonderry, where the situation is compounded by the problems associated with urban areas in periods of rapid social change, but it would be wrong to assume that children in the rest of the province are unaffected by the inter-communal polarisation and strife.

There seems to be at least three distinguishable but related aspects:

- (1) the effects of the troubles on individual pupils as they become accustomed to living in a society which appears to give sanction to violence and a licence to behave anti-socially;
- (2) the direct effects of the civil unrest on the functioning of the schools, particularly the secondary schools; and
- (3) the responses of the teachers in attempting to cope with the problems.

Although a small number of studies on emotional disturbance and the effects of stress on children and young people have been carried out mainly by psychiatrists working in outpatient clinics, the chief sources of information about the problems are impressionistic accounts by doctors, teachers, social and community workers based in the troubled areas. For example, doctors have stated that the use of tranquillisers has increased particularly

among mothers of teenage children. There is some evidence to suggest that the children most likely to develop anxiety symptoms are those whose parents have manifested similar symptoms. If both these statements are correct, one could conclude that adolescents are more vulnerable to anxiety in the present situation than any other age-group.

There has been some difference of opinion among experts about whether or not the incidence of psychological disturbance has risen. In a study of depression and aggression in Belfast, Lyons⁵⁹ has noted that, in comparison with the years before the present emergency started, the number of depressives has actually fallen. He goes on to argue that if one restricts the definition of disturbance to anxiety symptoms and leaves out anti-social behaviour, then "relatively few children are disturbed."⁶⁰ Some psychologists and psychiatrists, more reluctant to limit the definition in this way, have pointed out that the effects of growing up in a society where prejudice and bigotry are prevalent and where anti-social behaviour is not only not subject to sanction but positively reinforced may have long-term repercussions which are difficult to foresee. Equally uncertain are the long-term consequences of less dramatic deprivations suffered by young people all over the province, who are being denied many of the normal opportunities for social interaction with their peers.

The direct effects of the current situation on the functioning of the schools are readily discernible particularly in the areas where the most serious disturbances have taken place. One teacher working in a primary school in West Belfast has summed up the views of many of his colleagues in the following passage, "The pressure on teachers has intensified.....Many of the teachers in these schools have complained

of an increasing weariness as they see the results of their efforts in schools in part stultified by factors beyond their control. Project work or homework involving research at the local library has been affected, as a trip to the library could prove dangerous in prevailing conditions.....
.....School trips have had to be curtailed and, when undertaken, impose extra strains on teachers and pupils.....Bomb scares at one period were numerous.....and added to the existing strains and tensions.....When shooting or serious rioting occurs in the immediate vicinity of the school, a flood of harassed mothers sweeps into the premises, bringing their often justifiable fears and anxieties with them."⁶¹

This passage depicts in stark terms some of the most newsworthy aspects of the types of problems with which teachers have to cope. But as Farrell has also pointed out, "There are long periods of comparative calm. Normal work continues and the regular life of the school proceeds."⁶²

One attempt has been made to look at the effects on the schools as perceived by the principals. A questionnaire was constructed by a group of five teachers and was sent to the principals of all the secondary and grammar schools in the province (N=255). The results, which are based on the returns from 159 principals, provide the data for an article⁶³ published in a special edition of the Northern Teacher (Winter 1973), the only academic journal for teachers published in Northern Ireland. The complete issue called "Children under Stress" was devoted to articles related to the current difficulties.

The questionnaire covered four main areas of concern:

- (1) administrative problems,
- (2) performance levels, curriculum and standards,

- (3) external difficulties,
- (4) the attitudes of pupils.

Schools in all areas reported difficulties which could be directly attributed to the current situation but, as was to be expected, the consequences were less disruptive in the more peaceful areas of the province. However, even in such situations, it is not possible to insulate the schools completely. The constraints imposed on extra-school activities and the difficulties of maintaining adequate standards of attendance and punctuality when transport is disrupted, are factors common to all areas.

Such difficulties were more characteristic of secondary than of grammar schools, in the majority of which the principals reported no serious deterioration in attendance, punctuality or in pupils' attitudes to work and study. This might be indicative of the differential effects of the troubles in middle and working class areas or it may be, as McKeown suggests, that "those pupils with high academic expectations are possibly immunised by these expectations against the distracting implications of the disturbances."⁶⁴

The principals reported a growing lack of respect for authority, more indiscipline, and an increased tendency to consider violence as acceptable, although again some differences existed between secondary and grammar schools. Such trends are not of course peculiar to Northern Ireland but the current troubles and the extreme rapidity of social change have caused their appearance here to be more marked.

As well as sharing the problems found in other areas, those parts of the province, which have experienced the worst effects of the unrest,

have a characteristic pattern of almost intractable difficulties. Typical problems include the inability to attract enough teachers, particularly those of a high calibre, a large rate of staff turnover, and the lack of adequate resources. Some districts have experienced large scale movements of population which have resulted in wide fluctuations in enrolment, leading on the one hand to excessive overcrowding and on the other to half-empty classrooms. An additional consideration for those teaching in schools in which the numbers have fallen, sometimes by as much as 70%, is the damage caused to their career prospects. The constraints imposed by trying to operate in such conditions and the stress imposed on the teachers by uncertainty not only about the effects on the pupils but on themselves, have made it difficult to maintain the quality of the education that is provided. As one commentator put it,

"The capacity of the schools to do their work effectively is gravely circumscribed in a situation where for the staffs the supreme achievement has become limited to remaining open to those pupils who seek to avail of its benefits."⁶⁵

Some teachers, particularly those who are working in the most difficult areas, have suggested that their greatest problem has been neither the physical constraints, the administrative disruptions nor the increasing prevalence of indiscipline and disturbance, but the sense of isolation that they feel, due to what they consider to be a lack of understanding and of support from the community. Others have commented on the clash of values between the school and society particularly with regard to violence, anti-social behaviour and attitudes to schooling.

There seem to be two types of response by schools to the problems

of civil unrest and although they are based on antithetical philosophical assumptions, some schools appear to oscillate between the two. The first has been called the "oasis" approach, in which the school is referred to as "an oasis of normality and/or stability" or "a haven of peace amid a sea of disturbances". Those teachers who try to implement this philosophy insist that the role of the school is to insulate the children against the worst effects of the troubles by keeping at least one part of their lives as secure and as settled as possible. One teacher has said that " the school provides a sort of security in an insecure world."⁶⁶

This position is perhaps best summed up in the words of a principal of a school in Belfast. He is quoted as saying, "We banned all reference to what was going on outside and as a result have created our own 'no-go land' where they still read fairy stories, work out their fantasies in plays about Cinderella and so on. Unreal you may think. I assure you that I have a school full of happy children who arrive shortly after 8.30 a.m. each morning, never leave the grounds all day and have to be beaten out of the place when it is closed up at 5.00 p.m. ..."⁶⁷

Opponents of this approach point out that it keeps the school too far removed from two of the most powerful influences on the children, namely the home and the local community, and divorces too rigidly the children's experiences in school from those outside. In addition, it represents an abdication by the schools of a significant role as an agent of change and renewal. Such teachers have put forward an alternative view. Although no empirical evidence is available, one gets the impression from informal discussions and school-based seminars that it is found mainly among younger teachers. They insist that the school cannot function effectively in isolation from the community it serves and unrelated to the important sources

of the children's experience. Even were it possible, it is undesirable. The curricula should provide for discussions of the moral dilemmas facing individuals and communities in the disturbed society in which they are living. The role of agent of change is a demanding one, but one which teachers should enthusiastically undertake, for only in this way can the schools make a contribution to the solution of many of the societal problems in Northern Ireland, including the reduction of prejudice and the promotion of tolerance and trust. As Skilbeck has pointed out,

"Unless teachers can learn to adopt this role and take up the challenges that go with it, the effectiveness of the school as a means of educating the community will rapidly diminish as other and more persuasive forces take over".⁶⁸

The development of guidance and counselling.

The historical antecedents of the guidance and counselling movement in Northern Ireland were discussed in the previous chapter. It remains now to consider how counselling has developed in schools and colleges in the province in the past few years and the influences that have contributed to its growth and given it direction. Since one of the most important of these is the development of counselling in England, it is necessary first to discuss this briefly. By far the most perceptive and persuasive analysis of events there has been made by Daws⁶⁹, who coincidentally has been one of the most important influences in guidance and counselling in Northern Ireland.

Writing of the position in England and Wales, Daws challenges the commonly accepted and somewhat simplistic view which attributes overriding significance in the development of counselling to the conference-seminar

convened in Bristol in 1963 by the National Association for Mental Health. For example, Milner appears to exclude all other factors notably educational ones. She states that "the development of school counselling was not a direct outcome of the sensitivity and foresight of educators, but was rather a result of the deliberations of the National Association for Mental Health and its attempts to live up to its name. At.....(the Bristol conference) it was felt that a more preventive and positive approach to mental health might be achieved by work with parents and in schools."⁷⁰ Even if the general line of this argument is accepted, it is hardly fair to suggest that educators were insensitive and lacking in foresight since the chairman of the conference was Lord James and Margaret Miles and Professor Ben Morris were among the participants.

One of the main recommendations of the conference was "That an Institute of Education should be asked to experiment with a pilot course for a number of selected teachers and social workers to equip them to go into schools as counsellors."⁷¹ But, as Daws points out, the Keele course was at this stage being planned and the origins of the Reading course owed more to European conceptions of guidance, which were more concerned with educational and vocational decision-making than with mental health.

While not in any way denying the importance of the Bristol conference in highlighting the influence of schools in promoting mental health and in recommending an experimental training course for counsellors, Daws⁷² rightly argues that the growth of counselling was one of the results of a complex pattern of influences and initiatives, educational, psychological, cultural and personal. During the 1950's and 1960's, the major emphases in the public debate on education, in official reports and in educational

research were concerned with such issues as fairness and equality of access to educational provision. Thus the public discussion tended to focus on educational structures, their possible reform and related matters rather than on what went on inside the school. The Newsom Report itemised certain changes that were taking place within schools, giving as the reason for doing so that "they are not appreciated as they ought to be."⁷³

The developments mentioned by the Newsom Report were in the areas of methods and resources. But other more fundamental changes were taking place and these were inspired by a concern with the overall well-being of the pupils that went beyond the quest for academic excellence. They included the development of social education and careers education programmes; attempts to improve liaison with external agencies; efforts to establish stronger home-school communications; and the introduction of more effective infra-structures for guidance and pastoral care. Another, perhaps less-publicised trend, was the development of new approaches to special education (e.g. the integration of the education of the handicapped into ordinary schools), which according to Jorgensen "found a particularly fertile soil in the Nordic countries and in England."⁷⁴

Daws refers to this movement as "the quiet evolution" because "it has avoided close public scrutiny and it constitutes a steady evolutionary progression rather than a revolution."⁷⁵ Counselling is seen as but one strand of this wider mental health movement which does not attempt to deny the validity of academic objectives but seeks to give at least equal importance if not priority to the all-round personality development of children.

One of the most interesting aspects of Daws' analysis is the light

that it throws on the initiation of the Keele and Reading courses in 1965. The original intention of both was to provide training for teachers in educational and vocational guidance skills but this was changed to an approach more orientated to counselling and mental health. A number of factors contributed to this change, for example, the influence of the National Association for Mental Health, the support of many educational psychologists; but perhaps the most important factor was the influence of the distinguished American scholars who came to help launch the courses. Gilbert Wrenn (Keele) and Gilbert Moore (Reading), were the first and they exercised a decisive influence on the nature of the courses. Daws writes of the part played by Wrenn at Keele, "His influence was unequivocally client-centred, non-directive and prophylactic in orientation. The main emphasis in the Keele course had moved from guidance to developmental counselling with a broad range of mental health objectives in view, including traditional guidance ones."⁷⁶

Much of what Daws says about the development of guidance and counselling in Britain applies to Northern Ireland. Here the public debate on schooling has also tended to focus on issues which are related to the possible reform of educational structures rather than on the content of schooling or on its purposes and responsibilities. Thus the de-segregation of schools and the reorganisation of secondary education to eliminate unfairness and provide for equality of opportunity were and continue to be the major topics of the public debate.

Two factors unique to Northern Ireland have been influential in promoting the development of counselling. The first is the current troubled situation which has helped to alert teachers to the vulnerability of many of the pupils to psychological distress. Many principals see an

important prophylactic role for counsellors in the early and prompt identification of emotionally disturbed children. In addition, attention has been directed to the need for curriculum development in the fields of social and moral education to try to provide an antidote to the learning of prejudiced and bigoted attitudes. Discussion methods, small group work and related techniques are more appropriate in these areas of the curriculum than conventional instructional methods, and the attitudes and stance of the teacher have much in common with that of the counsellor.

The second factor is the increasing pressure for the introduction of pilot experiments in integrated schooling. Research from American sources on the racial desegregation of schools appears to suggest that integrated schools provide for individual children challenges and opportunities which counsellors can help them to meet effectively. Weinberg has pointed out that "Desegregation is for many children a step towards individuation. Thus guidance and counselling grow in importance."⁷⁷

As in Britain and elsewhere, the mental health movement both within and outside the schools and vocational guidance were historically major sources of contemporary guidance and counselling in Northern Ireland. At the beginning of the 1960's there was a growing interest among teachers in systematic guidance work in schools. This was partly due to a diffuse and inchoate mental health movement within the secondary (intermediate) schools similar to that described by Daws in schools in England and partly to the stimulus given to careers work in schools by the courses in vocational guidance held at the annual summer school run by the Ministry of Education and by the establishment of the Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service. At that time it was vocational guidance concepts and practices that were

dominant but towards the end of the decade, the influence of the emergent counselling movement in Britain began to become evident and interest among teachers turned towards counselling. The most decisive feature in this change of emphasis has been the contribution made by those who were involved in or had contacts with counselling in Britain and of this group the most influential has been Peter Daws.

His introduction to guidance work in Northern Ireland was in 1962 when he was invited to lecture to the group of careers teachers attending the careers guidance course at the Ministry of Education summer school. Since that time, Daws has taken part in the summer school each year except 1963 and 1966 when no guidance course was run. Until 1967, the courses were concerned solely with careers guidance in secondary and/or grammar schools. In the following year, Daws took over the direction of the course and the title was changed from "Careers guidance" to "Guidance work in secondary schools with special attention to counselling", an indication of the change of emphasis. Five years later another innovation was introduced. Because of the number of teachers who had attended at least one short course in guidance, it was decided to run two one-week courses concurrently, one a basic course for newcomers and the other an advanced course in counselling skills for those who had previous training and experience. In each of the last two years, 1973 and 1974, over one hundred teachers attended the two courses. It is worth noting that until the first diplomates of the New University of Ulster guidance course qualified in 1972, the summer school provided the only training courses for guidance teachers in the province. Daws also helped to establish the New University diploma and one of his colleagues at Keele, Una Maguire, has been its external examiner. In addition, since 1970 at least one and

sometimes two teachers or college lecturers from Northern Ireland have taken the diploma of advanced study in education (guidance and counselling) course at Keele and have returned to work in the province. Thus the contribution and influence of Keele in general and Daws in particular have been considerable.

During this early stage of development, the Ministry of Education inspector responsible for guidance and counselling was Gerry Leonard, and much credit is due to him for its continued growth. As the organiser of the summer school course, it was he who somewhat fortuitously got Daws to come in 1962. Neither Alec Rodger who had helped with the course the previous year nor Roderick McKenzie were able to accept his invitation and the latter recommended Daws who was at that time in Leeds. The setting up in 1966 of the Ministry of Education working party on educational and vocational guidance in secondary schools and the establishment of the New University diploma five years later, were both largely the result of Leonard's persistent efforts. Since then, two award-bearing in-service courses for teachers have been initiated, a two-year part-time advanced diploma in education (guidance and counselling) at Queen's University and a one-term full-time course in careers guidance at the Ulster College.

The four themes discussed in this chapter, secondary school re-organisation, integrated schooling, the effects of stress resulting from the current disturbances and the growth of guidance and counselling are the salient issues in secondary education in Northern Ireland. Present trends would seem to indicate that there will be a move in the direction of a non-selective system at the secondary level in the near future, and one hopes, though this is less certain, that a pilot scheme of integrated schooling will not be long delayed. If either or both of these occur, it

is probable that the already fairly rapid development of guidance and counselling in schools will be markedly increased.

SUMMARY.

In this chapter, the main features of the system of secondary education in Northern Ireland are outlined and four major themes which are central to the development of secondary education are identified and discussed. These are the structure of secondary education, the issue of "integrated schools", the role of schools in a society in conflict and the initiation and development of counselling within the last ten years.

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PART II

The Survey

Chapter 5.

Introduction.

The main purpose of the present study is to assess the current position of guidance and counselling in secondary education in Northern Ireland. This involved ascertaining what facilities are available to guidance staff in schools, what duties counsellors and others carry out, what perceptions counsellors, principals and others have of the counsellor's role and what the attitudes of different professional groups working in schools are to guidance issues. The data was gathered during the sixteen months from September 1971 to December 1972. Therefore, when the survey commenced, almost ten years had elapsed from the establishment of the Northern Ireland Youth Employment Service and almost a quarter of a century from the appointment to the Belfast local education authority of the first school psychologist in the province.

There is a continuing lively interest in and much controversy about the structure of the school psychological and child guidance services. Are more child guidance clinics required? In the light of the demise of the Fortwilliam clinic, who should establish, control and administer them? For what range of maladjustment and emotional disturbance should they cater? As an alternative, should the school psychological service be expanded? These and related issues are still the subject of debate. A re-examination of the role of the youth employment officer in relation to the school, which has been imminent for some time, is now taking place, stimulated by the

circulation of the consultative document on the youth employment service.

In addition, the number of counsellors and teacher counsellors is growing steadily. These are part of the large group of Northern Ireland teachers, who have been exposed for the past few years to the new counselling ideology. This has happened at a number of levels, one or two of which have already been detailed. The most important are:

(i) Some of those prominent in the field of counselling in England have visited the province to give lectures, organise and run in-service courses and seminars, and act as consultants and external examiners for the main training courses. The efforts of Peter Daws, certainly the most influential of these, have already been described.

(ii) In the last four years, a small but increasing number of teachers from Northern Ireland have attended full-time counsellor training in England and have returned to take up counselling posts here. Some have gone to the University of Reading, but most have attended the advanced diploma course at Keele.

(iii) The new diploma training courses for counsellors, which have been established in the province, are beginning to have some influence as the number of teacher-counsellors completing the courses grows.

(iv) The interest in the curriculum aspects of guidance has been marked in the last five years or so. Curriculum development in social education, moral education, community relations and related fields have made many more teachers aware of the guidance possibilities in the curriculum.

For these reasons, it was thought to be an appropriate time to attempt a fairly thorough stock-taking in order that some of the most important issues and problems would be highlighted and discussed, and thus some pointers provided for future directions and developments. The immediate stimulus to commence the study was a series of discussions which took place between college of education lecturers and groups of guidance teachers not long after the circulation of 1968 Working Party Report on certain aspects of vocational guidance in secondary schools. The main object was to try to formulate policies regarding the place of guidance in the initial training of teachers and the kind of in-service courses required by those who wished to take up posts as form tutors, careers teachers or school counsellors.

Continuing contacts and discussions brought forward many issues and problems concerning the development of guidance and counselling in schools in Northern Ireland. As a result the idea of conducting the present study suggested itself to the author. The variety of issues raised and the range of questions asked seemed to call for a wide-ranging survey, in which an attempt would be made to see the field of guidance and counselling in Northern Ireland whole. From a methodological point of view, there is an obvious danger that such a "wide-angle" approach will lack depth. In order to obviate any difficulties and limitations that result, some selection of topics was necessary. It is hoped that the lacunae which remain will be filled by further research.

The instruments.

Five instruments were designed to collect the data for the study. The objectives of each will be described more fully later in the text

when the results for each are presented and analysed. The following outline is meant to provide a summary of the design of the complete study.

For each of the five instruments, there are given (a) a code number, (b) the type of instrument, (c) the date on which it was sent out, (d) the group or groups to whom copies were sent for completion, (e) the main purpose of the instrument.

1. (a) code number : Q/UK/1
- (b) type : questionnaire
- (c) date sent out : September 1971
- (d) those to whom copies sent : principals of all secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges.
- (e) main purpose : to obtain certain administrative details about the school, information about the guidance system in each, and the use to which the principal would put extra resources.

2. (a) code number : Q/UK/2
- (b) type : questionnaire
- (c) date sent out : December 1971
- (d) those to whom copies sent : the senior guidance teacher in each school.
- (e) main purpose : to ascertain the facilities available to guidance staff and the duties they undertake.

As a follow-up to Q/UK/2, five schools were selected for fuller

study. Each was visited for almost a full day and discussions were held with the principal and/or his deputy and some other staff members. A short schedule was made out to provide a framework for gathering the required information (see appendix G).

3. (a) code number : RS/UK/1
(b) type : weekly record sheet
(c) dates sent out : 5 separate weeks during the academic year of 1971-72.
(d) those to whom copies sent : a group of trained counsellors
(e) main purpose : to obtain information about counselling activities and the time taken by the counsellors to carry them out.
4. (a) code number : Q/UK/4
(b) type : inventory of counsellor activities
(c) date sent out : October 1972
(d) those to whom copies sent : counsellors and their principals
(e) main purpose : to find out how each group perceived the counsellor's role.
5. (a) code number : Q/UK/5
(b) type : attitude questionnaire
(c) date sent out : March 1972
(d) those to whom copies sent : eleven groups, namely counsellors in Stoke-on-Trent, counsellors in Northern Ireland, school psychologists, youth employment officers, educational welfare officers,

teachers from secondary schools, grammar schools and technical colleges and principals from secondary schools, grammar schools and technical colleges.

- (e) main purpose : (i) to ascertain the attitudes of the different groups to sixteen guidance issues;
- (ii) to analyse the results to find out if the issues are capable of being organised into broad factor groupings.

The construction of the instruments and the pilot work were carried out during the academic year 1970-71 which the author spent at the University of Keele. As has already been mentioned, the survey work was carried out in the year to eighteen months after his return to Northern Ireland. In the case of all survey instruments, the pilot work was carried out with the group of teachers who were doing the diploma of advanced study in education (guidance and counselling) course at Keele during the year 1970-71. With all except the questionnaire on attitudes (Q/UK/5), the main object of the pilot work was to ensure that no ambiguity existed in the wording of the statements and questions. The pilot work for Q/UK/5 is described fully in Chapter 7.

A copy of each of the survey instruments and a full statement of the results for each are to be found in the appendices, as follows:

	<u>Instrument</u>	<u>Results</u>
Q/UK/1	Appendix A1	Appendix A2
Q/UK/2	" B1	" B2
RS/UK/1	" C1	" C2
Q/UK/4	" D1	" D2
Q/UK/5	" E1	" E2 - E6

The two chapters which follow contain the analysis and discussion of the data obtained from the questionnaires. Chapter 6 includes a description of the guidance systems in the schools (Q/UK/1), the use to which principals of schools would put extra resources if more were available for guidance purposes (Q/UK/1), the facilities currently available to guidance personnel (Q/UK/2), and the duties they carry out (Q/UK/2, RS/UK/1). Chapter 7 is concerned with the perceptions of counsellors and their principals of the counsellor's role (Q/UK/4) and the attitudes of various professional groups to issues related to guidance and counselling (Q/UK/5). In chapter 8, the implications for the future development of the guidance and counselling services in Northern Ireland will be discussed.

Chapter 6.

Guidance in schools - structures, facilities and activities.

In September 1971, a letter (see appendix F) explaining the main purposes of the study was addressed to all the principals (headmasters and headmistresses) of all secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges in the province. Along with this letter was sent a copy of the survey questionnaire Q/UK/1 for each principal to complete.

The major objectives of Q/UK/1 were:

- (i) to obtain administrative details concerning the schools, namely address, numbers of staff and pupils, and the name of the teacher in charge of guidance and counselling in the school, so that future contacts would be facilitated. (sections 1, 2 and 3);
- (ii) to obtain information about the structure of the guidance system of each school (section 5);
- (iii) to ascertain how principals would make use of extra resources for guidance if such became available (section 6). In connection with the answers to this section, an additional objective was to examine whether the preferences of the principal were related to the type of school (grammar or secondary, maintained or county), the size of school, and in the case of secondary schools to the number of pupils taking external examinations.

The response to the questionnaire from all types of school was over 80% (see Table 6.1).

TABLE 6.1

Schools, the principals of which completed Q/UK/1.

Type of school	No. of questionnaires sent out	No. of questionnaires completed	% completed
Secondary	170	137	81%
Grammar	81	68	84%
Technical	26	21	81%
Total	277	226	82%

TABLE 6.2

Types of secondary schools, the principals of which completed Q/UK/1.

Type of school	No. of coeducational (mixed) schools	No. of boys' schools	No. of girls' schools	Total
County	52	4	7	63
Maintained/ Voluntary	36	21	17	74
Total	88	25	24	137

The high rate of response ensured that the schools for which copies of Q/UK/1 were completed, were representative of the different types of schools in the province, urban and rural, coeducational and single-sex, and in the case of secondary schools from both the county and the maintained/

voluntary sectors. Of the 63 county secondary schools, for which questionnaires were returned, 52 were coeducational; the corresponding figures for maintained/voluntary secondary schools were 74 returned, 36 coeducational (Table 6.2). The numbers of pupils in the schools ranged from over 1000 to under 200 in the case of both secondary and grammar schools (Tables 6.3 and 6.4), the median size of the former being 457 and of the latter 502.

TABLE 6.3

Size of secondary schools, the principals of which completed Q/UK/1.

No. of pupils	Type of school			Total
	mixed	boys	girls	
1000 +	1	-	2	3
800 - 999	3	6	7	16
600 - 799	12	5	6	23
400 - 599	31	7	5	43
200 - 399	34	5	3	42
199 and under	7	2	1	10
Total	88	25	24	137

All schools:
range: 146 -
1118
median: 457

TABLE 6.4

Size of grammar schools, the principals of which completed Q/UK/1.

No. of pupils	Type of school			Total
	mixed	boys	girls	
1000+	2	4	-	6
800 - 999	5	-	-	5
600 - 799	2	3	6	11
400 - 599	8	11	10	29
200 - 399	6	3	7	16
199 and under	1	-	-	1
Total	24	21	23	68

Structure of guidance systems in schools.

It is a long established tradition in schools in Britain that for the purpose of what has often been called "pastoral care", the pupils have been organised according to one of two systems, one based on the year group and/or the class group and the other on a specially formed "house" group. The former known as horizontal grouping ensures that the pupils in each group are roughly the same age. The latter, called the vertical grouping system, makes a virtue of the fact that all ages are represented in each group.

In Northern Ireland schools, the year (horizontal) system is by far the more popular. (Table 6.5).

TABLE 6.5

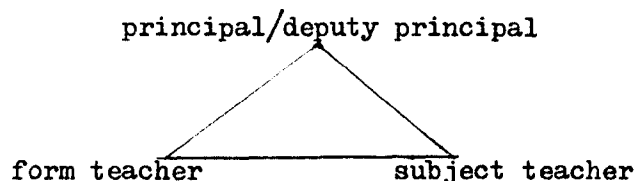
Types of guidance posts in secondary and grammar schools.

Type of post	No. of secondary schools (N=137)	No. of grammar schools (N=80)	Total (N=205)
Form tutor	85	49	134
Year tutor	25	7	32
House tutor	11	6	17
Head of house	10	12	22
Full-time counsellor	0	2	2
Part-time non-teaching counsellor	4	2	6
Teacher-counsellor	60	9	69
Teacher careers-adviser	120	64	184

Only 15% of secondary schools and about one-quarter of the grammar schools use a house system for guidance purposes, and many of the latter are schools which have a substantial number of boarding pupils. House systems are to be found in most schools but are mainly for sports and other competitive activities.

It is generally recognised that a strong formal organisational infra-structure is lacking in secondary schools in Northern Ireland, indeed it has been argued that this is the greatest single defect in secondary education here. Most of the schools have a basic staff structure which

is of the type referred to by Marland as the "single-order school pattern" type. In this system the academic and guidance functions are separated, the former being the concern of subject teachers and the latter of form teachers. As Marland has pointed out, there is "a single triangle of control and communication."¹



The five schools described later in this chapter have structures of this type. One noteworthy feature is that in all cases, the guidance aspect is less structured than the academic which has heads of subject departments in an intermediate level position between the school principal (including his deputy who is in many cases thought of as an extension of the principal) and the subject teachers. For this reason, guidance, welfare and disciplinary problems often reach the principal's notice very quickly. While this may in some cases have positive results, it is much more likely that difficulties could be resolved more satisfactorily by reference to a staff member at a level between the form teacher and the principal. Indeed it could be strongly argued that many cases should not reach the principal at all, since they could be more appropriately dealt with by a counsellor.

In addition, the role of the form teacher is often ill-defined and unclear. Marland, with some justification, considers the form teacher to be "arguably the most important person in the school" and yet the definition of the role is "often left to chance or tradition."² In many

cases the responsibilities of the position are defined simply in terms of "looking after" one or more of guidance, discipline, pastoral care and welfare. The imprecision associated with these and similar terms makes it possible for different people to ascribe different meanings to them.

The consequences are predictable. There is a lack of understanding among many form teachers about what exactly is required of them and about their place in the total school enterprise. Means of communication are informal and, while this can have some advantages in small schools, in larger ones, and most secondary and grammar schools fall into this category, a more formal structure with well-defined roles is necessary. It enables each staff member to see more clearly the contribution expected of him. It has the added virtues of allowing greater opportunity for all the staff to participate in decision-making and of providing all the teachers, but particularly the younger ones, with the professional nurture and support which they need.

Technical Colleges.

Since much of Q/UK/1 is irrelevant to the twenty-six technical colleges, a modified version of the questionnaire was sent to each. The colleges vary enormously in size from Belfast College of Technology with over 1000 full-time and nearly 7000 part-time students to relatively small institutions, the smallest having 155 full-time students.

The categories in Q.5 were changed and the returns are tabulated in Table 6.6.

TABLE 6.6

Types of guidance posts in technical colleges.

Type of post	No. of technical colleges (N=21)
Form tutor	9
Year tutor	-
Course tutor	10
Specially appointed personal tutor	1
Full-time counsellor	1
Part-time non-teaching counsellor	1
Teacher-counsellor	3
Teacher-careers adviser	17

The structure based on form teachers prevailing in most secondary and grammar schools is clearly inappropriate for technical colleges which have a number of entirely separate vocationally orientated departments and courses and a large proportion of part-time students. Form tutors are found in nine colleges, nearly all of which are running O and A level courses. Some principals pointed out that the primary function of the course tutors is to take academic responsibility for a particular course, often a vocational one.

Specified guidance roles.

(i) Careers teachers.

One of the best developed aspects of guidance in the schools is careers guidance, about 88% of secondary schools and 94% of grammar schools

having careers-advisers. These high figures are corroborated by a survey of one local education authority area carried out in early 1972 by the head of the area school psychological service. The 54 secondary and grammar schools in the area were sent a questionnaire and, of the 39 who replied, all had a careers guidance service.

In the present study, 81% of the technical colleges had a teacher-careers adviser, despite the fact that a number of heads mentioned that the traditional links between technical education and industry encourages each head of department to act as careers adviser for his students, many of whom he places in employment.

(ii) Counsellors:

About 34% of secondary and grammar schools claim to have teacher-counsellors, although it would seem from the amount of time provided for the work (see Q/UK/2 and RS/UK/1 - appendices B.2 and C.2) that the services in many schools could be fairly described as undeveloped and unlikely to make much impact. This is also confirmed by the local authority survey mentioned above. It was found that in eleven of the thirty-nine schools completing the questionnaire, a certain number of periods was allocated to counselling, although in only 3 was the allocation more than six periods.

Six schools each employ one part-time non-teaching counsellor. At least 5 of these are women who have both teaching experience and training as marriage guidance counsellors. Their initial responsibility in the school was to take small groups of pupils for discussions on sex education, personal relationships and related topics. The individual counselling has developed out of the group discussions in a similar way to that described by Anne Jones writing of her experiences in Mayfield School.³

Only two schools have full-time members of staff who are described as counsellors. Both are priests and their position is designated as either spiritual director or chaplain.

Training.

No question about training was included in Q/UK/1 for three reasons, (1) the writer was aware of the number of trained counsellors working in schools in the province, (2) the teachers on the first diploma course in guidance and counselling held in Northern Ireland, that at the New University of Ulster, did not complete the course until January 1972, and (3) one of the officers of the Belfast local educational authority had in September-November 1971 carried out a survey to ascertain the level of training of the teacher-counsellors in the secondary schools in the Belfast area. Of the 27 schools which replied, eleven had teachers who had attended at least one relevant short course, generally of one week as provided at the Ministry of Education annual summer school. At that time, there were in Belfast schools no teachers with a diploma or similar qualification in counselling.

By January 1972, the number of counsellors in the province who had received extended training numbered about thirty. Of these twenty-one had completed the diploma course at the New University of Ulster, two had taken the advanced diploma course at Keele, and as has been noted there were six marriage guidance counsellors working in the schools. The question of training will be considered more fully later. It is sufficient now to note that the situation with regard to training courses is now more satisfactory although the number trained so far is still only a small fraction of that required.

Methods by which school principals would use extra resources for guidance.

Question 6 (Q/UK/1) invited school principals to indicate how they would use extra resources if these were made available for guidance purposes. Four alternatives were presented and respondents were asked to rank them in order of preference. The returns are tabulated in Tables 6.7 (secondary), 6.8 (grammar) and 6.9 (technical colleges).

TABLE 6.7

Secondary school principals - choice of methods for using extra resources.

Method	No. of principals			
	1st choice	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice
Full-time counsellor	29	9	12	73
Teacher counsellor	43	35	41	9
Extra staff to improve teacher-pupil ratio (class)	41	31	28	20
Extra staff to allow more time for tutors	20	45	39	18
Total	133	120	120	120

No. of principals who did not reply : 4

No. of principals who gave 1st choice only : 13

TABLE 6.8

Grammar school principals - choice of methods for using extra resources.

Method	No. of principals			
	1st choice	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice
Full-time counsellor	11	8	4	28
Teacher-counsellor	23	11	15	6
Extra staff to improve teacher-pupil ratio	16	12	15	9
Extra staff to allow more time for tutors	10	19	16	7
Total	60	50	50	50

No. of principals who did not reply : 4

No. of principals who gave 1st choice only : 10

TABLE 6.9

Technical college principals - choice of methods for using extra resources.

Method	No. of principals			
	1st choice	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice
Full-time counsellor	6	2	4	6
Teacher-counsellor	9	6	3	1
Extra staff to improve teacher-pupil ratio	0	4	4	10
Extra staff to allow more time for tutors	4	6	7	1
Total	19	18	18	18

No. of principals who did not reply : 2

No. of principals who gave 1st choice only : 1

The lack of consensus among the principals about how to use the extra resources is readily apparent, each method receiving a sizeable percentage of first choices (see Table 6.10).

TABLE 6.10

Percentage of school principals selecting each method first.

Method	Percentage of principals			
	secondary (N=133)	grammar (N=60)	technical college(N=19)	all schools (N=212)
Full-time counsellor	22%	18%	32%	22%
Teacher-counsellor	32%	38%	47%	35%
Extra staff to improve teacher-pupil ratio (class)	31%	27%	0	27%
Extra staff to allow more time off for tutors	15%	17%	21%	16%

The most popular first choice of principals in all three types of institution was teacher-counsellor. This view was supported by talking to principals and deputies in the schools visited. There seems little doubt that many see a need in the school for a counsellor to whom pupils can take their difficulties and problems. The majority feel that he should be a member of staff sharing teaching and other school duties. It is interesting that 27 secondary school principals, eleven grammar and four from technical colleges selected a teacher-counsellor first and a full-time counsellor last of the four alternatives. Nevertheless, the number of principals

making the appointment of a full-time counsellor first preference was surprisingly high (secondary 22%, grammar 18% and technical 32%) (Table 6.10).

Despite these figures, however, it should be noted that the introduction of full-time counsellors into schools would not gain general enthusiastic acceptance. This alternative was chosen last by 61% of secondary school principals and 56% of those of grammar schools. Opinion among principals of technical colleges is more evenly divided. The percentage of principals who selected full-time counsellors as their preference is about the same as those who placed it last (33%). It may be that the staff structure in technical colleges, the disparate nature of their educational activities and the lack of a tradition of generalised "pastoral care" encourage a more ready acceptance of a full-time counsellor than would be the case in secondary and grammar schools.

Question 6 was formulated in such a way as to enable the results to be categorised into two groups as follows:

- (i) those principals who favoured the adoption of a "counsellor strategy", that is, the appointment of a counsellor, whether as a full-time counsellor or a teacher-counsellor; and
- (ii) those principals who preferred a "teacher strategy", that is, the employment of extra teaching staff either to enable a reduction to be made in the size of classes, or to enable form or house tutors to be released more often from class teaching in order to undertake guidance duties. A majority of principals in all types of institutions who completed the questionnaire favour a "counsellor strategy" (see Table 6.11).

TABLE 6.11.

Number of principals favouring each strategy.

Preferred strategy	Principals			
	secondary	grammar	technical	total
"Counsellor" strategy	72	34	15	121
"Teacher" strategy	61	26	4	91
Total	133	60	19	212

It was thought possible that the choice of a counsellor strategy or teacher strategy by the principal would be related to certain attributes of the school. Therefore, four propositions were tested:

- (1) choice would be related to the size of the school;
- (2) there would be differences between the choices made by principals of secondary schools, which emphasise the importance of external examinations, and those of secondary schools which do not;
- (3) there would be differences between the choices made by secondary school and grammar school principals;
- (4) there would be differences between the choices made by principals of secondary schools and those of technical colleges;
- (5) there would be differences between the choices made by principals of county schools and those of schools in the maintained/voluntary sector.

1. Size of school:

The view has been expressed that larger schools, in which the staff were accustomed to more specialist roles, would be more likely to choose the "counsellor" strategy and smaller schools the "teacher", which might help to provide a wider range of options and give more flexibility. In order to test this hypothesis, large schools were defined as those with a staff of over 50 and small schools as those with a staff of 19 and under. The number of large schools in the group was 13 (6 secondary and 7 grammar) and the number of small schools 55 (48 secondary and 7 grammar). The figures for the two groups (Table 6.12) show clearly that there was no link between the size of the school and the preferred strategy of the principal.

TABLE 6.12

Size of school and principal's choice of strategy.

Size of school (no. of teachers)	Strategy preferred	
	counsellor	teacher
19 and under	29	26
50 and over	7	7

2. Proportion of pupils in secondary schools doing external examinations.

It has often been said that it is not possible to graft counselling on to existing school practice. For example, it has been suggested that the traditional elitist approach to schooling, stressing mental excellence rather than mental health, curtails the scope of guidance to educational and vocational matters. More often than not, this view is expressed with

too little qualification, for the congruence between theory and practice is far from perfect.

One possible indicator of the philosophical assumptions which underpin the practice in a secondary school is the emphasis or lack of it on external examinations. On the basis of enquiries among teachers in secondary schools, it was reckoned that if the number of students doing external examinations was expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment, then a figure of 10% would be an appropriate dividing line. It should be noted that this survey was undertaken before CSE became established as a major examination in the province. The relevant figures are found in Table 6.13.

TABLE 6.13

Secondary school pupils doing external examinations and principal's choice of strategy.

% of enrolled pupils doing external examinations	Strategy preferred	
	counsellor	teacher
Under 10%	33	24
Over 10%	39	38

There was no significant difference between the two groups of schools. ($\chi^2 = 0.69$, df. = 1).

3. Secondary and grammar schools.

The difference between the preferred strategies of the principals

of secondary and grammar schools were examined, but, as is apparent from Table 6.14, no significant difference was found. ($\chi^2 = 0.11$, df. = 1).

TABLE 6.14

Type of school (secondary and grammar) and principal's choice of strategy.

Type of school	Strategy preferred	
	counsellor	teacher
Secondary	72	61
Grammar	34	26

4. Secondary schools and technical colleges.

The difference found between the choices of principals of secondary schools and technical colleges (see Table 6.15) was not significant. ($\chi^2 = 3.23$, df. = 1).

TABLE 6.15

Type of institution (secondary school and technical college) and principal's choice of strategy.

Type of institution	Strategy preferred	
	counsellor	teacher
Secondary school	72	61
Technical college	15	4

5. County and maintained/voluntary secondary schools.

Some writers, notably in the U.S.A., have pointed out that guidance should be a salient feature of Catholic education. Traditionally in Roman Catholic schools, guidance has had a more directive orientation than the contemporary guidance movement would allow, but in the early sixties in the U.S.A., the emphasis began "to shift from guidance as character moulding to guidance as fostering the growth and development of the entire personality."⁴ It was thus decided to test whether differences did exist between county and maintained/voluntary secondary schools as shown by the choices made by the principals (see Table 6.16). Some difference was discerned, but it was not significant. ($\chi^2 = 3.12, df. = 1$).

TABLE 6.16

Type of secondary school (county and maintained/voluntary) and principal's choice of strategy.

Type of school	Strategy preferred	
	counsellor	teacher
County	28	34
Maintained/voluntary	44	27

Questionnaire Q/UK/2.

Out of the 277 schools and colleges in the province, 226 principals completed questionnaire Q/UK/1, one of the questions of which asked the principal of each school to give the name of the guidance teacher/teacher-

counsellor/careers teacher in the school, so that a copy of questionnaire Q/UK/2 could be sent to each (the term guidance teacher will be used throughout this chapter to cover both teacher-counsellors and careers teachers). Only one copy of Q/UK/2 was sent to each of the 226 schools and colleges. In those cases in which the principal named more than one guidance teacher, it was suggested that they should complete the questionnaire together. In addition to the 226 sent to the guidance teachers named by the principals, a copy was sent to each of the 51 schools whose principals did not complete Q/UK/1. 152 schools and colleges returned completed useable questionnaires (see Table 6.17).

TABLE 6.17

Schools from which completed questionnaires (Q/UK/2) returned.

Type of school	No. of schools in the province	No. of completed questionnaires returned
Secondary	170	100
Grammar	81	44
Technical college	26	8
Total	277	152

Therefore, there is data for 59% of the secondary schools, 54% of the grammar schools and 31% of the technical colleges. The latter received a slightly modified version of Q/UK/2. Most of the technical colleges, which did not return completed questionnaires, were the smaller institutions,

sometimes with less than 200 full-time students, and whose main commitment was in the field of part-time and day release work. There was a wide range of location, catchment area and size (for the latter see the tables in appendix B2). The numbers of coeducational and single-sex schools are given in Table 6.18.

TABLE 6.18

Secondary and grammar schools for which Q/UK/2 was completed.

Type of school	mixed	boys	girls	total
Secondary	54	17	29	100
Grammar	18	12	14	44

The objectives of questionnaire Q/UK/2 were:

- (i) to ascertain the facilities which the guidance teachers in the schools had for guidance purposes (rooms, furniture and equipment, telephone, secretarial assistance and finance for tests, equipment, books and other materials);
- (ii) to find out the guidance teacher's assessment of the facilities in his/her school (using a four point scale - outstanding, satisfactory, fairly satisfactory and unsatisfactory);
- (iii) to ascertain the duties which guidance teachers undertake and the time available to each to carry them out.

Staff.

The main reason for asking for the number of guidance staff in each

school was to assess the facilities on the basis of the number involved. In fact, the question proved irrelevant because the number of rooms and equipment available were generally more generous in schools where one trained teacher-counsellor was operating than in those where the duties were divided over a large number of staff (see Table 6.19).

TABLE 6.19

Number of staff in a school involved in guidance.

No. of guidance staff in a school	Type of school		
	secondary	grammar	technical college
1	33	23	1
2	38	10	5
3	9	4	0
4	5	6	0
5+	15	1	2
Total	100	44	8

Facilities.

Despite the report by one guidance teacher that "the headmaster comments that these questions (i.e. Q/UK/2) do not judge the quality of the guidance given and that the provision of facilities alone does not ensure satisfactory guidance"⁵, a sentiment with which one would find it difficult to disagree, it is generally accepted that, for the efficient functioning of a school guidance service, certain basic facilities are required. The report of the working party on "Certain aspects of vocational guidance in schools" (1968) suggested the requirements were an interview room with desk,

chairs, telephone, bookshelves and filing cabinet, and a waiting-room or waiting area with table, chairs and display space. Furthermore, it has been pointed out often that the counsellor's office should be attractively decorated and comfortably furnished. On the basis of the findings of this survey, few schools in Northern Ireland could claim to be well provided for.

Rooms.

TABLE 6.20

Rooms available for use by guidance staff.

Type of accommodation	Type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical college (N=8)
Interview room - sole use	16	11	1
Interview room - shared use	37	18	4
Waiting-room	1	3	0
Secretary's office	0	0	0

In only 16 of the secondary schools, 11 of the grammar schools and one of the technical colleges, that is, less than 20% of the institutions in the group, had the guidance teacher the basic facility of a room of which he could claim exclusive use (Table 6.20). A further 59 institutions (37 secondary, 18 grammar and 4 technical colleges) had the use of a specific room for guidance at certain times. In the case of 19 of these, the room

was specified as follows: in 6 schools, the medical room was used, in 5 a classroom, in 3 a storeroom, in 2 a staffroom, and in one each, the senior master's room, the prefect's room and the caretaker's room. Many of the responses to question H (Section I), in which guidance teachers were invited to make comments on the facilities for guidance evince some interesting features. It is possible to discern a certain informality in the procedures for guidance and a lack of urgency about the facilities required. In many schools it was accepted that the guidance teacher would use the room in which he taught his subject. As one noted, "All careers and counselling work has to be carried out in the classrooms of the two teachers responsible, i.e. a science room and a music room - no other space is available. A room may become available in the extensions to the buildings which are about to start."⁶ A typical example is described by another respondent, "The guidance room is a normal classroom - the science room. Interviews with the youth employment officer are held in the medical inspection room, if available, or in the preparation room of the science department."⁷

Despite the well-known ability of teachers to improvise and "make do", it is clear that a lack of a room exclusively for guidance is a serious deficiency in a school. For example, one guidance teacher stated, "The room being used for interview purposes is one of two offices used by the headmaster. It is available when necessary but interviews are constantly interrupted by people looking for the principal."⁸ In another school "various rooms are used according to availability and interviews may even be conducted in the corridor."⁹

It is evident from the responses that the accommodation available

for use by guidance teachers is wholly inadequate. Apart from the provision of a room for interviewing, most consider, as the members of the 1968 Working Party did, that a waiting-room or area is a necessary facility. This is provided in only four schools, one secondary and three grammar, and in the case of one of the latter it is one of the private rooms of the residential chaplain.

Furniture and equipment.

All rooms used for guidance purposes, whether exclusively or shared with other school activities, had at least a table or desk and two chairs. The attributes of attractiveness and comfort seem to have been regarded less than highly in most schools since only 24 of the rooms had easy chairs. The figures for other items of equipment shown in Table 6.21 would seem to confirm the view that guidance is considered in most schools to have a low priority.

TABLE 6.21

Furniture and equipment available to guidance staff.

Type of furniture/ equipment	Type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical college (N=8)
Filing cabinet	38	23	4
Cupboard	20	12	2
Bookshelves/ bookcases	27	23	5
Display space	46	19	2
Typewriter	2	3	1
Tape recorder	5	3	0

Telephone.

Because of the importance of liaison with outside school agencies, it is generally recognised that a telephone is an essential piece of equipment in a properly equipped set of rooms for guidance. Out of 152 schools only 13 had either a direct line or an extension to the main school telephone. For the rest, the majority had the use of either the principal's telephone or that of the school secretary (Table 6.22).

TABLE 6.22

No. of schools in which a telephone is available for use by guidance staff.

Telephone	Type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical college (N=8)
Own telephone line	0	1	0
Own extension	3	7	2
Others (e.g. principal's)	54	14	5
No answer	1	0	1

Secretarial assistance.

Most of those local education authorities in Britain that have accepted the need for counsellors in schools and are trying to ensure as a matter of policy that there is one in each secondary school, have provided the counsellors with the services of a part-time secretary. For example, in Stoke-on-Trent, the counsellors in the junior high schools and the sixth

form college have a secretary on a half-time basis. Table 6.23 shows the figures for the availability of secretarial help to counsellors in Northern Ireland secondary schools. The only secretarial assistance is provided by school secretaries whose help can be sought after their other tasks have been completed. This happens in less than half the schools.

TABLE 6.23

No. of schools in which guidance staff get secretarial assistance.

Secretarial assistance	Type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical college (N=8)
None	48	29	3
School secretary (when available)	49	12	4
No answer	3	3	1

Finance.

The method by which money is made available for guidance purposes, e.g. for buying tests and curriculum materials, is an important one. It gives some indication of whether or not guidance is seen as part of the mainstream work of the school and financed by requisition like all other departments, or quite informally as a peripheral activity. In only 14 schools was the former method in operation. In the remainder which responded, the arrangements were entirely informal (Table 6.24).

TABLE 6.24

Method of providing finance for materials for guidance.

Method	Type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical college (N=8)
Fixed yearly requisition	11	3	0
Informal	77	38	7
No answer	2	3	1

Guidance teachers' assessments of facilities.

The most interesting and perhaps the most important factor revealed by the survey is the assessment of the facilities for guidance in each school made by the guidance teachers. The responses to the previous questions have shown that, even by minimum standards, the provision in the majority of schools is totally inadequate and in almost all somewhat deficient. Despite this, the returns show that guidance teachers are less critical of the inadequacies and deficiencies than the situation warranted (see Table 6.25). If one adds together the numbers who assessed the guidance provision in their schools as outstanding, satisfactory and fairly satisfactory, it can be seen that about one half of the respondents were at least fairly satisfied with the facilities provided.

TABLE 6.25

Guidance teachers' assessments of the facilities available to them.

Facilities	Outstanding	Satisfactory	Fairly satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
Rooms	2	38	39	71
Furniture/ equipment	1	35	38	76
Telephone	1	43	30	76
Secretarial assistance	0	45	30	74
Finance	2	39	42	68

No. of teachers replying : 150

No answer : 2

TABLE 6.26

Guidance teachers' assessments of facilities (consolidation of first 3 columns of Table 6.25).

Facilities	At least fairly satisfactory	unsatisfactory
Rooms	79	71
Furniture/ equipment	74	76
Telephone	74	76
Secretarial assistance	75	75
Finance	82	68

Some corroboration of these findings is provided by the results of a survey¹⁰

carried out by the youth employment officers based in Ballymena and Coleraine in the schools for which they are responsible. The number of schools involved, which are all within the North-Eastern Education and Library Board area, was 64, just less than one-quarter of the total number of secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges in the province. An office for interviewing was considered necessary by just over 50% of the careers teachers, a figure which matched closely that for those who felt that access to the school minibus was essential. The percentage who thought that a filing cabinet for storing information was necessary was over 90%: the corresponding figure for display stands was about 80%.

It may be argued with some degree of justification that these figures tell us more about the guidance teachers and their concepts of careers guidance than about the facilities required. However that may be, it is an extremely important point for the development of guidance and counselling in schools and colleges, because the guidance teachers and teacher-counsellors should provide one of the most effective groups in pressing for improved facilities. The likelihood of such improvement is inversely proportional to the satisfaction of those who are working in the field with the facilities at their disposal.

One can only speculate about the reasons why there is an apparent disparity between the conditions in schools and the evaluation of them made by the guidance teachers. It may be that like other groups, they are unwilling to criticise too harshly the conditions under which they work, particularly if the amelioration of those conditions is perceived by them to be at least partly under their own control. It may be that an informed assessment by guidance teachers is hardly possible because of deficiencies

in training and a consequent lack of understanding of what is necessary. Another possible explanation relates to the well-known capacity of teachers to make the best of sub-standard conditions and inadequate resources. It is partly confirmed by the answers to question G(11) in which guidance teachers were asked "What facilities do you consider to be essential to the effective working of a school guidance and counselling department?" Of the 120 who answered the question, 105 insisted that an interview room adequately furnished and used exclusively for guidance purposes was the minimum requirement. The individual items listed and the number of times each was mentioned is given in Table 6.27.

TABLE 6.27

Facilities considered essential by guidance teachers.

Facilities	No. of guidance teachers (N= 120)
Interview room	105
Time	62
Telephone	46
Furniture/equipment (various types)	39
Secretarial assistance	27
Careers literature	17
Training	12

The comparison between the 105 teachers who stated that an interview room was essential and the 79 who felt that the situation with regard to rooms in their schools was at least satisfactory, seems to indicate that

teachers prefer, when faced with inadequate facilities, to improvise and make do rather than be too severely critical. This attitude is neatly summed up by the guidance teacher who wrote, "Any interviews are conducted either in the staffroom or in the headmaster's office, whichever is available. When pupils indicate to me that they wish to see me on a counselling matter, I arrange to see them in the staffroom or an empty classroom during one of my non-teaching periods. I arrange with the teacher concerned to allow the pupil out of class to come to see me then. This works out fairly well. I keep all careers and counselling papers in a locked filing cabinet in the Art room. We manage fairly well, but it would be great to have one room which could be used specifically for guidance/counselling/careers."¹¹

There is some recent evidence to suggest that guidance teachers in Northern Ireland are beginning to raise their standards in assessing what is acceptable to them as regards facilities for guidance. A number of groups of careers teachers and school counsellors have been pressing for improved conditions. A typical example is a report produced by the careers teachers in the Western Education and Library Board area on "The need for better provision in schools and colleges for careers education." The authors argue that "The careers suite should consist of three rooms, a combined library, reading room and classroom, an interview room and an office. The classroom should have 'stackable' tables and chairs, storage space, wall-boards and blackboard stands. It should also be wired for radio, T.V., films and be curtained for darkening (sic). The office should also be adequately furnished.....; equipment should include a good modern desk, adequate filing cabinets, bookcase and telephone. An interview room needs an informal atmosphere necessary for relaxed convers-

ation, easy chairs, low table, carpet and some ornaments.....
.....The careers teacher must have competent clerical assistance.....
Good display facilities should be located at strategic points throughout
the school.....(For the purposes of finance) careers education
should be considered as a separate subject on the timetable."¹²

Section II.

Section II of questionnaire Q/UK/2 was concerned with the time available to guidance teachers for guidance work (questions A, B and C) and the duties they are expected to fulfil (questions D and E): Question F invited each guidance teacher to comment on the items in the section.

Time.

To enable useable material on time allowances to be obtained from the responses, it was necessary that all three questions (A, B and C) dealing with this issue were answered. For this reason, it was not possible to use the returns from two of the secondary schools, two of the grammar schools and one of the technical colleges. Details are available for 108 secondary school teachers (98 schools), 42 grammar school teachers (42 schools) and 7 technical college teachers (7 colleges).

Time spent teaching school subjects.

The time spent by guidance teachers teaching school subjects is given in Table 6.28.

TABLE 6.28

Time spent by guidance teachers teaching school subjects.

Time (in hrs. and mins.per week)	No. of teachers	
	secondary (N=108)	grammar (N=42)
Under 15 hours	6	4
15.00 - 17.29	7	4
17.30 - 19.59	23	15
20.00 - 22.29	37	13
22.30 - 24.59	30	6
25 hrs. and over	5	0

As can be seen, the range is extremely wide, the smallest weekly teaching load is 9 hrs. 55 mins. and the largest 28 hours. These are, of course, atypical extremes; the majority of guidance teachers have a teaching load much closer to the statutory weekly minimum of twenty hours. 83% of those in secondary schools and 81% of those in grammar schools teach between 17½ hours and 25 hours per week. Only ten guidance teachers have a teaching commitment of under 15 hours per week and most of these are vice-principals, one of whose main duties is guidance. Perhaps the most significant statistic for an evaluation of the status of guidance and the attitudes of staff to it is that over half the guidance teachers (72 in secondary and 19 in grammar schools) have a weekly teaching load of over 20 hours. This suggests that a large number of schools are not availing of the concession made in Ministry of Education circular 1968/54, under which the principal of a school is permitted to reduce the teaching load

for a guidance teacher to 15 hours without informing the Ministry.

Time given to group work (group guidance and discussion).

In the past few years, one of the most important developments in the guidance field, not only in careers but also in other guidance areas, has been the interest paid to the curricular aspects of guidance.¹³ Group work is one of the most effective methods of doing such work, but the amount of time given to it in most schools in Northern Ireland is almost negligible and, in almost half, there is no group work at all (Table 6.29).

TABLE 6.29

Time spent by guidance teachers on group work (guidance).

Time (in hrs. and mins. per week)	No. of teachers		
	secondary (N=108)	grammar (N=42)	technical college (N=7)
None	40	29	4
Less than 1.59	41	8	3
2.00 - 3.59	21	4	0
4 hours and over	6	1	0

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the figures. Where group work is done, the amount in all but a small number of schools cannot be much more than one period per week for one or two classes. This would seem to suggest that systematic curriculum development in the guidance field, including careers and social education programmes, is at an early stage

here. It would appear also to indicate that vocational guidance is mainly concerned with the interviewing of pupils and parents and the provision of information by occasional lectures and books and pamphlets. Little attempt is made to provide for careers and other information to be discussed in groups.

One further point is worth noting, when one adds subject teaching and group work together, the mean time spent on both by secondary school guidance teachers is 21 hours 49 minutes, and by those in grammar schools 20 hours 37 minutes. Furthermore, only 18 secondary and 20 grammar school guidance teachers have less than 20 timetabled hours per week and only one secondary (a part-timer) and two grammar school guidance teachers (both are vice-principals) have a weekly teaching commitment of less than 15 hours.

Time spent on individual interviewing.

The time which can be spent each week on individual interviewing is given in Table 6.30.

TABLE 6.30

Time spent by guidance teachers on individual interviewing.

Time (in hrs. and mins. per week)	type of school		
	secondary (N=108)	grammar (N=42)	technical college (N=7)
None	25	13	0
Up to 1.59	35	6	4
2.00 - 3.59	31	12	3
4.00 - 5.59	12	5	0
6 hours and over	5	6	0

Range: (hours and minutes)	secondary: 0 - 9.20	Mean: (hours and minutes)	secondary: 2.07
	grammar : 0.12.00		grammar : 1.49
	technical: 1.20 - 3.20		technical: 1.51

The number of periods scheduled for interviewing varies considerably from school to school but, in a substantial number of schools, the time available is quite clearly inadequate. In 56% of the secondary schools, 45% of the grammar schools and 57% of the technical colleges, less than two hours per week is scheduled for individual interviewing. If one accepts for the purposes of calculation that four pupils can be seen in that time, and that would be giving only a minimum time to each, it would enable the guidance teacher to carry out 100 or so interviews every year; and this figure is probably an over-estimate.

It is apparent that a substantial amount has to be undertaken outside normal school hours. As one guidance teacher stated in reply to question F (Section II), "I have seven periods in the week designated as non-teaching (providing no staff member is absent), into which I have to fit all my 'outside-class' duties. This is clearly unsatisfactory, indeed impossible and, therefore, I have to see to many of these matters in my own time, i.e. after school and even at home. Occasionally I use a teaching period for a careers lesson with a class. Staff absences can mean no time available in school hours. What I consider to be an essential function of any school, i.e. the guidance of its students, particularly personal counselling, is being badly neglected."¹⁴

Such critical comments show that guidance teachers find the amount of time they have for guidance work insufficient. Confirmation is provided by the findings of the North-Eastern Board study already mentioned. About 80% of the careers teachers who completed questionnaires felt that they

should be able to devote 25%-50% of their time to careers work, that is, a minimum of five to ten hours per week.

It is possible to make at least two important inferences from the answers to the questions on the time available for guidance work. The first is that for nearly all guidance teachers, guidance and counselling is not the major focus of their work in school. This is corroborated by the replies to question F. For example, one respondent pointed out, "I am given 4 free periods a week to cover the showing of career films, to interview individual boys (100 a year), to conduct industrial visits, to organise school visits from outside agents, to fill in cumulative record cards, etc. No assistance is given in this specific work of careers guidance. My remaining free periods (5) are spent in organising and collecting savings and looking after the English Department. In the case of counselling I have the assistance of six other members of staff. It is worth bearing in mind that the school is taking boys to GCE A level. As head of the English Department, I am responsible for the examination classes. One can well image the preparation and marking necessary - this, of course, has to be done at home."¹⁵ Another guidance teacher put it more baldly, "I have other senior responsibilities in the school and I'm afraid I can only do most of the work in my spare time in my own classroom. I do not feel this work to be my primary responsibility."¹⁶

Even those who have no senior responsibilities outside the guidance field spend most of their time in school in activities other than guidance, for example class teaching. This is not to argue in favour of the introduction of full-time counsellors but simply to point out that if a teacher has a responsibility post for guidance, it seems reasonable to suggest that he should spend at least as much time at guidance work as he should at other

activities.

Secondly, the time scheduled for guidance gives an indication of the attitudes of the staff and, particularly, of the principal to guidance and counselling. It has rightly been claimed many times that the good will and support of the principal and staff are essential for the development of guidance and counselling in a school and that resistance by either makes the task of the counsellor impossible. It is apparent that in many schools the degree of importance attached to counselling is extremely limited. As one careers teacher pointed out, "My problem.....is not so much facilities but the attitude of my principal and some members of staff to careers guidance. It is considered a waste of time - my time and that of the pupils when they get out of other classes to see me."¹⁷ Counsellors sometimes have the same difficulty. For example, it was stated by one that "Counselling hasn't really been recognised in this part of the world - the universities have only recently introduced it, but one can detect a certain resentment towards the idea of specialists intruding into the field of the R.E. teacher, form teacher, housemaster, etc."¹⁸

Duties of guidance teachers.

Although the role of the counsellor will be considered more fully in the next chapter when the major issues relating to it will be discussed, it was felt that a preliminary examination of the duties which guidance teachers and teacher-counsellors undertake would be valuable. This is the purpose of the questions D (the duties of guidance teachers) and E (the agencies with which guidance teachers liaise).

The fourteen activities listed in question D can be divided broadly into four categories, as follows:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| (i) and (ii) | - testing and records; |
| (iii), (iv) and (v) | - liaison with parents and extra-school agencies; |
| (vi), (vii), (viii) and (xiv) | - various organisational and administrative duties; |
| (viii), (ix), (x), (xi) and (xii) | - careers. |

There is a clear indication (see Table 6.31) as has been suggested by the replies to question F, that the role of guidance teacher or teacher-counsellor embraces a wide range of duties, e.g. organising extra-curricular activities and filling in and maintaining the school cumulative records cards. But the most prominent feature emerging from the responses to question D shows the strong orientation of the guidance service in most schools towards careers guidance. Of the five activities related to vocational guidance listed in the question, four are undertaken in the majority of secondary and grammar schools (the percentage figures range from 68% to 95%). The exception is the organisation of careers conventions, work for which is done by careers teachers in only 38% of secondary and 30% of grammar schools. The reason seems to be that it is the generally accepted practice in Northern Ireland that the planning and organisation of careers conventions are part of the job of the youth employment officer. This is confirmed by the previously mentioned study carried out by youth employment officers in the North-Eastern Education and Library Board area, where 60% of careers teachers felt that such work was properly the function of the youth employment officer.¹⁹

The much larger number of guidance teachers in technical colleges who carry out this task (71%) gives an indication of the close liaison which traditionally has existed between industry and the colleges. The North-Eastern survey again provides confirmation of this. It showed that

TABLE 6.31

Guidance teachers - duties other than interviewing and group work.

Duties/activities	No. of teachers		
	secondary (N=97)	grammar (N=43)	technical (N=8)
(i) administration and scoring of standardised tests _ _ _ _ _	30 (31 [*])	13 (32 [*])	2 (29 [*])
(ii) filling in and maintaining school cumulative record cards _ _	68 (70)	17 (41)	4 (57)
(iii) interviewing parents _ _ _ _ _	58 (60)	32 (80)	6 (86)
(iv) referring cases to other services _ _ _ _ _	51 (53)	32 (80)	4 (57)
(v) consulting with teachers and other experts _ _ _ _ _	73 (75)	39 (95)	7 (100)
(vi) responsibility for allocating pupils to classes _ _ _ _ _	22 (23)	16 (39)	3 (43)
(vii) orientation of first year pupils _ _ _ _ _	22 (23)	4 (10)	3 (43)
(viii) gathering information for leavers' reports _ _ _ _ _	88 (91)	28 (68)	4 (57)
(ix) administrative work in connection with the visits of the YEO	92 (95)	39 (95)	6 (86)
(x) organising careers conventions _ _ _ _ _	37 (38)	12 (30)	5 (71)
(xi) planning careers visits _ _ _ _ _	81 (84)	39 (95)	7 (100)
(xii) planning visiting speakers programme of career talks _ _ _ _	74 (76)	38 (93)	6 (86)
(xiii) writing references _ _ _ _ _	38 (40)	17 (41)	4 (57)
(xiv) organisation of extra-curricular activities including clubs and societies _ _ _ _	33 (34)	18 (46)	2 (29)

* Figures in brackets are percentages of each group

all the careers teachers in the technical colleges of the area considered that they had an important role to play in co-operation with the youth employment officers in planning and running careers conventions in the colleges.²⁰

Extra-school agencies.

One of the major functions of guidance teachers is to provide the liaison between the school and the extra-school services, such as the school psychological service, the youth employment service and the educational welfare service. The guidance teachers were asked (question E) to indicate those agencies with which they had been in contact during the previous twelve months. The returns are given in tables 6.32 and 6.33 (the questionnaire sent to technical colleges was slightly different from that sent to secondary and grammar schools).

TABLE 6.32

Outside agencies with which guidance teachers are in contact.

Agencies	No. of teachers	
	secondary (N=97)	grammar (N=43)
Parents	88 (91)*	39 (95)*
School psychological service	28 (29)	11 (26)
Child guidance clinic	9 (9)	0 (0)
Youth employment service	96 (99)	43 (100)
School health service	37 (38)	6 (14)
Education welfare department	18 (19)	5 (12)

* Figures in brackets are percentages of each group

TABLE 6.33

Outside agencies with which guidance teachers (technical colleges)
are in contact.

Agencies	No. of technical college teachers (N=7)
Parents	6 (86) *
Youth employment service	7 (100)
Adult vocational guidance service	1 (14)
Individual firms	6 (86)
Medical doctors	0 (0)

* Figures in brackets are percentages

All but one school, a secondary school, had been in contact with the youth employment service, and the guidance teachers of 90% of the secondary and grammar schools had been in touch with parents. The figures for technical colleges are similar. On the other hand, fewer schools had been in contact with the school psychological service (only 29% of secondary and 26% of grammar schools). Liaison between the schools and the child guidance clinics is almost non-existent, and it would seem that many young people are not receiving the help they require. An examination of this aspect of the child guidance should be urgently considered. The evidence provides further confirmation of the differential development of the vocational and mental health aspects of the guidance service. The thrust of the service in Northern Ireland is markedly towards careers guidance.

The follow-up studies.

To allow for more in depth study of a smaller number of schools and

colleges and to supplement the information obtained from the analysis of the responses to Q/UK/1 and Q/UK/2, two other follow-up studies were carried out:

- (1) a study of how school counsellors distribute their time in school was carried out with the help of a group (N=21) of trained counsellors; and
- (2) a study was made of five selected schools to examine the arrangements and facilities for guidance in each.

The school counsellor study.

The objectives of this study were to investigate:

- (a) the number and types of interview undertaken by school counsellors;
- (b) the time spent by counsellors during and after school hours on guidance activities;
- (c) the agencies outside the school with which counsellors are in contact on guidance matters.

The group of teachers who took the first course (1969-71) leading to the diploma in guidance and counselling in education at the New University of Ulster agreed to co-operate in the study. Originally the group numbered twenty-one but two had to withdraw, both because of promotion. Two were added, one a teacher who had just completed the diploma of advanced study in education (guidance and counselling) at the University of Keele, and the other a trained teacher and marriage guidance counsellor working as a part-time counsellor in a girls' secondary school. Therefore, each member of the group could be considered to be a trained counsellor and twenty had received university awards in guidance and counselling. All are teacher-

counsellors with full-time teaching duties except the part-time counsellor who has no subject teaching duties but takes classes and small groups for work in the field of social education. Ten of the counsellors work in secondary schools, ten in grammar schools and one in a technical college.

Two procedures were used. Firstly, each counsellor was asked to complete a timetable form so that the distribution of time to various school activities could be obtained. Secondly, a time sampling procedure was used to ascertain information about the number and type of interviews carried out by each counsellor, the time spent after school on guidance work and the extra-school agencies with which the counsellor had been in touch.

The time sampling procedure was chosen in preference to the method used by Thompson at the University of Keele, which was based on the counsellors keeping records continuously for a full academic year.²¹ This procedure was thought to be too demanding of the counsellors' time and not worth the extra burden imposed on extremely busy people. Each of the counsellors was asked to complete one record sheet (RS/UK/1 - see appendix C1) for each of five weeks spread throughout the year, two each in the Michaelmas and Hilary terms and one in the Trinity term.²² For each of the five selected weeks, the schools involved were all working the normal school programme for all five days. The five weeks chosen were those beginning:

- (1) Monday, October 11, 1971
- (2) Monday, November 29, 1971
- (3) Monday, January 17, 1972
- (4) Monday, March 6, 1972
- (5) Monday, May 22, 1972

Out of the possible total of 105 record sheets, 89 were completed and returned.

This represented a percentage response of 85%.

Timetables.

The information from the timetable forms completed by the twenty-one counsellors is summarised and tabulated in Table 6.34 (each counsellor was assigned a code letter). Although each teacher-counsellor in the group had a significant teaching load, most had much more time available for individual interviewing than the guidance teachers who completed Q/UK/2. The mean interviewing time of the secondary school guidance teachers was only 2 hrs. 07 mins. compared to that of the trained group which was 5 hrs. 20 mins. Only four of the teacher-counsellors were timetabled for curriculum work in guidance, 3 for careers (counsellors I, M and S) and the fourth for a social education programme with the "ROSLA" group (counsellor E). This seems to confirm the view already expressed that systematic curriculum development in guidance is only beginning here.

Interviews.

The total number of pupils interviewed in the five weeks was 1352 and no pupil was interviewed more than once in any one week (see Table 6.35). No attempt was made to distinguish between first and subsequent interviews.

TABLE 6.34

The counsellor's week.

Code letter of counsellor	No. of periods per school week	Teaching	No. of free periods per week	No. of periods - group/class work in guidance	No. of periods - individual counselling	Time scheduled for counselling (hrs. and mins.)	Comments
A	45	34	8	0	0	0	3 periods - form teacher duties
B	39	32	7	0	0	0	
C	45	35	4	1	2	1.20	3 periods - form teacher duties
D	45	17	19	0	9	5.40	19 free periods - administrative duties
E	40	21	5	10	3	2.00	1 period - form teacher duties
F	40	24	5	4	7	4.40	
G	45	27	0	1	17	10.30	
H	40	17	1	0	21	13.55	1 period - weekly meeting with principal
I	40	22	0	4	14	9.20	
J	40	35	0	0	5	3.20	
K	40	28	3	4	5	3.20	
L	45	22	3	5	15	9.05	

TABLE 6.34 (Contd.)

M	40	30	2	2
N	45	24	5	2
O	55	40	4	2
P	40	35	5	0
Q	N/A	21 hrs.	N/A	0
R	45	18	8	3
S	50	24	0	7
T	30	5	0	13
U	45	29	6	0

-
- Note: (1) counsellors D, H and N are vice-principals;
(2) counsellor Q is a technical college lecturer;
(3) counsellor T is the part-time counsellor.

6	4.00	
8	4.40	6 periods - administrative duties
4	2.20	5 ten-minute periods - form teacher duties
0	0	
6	6.00	
16	10.00	
14	8.45	5 periods - form teacher duties
10	6.40	2 periods - home visits
10	6.20	

TABLE 6.35

Number of interviews by counsellors in each of the 5 weeks.

Week	No. of counsellors who responded	Total no. of interviews	Average no. of interviews per counsellor-week
1	18	261	14.5
2	20	288	14.4
3	19	251	13.2
4	17	310	18.2
5	14	242	17.3
Total	88	1352	15.4

The number of interviews undertaken by a counsellor in one week varied from one to fifty-two. The latter figure from one of the vice-principals included 38 interviews described as routine. Assuming that the average time for each of the 1352 interviews was 30 minutes, and since this figure includes the writing of a short record and the time lost between interviews, it is not an unreasonably generous time allowance, the mean amount of time spent on interviewing per counsellor-week would be 7 hrs. 11 mins. The discrepancy between this and the average timetabled time per counsellor-week of 5 hrs. 20 mins. already mentioned indicates that either the length of time spent on each interview is considerably less than 30 minutes or many of the counsellors are using their free periods or time after school for interviewing.

Table 6.36 shows the breakdown of the interviews into three categories, (i) those requested by the pupil, (ii) those which resulted

from a referral of the pupil by someone else (normally one of the teachers) or (iii) those described as routine.

TABLE 6.36

Classification of interviews (requested, referred, routine).

Week	Type of interview			Total
	requested	referred	routine	
1	113	15	133	261
2	100	12	176	288
3	99	6	146	251
4	122	21	167	310
5	112	10	120	242
Total	546	64	742	1352

Over half of the interviews were classified as routine, undertaken on the initiative of the counsellor. There seemed to be a difference in practice among the schools in the group. Some counsellors did very few routine interviews; four of them did less than 10 but two did more than 100 in the five weeks (see Table 6.37).

TABLE 6.37

Counsellor	Type of interview			Total
	requested	referred	routine	
A	7	0	6	13
B	31	4	0	35
C	15	2	51	68
D	18	13	57	88
E	55	0	17	72
F	N.R.	N.R.	N.R.	N.R.
G	23	0	139	162
H	26	5	115	146
I	20	7	26	53
J	15	0	18	33
K	15	3	32	50
L	28	2	84	114
M	11	1	34	46
N	14	1	17	32
O	14	10	32	56
P	8	2	45	55
Q	14	3	10	27
R	91	5	8	104
S	107	6	5	120
T	6	0	29	35
U	26	0	17	43
Total	546	64	742	1352

Table 6.38 classifies the interviews into the three generally recognised categories of mainly educational, mainly vocational and mainly personal. Despite the somewhat artificial nature of the division, which refers only to the primary focus of the interview, the categorisation has the value of making the orientation of the service apparent.

TABLE 6.38

Classification of interviews (mainly educational, mainly vocational, mainly personal).

Week	Type of interview			Total
	mainly educational	mainly vocational	mainly personal	
1	124	105	32	261
2	95	161	32	288
3	88	138	22	248
4	148	133	32	313
5	93	109	40	242
Total	548	646	158	1352

Less than 12% of the interviews are described by the counsellors as being in the "mainly personal" category. The strong bias towards the educational and vocational again indicates the under-development of the personal counselling service relative to that of vocational guidance.

Time spent after school on guidance activities.

The returns show clearly the considerable amount of time spent by the teacher-counsellors after school on guidance matters (Table 6.39).

TABLE 6.39

Time spent by teacher-counsellors after school on guidance work.

Activity	Total no. of counsellor-weeks	Total time for 5 weeks (in hours and minutes)	Average time per counsellor-week (in minutes)
Administrative work related to guidance	88	94-45	65
Discussions with staff on guidance matters	88	49-30	34
Counselling	88	77-35	53
Other activities related to guidance	88	82-20	56
Total	(88)	304-10	207

The mean of 3 hrs. 27 mins. represents a significant voluntary contribution by the teacher-counsellors to the provision of an efficient and helpful service. The work which took most of the "after school" time was administrative, although just less than one hour per counsellor-week was given over to counselling. The results provide some evidence for the view that Circular 1968/54, under which the position with regard to the time allowance for non-teaching duties like guidance and counselling is governed, should now be revised.

Contacts with outside school agencies.

Further evidence of the strongly educational and vocational bias of the service emerges from Tables 6.40 and 6.41 which show the extra-school agencies with which the counsellors were in contact during the five selected weeks.

TABLE 6.40

Outside school agencies with which counsellors were in contact.

Agency	No. of contacts
Parents	223
School psychological service	3
Child guidance clinic	-
Youth employment service	211
School health service	17
Educational welfare department	22
Others	155
Total	631

TABLE 6.41

Other outside school agencies specified by counsellors with number of contacts.

	No. of contacts
Employers/employment agencies	78
Higher education institutions (inc.UCCA)	50
Schools/teachers	16
Visiting speakers	5
Clergymen	3
Psychiatrist	1
Speech therapist	1
NFER	1
Total	155

The lack of communication between the counsellors and the school psychological and child guidance services is somewhat surprising for these are the closest mental health referral agencies available to the school. The counsellors and the school psychological services were in contact on only three occasions, and the counsellors and the child guidance clinics not at all. Although some of the seventeen contacts between the counsellors and the school health service would presumably have resulted in referral for psychiatric help, the results suggest that many children requiring help are not in fact receiving it.

The small number of child guidance clinics in the province and the almost exclusive referral from medical sources on which most directors insist, explain the lack of contact between school and clinic. The position with regard to the school psychological services is harder to justify, except in terms of the vocational nature of the school guidance service. There is some recent evidence to suggest that in some areas at least, the educational psychologists are beginning to become more interested in what school counsellors are doing and it is hoped that more fruitful liaison will be built up in the future.

Study of five schools:

The material for the second follow-up study was obtained by the writer visiting five schools and spending about a day in each, talking to the teacher in charge of guidance and where possible the principal and some of the staff. The idea was suggested by Moore's study of five comprehensive schools²³ although his study was much more detailed and ambitious and intended to stand on its own rather than as a supplement to a more widely distributed questionnaire. The main objective of this

follow-up study was to describe the arrangements which five randomly selected schools are making for guidance and counselling and thus to supplement the information obtained from the two questionnaires, Q/UK/1 and Q/UK/2.

The variations in the types of school, secondary, grammar, technical, coeducational, single-sex, urban, rural, voluntary, maintained and county made it quite impossible to cover every different group. The schools were classified into five groups and one school was chosen from each of the five groups. Within each group the choice was made in a random way. The schools selected were as follows:

School A - a voluntary grammar school in the greater Belfast area;

School B - a voluntary grammar school in a provincial area;

School C - a county secondary school in the greater Belfast area;

School D - a maintained secondary school in a provincial area;

School E - a technical college in a provincial area.

With one exception the schools were visited during the early part of the academic year 1972-73. Some time after the interview, one school felt that it would have been too easily recognised and, since it would have been difficult to guarantee anonymity, another school was chosen. To provide the basis for the interviews a short interview schedule was drawn up; it is reproduced in appendix G.

School A

School A is a medium-sized (about 600 pupils) girls' convent grammar school in the greater Belfast area. It is well-established and housed in modern buildings. At the time of the visit, plans were being made to change it to a coeducational school and, in fact, the present first

form (1974 entry) is the first to include boys. Communications to the school are excellent and it draws pupils from a wide catchment area and from a variety of home backgrounds, including urban housing estates under the control of the Northern Ireland Housing Executive²⁴, urban working-class areas and upper and middle class suburbs.

Academic aspects.

The school has a 3-form entry and classes are organised using a modified streaming strategy. The top 25 pupils, on the basis of the 11+ qualifying examination, are placed in the top stream and the rest, numbering about 60, are divided into two classes on a random basis. The principal insisted that there is easy transfer from one class to another; at the end of the year 1971-72, five were promoted into the top class. Classes in the fourth and later years are formed by choice of subjects. There are about 100 sixth formers.

The range of subjects provided is normal for this size of grammar school, but special arrangements are made with other schools or with part-time staff for tuition in the less popular subjects, e.g. those who wish to take Latin do so at another school in the neighbourhood. The school is considered to be particularly strong in modern languages and debating. For academic matters, the traditional structure of subject departments prevails. The head of department for each subject is responsible for the internal work of the department but her participation in deciding policy for the school as a whole is marginal. The structure is loose and informal and very few meetings take place.

School A - organisation

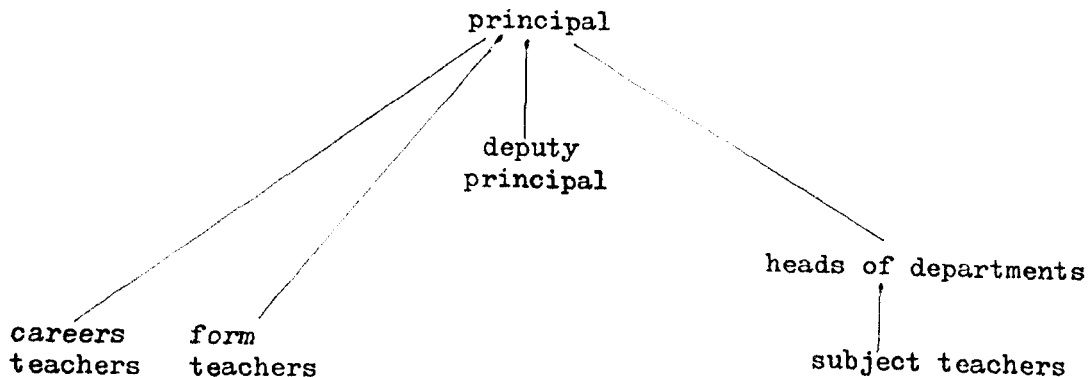


Diagram 1.

Guidance aspects:

The type of organisation used for what has been referred to as "pastoral care" is a horizontal structure based on the form (class) teacher. A house system, that is, one based on a vertical type of organisation, exists, but in common with nearly all Northern Ireland secondary and grammar schools, its purpose is to provide the structure for intra-school competitions including games. There are four houses, each headed by a sixth former, called in contradistinction to English practice, the head of house. In this school, one interesting addition to the functions of the house system has been evolved. The heads of house provide the link through which the staff and the pupils can communicate with each other and discuss problems which arise. This method of contact, which according to the members of the staff is quite useful, is confined to what the principal referred to as "school rather than individual problems." When pressed for a more precise definition, she replied that discussions with the heads of house would be mainly concerned with problems of school organisation, for example, the provision of new options in the sixth form.

The key role in the guidance or pastoral structure of the school is that of the form teacher, who teaches at least one academic subject to her class. She not only deals with the children's problems but is responsible for discipline as well. The principal admitted that, while there were difficulties in this, she felt that most could be overcome relatively easily. The form teacher is responsible to the principal and difficult problems invariably come to her.

One of the major difficulties is lack of contact with the school psychological service. The principal took the view that the most appropriate way of dealing with problems of maladjustment or emotional disturbance is to inform the parents and call in the family doctor and/or the school health service. She was convinced that every effort should be made to involve the parents in a constructive way and pointed out that an almost insurmountable difficulty occurred for the school when the pupil was insistent on not wanting her parents to know.

The principal agreed that the role of the form teacher was not clearly defined and except for the maintenance of the pupils' record cards, which all form teachers had to carry out, was to a large extent what each individual wanted to make it. Another factor inhibiting clarity of role definition was the informality of the staff liaison procedures, including referral to the headmistress, who expressed the view that a more formal infrastructure was desirable and, she hoped, would be established soon. She suggested that such a development would make it easier to work out a clear definition of roles and procedures.

The provision for careers guidance, for which the principal and two members of staff are responsible, corresponds closely to traditional grammar school practice. During the third year, at the end of which subjects have

to be chosen for fourth and fifth year in preparation for GCE "O" level, a meeting, to which all parents are invited, is held. Each pupil's choice of subject is discussed with the parents in the light of the progress she has made. A similar meeting is held during fifth year in relation to A level subjects and the post-school aspirations of the pupils. Help is given with the completion of UCCA forms at the appropriate time. Close links have been built up with the Youth Employment Service, which provides much of the occupational information for the careers staff.

A number of curriculum innovations have been introduced in the past few years. A current affairs course, which has a large careers component, is part of the fourth form curriculum. In addition, a social education programme, based mainly on relationships and marriage, has been developed. It is taught by a local priest and a counsellor for the Catholic Marriage Advisory Council. At present many schools have begun to take more seriously their role in the field of community relations and in this school a teacher has been placed in charge of work in this field. Lectures, discussions and various inter-school activities are organised for all age levels.

No facilities exist in the school for the exclusive use of guidance. Rooms and equipment are used as and when available. A stock of books on careers is kept in the school library. Furthermore, none of the form teachers or the careers staff has any training in guidance.

Future plans.

The principal was very anxious to start a guidance and counselling programme in the school, and for this purpose had initiated discussions with several senior staff members. When asked what aims she had in mind for

such a programme she listed (very quickly) the following points:

- "(i) to provide the children with opportunities for self-exploration and for exploring the opportunities in life for them;
- (ii) to help them stabilise and cope with emotional development;
- (iii) to help them overcome difficulties in adjusting to school;
- (iv) to enable them to talk freely and openly;
- (v) to help to relieve them of anxiety about career choices;
- (vi) to help them to think and make decisions for themselves."

This school is not untypical of Northern Ireland grammar schools. Many correspond quite closely to it in terms of size, intake, range of subjects and informality of organisational structures. The principal is beginning to question some of the traditional assumptions underlying grammar school thinking and practice, and is trying to interest the staff in making constructive changes.

SCHOOL B.

School B is a coeducational grammar school of almost 600 pupils, with a preparatory department of about 100. The pupils are drawn from both the thriving market town in which it is situated and the surrounding wealthy farming area. The main source of employment in the town is either light farming-derived or service industries.

Academic aspects.

The school has a 3-form entry organised in the early years on a

non-streaming basis, but with sets for English, mathematics and French. At the end of the third form a formal examination similar to the old junior certificate²⁵, but internally set and marked, is taken by all the pupils. Fourth form classes are selected on the basis of the results of this examination and each pupil's choice of subjects.

The school is organised into the traditional subject departments under heads whose major responsibility is the work of the department rather than participation in the decisions taken at the policy-making level. There is the normal range of subjects for the size of school, with particular strengths in English, modern languages and drama. Some interesting options, which cross the dividing line between the literary and the scientific are available at sixth form level, e.g. physics, environmental sciences and history is a popular combination.

School B - organisation

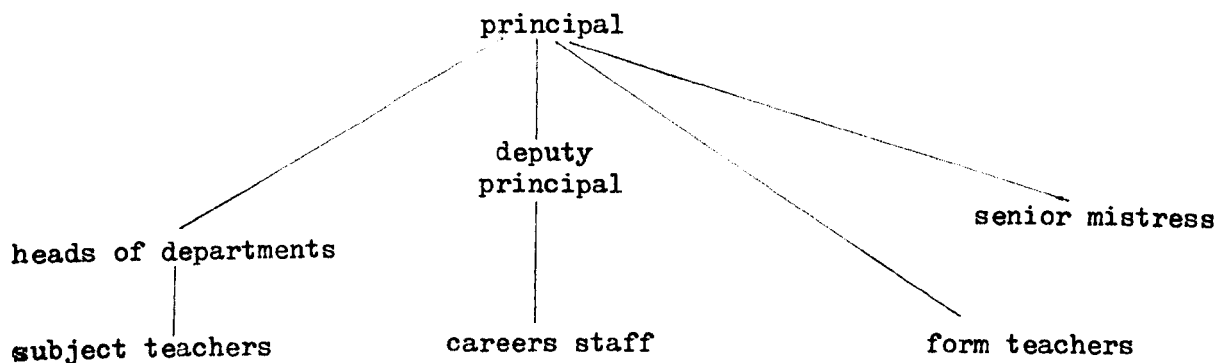


Diagram 2.

Guidance aspects.

The school is structured for guidance on a horizontal basis, form

(class) teachers being in the key role especially in the early years. There is a strong tradition of fostering group identity at the class level and functions, visits and so on are organised on a class basis. The form tutor is responsible for the welfare and the discipline of the pupils in his class and provides the link between the pupils and the principal and his deputy. There is a house system for sport and other competitions.

The principal is a committed advocate of the "pastoral" dimension of the school's role and takes an active part in it himself. He designed the system in use and since form teachers are responsible directly to him, welfare and psychological problems get to him very quickly. The senior mistress has five free periods per week to devote to her role in general welfare and discipline. No formal meetings are held on guidance matters; the procedures as in most schools in Northern Ireland are informal.

The deputy-principal, who has completed a diploma in the advanced study of education (guidance and counselling), is the senior guidance teacher in the school. He is head of the vocational guidance department which has three other careers teachers, each of whom has a sphere of responsibility, namely careers for girls, careers guidance in form 3 and guidance for those students wishing to attend an English or a Welsh college of education. In view of recent changes, it seems certain that the last will decline in importance. The four members of the careers department see themselves primarily as careers counsellors. The deputy also has disciplinary functions but he argues that "difficulties only arise in about 10% of cases, especially those involving problems which occur between teacher and pupil."

The routine work done by the careers department includes the following:

- (i) the organisation of meetings for third form pupils and their parents to prepare for the subject choices that will be made at the end of that year;
- (ii) individual interviews with all fifth form pupils so that the choice of A level subjects can be made;
- (iii) individual interviews with all upper sixth form pupils during the Michaelmas term to discuss career choice, the implications of choice of tertiary level education and related matters. It is expected that $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours on average will be given to each pupil.

There is no regular curriculum provision for careers guidance although certain ad hoc classes are held. A non-examination course in sociology is run for lower sixth form and small group discussion is the main tutorial method used. Two types of record card are kept, the school cumulative record card which is kept in the administrative office and to which all staff have access, and the guidance record card access, to which is confined to the careers staff.

Liaison between the school and the extra-school agencies including the school psychological service, the school health service and the educational welfare service, is actively promoted and encouraged. Particularly close links exist with the youth employment service, the officers of which engage in some interviews with fifth and sixth form pupils. The deputy principal said that he held strongly to the view that a re-examination of the role of the youth employment officer was essential (he was speaking before the new structures already mentioned had been proposed). His own view was that the youth employment officers were being misused by spending too much time interviewing in school, and that the service should leave the

school-based work to be done by properly trained careers teachers and operate in relation to schools as an information, support and consultancy service.

The facilities in the school for vocational guidance are excellent. There are two well-furnished offices which are used exclusively for interviewing. Secretarial assistance is available when required. Books, pamphlets and other sources of information related to educational and vocational choice are kept in a room in which pupils can study and browse during their free time.

This is one of a small number of schools which have a trained counsellor on the staff. He has built up a well-organised careers guidance service which is a feature of the school. The welfare or pastoral aspect of guidance is organised separately, although in his capacity as deputy-principal, the head of careers may be concerned with pupils who may require personal counselling.

SCHOOL C.

School C was visited about twelve months after the other four schools in the group. Built in 1968, it is a coeducational seven-form entry secondary school situated in a modern housing estate in the Greater Belfast area. There is a high level of employment in the surrounding area and in many of the families both parents are at work. The major sources of employment are local industry, mainly light engineering and service industries, and work in Belfast for which the area is a dormitory suburb. Despite its recent establishment, the rapid growth of the school population to its present 950 has made the original building much too small and a new building programme has been approved. In the meantime, many of the pupils are taught in twenty mobile classrooms parked in the playground.

Academic aspects.

This school is the most formally structured of the five, partly because of its size and partly because the principal is keenly aware of the importance of the participation of the staff in policy-making and of a clearly understood definition of everyone's role. The five senior members of the staff, that is the principal, the deputy-principal, the director of studies, who is the senior head of department, the senior master and the senior mistress, meet once a week and it is this group which takes the decisions on all policy matters affecting the school. In addition, the heads of the subject departments meet once a month with the principal or his deputy in the chair to discuss matters of academic concern. Recommendations of the meetings are passed on to the senior staff group.

In the first three year groups, the classes are unstreamed except that there are sets for mathematics. In the fourth and subsequent years the classes are organised by choice of subject and whether or not the pupils are taking external examinations. Pupils are prepared for GCE O-level and CSE. In 1974-75, mathematics, history, art, English and technical drawing are being offered at A-level.

The teachers are extremely active in curriculum innovation. The school is a trial school for three curriculum projects namely the Schools Council project "Writing across the curriculum (11-16 years)", the Northern Ireland Schools Curriculum Committee project "Integrated Craft" and the Northern Ireland Schools Project in Community Relations. In addition, several internal curriculum innovations are being given trials including an integrated studies scheme for first year classes combining English, geography, history and art.

School C - organisation

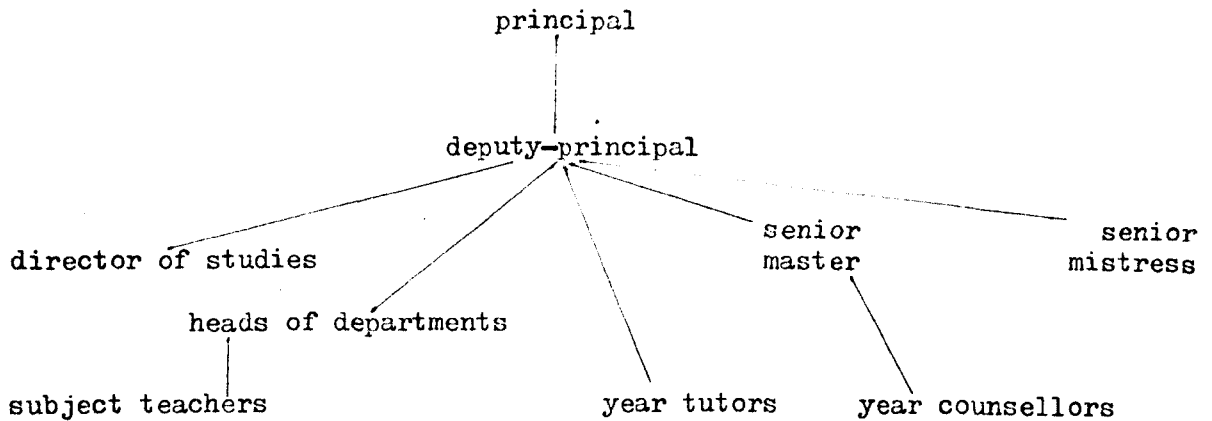


Diagram 3.

Guidance aspects.

Each year group has a year master and a year counsellor, the former being concerned with discipline and the latter with counselling. The deputy principal suggested that he was not happy with the distinction, but he thought that it would be difficult for one person to try to undertake both roles. Nevertheless, he was coming round to the view that different arrangements would have to be made for disciplinary matters. The year counsellors, each of whom has four hours per week timetabled for counselling duties, are responsible to the deputy head and the senior master. The latter is the senior member of the counselling staff and is in charge of both counselling and careers for the fifth and sixth forms. Although none of the careers and counselling staff have attended extended award-bearing courses in guidance, one or two have taken short courses. The principal and the deputy are extremely keen that all should have training and staff seminars in guidance have been run.

Careers guidance commences formally in the fourth form when the year

counsellor has an extra two hours per week to spend on careers and, in particular, in preparation for a work experience programme which is an integral part of the fifth form course. Strong links have been built up with the youth employment service, the officers of which take an active part in interviewing at fourth, fifth and sixth form levels as well as in the work experience programme.

The school has a particularly close association with the school psychological service which provides support in a number of ways. For example, the area educational psychologist visits the school for one half day every two weeks for discussions with the counsellors on general counselling issues and on points specific to individual cases. Arrangements for referrals are made at these meetings. In addition, the school has been chosen to be the centre for an experiment in the education of mal-adjusted children. An area "adjustment unit" is being established to provide help for pupils of both this school and others who have emotional or behavioural problems sufficiently serious to warrant their temporary removal from their ordinary classrooms. Another point of close contact with the school psychological service is the strong support given to the remedial education programme in the school. One of the features of this programme is the part played by what have become known as the "ROSLA" pupils, who, as part of a social education programme, help the teachers with the remedial group.

The facilities for guidance in the school are not yet commensurate with the effort which is being made by the staff who are responsible for the work. For example, the senior counsellor's interviewing room is a fairly large book store. However, the new extension, which has been approved to replace the mobile classrooms, will contain a suite of rooms for guidance

and counselling.

The deputy-principal and the senior counsellor were asked what they felt the school was trying to achieve and what part guidance and counselling played in the process. They stated that, in the education of the pupils, they were trying to achieve a blend of the intellectual and the emotional, the academic and the personal. They were trying to produce educated citizens amenable to the self-discipline needed to live in contemporary society but who would refuse "to be held down" in ways offensive to human dignity. They were convinced that guidance was crucial to the process. The main objective of the guidance and counselling programme was to help the pupils to develop the attributes necessary to make the required adjustments and the proper decisions.

SCHOOL D.

School D is a medium-sized (over 500 pupils) coeducational maintained secondary school (Roman Catholic) opened in the late 1950's. It is situated in a small market town about 60 miles from Belfast. Some years ago the main employment opportunities in the town were for women, but recently new industry requiring male labour has helped to alleviate the unemployment situation. The pupils are drawn both from the town and from the surrounding farming area, and many travel long distances by special buses. The buses leave the school immediately after class ends for the day and thus many of the children are unable, without some difficulty, of participating in after-school activities.

Academic aspects.

The intake of the school, in common with some other maintained

secondary schools in small towns, includes a number of children who have qualified for a grammar school place in the 11+ selection procedure. This happens especially when there is no Roman Catholic grammar school in the town, and parents are not anxious to permit their children to travel a long distance.

The classes are streamed from first year as follows, stream A contains the qualifiers and 11+ borderline pupils up to 35, stream B the rest of those who are preparing for CSE, and streams C and D the remainder of the pupils in the year. In addition, there is a class of pupils who have been ascertained by the educational psychologist as educationally sub-normal. Streams A and B follow the same course and transfer is possible either way. At the beginning of the academic year 1972-73, six pupils were transferred from A to B and three from B to A. There is one 16+ class, the pupils of which take subjects at GCE O-level and/or CSE. Those who wish to proceed to GCE A-level have to go to grammar school or the local technical college. The academic organisation of the teaching staff is on the traditional subject basis under departmental heads, whose major duties lie within their departments rather than at the policy-making level.

The principal feels very strongly about "losing" some of his best fifteen-year-old pupils to the technical college, a policy which, as was pointed out earlier, has provoked much controversy and dissension in all areas of the province outside Belfast. He argues that he has no objection to their doing so after they have completed a five-year course and are then beyond the statutory school leaving age.

School D - organisation

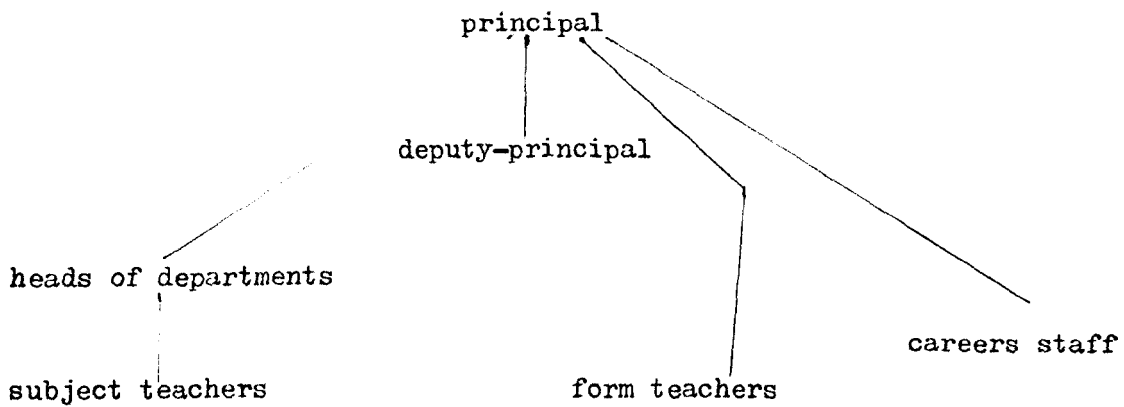


Diagram 4.

Guidance aspects.

The "pastoral care" aspects of guidance are the responsibility of the form (class) tutors, each of whom teaches his class religious education and at least one other subject. The principal explains the form teacher's functions to all the pupils when they enter the school. In the principal's words these are "the welfare and moral development of the pupils and helping with their personal problems." Certain disciplinary duties are assumed to fall under these headings.

The form teachers are responsible to the principal, who argues that formal structures for consultation and communication are not only unnecessary but may even be inadvisable. There are no record cards but each form teacher has a notebook in which the records of the pupils in his class are written. Only the form teacher and the principal have access to this notebook.

Vocational guidance is the responsibility of two of the heads of department, the head of the woodwork department is the careers teacher for

the boys, the head of the physical education department for the girls. There is a careers course, the duration of which is one forty-minute period per week, for all fourth year pupils. Extensive use is made of TV programmes as a stimulus to discussion. The officers of the youth employment service interview all the school-leavers during their final year. In addition, a careers convention organised by the careers teachers and the youth employment officer is held once every two years.

No specific curriculum provision is made for social education because the principal is strongly opposed to such a development. He is convinced that it is much better catered for in religious education and English courses. The principal also has reservations about the current links with two of the extra-school agencies but for different reasons in each case. On the one hand he takes the view that the contacts with the school psychological service are too limited, being confined to matters concerning educationally subnormal pupils rather than including those concerned with the maladjusted. On the other hand, he thinks that rather too much responsibility is left to the educational welfare officers and that teachers should themselves visit the homes of their pupils.

No special facilities exist in the school for guidance and counselling. Interviews are done by the careers teachers and the form teachers in whatever rooms are available. Careers literature is kept in a special section in the library. Neither the careers teachers nor the form tutors have had any training in guidance and counselling, apart from attendance at a short in-service course.

As can be easily understood from this account, the principal of the school holds strong views about what is desirable and undesirable in educating young people. He is strongly committed to a major role for the

school in "pastoral care", which he associates closely with religious and moral development and in which he plays a key role himself. His concept of guidance would seem to be more directive than modern interpretations would allow.

When asked what the major objectives of the "pastoral" care programme in the school were, he replied that he was concerned "with the religious and moral development of the pupils in a time of great stress", the last phrase referring to the current troubles in the province. In order to achieve his goals, he stated that he would like (i) a priest, preferably a young one, to act as a full-time or nearly full-time counsellor, and (ii) more time and more training for the form tutors.

SCHOOL E.

School E is a technical college established in late nineteenth century and situated in one of the largest industrial towns in the province. It is one of the second-tier institutions of the Dickson Plan which has already been outlined in chapter 4. In so far as it takes all pupils in a year group not going to grammar schools, it is not typical of the province as a whole. However, since full implementation of the plan has to be postponed until new buildings are ready in 1974-75, in its educational activities and organisation it is not unlike other technical colleges of comparable size (about 400 full-time and 1000 part-time students).

Academic aspects.

The full-time students are following various types of courses including GCE O and A level, CSE, commercial, and vocational courses like pre-nursing, as well as courses similar to those done in non-examination

secondary school classes. The part-time courses are of two kinds, (1) courses for students (one day or short-term release from work) - these are vocational in nature and include those leading to awards such as ordinary and higher national certificates, and (2) evening courses which may be either recreational, vocational (e.g. city and guilds) or examination courses (e.g. GCE "O" level).

School (technical college) E - organisation

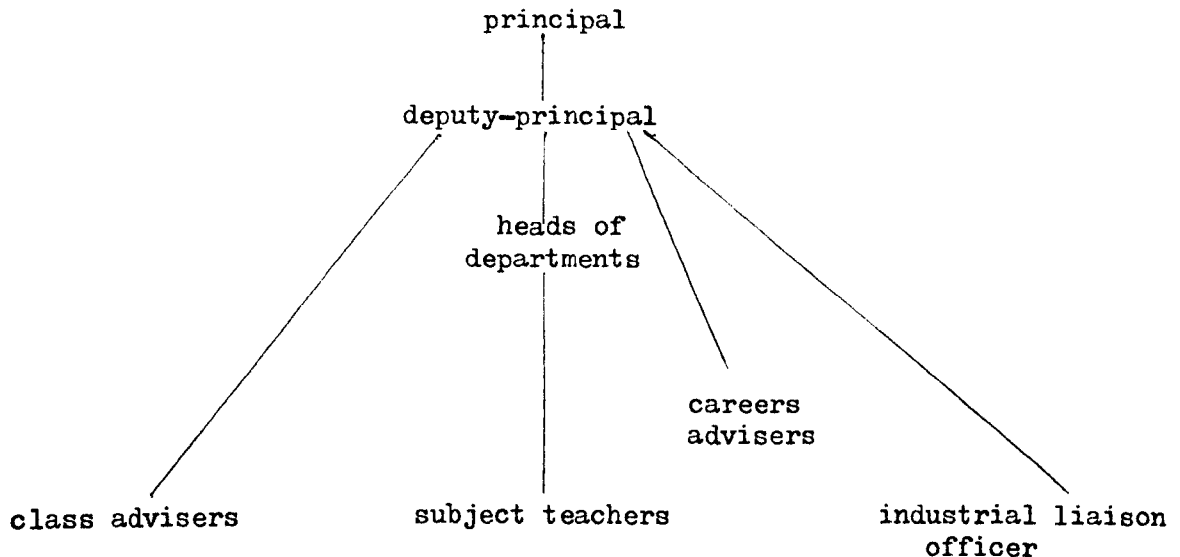


Diagram 5.

Guidance aspects.

Each class has what is referred to as a "class adviser", that is a member of staff selected from those who are involved in teaching the class. The adviser, who is responsible to the deputy-principal, is concerned with helping students with their problems and with the educational and vocational choices they make. One of his duties is to fill in and maintain each student's cumulative record card. No time allowance is provided for the

class adviser to carry out his duties, although the deputy-principal thought that this would have to be changed when the Dickson Plan was fully operative.

When considering the procedures for vocational guidance, two factors must be borne in mind. The traditional links between the technical college and local industries and the fact that most of the part-time and some of the full-time students are industry-based, create different problems from those met in secondary schools. The liaison with the local firms is more typically at departmental rather than institutional level, and thus the heads of departments, through the contacts they make, are active in placing students in jobs.

There are, in addition, two careers teachers, the head of physical education who is in charge of careers guidance for the boys and the head of the commerce department who acts in the same capacity for the girls. Each has five hours per week timetabled for this work. They are more concerned with the advisory rather than the placement function of vocational guidance. Interviewing of leavers and assistance with the UCCA forms are considered to be part of the job of the youth employment service officers with whom close links are maintained. One of the full-time members of staff is given a reduced teaching load (12 hours) in order to enable him to undertake the duties of college "industrial liaison officer". His major responsibilities are the maintenance and development of contacts with industry and with the government training centres, the recruitment of students for courses and the development of new courses. He liaises closely with the careers teachers and the heads of the subject departments. None of the guidance staff has had training in guidance and counselling.

It is hardly surprising, given the age of the college building and

the on-going reorganisation for which a new one has been approved, that there are no special facilities for guidance. Although, as has been said, liaison with the youth employment service is close, that with other extra-school agencies including the school psychological and school health services, is non-existent. This points to two conclusions: first, that the concept of guidance is restricted almost exclusively to careers, and second, that the reorganisation has not yet moved far enough for the need for these services to be appreciated.

When asked about the desirability of having a college counsellor, the deputy-principal could think of no reason under existing arrangements for appointing one. He considered that the class adviser system was sufficient. "Besides", he continued, "we don't have problem students; they just don't attend."

It can be readily appreciated that this is a fairly typical technical college which provides little in the way of support services for students except in the field of careers guidance, the functions of which are spread over a number of different people. It is likely, indeed certain, that, as the Dickson Plan becomes fully implemented, it will be necessary to reappraise the personnel structures and guidance procedures, and the contacts with outside agencies like the school psychological, child guidance and school health services necessary to sustain them.

Summary of the findings.

1. Almost all secondary and grammar schools in Northern Ireland use a horizontal structure for guidance, that is, one based on form (class) tutors and/or year tutors. The vertical or house system of organisation is almost unknown except for the purposes of sports and other competitions.

2. Nearly all (more than 90%) the secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges have a careers teacher; 34% of schools claim to have a teacher-counsellor, but the majority have had very little training. Only one of the five schools in the supplementary study has a guidance staff member who has obtained a diploma in education with special reference to guidance and counselling. Indeed, very few of those working in the field had any training beyond that provided by a short in-service course, and many had not even attended one of these. It is clear that the training of counsellors, careers teachers, form tutors and other guidance staff presents a substantial in-service challenge which has to be faced over the next few years.
3. The majority of school and college principals favour the appointment of a school counsellor but most would prefer a teacher-counsellor rather than a full-time non-teaching counsellor. On these issues no significant differences were found between the views of principals of different types of schools.
4. The facilities for guidance in most schools are quite inadequate, although the dissatisfaction expressed by the guidance teachers was not as great as expected. In only one of the five schools visited could the facilities be described as good, although in two of the others, proposals have been approved for necessary improvements.
5. The facilities most frequently mentioned by the guidance teachers as essential were (i) a room exclusively for their own use for interviewing, and (ii) an adequate time allowance.
6. The time available in most schools for guidance is limited and insufficient. Even in those schools which have trained counsellors, some of whom have, by Northern Ireland standards, a reasonably generous

time allowance, it was necessary for the counsellors to do a considerable amount of guidance work outside school hours.

7. Very little use is made of group work in the field of guidance. This implies a paucity of curriculum development in guidance. Two of the principals in the five schools study have reservations about social education curriculum programmes and one of them was strongly opposed to any such development. However, there is evidence from the others that changes may be taking place, partly stimulated by projects like the Schools Community Relations Project and curriculum development in the careers field.
8. There is strong evidence confirmed from a variety of sources of the rather one-sided development of the guidance service in schools and colleges. The analysis of the types of interview carried out by the trained counsellors (RS/UK/1), the agencies outside school with which the guidance teachers and the school counsellors were in contact (RS/UK/1; Q/UK/2, Section II, question E; and the five schools study) and the duties they undertake (Q/UK/2, Section II, question D; and the five schools study) all point to the strongly vocational bias of the service and the lack of emphasis on the mental health and personal counselling aspects.
9. The evidence from the five schools study tends to confirm the view that organisational systems in Northern Ireland schools and colleges are loosely structured, and the procedures for taking and communicating decisions for referrals and so on correspondingly informal. School C is the only one of the five which differs from this approach and it is no coincidence that the principal strongly favours a policy of corporate decision-making. The proponents of a loose structure and informal

procedures argue that such an approach cuts down wasteless bureaucracy. However, it has major disadvantages. It is difficult to make changes except when they are imposed from above. A young member of staff has no formal channels through which he can make his point of view known. In addition, it follows that nearly all differences of opinion are personalised and an innovator finds that, in order to make the case for a change, he is often forced into a position where he has to criticise individuals rather than structures or policies. Finally, it almost inevitably results in roles being only vaguely defined and, although such a situation creates difficulties for all members of staff, young inexperienced teachers find it particularly trying.

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1. Marland, M. (1974) Pastoral Care. London: Heinemann P.93.
2. Marland: op. cit. P.87.
3. See Jones, A. (1970) School counselling in practice. London: Ward Lock.
4. Lee, J.M. and Pallone, N.J. (1966) Guidance and counselling in schools: foundations and processes. New York: McGraw Hill. P.31.
5. See appendix B2, section II F, no. 42.
6. See appendix B2, section I H, no. 19.
7. See appendix B2, section I H, no. 15.
8. See appendix B2, section I H, no. 21.
9. See appendix B2, section I H, no. 42.
10. North-East study - a survey conducted by a group of youth employment officers in part of the North-East Education and Library Board area. The present author acted as consultant to the group.
11. See appendix B2, section I H, no. 7.
12. Report (1974) of careers teachers in the Western Education and Library Board areas of Londonderry, Omagh and Fermanagh on "Provision in schools and colleges for careers education".
13. See Hopson, B. and Hough, P. (1974) Exercises in personal and career development. Cambridge: CRAC. See also Avent, C. (1974) Practical approaches to careers education. Cambridge: CRAC.
14. See appendix B2, section II F, no. 6.
15. See appendix B2, section II F, no. 8.
16. See appendix B2, section II F, no. 28.

17. See appendix B2, section II F, no. 1.
18. See appendix B2, section II F, no. 7.
19. North-East study: op. cit.
20. North-East study: op. cit.
21. See A.J.M. Thompson (1970) An investigation into the work performed by some trained counsellor in English secondary schools. Report to the Social Science Research Council.
22. It should be noted that the Trinity term in Northern Ireland schools is shorter than that in England. Summer vacation commences at the end of June.
23. Moore, B.M. (1970) Guidance in comprehensive schools. Slough: NFER.
24. The Housing Executive is a statutory organisation which is responsible for all house building in the public sector (i.e. council house building) in Northern Ireland.
25. Junior certificate - before the GCE examinations were introduced into Northern Ireland in 1963 , 2 public examinations for grammar school pupils were held. The Junior certificate was taken at the end of the third year, that is, when the pupils were about fifteen years of age. The Senior certificate was taken two or three years later.

CHAPTER 7.

Attitudes to counselling and counsellor role.

On probably no other aspect of counselling does such a voluminous literature exist as on that of the role of the counsellor in educational settings. Throughout the 1950's and 1960's many studies on this topic and issues associated with it were carried out in the U.S.A. A large number of these sought to establish an agreed definition of the functions which school counsellors should undertake. For example, Boy argued that because of the wide range of activities in which counsellors are engaged, many are unsure of what they are and what they are supposed to be doing and, therefore, "a strong job-function line must be drawn..... Our role definition should be one of specialisation, not of diversification, a role of uniqueness, not of generality."¹

However, for a variety of reasons, such a specific and precise definition of the role (of the role) of the counsellor is likely to be not only difficult but unhelpful. The nature of counselling precludes complete agreement about what counsellors should do. The term counselling appears, as Corwin and Clarke² have suggested, to be used in three ways in the literature, to denote a field of knowledge, to define an activity (or method of achieving certain objectives) and to describe an occupation. As a field of knowledge it covers a wide and diverse range of topics, from guidance activities like providing information, interpreting test results and providing assistance in making educational and occupational decisions to psychotherapeutic procedures aimed at remedying emotional disturbance in children and adolescents.

As an activity counselling is practised in both formal and informal

situations and by professional and voluntary workers. Taking the dimension of the setting in which the activity is carried out and the professional-voluntary continuum with respect to payment or non-payment for the service, a useful model for clarifying the term counselling can be constructed. (Diagram 6).

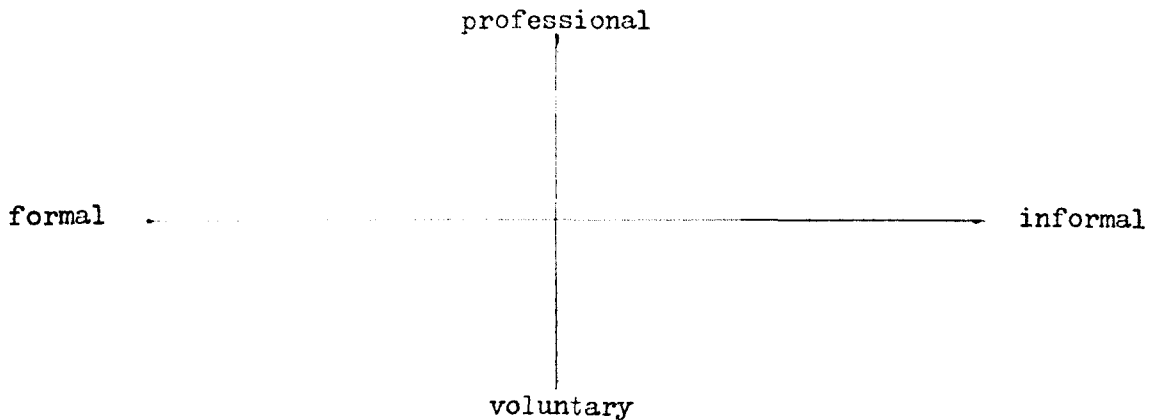


Diagram 6.

Diagram 1 divides those who practise counselling into four groups, the professional-formal, the professional-informal, the voluntary-formal and the voluntary-informal. The professional-formal represents those groups for whom counselling is the primary focus of their work and who get paid for it, e.g. school counsellors and psychotherapists. The professional-informal groups are those whose work has a significant counselling (relationship) dimension which is, however, not the primary focus of their job, e.g. teachers, doctors and nurses. The voluntary-formal are those groups of often well-trained but unpaid voluntary workers, the central concern of whose voluntary work is counselling, generally of a specialised nature, e.g. marriage guidance workers. The voluntary-informal represents the help given by the friends and peers of those who need supportive and helping

relationships to enable them to cope with difficulties or make choices.

In its formal and professional aspects counselling is a method which is informed by an increasing amount of theoretical and practical knowledge and based on a growing range of skills and techniques. It is central to the work of several rapidly growing professions, including school counselling, clinical psychology and social work. Accordingly, despite Rogers³ assertion that the core conditions of counselling relationships are characteristic of all helping relationships, it could be argued that the term counselling should be restricted to help given in formal situations by those whose primary concern is counselling (i.e. to the professional-formal and voluntary-formal groups).

As an occupation, counselling takes place in a wide variety of settings including schools, colleges, universities, clinics, hospitals, occupational guidance centres and various other statutory and voluntary agencies. But even within each type of setting there is no agreed definition of the counsellor's role. This is perhaps the inevitable result of the proliferation of theories and approaches characteristic of new areas of knowledge which new professional groupings are seeking to apply. Such a situation makes agreement on a definition of counselling and on the role of the counsellor quite impossible to achieve. Although it is true that there is a common counselling ideology that can be expressed in terms of humanitarianism, commitment to freedom of choice, to individual development and self-actualisation, it is equally true as Corwin and Clarke have said, "that short of platitudes and tautologies, few observations can do equal justice to so many groups and activities found in so many contexts."⁴

Aside from the differences of opinion about the nature of counselling,

other factors contribute to difficulties of role clarification. As members of a relatively new professional group, school counsellors often experience a lack of understanding and acceptance from colleagues, many of whom feel threatened by the advent of counsellors in schools. In any consideration of the role of counsellors, the expectations of teachers and other significant groups are crucial. Writing of the counsellors trained in the early courses at Keele and Reading, Daws pointed that "they must inevitably be unsure of what they will be able to do, however clear they may be in their own minds about what they would like to do. For the shape of their developing role will be decided largely by what their colleagues permit them to do or ask of them."⁵

Review of selected studies.

Studies relating directly to the role of the school counsellor can be classified into three types, as follows:

- (1) Studies of how the counsellor and other members of the counsellor's role set perceive the role of the counsellor (perception studies);
- (2) studies of what counsellors do or what they should do in order to perform their duties more effectively (performance studies);
- (3) studies which examine concepts related to schools and school counselling and try to identify the implications of the insights for the suggested role performance of counsellors (conceptual studies).

1. Perception studies

Since the role of the counsellor is largely determined by the duties he is required to undertake by the school principal, many of the

studies compare the principals' expectations about the counselling role with those of counsellors. The results yielded by these studies are often ambiguous if not contradictory. Thus Kemp⁶, Knock and Cody⁷ and Sweeney⁸ found differences of view between counsellors and principals on issues such as the maintenance of discipline, pupil-centredness and administrative duties respectively. Filbeck⁹ and Schmidt¹⁰ in two separate studies found that, although differences existed, the perceptions of counsellors and principals were significantly related. Hart and Prince¹¹, taking a different line, compared the expectations of principals on six dimensions of counselling with ideal counsellor roles as perceived by counsellor educators. They found significant disagreement on "basic issues such as confidentiality, clerical responsibilities, non-related counselling functions and total adjustment counselling", and concluded that "school counsellors are taught many role philosophies and behaviours which are in conflict with the expectations of principals."¹² These findings seem to confirm Lytton's opinion that between the definitions of what counsellors should do found in the literature and what they in fact do "yawns a reality gap."¹³

A small number of published studies in Britain have sought to ascertain the attitudes of teachers to counselling and the role of the counsellor. Lytton, Kline and Webster in a study of the attitudes of teachers in Devon schools found that "there was considerable agreement that careers guidance should be more scientific and systematic and that there was a definite need in schools for personal counselling."¹⁴ There was some confusion about the role of the counsellors and a lack of agreement about the nature of the training required. Grammar-school teachers were found to be less sympathetic to the introduction of counsellors into schools

than teachers in comprehensive or secondary modern schools.¹⁵

A similar study carried out by Freeman¹⁶ in Manchester tended to confirm many of the points made in the Exeter study, although the smaller size of the former did not permit comparison of attitudes between different types of school. There was "some evidence of considerable ignorance of the counsellor's role"¹⁷ and strong doubts were expressed about confidentiality, but most teachers had a generally positive attitude towards counselling in schools.

Fulton¹⁸ investigated the attitudes of a group of trained school counsellors in Stoke-on-Trent to some counselling issues. The results showed a wide area of agreement among the counsellors particularly on practical and professional matters relevant to their role. Some differences of opinion occurred with respect to issues concerned with the relationship of school counselling to society.

2. Performance studies

As Bentley has pointed out "The least audible voice in the cacophony over counsellor role has been that of the counsellor himself."¹⁹ Plenty of advice has been given to them by others. For example, Toews sees the counsellor as a "contingency manager" advising teachers on "the application of behaviour modification techniques to common classroom problems."²⁰ Brammer urges counsellors to become educational psychologists and discard the guidance model since "guidance.....is a painfully superficial and ambiguous term which incurs the contempt of other helping occupations."²¹ Matheny²² wants counsellors to act as "environmental engineers", while Boy and Pine²³ suggest the role of "a sociological gadfly" would be an appropriate one for counsellors.

Another line of research development concerns studies which try to find out what counsellors are doing. Swann²⁴ divided the functions of counsellors into two categories, the informational and the catalytic-adjustive, a classification which seems to reflect the main historical sources of guidance, the vocational and mental health. Kaplan²⁵ tried to build "a composite profile of counsellors and their jobs." He found that clarification of the counsellor's role was being inhibited by scepticism and lack of acceptance on the part of principals and teachers, and by the absence of suitable criteria, both formal and informal, for recognising the appropriateness of counsellor training. Writing of a study tour of the U.S.A. which he made in 1972, Watts²⁶ noted that one of the major pre-occupations was a re-evaluation of the counsellor's role. He found that counsellors were under attack for three reasons, namely that they were excessively preoccupied with administrative tasks, that they were too oriented to psychotherapy, and that their work related mainly to middle-class students, the first two of which appear to be contradictory. Watts thinks it likely that the role of the counsellor in American schools will change in the next few years so that more attention will be paid to careers work and less to administration and that there will be more involvement by counsellors in group work and teacher-consultancy work and less in individual counselling.²⁷

One of the first attempts to ascertain the duties being carried out by the counsellors trained in the early years of the Keele and Reading courses was made in connection with the Schools Council Working Paper No. 15 "Counselling in Schools".²⁸ The results summarised in paragraph 89 show that the counsellors were engaged in a wide and diverse range of activities, including careers, testing, counselling, liaison with outside agencies,

maintaining cumulative records, participation in curriculum planning, consulting with teaching colleagues and interviewing parents. A more ambitious study, sponsored by the Social Science Research Council, was carried out by Thompson.²⁹ He investigated the range of work activities of twenty-five trained counsellors, who, for the purposes of the study maintained detailed work records for the whole of the school year 1968-69. The results confirmed and extended the findings of the Schools Council study. Moore³⁰, though not concerned directly with the role of the counsellor but rather with how schools are structured for guidance purposes, provided helpful information about the functions of guidance staff. Two of the five schools which he studied had a full-time school counsellor.

It would be wrong to conclude from the findings of the studies on the differential perceptions of counsellor role and on the work activities of counsellors that the objectives and content of training courses for counsellors should be determined exclusively by what counsellors are doing or are required to do by school principals. The views of principals and others have got to be taken into account but counsellor educators and counsellors themselves have a responsibility to try to influence the development of a useful long-term counsellor role. Some evidence exists from American sources that school counsellors are, in part at least, responsible for what others think they should do. Rippee, Hanvey and Parker found that the counsellor to a large extent determines the perceptions that others have of his role, the important factor being "the degree to which he both implements this (counselling) role and so communicates it to others."³¹ Therefore, the diversity of activities in which counsellors in British schools engage and the differential perceptions of their role may not be wholly unsatisfactory despite the problems it poses for counsellors

and those who train them. It is easier to change a loosely-defined role than one which is more rigidly specified.

3. Conceptual studies

Many of these studies take the form of a consideration of controversial issues and not infrequently the writers are critical of some aspect of counselling. Aubrey³² challenges the applications of models of therapy derived from clinic settings to school counselling and insists that the school and clinic situations are so different that a therapeutic model for school counselling is inappropriate. Ivey and Weinstein agree, arguing that the "educational and developmental approach to solving human problems (is).....more promising than therapy and remediation."³³ They see the counsellor as "a change agent whose specialty is psychological education"³⁴ a concept similar to that of "personal and social education"³⁵ (Daws). Knowles and Shertzer³⁶ studied the generalist and specialist models of a school counsellor, the latter defined as one who is engaged exclusively or almost exclusively in counselling activities. They found that those who have had a considerable amount of training tended towards the specialist position and those who had less training towards the generalist position. Blocher, Tennyson and Johnson³⁷ find the debate on this issue sterile and backward-looking. "The positions which extremists on either side of the controversy take can be attributed largely to whether they prefer to trace their ancestry to the public school classroom or to the psychological clinic."³⁸

More fundamentally counsellors have been criticised for being "coolers", that is, concerned with reconciling clients to the situation in which they find themselves. The charge of "cooling" has become more strident

in recent years particularly from sociologists. The view expressed by Musgrove and Taylor, who equate counselling with "thwarting the will of the clients (pupils)"³⁹ is a good example. They argue that "The counsellor persuades the student to accept a type of education (and a type of career after its conclusion) which he was not at first disposed to accept. This process of thwarting the client's will is more picturesquely referred to as 'cooling him out'. The spread of counselling in our schools is one of the most potentially sinister features of the educational scene. It can become a device for restoring a teacher despotism which other forces have eroded."⁴⁰

In a reply to this criticism, Milner⁴¹ rightly points out that any relationship, including the teacher-pupil, can be potentially sinister but it can also be potentially ennobling. The point is whether counsellors do always operate, as Musgrove and Taylor suggest, to uphold the status quo pattern of values within the school and outside it. They produce no evidence for their assertion. The fact is that counsellors are probably more aware of this issue and the associated problems and have been for many years than any other professional group in education.

In 1962 Shoben pointed out that guidance could easily be the unwitting "smuggler of certain values"⁴² and suggested that the counsellor should function "less as a remedial resource than as a prime agent in the continuous reconstruction of the school culture."⁴³

Bernard sees the issue as a reflection in school life of the traditional differences between "those who advocated social action so-called or organised protest and those who advocated some kind of individual social work, counselling or psychotherapy."⁴⁴ At the end of a character-

istically trenchant analysis, Halmos⁴⁵ concludes that no social system can continue to exist without a supportive personal service to individuals. He adds that "the raison d'etre of the visionaries of social betterment is that they help in the creation of societies in which human relations are empathic, warm, and genuine. Therefore, baiting those who make it their profession to practise these virtues, however haltingly and gropingly, is hardly a sensible position to take up."⁴⁶

Another issue which has concerned counsellors, particularly in the U.S.A., originates in the relationship between education and social and economic development. The need for skilled workers in certain fields, notably in science and technology, has led to demands being made that guidance workers should pay more attention than they do to socio-economic factors. Such a view is implicit in the arguments of those who believe that guidance should be concerned with the identification and development of talent. While recognising this as an accepted objective of guidance and counselling in schools, Mathewson⁴⁷ points out that an exclusive adherence to this position tends to restrict the guidance functions to selection and distribution and to concentrate on the choice points in educational and vocational development. In this connection, Millar believes that it would be "a major misfortune if the broad goal of guidance as assistance to the individual in development comes to be replaced by any part-goal, however commendable or expedient in itself."⁴⁸

In two separate contributions O'Doherty⁴⁹ and Wrenn⁵⁰ analyse the nature of counselling in relation to society and in particular point to the contrast between the values of adults and those of adolescents. Both are convinced of the importance of counselling, O'Doherty suggesting that it may be "effective in changing not just individuals but the whole way of

life of nations."⁵¹ On the role of the counsellor, he argues that "it is for the vast majority who are immature, inadequate, to some extent deprived and the special skills of the psychiatrist, the psychotherapist and the psychiatric social worker are for the more deeply disturbed people in our culture."⁵²

In 1962 Wrenn⁵³ presented his views of the school counsellor in terms of the activities (programmes) in which he should have been engaged. More recently, deciding that a revision was needed in the light of new developments in role theory, he advised the counsellor to set the following goals (expectations) for himself, (1) to help students indirectly by contributing to the improvement of the learning environment of the school, (2) to help students directly, both individually and through groups, (3) to keep myself (the counsellor) in constant touch with the changing world around me.⁵⁴

Daws⁵⁵ in an unpublished paper has pointed out that there have emerged in Britain two conceptions of the primary functions of counsellors, to protect and promote the personal development of the normal child and to rescue and help the distressed, the maladjusted and the "problem" child. In an attempt to define the role of the counsellor in terms of "his organisational relationship with the school system", Law⁵⁶ makes a distinction between the "integrated" and the "supplementary" forms of organisational relationship, a distinction which corresponds closely to Daws' dichotomy. The integrated approach emphasises the similarities between teaching and counselling, and the supplementary the differences.

Many of the studies reviewed in this section are of American origin and, because of the different cultural and educational contexts, direct

application of the results to British conditions should be avoided. However, American research can make legitimate and valuable contributions by helping to identify the issues and questions to be studied and by suggesting paradigms for research.

Activities and attitudes studies.

The main objectives of this part of the survey are as follows:

- (1) to ascertain the views of counsellors and their principals on the activities in which school counsellors are and/or should be engaged;
- (2) to ascertain the attitudes of eleven different professional groups concerned with young people in schools to sixteen counselling issues; and
- (3) to analyse the data obtained in (2) above to find out if the attitude scores could be grouped into a small number of broad factors. For these purposes two instruments were devised, an inventory of counselling activities (Q/UK/4)⁵⁷ and an attitude scale (Q/UK/5)⁵⁸.

Inventory of counselling activities.

The inventory consists of a list of forty-three activities drawn up from discussions with counsellors, teachers and others and from statements in books and journals about what counsellors are or should be doing.

Inventory of counselling activities.

1. Individual routine interviews with first year pupils.
2. Individual careers interviews.
3. Interviews with parents.
4. Consultations with individual teachers.
5. Filling in and maintaining school cumulative record cards.
6. Keeping counselling records.
7. Administering and scoring group tests.

8. Administering certain individual tests.
9. Sociometric testing.
10. Discussions with groups of parents.
11. Participation in staff discussions concerning the curriculum.
12. Consultations with groups of teaching staff.
13. Teaching and discussion with groups of pupils on topics concerned with personal and social education.
14. Teaching and discussion with groups of pupils on vocational information.
15. Teaching and discussion with groups of pupils on choice of subjects and courses.
16. Helping pupils with study techniques.
17. Teaching school subjects.
18. Remedial teaching of ESN pupils.
19. Remedial teaching of maladjusted pupils.
20. Liaison and co-operation with outside agencies.
21. Communication of information about abilities and achievements of pupils to teachers.
22. Communication of information about a pupil's own abilities and achievements to him or her individually.
23. Communication of information about the abilities and achievements of a pupil to his/her parents.
24. Communication of personal information about pupils to teachers.
25. Helping individual pupils with educational difficulties.
26. Helping individual pupils with personal-emotional problems.
27. Helping individual pupils with choice of subjects and courses.
28. Writing references for leavers.
29. Gathering information for leavers' reports.
30. Routine administrative work in connection with the visits of the youth employment officer.

31. Checking attendance registers.
32. Planning the "visiting speakers" programme of careers talks.
33. Having the major responsibility for allocating pupils to classes.
34. Having the major responsibility for the orientation programme for first year pupils.
35. Devising and operating a system for identifying children needing help.
36. Defending pupils in difficulties in the school.
37. Organising extra-curricular activities including clubs and societies.
38. Organising careers conventions.
39. Arranging careers visits.
40. Acting in a disciplinary capacity.
41. Helping to compile the school timetable.
42. Helping teachers in the school who are in their probationary year.
43. Visiting some children's homes for discussions with their parents.

The statements cover seven broad and overlapping areas⁵⁹ and three single unclassified items (see Table 7.1).

TABLE 7.1

Q/UK/4 - Areas of activity.

Area of activity	Item number
Counselling (including routine interviewing)	1, 22, 25, 26, 27
Class teaching and small group work	13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19
Testing and keeping records	5, 6, 7, 8, 9
Consulting with staff	4, 11, 12, 21, 24, 42
Careers work	2, 14, 30, 38, 39
Liaison with outside agencies	3, 10, 20, 23, 43
School organisation and administration	28, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 37, 41
Other areas	35, 36, 40.

Each of the 21 trained counsellors who cooperated in the time-sampling study using the record sheets (RS/UK/1) and each of their principals were invited to complete a copy of the inventory. The instructions for the counsellors were:

- (i) in column 1, tick the activities in which you are engaged;
- (ii) in column 2, tick the activities in which you think you should be engaged;
- (iii) in column 3, tick the activities in which you think you should not be engaged.

The instructions for the principal were:

- (i) in column 1, tick the activities in which the counsellor in your school is engaged;
- (ii) in column 2, tick the activities in which you think the counsellor in your school should be engaged;
- (iii) in column 3, tick the activities in which you think the counsellor in your school should not be engaged.

Sixteen counsellors and ten principals returned completed copies. The full results are tabulated in appendix D.2.

Results and discussion.

Perhaps the most obvious difference between what the counsellors were doing and what they thought they should have been doing is that they thought they should have been doing more. The average number of activities they were engaged in was 18.6; the average number they thought they should have been engaged in was 29.4.

TABLE 7.2

Responses of counsellors to Q/UK/4.

Item number	Counsellors are engaged in	Counsellors should be engaged in
1	1	11
2	14	15
3	11	16
4	12	16
5	7	12
6	13	16
7	6	13
8	5	15
9	0	13
10	8	15
11	12	16
12	8	15
13	5	16
14	14	16
15	11	16
16	4	14
17	15	7
18	-	-
19	-	1
20	14	16
21	5	11
22	9	15
23	7	13

TABLE 7.2 (CONTD.)

Item number	Counsellors are engaged in	Counsellors should be engaged in
24	3	6
25	7	13
26	11	16
27	11	15
28	7	6
29	5	6
30	12	9
31	3	3
32	13	10
33	-	2
34	-	10
35	1	14
36	9	13
37	2	5
38	5	9
39	12	11
40	3	-
41	4	8
42	3	6
43	5	11
Total	297	471

Out of the 43 activities, ten were carried out by at least 12 (75%) or more of the counsellors. They included five out of the six careers work activities (Nos. 2, 4, 30, 32 and 39), the only one not mentioned was "organising careers conventions", which was done by only five of the counsellors. Both these findings corroborate the results obtained from the Q/UK/2 and RS/UK/1 studies discussed in the previous chapter. The other five tasks undertaken by the counsellors are concerned with keeping records (6), consultation and discussion with staff (4, 11), teaching school subjects (17) and liaison with outside agencies (20). Eleven of the group gave help to individual pupils with personal-emotional problems but only one claimed to be operating a system for identifying those in need of help.

The ideal role of the counsellor as defined by the counsellors' opinions about the activities they should be engaged in, embraces a wide variety of duties. All or nearly all of the group conceive of the school counselling role as including liaison with outside agencies (3, 10, 20), consultation with individual teachers and groups of teachers (4, 11, 12), testing and the keeping of records (6, 8), careers work (2, 14), counselling (22, 26, 27) and teaching and group work in the fields of "personal and social education" and choice of courses and subjects (13, 15) (see Table 7.1). The range of functions which the counsellors consider to make up the counselling role would appear to suggest that their conception of counselling and its place in the school corresponds more closely with the integrated than the supplementary form of organisational relationship. The primary focus of the role would be the promotion of the personal development of all the children rather than the provision of help for the maladjusted.

There was unanimity among the group that acting in a disciplinary capacity and the remedial teaching of ESN pupils were not part of the counsellor's function and only one thought that the counsellor should be teaching maladjusted children. The other activities which the majority of counsellors would exclude from the counsellor's role were administrative, for example, allocation of pupils to classes and checking attendance registers.

However, there was disagreement in relation to some administrative tasks. For example, ten of the group considered that they should be involved in the allocation of first year pupils to classes and six disagreed, while eight were in favour and eight against helping with the timetable. Six thought, but ten disagreed, that counsellors should write references for leavers and gather information for leavers reports. Nine of the group were against counsellors teaching school subjects, although all had to do so. A substantial minority were not in favour of counsellors doing the administrative tasks associated with careers work (arranging careers visits, organising careers conventions and planning the "visiting speakers" programme). Since it is clear that all the counsellors accept careers work as part of their function, it would appear that many believe the administration and organisation is properly the job of the youth employment officer.

A comparison of the counsellor's conception of their role as expressed by what they thought they should have been doing and the views of the principals, as expressed by what they thought the counsellors should have been doing, shows a strong relationship between the two. Most of the principals agreed that individual counselling, careers work, liaison with outside agencies and consultation with staff members should be among the

counsellor's responsibilities. They shared the view of the counsellors that the latter should not be concerned with remedial work and school discipline. The majority were not in favour of the counsellor's participation in matters of school administration.

In order to obtain a measure of the relationship between the counsellors' and principals' conception of the role of the counsellor, it was necessary to work out a figure which would represent the importance attached to each item by the group of counsellors and the group of principals. Thus a "counsellor" score and a "principal" score were computed for each item by subtracting the number of counsellors (or principals) who indicated that they thought the counsellors should not be engaged in the activity from the number who thought they should. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was computed for the two sets of scores (see appendix D.2, Table D2.4). The result obtained ($r = 0.83$) is highly significant, but it should be treated with caution, since the score for each item represents the views of a group and is, therefore, an average for the group. For this reason, the scores may mask intra-group differences. However, in so far as each score represents what counsellors or principals think, the result shows that the views of the two groups are significantly related.

In order to try to pinpoint the areas of disagreement between each counsellor and his principal, an examination was made of the data which was available for eight schools from each of which the principal and the counsellor returned completed forms (for the full results, see appendix D.2, Table D2.3). The number of pairs was smaller than had been hoped and thus only tentative conclusions can be drawn. Differences emerged with reference to nine items in at least four of the schools (Table 7.3).

TABLE 7.3

Responses of principals and counsellors compared (N=8 pairs).

Item no.	agreed that counsellors should be doing	agreed that counsellors should not be doing	disagreed, principals - yes counsellors - no	disagreed principals - no counsellors - yes	no. of disagreements
30	3	1	3	1	4
38	3	-	4	1	5
39	3	-	4	1	5
28	-	3	3	2	5
29	2	2	3	1	4
21	2	1	3	2	5
24	3	1	3	1	4
35	3	1	1	3	4
36	3	-	2	3	5

The principals, unlike the counsellors, clearly felt that the administrative work associated with careers (30, 38, 39) was part of the counsellor's job. There was disagreement also about the duties of counsellors in relation to school administration (28, 29) and the communication of information about pupils by the counsellor to teachers (21, 24). The other controversial items were the devising and operating by the counsellor of a system for identifying pupils needing help (35) and the counsellor's defending pupils in difficulties in the school (36).

The study of attitudes to guidance and counselling.

(a) The Experimental Instrument (attitude questionnaire, Q/UK/5).

In order to investigate and analyse the attitudes of a number of professional groups to issues relating to the organisation and practice of counselling in schools, a questionnaire was constructed. An item pool of 67 statements covering 15 issues (see appendix E.3(a)) concerned with guidance and counselling was constructed on the basis of widely familiar counselling literature and on impressions gained from talking with principals of schools, teachers and those working in associated services. The list was given to the members (N=20) of the 1970-71 course leading to the Diploma of Advanced Study in Education with special reference to counselling at the University of Keele, with the instructions that they should (a) select a required number of statements which best enabled them to give their point of view on the issue in question, either positively or negatively; and (b) put the selected statements in rank order within the group using the same criterion as in (a). Nineteen members of the course returned completed lists.

Weightings were given to each statement selected as follows:

- (i) with regard to issues A, B, and D (see Table 7.4) those ranked first were allocated 3, those ranked second 2, and those ranked third 1;
- (ii) with regard to the remaining issues, those ranked first were allocated 2, and those ranked second 1.

A score was thus computed for each statement (see appendix E.3(b)), and on the basis of the highest score in each group, 34 statements were chosen, three statements instead of two being included for issue C. The order of the statements in the questionnaire was determined by using a system of

random numbers. The revised form is shown in appendix E.4. Respondents are asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with each of the statements on a five-point scale, viz. strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree and strongly disagree.

The Stoke-on-Trent Study.

The 34-item questionnaire was administered to a group of school counsellors (N=16) in Stoke-on-Trent. Each had taken a one-year full-time diploma course in guidance and counselling at either the University of Keele or the University of Reading. The length of time they had been back in school after completing their course of training varied from one to five years. The main objectives of the Stoke-on-Trent study were:

- (1) to ensure that all the ambiguities in the questionnaire were removed,
- (2) to provide a standard against which the views of counsellors and other groups associated with schools in Northern Ireland could be compared, and,
- (3) to test expectations implied by the counselling literature about the likely responses of counsellors in respect of the fourteen issues. It was anticipated that counsellors would agree (or strongly agree) that:
 - (a) counselling is necessary in schools today;
 - (b) counselling should be done by specialists rather than by teachers;
 - (c) guidance by counsellors should relate to personal-social matters rather than to matters of vocational and educational choice;
 - (d) counsellors should act as agents of change rather than as "coolers";
 - (e) the primary concern of counselling should be the individual's development rather than the nation's manpower needs;
 - (f) counsellors should be non-teaching personnel;

- (g) counsellors should not engage in disciplinary procedures;
- (h) recruitment to counselling should be open to related professions rather than restricted to teachers;
- (i) training is necessary for counselling;
- (j) counselling is for all children rather than only for those with problems;
- (k) it is necessary for a counsellor to have a position of senior status in the school;
- (l) tests and records are helpful rather than unhelpful;
- (m) confidentiality should be absolute rather than qualified;
- (n) counselling training should be given to student teachers;
- (o) counselling should take place during class-time rather than outside it.

It is not argued that there is a broad consensus among counselling theorists on all of these issues, only that the major literature available to counsellors and their trainers in the late sixties more clearly favours these statements than their converse. Weightings were allocated on a five-point scale so that in every case 5 represents strong agreement with and 1 strong disagreement with the expected counsellor response (ECR) as defined above. Thus for items 1, 4, 8, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 22, 23, 26, 27, 30, 31 and 33, the weightings range from strongly agree 1 to strongly disagree 5; and for items 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 14, 19, 20, 21, 24, 25, 28, 29, 31, 32 and 34, the weightings range from strongly agree 5 to strongly disagree 1. All 16 counsellors returned completed questionnaires (for results see Table 7.4).

In the cases of three statements (11, 22 and 30), there was a marked divergence from the returns for the other statements in their respective groups. To ensure that the differences were not due to ambiguities in wording, the three statements were reworded and sent to the counsellors.

TABLE 7.4.

Stoke-on-Trent counsellors (N=16).

Results - attitudes in relation to the ECR.

issue	statement no.	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
A	1	11	3	2	0	0
	25	13	3	0	0	0
	31	9	7	0	0	0
B	14	4	10	2	0	0
	18	3	10	2	1	0
	23	10	6	0	0	0
C	10	11	4	0	1	0
	27	1	10	2	3	0
	32	15	1	0	0	0
D	16	11	4	0	1	0
	28	7	9	0	0	0
	30	0	6	3	5	2
E	11	3	5	1	2	5
	12	14	2	0	0	0
F	6	5	8	1	2	0
	15	3	7	2	4	0
G	4	15	1	0	0	0
	21	16	0	0	0	0
H	19	0	6	2	8	0
	26	0	5	3	5	3

Table 7.4 (Contd.)

issue	statement no.	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
I	7	15	1	0	0	0
	17	14	1	1	0	0
J	20	15	1	0	0	0
	22	3	3	1	8	1
K	5	13	2	1	0	0
	24	10	6	0	0	0
L	3	8	7	1	0	0
	9	8	6	1	0	0
M	29	6	7	0	3	0
	33	11	4	0	1	0
N	13	8	7	0	1	0
	34	11	5	0	0	0
O	2	12	4	0	0	0
	8	11	5	0	0	0

Note: These are the returns for the unrevised 34-statement, 15-issue version and, therefore, the code letters for the issues and the number of each statement are different from those in the 35-statement version.

The reworded forms were:

11. The provision of sound vocational guidance, combined with a system designed to identify the talents of the pupils, provides a more suitable model for guidance and counselling in this country than one which attempts to cater for all developmental needs.

22. Rather than dissipating their energies and resources by trying to provide for all the pupils, counsellors should concern themselves primarily with those with problems.

30. The primary aim of guidance and counselling in schools is to help pupils to become adjusted to society.

TABLE 7.5.

Stoke-on-Trent counsellors - responses to reworded statements in relation to ECR.

statement no.	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
11	5	7	1	2	1
22	0	7	0	6	3
30	0	5	2	7	2

On the basis of the replies, two changes were made in the questionnaire. The original statement 11 was replaced by the reworded version, which gave a score more highly correlated with statement 12, the other statement associated with issue E. In the case of statement 22, there was no significant change in the opinions expressed and no change was made in the original wording. The replies to the statements 16 and 28 on the one hand and to the

original and reworded versions of statement 30 on the other showed that, while the great majority of counsellors believe that one of their functions is to operate as an agent of change within the school, they see the issue vis-a-vis society as much less clear-cut. In other words, the results appeared to indicate that issue D was not one issue but two. For this reason both versions of statement 30 were included in the final form of the questionnaire which thus contained 35 items covering 16 issues. It was this final form which was used in the Northern Ireland survey.

Attitude questionnaire - final form.

1. Counselling makes only a marginal contribution to the attainment of objectives of secondary schools.
2. Each school should devise a system by which pupils could be enabled to see the counsellor during class-time.
3. The increased knowledge gained from a comprehensive and well-kept record system will lead to more effective teaching and guidance.
4. The school counsellor should be prepared to perform both disciplinary and counselling roles.
5. The senior counsellor in a school should have the status of a senior head of department.
6. The roles of teacher and counsellor cannot be carried out by one person.
7. Counselling requires at least one year of full-time in-service study and training.
8. Pupils should not be taken out of class for counselling interviews.
9. Standardised tests are valuable tools for counsellors.
10. The counsellor's most important function is to help each pupil to develop personal decision-making skills.

11. The provision of sound vocational guidance combined with a system designed to identify the talents of the pupils, provides a more suitable model for guidance and counselling in this country than one which attempts to cater for all developmental needs.
12. The most important responsibility of guidance and counselling is to promote the development of each pupil.
13. Guidance and counselling and related topics should have a low priority in the education of student teachers.
14. Trained counsellors are more able to give guidance than teachers.
15. In order to make contact with children in the classroom situation counsellors should do some teaching.
16. Counsellors should be prepared to compel pupils to change their behaviour if school policy and good discipline requires that they should do so.
17. Since the great majority of experienced teachers can do counselling, principals should be able to assign any of the teaching staff to counselling duties.
18. The principal area of guidance is that of teacher-pupil relationships rather than interviews with specialist counsellors.
19. Since counselling and teaching are fundamentally different activities, recruitment to counsellor training should be open to professions other than teaching, such as social work.
20. The guidance and counselling service is for all the pupils in the school.
21. Counsellors should not take part in the administration of discipline.
22. The primary aim of guidance and counselling in schools is to help pupils to become adjusted to society.

23. Counsellors should concentrate their efforts on pupils who have problems of one sort or another.
24. Counsellors are unnecessary when teachers are performing their duties adequately.
25. In a large secondary school, the senior counsellor should, from the point of view of status and salary, rank about number three or four in the school.
26. A school without a well-developed guidance service is not accepting the realities of today.
27. Since school counsellors must take a prominent part in curriculum planning, it is essential that they are recruited from the teaching profession.
28. We should emphasise the psychological and therapeutic aspect of school counselling less and the educational and vocational more.
29. Counsellors should try to influence the philosophy and practices of a school rather than operate entirely within them.
30. A counsellor should never disclose to anyone what a student has told him in a counselling interview except with the permission of the student.
31. Counsellors should aim primarily at fitting students to live in the community.
32. Guidance is an integral part of education rather than a fringe activity.
33. Pupils have problems with other than vocational or educational matters and counsellors should be prepared to help them.
34. In order to run the school effectively, the principal should have access to all the information given to the school counsellor.

35. All student teachers should be acquainted with the principles of guidance and counselling.

A mean issue score⁶⁰ was computed for each item according to the formula

$$\text{mean issue score} = \frac{\text{total score for issue}}{\text{no. of items} \times \text{no. of Ss}}$$

Thus for item A, the mean issue score for the Stoke counsellors is

$$\frac{73 + 77 + 73}{3 \times 16} = \frac{223}{48} = 4.65$$

The issues and the respective statement numbers for the 35-item scale and the mean issues scores for the Stoke counsellors are given in Table 7.6.

TABLE 7.6.

Counselling issues and mean issue scores (Stoke counsellors).

Code	issue	statement no.	mean issue score
A	counselling - necessary v. unnecessary	1, 26, 32	4.65
B	counselling - by specialists v. by teachers	14, 18, 24	4.23
C	guidance - personal-social v. vocational-educational	10, 28, 33	4.35
D	guidance function - agent of change v. cooling (re. school)	16, 29	4.50
E	guidance function - agent of change v. cooling (re. society)	22, 31	2.70
F	guidance function - individual development v. manpower needs	11, 12	4.34

Table 7.6 (Contd.)

Code	issue	statement no.	mean issue score
G	counsellors - non-teaching v. teaching	6, 15	3.78
H	should counsellors perform a disciplinary role? - no v. yes	4, 21	4.97
I	recruitment - open v. restricted to teachers	19, 27	2.75
J	training for counsellors - necessary v. unnecessary	7, 17	4.87
K	counselling - for all pupils v. for those with problems	20, 23	3.94
L	status - seniority, necessary v. unnecessary	5, 25	4.69
M	tests and records - helpful v. unhelpful	3, 9	4.47
N	confidentiality - absolute v. qualified	30, 34	4.28
O	counselling training for student teachers - desirable v. undesirable	13, 35	4.53
P	time for counselling - inside v. outside classtime	2, 8	4.72

A mean issue score of over 3.50 represents a group's agreement with the ECR, between 2.50 and 3.50 neither agreement nor disagreement and under 2.50 disagreement. The nearer the score is to 5, the stronger the agreement, the nearer it is to 1, the stronger the disagreement. On this basis, 14 of the Stoke-on-Trent counsellors' mean issue scores agree with the ECR

with varying degrees of strength and 2 are neutral. On these last two issues (E and I) the ideology of the teacher persists despite counsellor training. In addition, the score for issue M, although conforming to expectations, is at variance with the classical client-centred tradition, which informed much of the early training. One possible explanation for these scores is that the strength of teachers' basic beliefs on these matters have proved sufficiently strongly founded to withstand the contrary arguments and attitudes of counselling theorists and trainers. An alternative possibility is that the counsellor trainers were on these issues advancing views inconsistent with the tenets of the client-centred ideology. Confirmation of this latter hypothesis may be found in the results of a survey carried out in 1973 of nine counsellor training courses in England and Wales which showed that the topic "testing and measurement" was included in all nine.⁶¹

(b) The Experimental Design : Northern Ireland study.

The attitude questionnaire was administered to members of ten different professional groups associated with schools in Northern Ireland. It was hoped that the use of the questionnaire with these distinct groups would establish or at least throw an illuminating light upon the following issues:

- (a) The extent to which the groups in their attitudes differ from the "expected" pattern of counsellor attitudes inferred from currently influential literature.
- (b) The extent to which the attitudes of the Northern Ireland counsellors differ from those of the counsellors (all Keele or Reading trained) in the Stoke-on-Trent area, as established in the pilot study.

- (c) The similarities and differences between the attitudes expressed by the various professional groups in Northern Ireland.

On the basis of the information thus derived from this primary investigation, it was expected that it also would be possible:

- (d) To establish any significant attitudinal and ideological differences that divide the groups and their implications for effective school practice.
- (e) To explore, through a factor analytic design, the main underlying factors that appear to have determined the responses to the 35 items (and 16 issues) that make up the attitude scale.

The groups, the numbers in each who received questionnaires, the numbers who completed them and the percentage response are detailed in Table 7.7.

TABLE 7.7.

Professional groups in education (N. Ireland).

group	no. who received questionnaires	no. who returned questionnaires	percentage response
counsellors (NIC)	21	19	95
school psychologists (SP)	24	21	88
youth employment officers (YEO)	51	49	96
educational welfare officers (EWO)	30	20	67
secondary school teachers (SST)	170	97	57

Table 7.7 (Contd.)

group	no. who received questionnaires	no. who returned questionnaires	percent-age response
grammar school teachers (GST)	81	53	58
technical college teachers (TCT)	26	17	65
secondary school principals (SSP)	85	40	47
grammar school principals (GSP)	41	22	54
technical college principals (TCP)	14	8	53
Total	543	346	64

The groups to which questionnaires were distributed were, all the trained counsellors in Northern Ireland (the same group that participated in the time-sampling study, see P. 224), all available school psychologists, youth employment officers and educational welfare officers and to samples of teachers and principals. The sampling procedures were as follows, (1) for the groups of teachers (secondary school, grammar school and technical college teachers) one teacher was randomly selected from each school using the Ministry of Education computer, and (2) for the groups of principals, every second school was chosen from a list supplied by the Ministry of Education. The complete returns for all groups are given in appendix E.2(a).

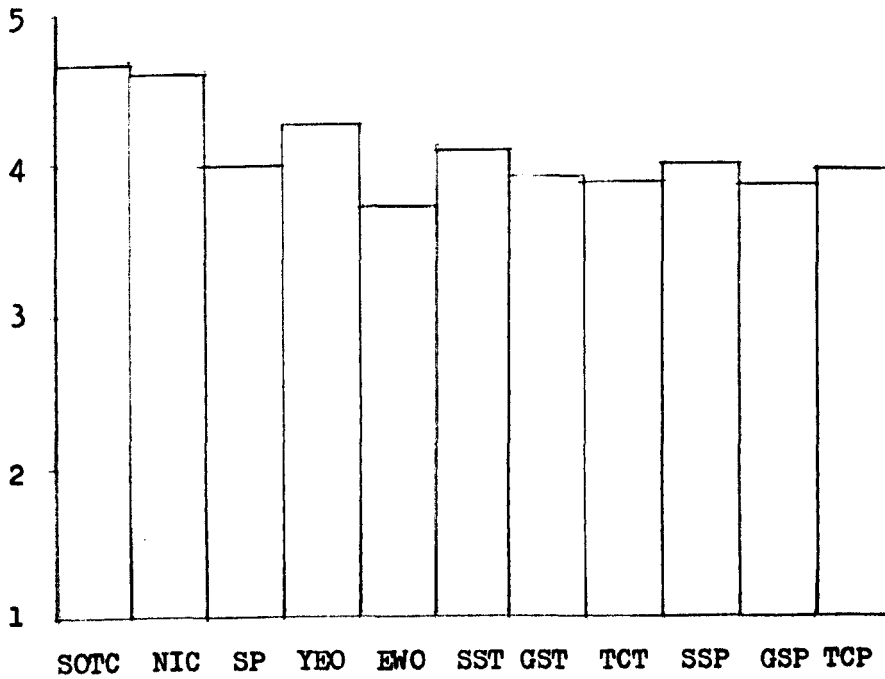
(c) Results.

Mean issues scores were computed for each group and these, together with those for the group of Stoke-on-Trent counsellors, are tabulated in appendix E.2(b) and shown in graphical form (by issue) in diagram 7.

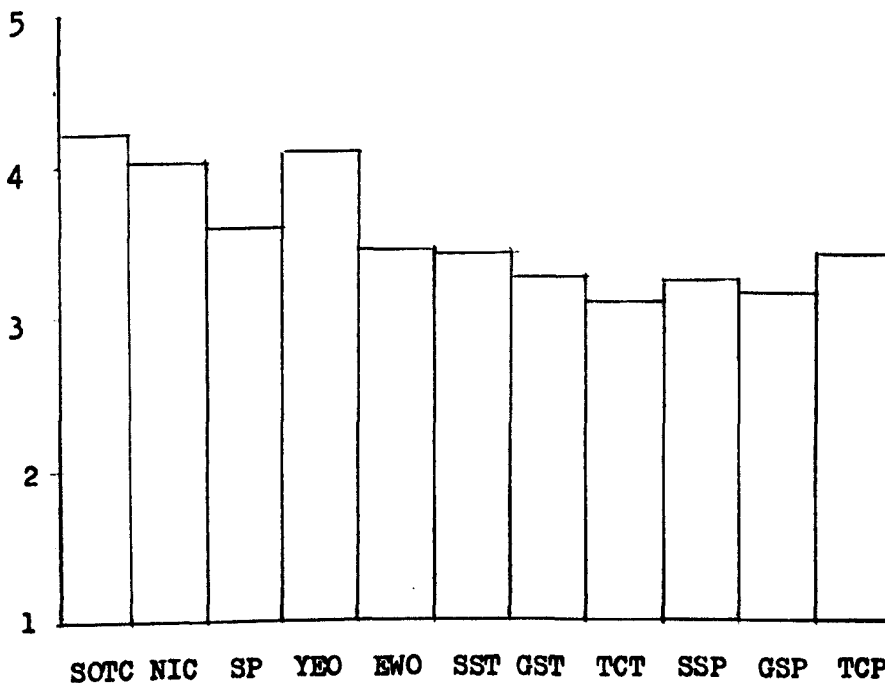
DIAGRAM 7.

Mean issue scores for all eleven groups (issues defined positively, that is, in agreement with the ECR).

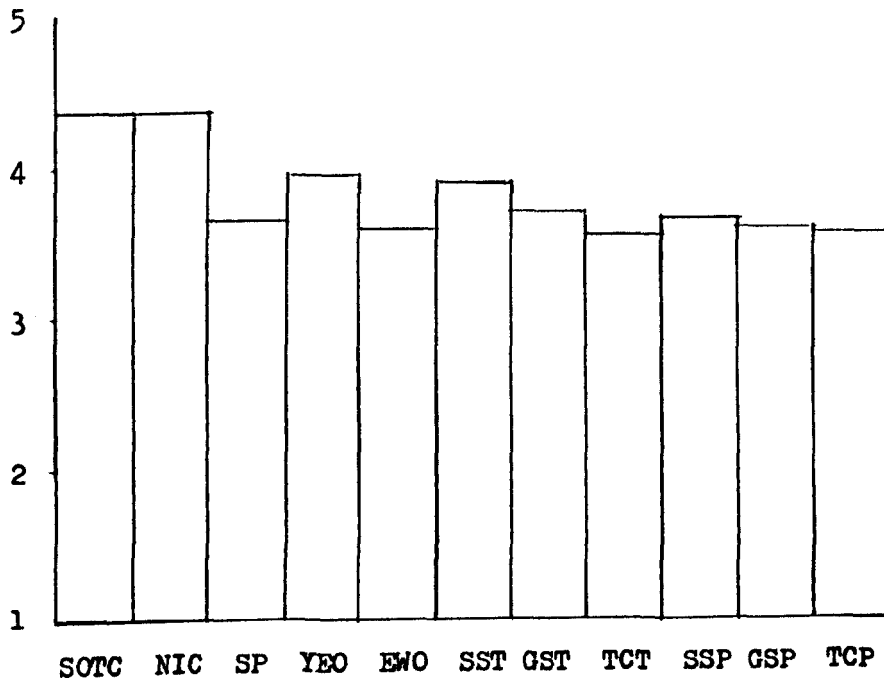
Issue A: a guidance and counselling service is necessary in schools today.



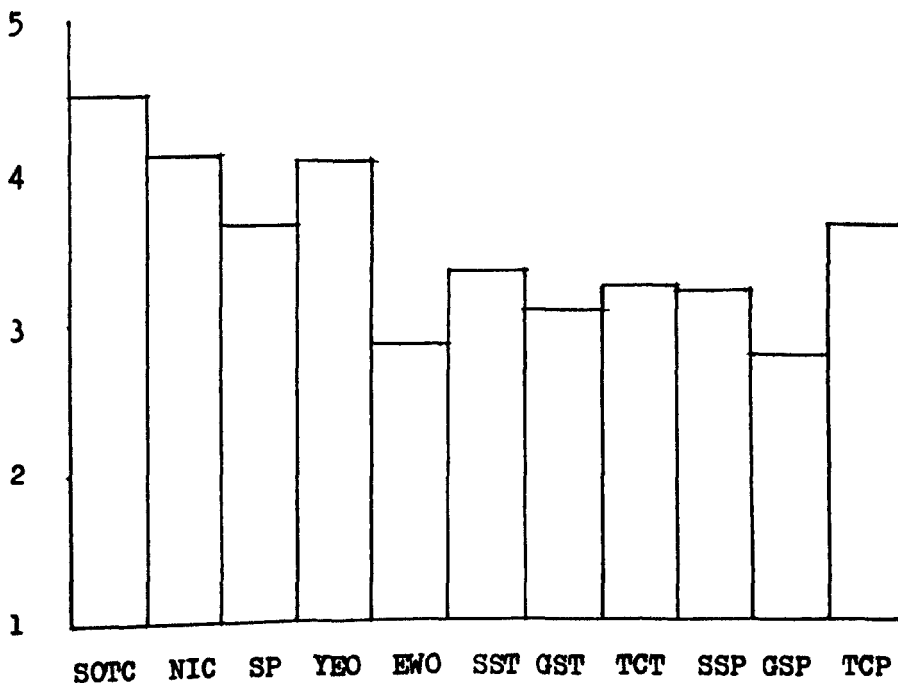
Issue B : counselling is given more effectively by specialists than by class teachers.



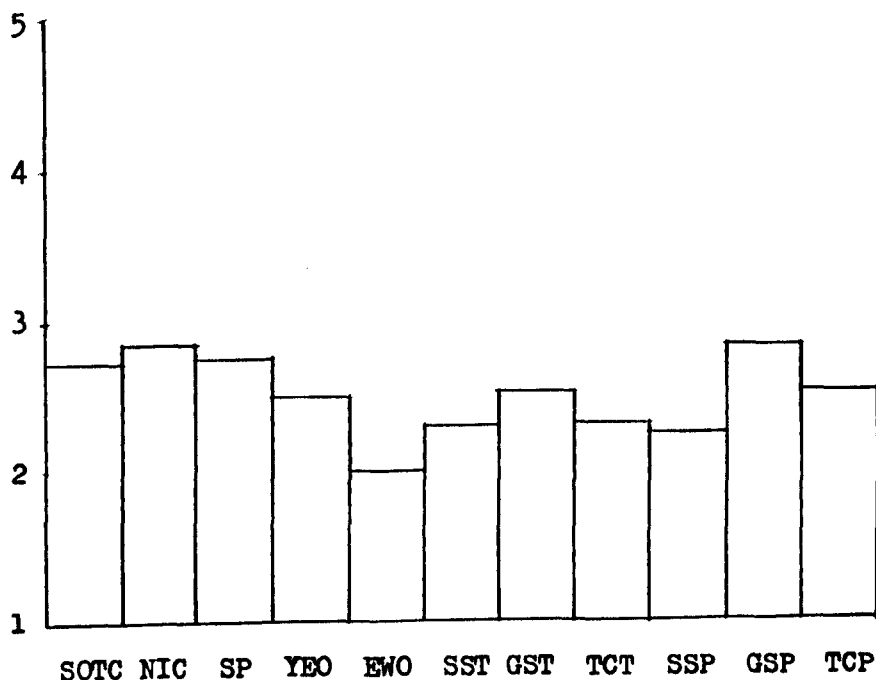
Issue C : the personal-social aspects of guidance are at least as important as the vocational-educational.



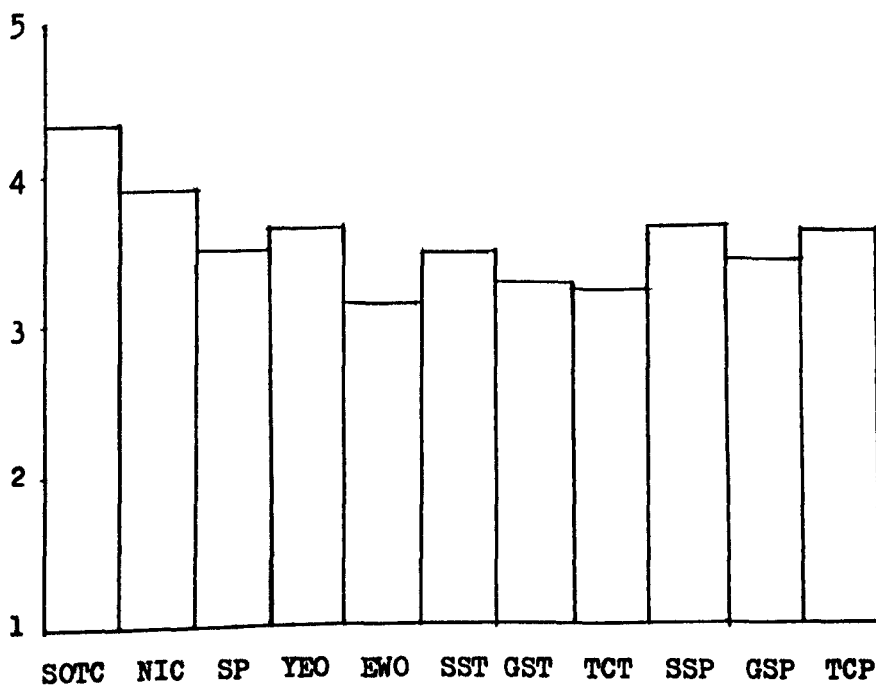
Issue D : the counsellor should act primarily as an agent of change within the school rather than as a "cooler".



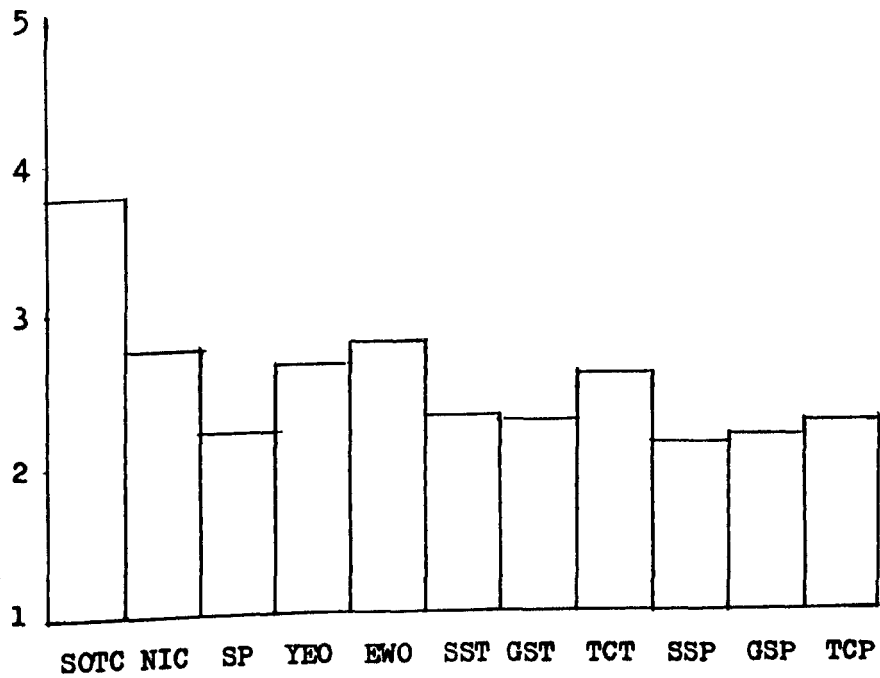
Issue E : the primary concern of guidance staff should be to help the school to act as an agent of social change rather than as an agent of social adjustment.



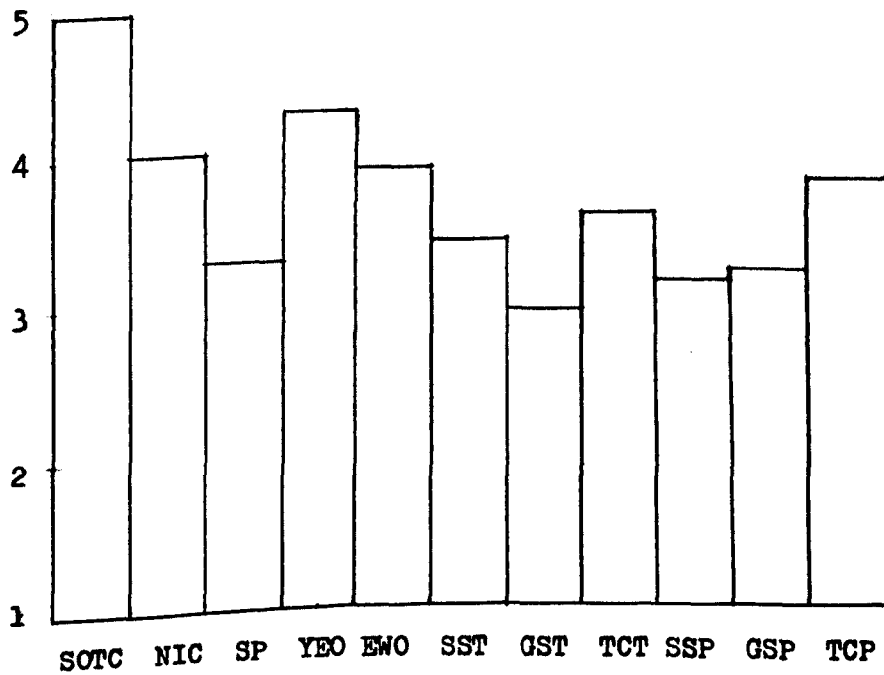
Issue F : the primary aim of guidance is to promote the development of the individual rather than catering for the manpower needs of the economy.



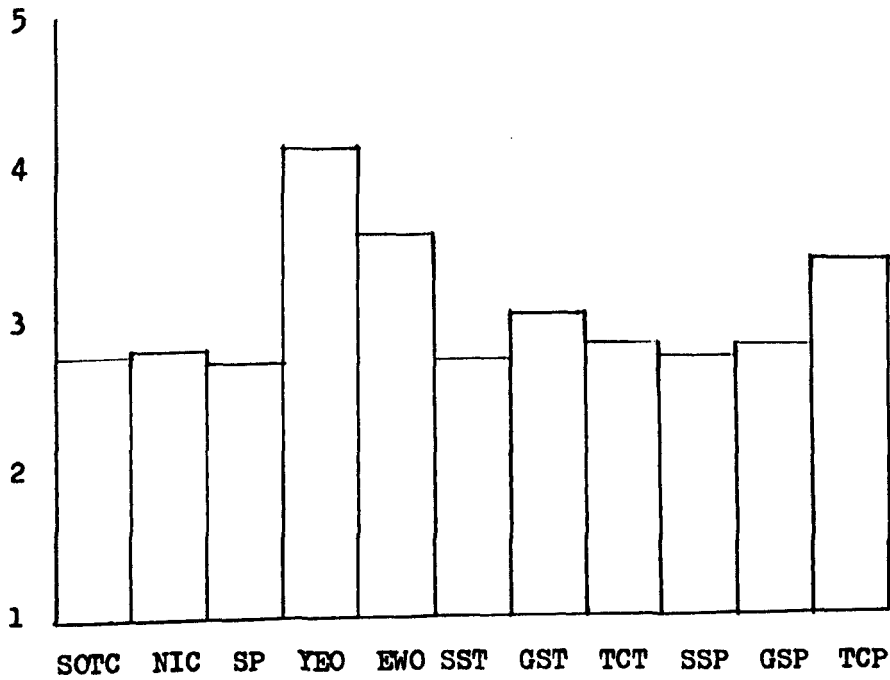
Issue G : counsellors should not do any classroom teaching.



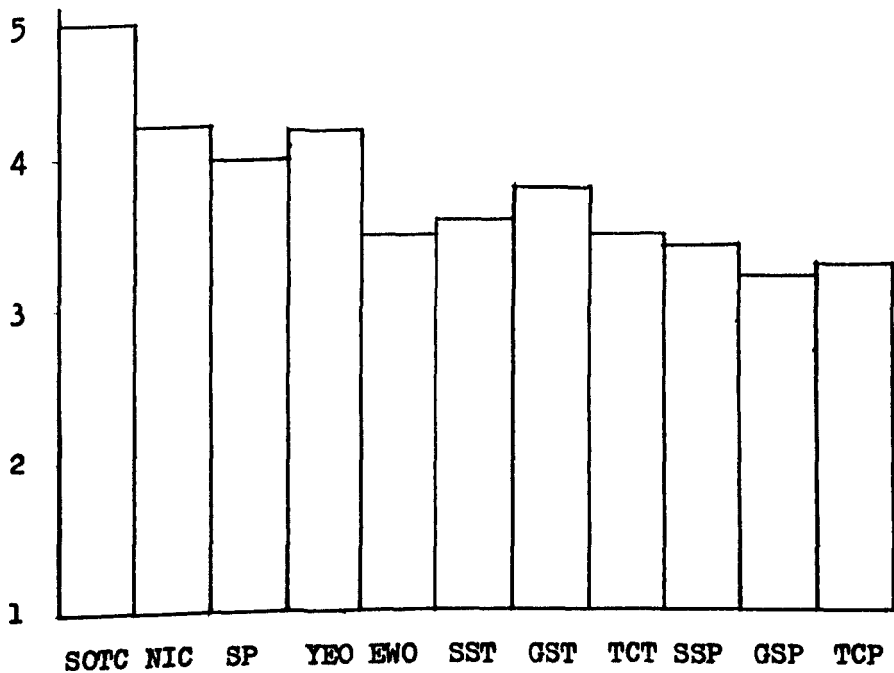
Issue H : counsellors and direct disciplinary functions are incompatible.



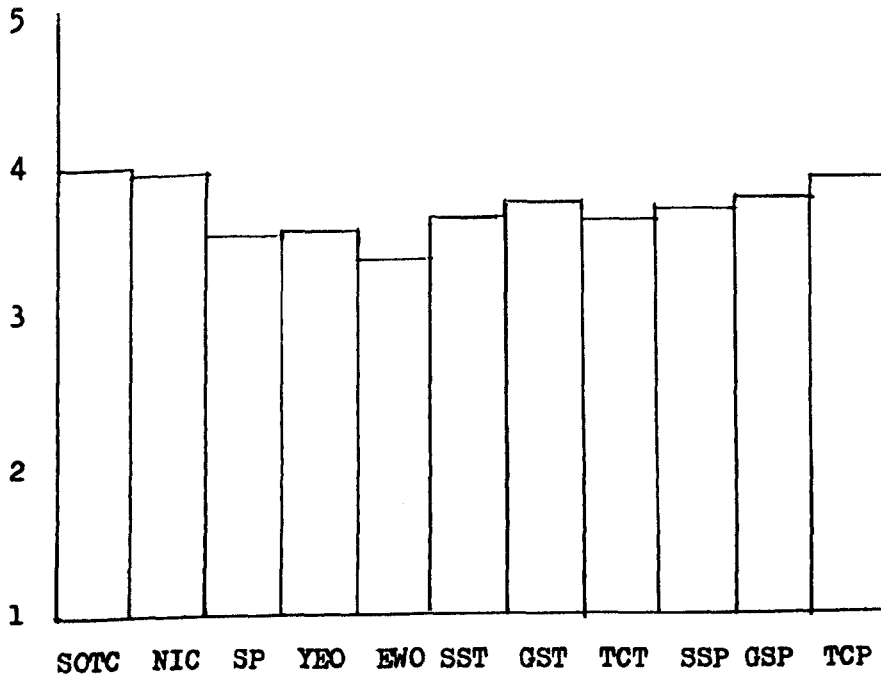
Issue I : recruitment of counsellors should not be restricted to teachers but should be open to related professions.



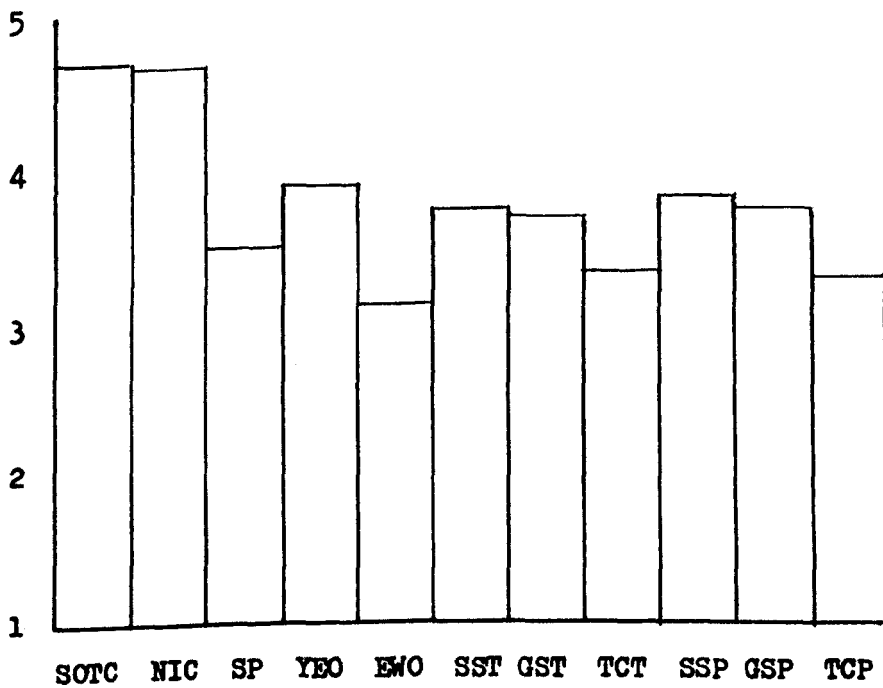
Issue J : counsellors require an extended period of specialised training.



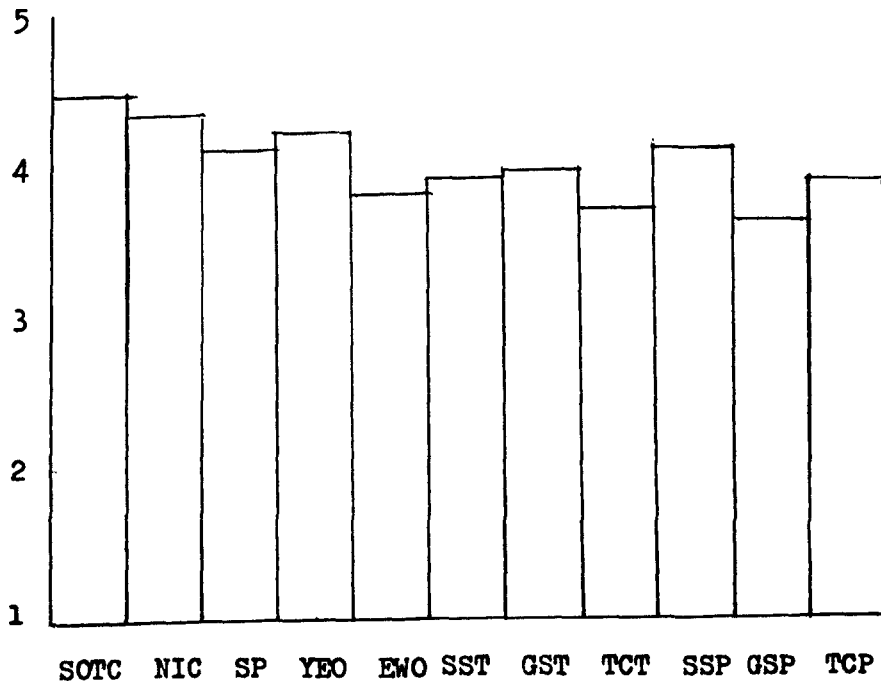
Issue K : counselling is for all the pupils in the school rather than for those with problems only.



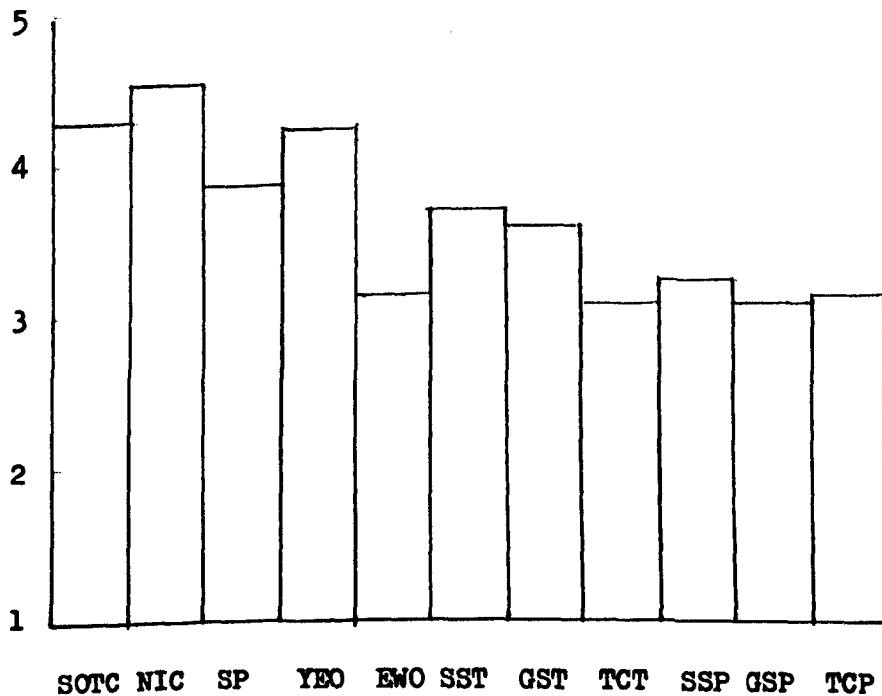
Issue L : counsellors should have the same status and salary as a senior head of department.



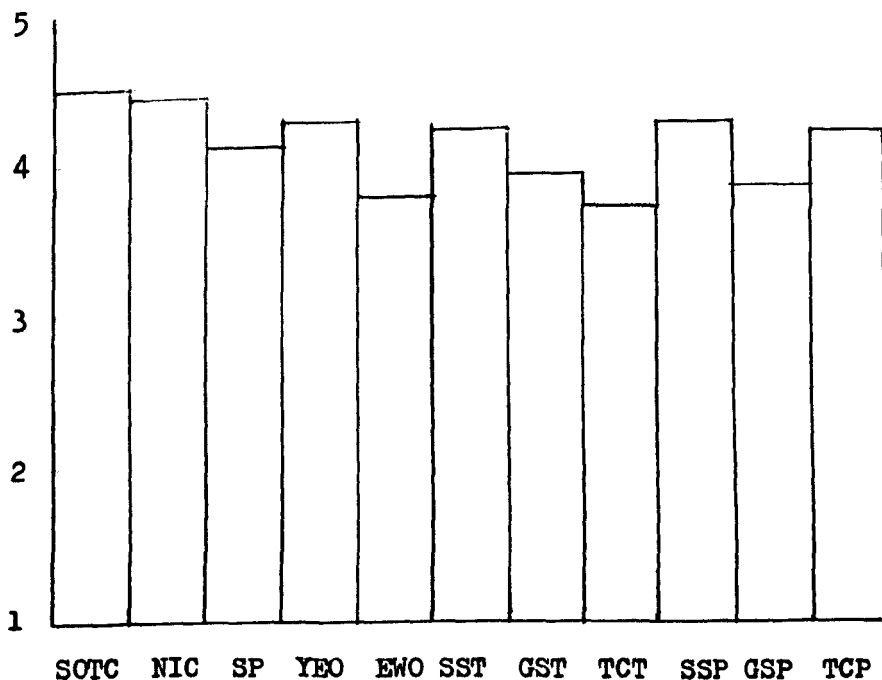
Issue M : tests and records are both necessary and helpful.



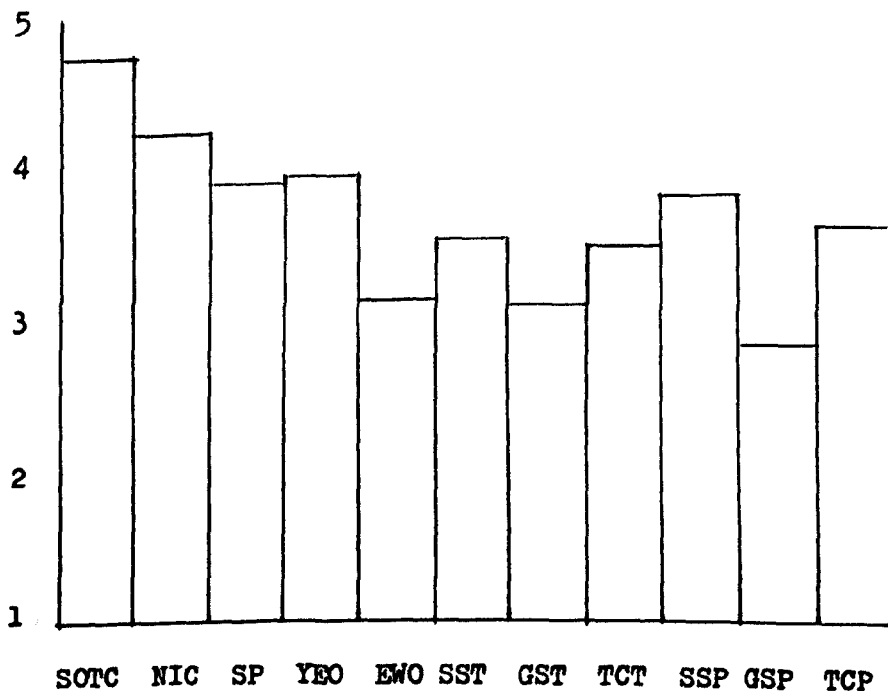
Issue N : strict confidentiality should apply to school counselling interviews.



Issue O : some preliminary training in guidance and counselling principles and techniques should be given to student teachers.



Issue P : pupils should be able to see the counsellor during class-time.



The Northern Ireland counsellors.

The returns and the mean issue scores for the Northern Ireland counsellors are shown in Table 7.8.

TABLE 7.8.

Northern Ireland counsellors (N=19).

Results - attitudes in relation to the ECR.

issue	item	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
A	1	8	10	0	1	0
	26	12	7	0	0	0
	32	14	5	0	0	0
B	14	9	6	3	1	0
	18	2	12	1	3	1
	24	7	11	1	0	0
C	10	11	8	0	0	0
	28	3	9	4	2	1
	33	17	2	0	0	0
D	16	10	4	3	2	0
	29	6	11	2	0	0
E	22	2	5	2	5	5
	31	1	9	2	3	4
F	11	2	10	2	3	2
	12	10	7	1	1	0
G	6	1	4	3	10	1
	15	0	7	3	8	1

Table 7.8 (Contd.)

issue	item	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
H	4	9	5	4	1	0
	21	7	8	1	1	2
I	19	1	5	8	4	1
	27	0	4	6	4	5
J	7	8	10	1	0	0
	17	5	11	2	1	0
K	20	15	4	0	0	0
	23	0	9	3	6	1
L	5	16	3	0	0	0
	25	10	8	1	0	0
M	3	12	6	1	0	0
	9	5	11	3	0	0
N	30	14	5	0	0	0
	34	11	6	0	2	0
O	13	10	7	0	1	1
	35	15	3	0	1	0
P	2	13	4	2	0	0
	8	6	8	2	3	0

The counsellors strongly agreed that:

- (1) guidance and counselling is necessary in secondary and grammar schools today (issue A);

- (2) the status and salary of the senior counsellor should be comparable to that of a senior head of department (issue L);
- (3) strict confidentiality should apply to all that is said in school counselling interviews.

The counsellors agreed but less strongly that:

- (1) guidance is given more effectively by specialists than by class teachers (issue B);
- (2) the personal-social aspects are at least as important as the vocational-educational and counsellors have a vital role to play in this area (issue C);
- (3) counselling and direct disciplinary functions are incompatible (issue H);
- (4) counsellors require a period of full-time training after initial qualification and some teaching experience (issue J);
- (5) tests and records are both necessary and effective (issue M);
- (6) student teachers should, during training, be given some acquaintance with guidance and counselling techniques and principles (issue O);
- (7) pupils should be able to see the counsellor during class-time, and a system should be devised within each school to make this possible.

Intra-group differences.

The scores of the Northern Ireland counsellors confirmed the disagreements on those issues highlighted as controversial by the Stoke-on-Trent survey. There was in both groups a lack of unanimity on the issue of open v. closed recruitment (issue F). Some differences of opinion were also found in both groups about the counsellor's clientele (issue K),

although most agreed that counselling was for all pupils and not just those with problems. The Northern Ireland study tended to support the assertion that "many counsellors, while committed to the ideal of a counselling service for all the pupils in the school, feel that their primary consideration must be with those with problems."⁶²

As in the Stoke-on-Trent group, a small number of Northern Ireland counsellors dissented from the view that the main concern of counselling should be individual development rather than the manpower needs of the economy. Few would disagree with the argument that the identification and development of talent are legitimate and necessary aims of a school guidance programme. However, as has already been pointed out, an overemphasis on economic factors tends to confine guidance activities to educational and vocational guidance at the points in an individual's development when choices have to be made.

The distinction found in the Stoke-on-Trent study on the agent of change v. cooling issue with reference to school (issue D) and to society (issue E) was confirmed in the Northern Ireland study. It appears that many of the counsellors, in common with the members of the other professional groups, recognise the acceptability of social adjustment as an aim of counselling (the mean issue scores of all groups for issue E are under 3). However, since the great majority of counsellors believe that one of their functions is to operate as an agent of change within the school, it is clear that they strongly refute the claim that the aim of counselling is to produce conformists.

Intergroup differences.

In order to carry out a more detailed analysis of the differences

between the counsellors and the various groups, a series of t-tests was carried out on the Queen's University 1906S ICL computer, using a fortran programme specially written for the purpose. The programme enabled a t-score⁶³ to be computed for each issue between any two of the eleven groups. The programme and the analysis of the results are given in appendix E.2.

Stoke-on-Trent counsellors and Northern Ireland counsellors.

TABLE 7.9.

Comparison of scores (SOT counsellors and N.I. counsellors).

issue	SOTC (N=16) means	NIC (N=19) means	t	P df=33
A	4.65	4.56	0.74	
B	4.23	4.04	1.23	
C	4.35	4.35	0.02	
D	4.50	4.18	1.68	
E	2.72	2.84	0.41	
F	4.34	3.87	1.41	
G	3.78	2.76	4.11	< 0.001
H	4.97	4.03	4.68	< 0.001
I	2.75	2.76	-0.05	
J	4.87	4.21	4.68	< 0.001
K	3.94	3.92	0.05	
L	4.69	4.66	0.23	
M	4.47	4.34	0.85	
N	4.28	4.55	-1.30	
O	4.53	4.47	0.29	
P	4.72	4.24	2.64	

It can be seen (Table 7.9) that in general the scores of the Stoke-on-Trent counsellors were in closer agreement with the ECR than those of the Northern Ireland counsellors, although only three of the differences between them are highly significant, namely those for issues G (non-teaching v. teaching counsellors), H (involvement in discipline) and J (necessity of training). Both groups were agreed that the counsellor should not be involved directly in disciplinary procedures and that training for counselling is necessary. The difference on these two issues is the strength of the agreement.

Unlike their Stoke-on-Trent counterparts, the majority of Northern Ireland counsellors (see appendix E.2) were not in favour of non-teaching counsellors, a concept to which there has always been some resistance here. The 1968 Ministry of Education Working Party Report declared that "the Working Party is strongly of the opinion that this American system of having a counsellor attached to a school, with power to influence strongly the whole future of pupils, yet not a member of staff and therefore without responsibility to the school, would be a most unsuitable development in Northern Ireland."⁶³ In addition, the Northern Ireland counsellors have not been exposed in as direct a way to the influence of American counselling specialists as those who have attended training courses in England, where American Fulbright scholars made a major contribution in student training and in influencing counsellor trainers.

Northern Ireland counsellors and school psychologists.

There is a greater commitment to the concept of a school-based counselling service among the Northern Ireland counsellors than among the school psychologists (Table 7.10). Highly significant differences between the two groups, including the desirability of counselling (issue A), the

nature of the service which should be provided (issue C) and the counsellor's function as an agent of change or "cooler" with respect to the school. Since school psychologists often require information about the pupils from teachers and school counsellors, the differences between the two groups on confidentiality (issue N) is somewhat less surprising.

TABLE 7.10.

Comparison of scores (N.I. counsellors and school psychologists).

issue	NIC (N=19) means	SP (N=21) means	t	P df=38
A	4.56	3.97	4.10	< 0.001
B	4.04	3.59	2.62	
C	4.35	3.60	4.16	< 0.001
D	4.18	3.60	3.00	< 0.01
E	2.84	2.74	0.40	
F	3.87	3.50	1.56	
G	2.76	2.21	2.52	
H	4.03	3.29	2.96	< 0.01
I	2.76	2.67	0.38	
J	4.21	4.00	1.04	
K	3.92	3.74	0.65	
L	4.66	3.48	7.11	< 0.001
M	4.34	4.07	1.49	
N	4.55	3.88	3.32	< 0.01
O	4.47	4.14	2.05	
P	4.24	3.88	1.69	

There appears to be a growing interest in counselling among educat-

ional psychologists in Britain, as evidenced by a recent British Psychological Society (Education Section) annual conference on "Treatment", which included as a major theme "counselling in schools". Many of the conference members felt it necessary to face the inadequacy of the present system with its long waiting lists. As a possible alternative, they welcomed counsellors as (a) a first screening agency, and (b) resource workers for helping teachers understand and cope with the difficulties they meet, and not so readily and often inappropriately refer cases to the school psychological service.⁶⁵

Northern Ireland counsellors and youth employment officers.

The close working relationship which, as has already been mentioned, exists between counsellors in Northern Ireland and the youth employment officers is reflected in the degree of similarity between the two sets of scores (Table 7.11). Only two highly significant differences occurred and these were on issues which are concerned mainly with professional matters, namely open or closed recruitment (issue I) and the status of the counsellor within the school (issue L). The differences between the two groups on both issues are closely bound up with their professional interests and were, therefore, to a large extent predictable. The youth employment officers favour open recruitment at least partly, perhaps, because it would open up another line of career development for them. Similarly, teachers are obviously more concerned with their status within the school than the youth employment officers are.

Northern Ireland counsellors and educational welfare officers.

The results provide confirmation of the view that of the extra-school guidance and welfare agencies, those who feel most threatened by the develop-

TABLE 7.11.

Comparison of scores (Northern Ireland counsellors and youth employment officers).

issue	NIC (N=19) means	YEO (N=49) means	t	P df=66
A	4.56	4.25	2.54	
B	4.04	4.10	-0.46	
C	4.35	3.95	2.61	
D	4.18	4.03	0.90	
E	2.84	2.49	1.60	
F	3.87	3.64	1.05	
G	2.76	3.15	-1.94	
H	4.03	4.27	-1.37	
I	2.76	4.12	-8.61	<0.001
J	4.21	4.19	0.10	
K	3.92	3.77	0.67	
L	4.66	3.88	5.69	<0.001
M	4.34	4.20	0.94	
N	4.55	4.24	1.80	
O	4.47	4.31	1.11	
P	4.24	3.96	1.76	

ment of school counselling services and, therefore, most resistant to it are the educational welfare officers. On thirteen of the sixteen issues, the differences between them and the counsellors are highly significant (Table 7.12). Their lack of enthusiasm for counselling in schools appears to stem from the fear that the advent of school counsellors, who will

TABLE 7.12.

Comparison of scores (N.I. counsellors and educational welfare officers).

issue	NIC (N=19) means	EWO (N=20) means	t	P df=37
A	4.56	3.70	5.08	< 0.001
B	4.04	3.45	3.17	< 0.01
C	4.35	3.57	4.60	< 0.001
D	4.18	2.80	6.65	< 0.001
E	2.84	2.00	3.43	< 0.01
F	3.87	3.12	2.94	< 0.01
G	2.76	2.77	-0.05	
H	4.03	3.90	0.57	
I	2.76	3.52	-3.01	< 0.01
J	4.21	3.48	3.77	< 0.001
K	3.92	3.33	2.06	
L	4.66	3.10	8.83	< 0.001
M	4.34	3.80	3.18	< 0.01
N	4.55	3.17	4.90	< 0.001
O	4.47	3.80	3.02	< 0.01
P	4.24	3.10	4.70	< 0.001

probably be given special responsibilities for liaison with extra-school agencies, including that between home and school, will exclude them from the social work responsibilities which they have only recently acquired, and will restrict them once again to the role of school attendance officers.⁶⁶

Northern Ireland counsellors and the teachers (secondary school, grammar school and technical college).

Significant differences occurred between the Northern Ireland counsellors and all the groups of teachers, in the case of the secondary school teachers on eleven issues, the grammar school teachers twelve and the technical college teachers ten (Table 7.13). Although their commitment was predictably not as great as that of the counsellors, there was general support for the view that school guidance and counselling was necessary (issue A), but much less for the establishment of a service run by specialists (issue B). The teachers were less concerned than the counsellors to emphasise the personal-social aspects of guidance at the expense of the vocational-educational (issue C).

They are also less convinced of the need for a counsellor to hold a senior position or of the effectiveness of tests and records. Perhaps more important for the running of a service within the school, a minority of teachers (about 25%) disagree with the principle of confidentiality applied to school counselling and with allowing pupils out of class to attend counselling interviews. Of particular interest are the differences between the counsellors and the teachers on the position of the counsellor as an agent of change or a "cooler" with respect to the school. Clearly a large number of teachers would be uneasy about the counsellor acting as other than a loyal witness to the values of the school.

Northern Ireland counsellors and the principals (secondary school, grammar school and technical college).

Differences comparable with those between the counsellors and the teachers were found to exist between the counsellors and the principals,

TABLE 7.13.

Comparison of scores (N.I. counsellors and 3 groups of teachers).

issue	NIC (N=19) means	SST (N=97) means	t NIC/ GST	P df=114	GST (N=53) means	t NIC/ GST	P df=70	TCT (N=17) means	t NIC/ TCT	P df=34
A	4.56	4.11	4.05	<0.001	3.91	5.08	<0.001	3.86	4.40	<0.001
B	4.04	3.40	4.24	<0.001	3.23	4.77	<0.001	3.10	4.81	<0.001
C	4.35	3.88	3.26	<0.01	3.67	4.33	<0.001	3.53	4.35	<0.001
D	4.18	3.29	4.61	<0.001	3.03	5.33	<0.001	3.18	4.37	<0.001
E	2.84	2.28	2.94	<0.01	2.50	1.62		2.29	1.85	
F	3.87	3.45	1.96		3.23	2.67	<0.01	3.18	2.41	
G	2.76	2.28	2.49		2.25	2.66	<0.01	2.56	0.74	
H	4.03	3.41	2.81	<0.01	2.94	5.00	<0.001	3.59	1.59	
I	2.76	2.68	0.44		3.00	-1.11		2.79	0.12	
J	4.21	3.57	3.43	<0.001	3.79	2.26		3.44	3.50	<0.01
K	3.92	3.60	1.40		3.71	1.00		3.59	1.15	
L	4.66	3.58	6.07	<0.001	3.66	6.28	<0.001	3.29	6.60	<0.001
M	4.34	3.88	2.96	<0.01	3.94	2.74	<0.01	3.68	3.48	<0.01
N	4.55	3.71	4.90	<0.001	3.59	4.54	<0.001	3.09	5.59	<0.001
O	4.47	4.25	1.50		3.95	3.62	<0.001	3.74	3.27	<0.01
P	4.24	3.49	3.53	<0.001	3.07	5.12	<0.001	3.47	2.94	<0.01

TABLE 7.14.

Comparison of scores (N.I. counsellors and 3 groups of principals).

issue	NIC (N=19) means	SSP (N=40) means	t NIC/ SSP	P df=57	GSP (N=22) means	t NIC/ GSP	P df=39	TCP (N=8) means	t NIC/ GSP	P df=25
A	4.56	3.97	4.26	<0.001	3.83	4.80	<0.001	3.96	3.53	<0.01
B	4.04	3.21	5.28	<0.001	3.18	4.70	<0.001	3.42	2.70	
C	4.35	3.64	4.57	<0.001	3.56	4.69	<0.001	3.54	3.46	<0.01
D	4.18	3.15	5.25	<0.001	2.73	6.40	<0.001	3.69	1.87	
E	2.84	2.21	2.88	<0.01	2.80	0.18		2.50	0.94	
F	3.87	3.60	1.23		3.36	2.12		3.56	0.88	
G	2.76	2.11	3.58	<0.001	2.14	2.76	<0.01	2.25	1.66	
H	4.03	3.14	3.86	<0.001	3.20	3.16	<0.01	3.81	0.64	
I	2.76	2.67	0.43		2.75	0.05		3.31	1.74	
J	4.21	3.37	4.30	<0.001	3.18	4.62	<0.001	3.25	3.62	<0.01
K	3.92	3.66	1.21		3.73	0.83		3.87	0.14	
L	4.66	3.80	5.40	<0.001	3.70	5.70	<0.001	3.25	7.02	<0.001
M	4.34	4.10	1.54		3.66	3.38	<0.01	3.87	2.29	
N	4.55	3.25	5.93	<0.001	3.09	5.82	<0.001	3.12	5.14	<0.001
O	4.47	4.31	1.06		3.89	2.69		4.25	0.85	
P	4.24	3.81	2.46		2.82	6.35	<0.001	3.62	2.17	

although on only 5 of the issues did the differences between the counsellors and the technical college principals reach the significance level of 1% (Table 7.14). It may be that since the principals of technical colleges are more used to having part-time and non-teaching staff, they find it easier to accept counsellors than principals of secondary and grammar schools. However, the results have to be treated cautiously since the number of technical college principals sampled was small (N=8).

Like the teachers, the principals were generally in favour of a school guidance and counselling service (issue A), but a substantial minority saw no need for specialists. There was evidence of a lot of ambivalence and some hostility, especially from grammar school principals, 50% of whom disagreed or strongly disagreed with the notion that counsellors should act as agents of change with respect to the schools. The results show that principals have doubts about confidentiality (issue N), the need for counsellors to be trained (issue J) and the counsellors' excluding themselves from a role in the disciplinary procedures of the school.

Secondary school teachers and principals, grammar school teachers and principals, and technical college teachers and principals.

When the results of teachers and principals from the same types of school are compared, only one of the t-scores reaches a significance level of 1% (Table 7.15). There is a significant difference between the scores of grammar school teachers and principals on issue J, that is, the necessity for counsellors to have specialist training for the job. However, the overall impression from the scores is that the views of the teachers and the principals from the same types of school are in fairly close agreement.

TABLE 7.15.

t-scores - teachers and principals in secondary and grammar schools and technical colleges.

issue	t SST/ SSP df=135	t GST/ GSP df=73	t TCT/ TCP df=23
A	1.55	0.58	-0.39
B	1.73	0.31	-1.21
C	2.22	0.70	-0.05
D	0.94	1.39	-1.61
E	0.54	-1.65	-0.67
F	-0.9	-0.62	-1.01
G	1.24	0.59	0.82
H	1.63	-1.24	-0.63
I	0.00	1.20	-1.60
J	1.30	3.09 **	0.54
K	-0.36	-0.10	-0.78
L	-1.60	-0.27	0.13
M	-1.84	1.78	-0.74
N	2.59	2.22	-0.09
O	-0.62	0.47	-1.92
P	-2.14	1.13	-0.43

** : significant at the 1% level.

Secondary school teachers and grammar school teachers; secondary school principals and grammar school principals.

Highly significant differences on three issues (Table 7.16) were found in each of the comparisons between the staffs of secondary and grammar schools (teachers and principals), but probably the most interesting are issues O and P, the differences being significant in both cases. The differences for issue O, which refers to the question of counsellor training

for student teachers may be a reflection of the fact that many teachers in Northern Ireland grammar schools are graduates who have had no professional training (this was made compulsory only last year). Many teachers are reluctant to allow pupils out of class for counselling, but this view appears to be more strongly held in grammar schools particularly among principals, and possibly reflects anxieties about pupils completing an examination syllabus.

TABLE 7.16.

t-scores - secondary school teachers and grammar school teachers; secondary school principals and grammar school principals.

issue	$\frac{t}{df_{SST}/GST_{148}}$	$\frac{t}{df_{SSP}/GSP_{60}}$
A	2.41	0.89
B	1.58	0.17
C	2.14	0.54
D	1.85	2.07
E	1.77	3.23 **
F	1.47	1.19
G	0.29	0.14
H	3.13 **	0.30
I	2.38	0.37
J	1.71	0.91
K	0.70	0.34
L	0.63	0.56
M	0.59	2.51
N	0.71	0.65
O	3.13 **	2.81 **
P	2.80 **	5.71 ***

** : significant at the 1% level.

*** : significant at the 0.1% level.

Factor analysis of the results.

A factor analysis of the data obtained in the Stoke-on-Trent and Northern Ireland attitude surveys was undertaken with the aim of ascertaining if the original 16 issues (tests) could be grouped into a smaller number of broad factors. Correlations between the issue scores for all 362 cases were computed and a first-order factor analysis carried out using the SPSS⁶⁷ (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) package for multi-variate analysis. The programme provides for the calculation of a mean and standard deviation for each variable, an inter-variable correlation matrix, a principal components analysis, and a rotation to the varimax criterion.

TABLE 7.17.

Mean variable scores and standard deviations for 362 cases.

Variable (issue)	No. of items	Mean variable score	s.d.
A	3	12.22	1.84
B	3	10.53	2.19
C	3	11.41	1.65
D	2	6.79	1.79
E	2	4.86	1.86
F	2	6.98	1.41
G	2	4.99	1.95
H	2	7.11	2.20
I	2	5.98	2.14
J	2	7.48	1.71
K	2	7.38	1.32
L	2	7.43	1.72
M	2	7.98	1.36
N	2	7.38	2.06
O	2	8.33	1.30
P	2	7.17	1.99

Analysis of the intercorrelation matrix (Table 7.18) shows that some fairly high correlations exist between the variables, the largest being 0.509, between issues B and J (see 7.18). Negligible correlations were found between issue E and the other variables.

TABLE 7.18.

Intercorrelation matrix.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
A																
B	.356															
C	.392	.329														
D	.364	.412	.344													
E	-.073	.066	-.072	.100												
F	.270	.258	.371	.306	.017											
G	.142	.479	.236	.398	.050	.226										
H	.210	.328	.235	.415	.091	.255	.410									
I	.059	.346	.079	.295	.096	.020	.390	.268								
J	.281	.509	.309	.433	.018	.236	.444	.386	.185							
K	.257	.161	.078	.200	.083	.182	.120	.197	.123	.174						
L	.400	.228	.262	.247	.025	.156	.112	.026	.031	.180	.174					
M	.313	.211	.268	.183	-.083	.118	.125	.051	-.048	.256	.180	.214				
N	.174	.348	.315	.396	.098	.182	.376	.299	.233	.378	.088	.165	.130			
O	.432	.130	.262	.246	-.011	.209	.000	.062	-.051	.148	.155	.297	.130	.060		
P	.389	.315	.286	.378	-.008	.296	.204	.251	.035	.276	.119	.311	.199	.214	.220	

First-order factor analysis.

A first-order principal components analysis was carried out. Using the Kaiser criterion, that all factors greater than unity be extracted in the principal components, three factors emerged accounting for 46.9 per cent of the total variance (Table 7.19).

TABLE 7.19.

Eigen values and percentage variance accounted for by first-order factors extracted in principal components analysis.

Factor number	eigen value	% of variance	cumulative % of variance
1	4.508	28.2	28.2
2	1.882	11.8	39.9
3	1.115	7.0	46.9
4	0.970	6.1	53.0
5	0.931	5.8	58.8
6	0.817	5.1	63.9
7	0.783	4.9	68.8
8	0.743	4.6	73.4
9	0.696	4.4	77.8
10	0.630	3.9	81.7
11	0.582	3.6	85.4
12	0.548	3.4	88.8
13	0.497	3.1	91.9
14	0.465	2.9	94.8
15	0.445	2.8	97.6
16	0.387	2.4	100.0

Using the varimax rotation and taking factor loadings greater than 0.40, the three factors yielded are as follows:

Factor I (28.2 per cent of variance).

TABLE 7.20.

Factor I - loadings.

code	issue	loading	eigen value
B	counselling - by specialists v. by teachers	0.6759	
D	agent of change v. cooling (re. school)	0.6759	
G	counsellors - non-teaching v. teaching	0.7757	
H	counsellors - disciplinary role or not	0.6365	
I	recruitment - open v. restricted to teachers	0.6065	
J	training for counsellors - necessary v. unnecessary	0.6394	
N	confidentiality - absolute v. qualified	0.6186	4.5076

Most of these issues relate to the distinction made by Law between the supplementary and integrated forms of organisational relationship. The supplementary approach to counselling in schools emphasises the value of the counsellor's remaining apart from the mainstream of the school. The counsellor provides a specialist, confidential service, in which the emphasis is on one-to-one counselling. He does not teach and he eschews any connection with the disciplinary procedures of the school. One example of the supplementary model is that which Anne Jones⁶⁹ delineates in describing her work at Mayfield School. This strategy has implications for recruitment and training and for the counsellor's role as an agent of change within the school.

The integrated model, on the other hand, asserts the importance of the counsellor's being an integral part of the school system. The

counsellor is less preoccupied with one-to-one counselling with individual pupils and more with group work, consultancy and supportive work with teachers, the building up and maintenance of an effective pastoral care system and liaison work with parents and extra-school agencies.

This factor is, therefore, identified as an Organisational Relationship Factor.

Factor II (11.8 per cent of variance).

TABLE 7.21.

Factor II - loadings.

code	issue	loading	eigen value
A	counselling - necessary v. unnecessary	0.7471	
C	personal-social v. vocational-educational	0.5293	
F	individual development v. manpower needs	0.4315	
L	senior status - necessary v. unnecessary	0.6314	
M	tests and records - helpful v. unhelpful	0.5328	
O	counsellor training for student teachers - desirable v. undesirable	0.6935	
P	time for counselling - inside v. outside class-time	0.5374	1.8824

The issues making up this factor are mainly concerned with the nature of the guidance and counselling service which it is necessary to provide. Is a guidance and counselling service necessary? (issue A). Should the main thrust of the service be personal and social or restricted to the vocational and educational aspects? (issue C). Is the primary focus of

concern the individual in development or manpower considerations? (issue F). The other four issues (status, tests and records, time for counselling and teachers who can take their place intelligently in a guidance regime in schools) are interpreted as referring to some of the most important conditions which must be present to make the service effective.

This factor is, therefore, identified as a Nature of Service Factor.

Factor III (7.0 per cent of variance).

TABLE 7.22.

Factor III - loadings.

code	issue	loading	eigen value
E	agent of change v. cooling (re. society)	0.7160	
K	counselling - for all pupils v. for those with problems	0.6015	1.1153

Factor III combines two issues both concerned with the counsellor's responsibilities, namely (a) his responsibility, and therefore that of the school as an agent of change or alternatively as a "cooler" with respect to society, and (b) whether his main responsibility is to all children or those with problems. But, as Bernard has pointed out, " 'individual' and 'society' are merely different ways of looking at the same thing".⁶⁵

This factor is, therefore, considered to be Adjustment v. Self-determination Factor.

The three factors identified by the analysis appear to suggest that, in considering the setting up of a school-based guidance and counselling service or in examining one already in existence, three basic questions

appear to be fundamental:

1. What is the relationship of guidance and counselling and its personnel to the total educational enterprise? Is it to function as an integral part of the school system or supplementary to it?
2. What is the nature of the service? What purposes does it serve? And how can it be made more effective in achieving these purposes?
3. What is the responsibility of the school in general and the counsellor in particular to the individual and to society? How does the counsellor interpret his responsibilities to both in terms of his clientele?

(d) Summary of the findings.

The application of this model to the data obtained in the Northern Ireland study will provide a synthesis of the views of the groups concerning a school-based guidance and counselling service.

There is little doubt that a substantial majority of all the groups see guidance and counselling as an educational service integrated with the other services provided by the school. In general, the consensus is that counsellors should do some teaching but should not be involved directly with disciplinary procedures, although a substantial minority of teachers dispute this. A majority in the teacher groups believes that the service should be provided by trained specialists and that confidentiality is a necessary basis for its effective operation, although in both cases a large number of the teachers expressed their disagreement. Most thought that counsellors should be recruited from the teaching profession; only the youth employment officers, the educational welfare officers and the technical college principals provided majorities in favour of recruitment being open to

professions other than teaching. The counsellor groups, the school psychologists and the youth employment officers agreed with the view that counsellors should operate as an agent of change with respect to the school, but the teacher groups, with the exception of the technical college principals, were reluctant to accept this point of view. Half of the grammar school principals disagreed or strongly disagreed with it.

The guidance and counselling service was thought by a large majority of each group to be necessary. Most were of the opinion that it should be concerned with all aspects of the development of young people rather than be confined to vocational and educational questions. Similarly, the majority opinion in each group was that the primary objective of the service is individual development rather than manpower considerations. Certain conditions seem to be perceived as necessary for an effective guidance and counselling service. These include a senior position for the senior counsellor in the school, appropriate use of tests and records, adequate time for counselling and the support of a teaching staff knowledgeable about and committed to guidance philosophy and practice.

There is wide acceptance of the view that the responsibilities of counsellors extend to all the children in the school. However, there is evidence to suggest that some feel that inevitably counsellors, in allocating their time and resources, must be prepared to discriminate positively in favour of those with problems. There is wide disagreement about the responsibility of counsellors as agents of change or "coolers" with respect to society. It is clear that majorities of all groups, including the Stoke-on-Trent counsellors, agree that social adjustment is an acceptable and valid aim of counselling. Thus it appears that the fears of some including Daws that counsellors might "abdicate a socialisation

function, partly because the non-directive principle forbids it and partly because they do not want to be seen as agents of the establishment concerned with helping young people to adapt, to fit in, to find an acceptable and congenial social role"⁷⁰ are without foundation.

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CHAPTER 8.

Guidance and counselling in schools.

One of the advantages of a historical perspective is that it helps to illuminate our understanding of the present position to which historical processes have led and thus enable future trends to be anticipated and, if possible, directed and re-directed in the most desirable ways. It has been shown that the modern concept of guidance, as a service distinguished from normal classroom practice, is a relative newcomer on the educational scene, that derives from three main sources, the psychological-educational, the medical-psychiatric and the vocational-occupational. The first two have been described as constituting the mental health (personal-emotional) aspect of guidance and counselling, the third as the forerunner of contemporary vocational guidance (help with decision-making).

Since the early work in psychometrics, vocational guidance and guidance for maladjusted children, guidance has acquired a much wider meaning. It now covers guidance in all aspects of development for all children. This broader concept seems to have been the response of twentieth century educational practice to the unique complexity of contemporary social, economic and political life. When the role of the school was more narrowly conceived, the numbers to be educated much smaller, and the amount and diversity of the material to be learned by the pupils less monumental in scope, guidance was not considered to be something separate and distinct from the teacher's normal classroom functions.

Thus in recent times the concept of guidance has acquired new meaning: some critics, particularly in the U.S.A. would say that it has lost all meaning. When it was restricted to vocational guidance or guidance with

disturbed children it was concerned with readily recognisable and agreed goals. The diffuse and less easily identifiable purposes associated with the contemporary concept have caused some to question its usefulness and recommend that its use be discontinued.

What meanings have been assigned to term guidance? Cribbin², in a well-known article claimed to have identified ten different concepts of guidance, Zaccaria³ has listed seven different approaches, Barry and Wolf⁴ eight; Shertzer and Stone⁵ have outlined nine different models of guidance, three of which they classify as contemporary. Arbuckle⁶ has suggested that guidance is used in three different ways in the literature, (1) as an educational concept - a way of thinking about the educational process, (2) as an educational construct - a term to cover those experiences which can be construed as helping pupils towards "self-actualisation", and (3) as an educational service - a reference to the various guidance activities which schools should provide to achieve their aims. However, even allowing for such distinctions, which are important, there will always be differences in views about guidance, just as there will be about education, since one's judgments on both will reflect one's philosophy of life and one's views on the nature of man. That does not mean that a large measure of agreement cannot be found. On the contrary, various principles which are accepted by nearly all engaged in guidance have been listed in numerous books and articles.

The difficulties of achieving a satisfactory definition of guidance have been referred to by Hall and Lauwerys in their editors' introduction to the 1955 Year book of Education, which was devoted entirely to guidance and counselling. After many discussions and reformulations, they proposed, following Morris, the following as a working definition, "Guidance.....

is a process of helping individuals through their own efforts to discover and develop their potentialities both for personal happiness and social usefulness".⁷ They recognised clearly that this final attempt suffered from the drawback of being too wide even for their own editorial purposes and thus they applied three "severe criteria of exclusion", those of degree, extension and reference.⁸

However, their definition had the merit of highlighting the dual responsibilities of guidance, (1) to individual development and (2) to the needs of society. As was noted in a previous chapter, the early pioneers of guidance, particularly in the U.S.A. "were interested in changing both people and social systems. They wanted counsellors to work toward both social goals and the development of the individual client."⁹ Theoreticians in the guidance field have found it difficult to define a concept which would encompass both these objectives. One of the most fruitful is the notion of developmental tasks first put forward by Havighurst. He described a developmental task as "a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to happiness and success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by society, and difficulty with later tasks."¹⁰

Similar formulations to that of Havighurst have been described by Super¹¹ (vocational development tasks) and Erikson¹² (psycho-social tasks of development). Tyler¹³, Mathewson¹⁴ and Blocher¹⁵ have also been influential in helping to evolve "a concept of guidance as a developmental process which stresses help to all students in all areas of their vocational, educational and personal-social experiences at all stages of their lives."¹⁶ Thus Dugan defined guidance as "encouragement of youth's development in terms of

a basic concern about individual differences and as active assistance to youth in making appropriate adjustments to personal, educational and vocational needs and problems."¹⁷

More recently, Blocher, Dustin and Dugan¹⁸ have turned to a systems approach in order to try to formulate an integrated approach to guidance. They employ concepts taken from the field of cybernetics, e.g. control, feed-back and entropy. Thus they take the view that "the fundamental mission of the guidance programme is to reduce entropy within the educational system. By involving the system's individual members in self-directed changes, education can experience.....self-renewal."¹⁹

These views of guidance differ markedly from that which prevails in some European countries, where guidance is defined as the identification of talent, a process which attempts to allocate children at an early age to appropriate educational pathways through the secondary and tertiary systems. Reuchlin has called such a pattern of educational organisation "vertical" and pointed out that "guidance can never be anything but vocational as long as a vertical system of differentiation exists."²⁰ Although in theory the process allows for possibilities of transfer and consultations with parents, it amounts in practice to a fairly inflexible system of post-primary streaming.

This concept of guidance (institutional guidance and decision-making) would seem to negate many of the principles discussed above. It questions not at all the current social scene and its occupational structure, but directly or indirectly accepts it as given. Like the 11+ and the dual system of secondary education, it makes certain assumptions about the proportions of the population for which an academic type of schooling is

appropriate. It is not only at variance with the modern client-centred attitudes to guidance and counselling but also to the more directive type of guidance traditionally given by many concerned teachers to individual pupils.

In a classic article in the 1955 Year Book of Education, in which he examined "Guidance as a concept in educational philosophy", Morris²¹ recognised as crucial the duality of the responsibilities of the guidance service and the school to the individual and to society. He employed the concept of mediation to bring together these twin purposes and quoted approvingly the statement of policy of the National Foundation for Educational Research, "Education, viewed as guidance, is the process of mediating between the growing child, his need, powers, interests, and experience, on the one hand, and the needs, responsibilities, opportunities, and values of adult life on the other."²²

His discussion has much in common with an earlier incisive analysis by McCallister²³, to whom Morris acknowledged his debt of freedom in education, a concept in the history of educational thought with which guidance has been closely linked. McCallister pointed out that "freedom has played many parts in the history of education." After an extensive review of these roles he defines freedom in education as "the finding, maintaining and extending of the highest relevant value common to the pupil's conception of the requirements of his life and the educator's conception of the aspirations that sustain all human activity".....²⁴

This is a particularly ^Qopposite definition for a consideration of guidance, because, anticipating contemporary analyses of guidance and counselling, it focuses like that of Morris on the essence of the relation-

ship between the guide and the guided, the counsellor and the client. There is a striking similarity between McCallister's definition of freedom in education and Morris's view of the guidance relationship as "being polarised between acceptance of the child's dependence and acceptance of his capacity for self-determination. Emphasis on dependence means emphasis on direction and persuasion. Emphasis on self-determination means emphasis on growth towards explicit mutuality."²⁵

The concept of freedom is thus extremely helpful in solving the apparent dilemma defined by the distinction between the social and individual purposes of guidance in education. As part of the socialisation process, schools have a responsibility

- (1) to society and to individual children to interpret fully the former to the latter,
- (2) to help children comprehend the society in which they have been born and all the opportunities it offers to them for self-fulfilment, (and the range of opportunities will differ for each child),
- (3) to explain to the children the values upon which its functioning is founded, and
- (4) to give them the competence and insight to take advantage which participation in that society offers.

Each pupil has the right to learn and appreciate his heritage and its potentialities and challenges for him. At the same time, teachers and counsellors should be minimally directive in coercing the nature of his participation in that society. This is the client-centred (or child-centred) aspect of the teacher's responsibility, which stems from his duty

to encourage the development of self-determination. Such a principle also has social effects, for it will best ensure that young people, once they have decided the nature of their involvement in society, will be better prepared to bring about progressive change rather than accept its faults. This is the democratic principle in action.

One of the implications of the analyses of McCallister and Morris is that freedom, defined as the capacity for self-determination, is closely bound up with "the degree and extent of self-awareness and is thereby closely related to psychological health. A person is victimised and unfree, and neurotic and psychotic, to the extent that his motivations and action-tendencies lie outside the sphere of conscious awareness and control."²⁶ Another feature of the approaches of Morris and McCallister is that the capacity for self-determination is seen as the outcome of a developmental process, a process of becoming in which the guide has a crucial role to play. Therefore, the school's role in mental health must not be confined too narrowly by conceptualising it only in terms of the amelioration of emotional problems in children and young people or even in the prevention of such problems. While not disclaiming their responsibilities in these fields, teachers and counsellors must be fully aware of the mental health implications in the wider educational context in which they operate.

Those in education who use terms like mental health, development and developmental tasks have often been subjected to criticism. For example, it has been suggested that "what counts as mental health is socially constructed and should, therefore, be treated as problematic."²⁷ Thus Antonouris has argued that most definitions of the concept of mental health are framed in such terms as self-realisation, self-enhancement, self-

awareness and development towards positive health and maturity. Since development can take many directions not all good, it follows that a person's notion of mental health is determined by evaluative criteria, which are ethically based. Therefore, he has concluded that a counsellor must have "a questioning attitude if (he).....is to become an agent of change on the educational scene and not an agent of social control."²⁸

Apart from making the obvious point that change can take undesirable as well as desirable directions, few counsellors would take much exception to these assertions. But the implication of many of the criticisms is that the concept of mental health and the developmental model of guidance and counselling are, if not dangerous, superfluous. In fact, in order to steer a middle course between an anarchistic excessively child-centred curriculum based on a Rousseau-type theory of the natural unfoldment of potentialities, and a completely society-centred curriculum like that informed by totalitarian ideologies like nazism or communism, teachers have found it necessary to anchor their theory and practice in concepts such as developmental tasks, mediation and mental health, all value-laden terms. Antonouris has not demonstrated how teachers can operate without them.

Rogers and the client-centred tradition have made significant and enduring contributions in a number of spheres, not least in school counselling. One of the most important has been in his insistence on the importance of the non-authoritarian counsellor-client relationship characterised by congruence, unconditional positive regard and empathic understanding. Rogers's view has been confirmed in a series of well-documented researches, indeed it has been argued that "the client-centred approach has led to, and is supported by, a greater amount of research than

any other approach to counselling and psychotherapy."²⁹ There are now few counsellors or psychotherapists of whatever theoretical persuasion who do not accept the central importance of the "core conditions."

However, the client-centred approach is not without its limitations. While paying due credit to the advances pioneered by Rogers, Ausubel has articulated a series of criticisms which are widely shared. He found himself unable to "accept the gratuitous assumptions that (a) neither developmental aspects of maladjustment nor diagnostic considerations are relevant to the counselling situation; (b) that counsellors may only reflect or clarify the client's predictions but should not presume to express any expectations (moral or otherwise) or judgments; (c) that all insights must necessarily represent the product of self-discovery; (d) that all behavioural change must be endogenously produced; (e) that interpretation, supportive measures, and manipulation of the environment have no place in counselling; and (f) that the counsellor must have no authority and must not assume the initiative in or attempt to structure the counselling relationship."³⁰

These criticisms are all related to differences in the conceptions of the relationship between client and counsellor. Ausubel accepts its existential inequality - the counsellor has relevant expertise, experience and knowledge, the client has not. Morris's analogy of the mountain guide (see the 1955 Yearbook article) implies a similar point of view. Following the NFER policy statement, he described the teacher's role in guidance terms as "comparable with that of the guide on a long mountaineering expedition. The good guide must know thoroughly his own range of country and he must be quick to assess the strengths and weaknesses of his charge. Within the given purpose of the expedition, the actual objectives, the routes, the

stages, the pace and the equipment must all be chosen to suit the climber, and the guide must have at his command a wide variety of skills for use in different conditions. However, the expedition may have as one of its aims that the pupil should gradually become independent of the guide and able to climb unaided."³¹ In addition, the position taken by Ausubel on the value of diagnosis, interpretation and the counsellor's responsibility for taking the initiative is closer to that of Morris³² than of Rogers.

Rogers's criticisms of diagnosis and interpretation are well-known. He argued that both the psychological consequences and the social implications were undesirable. The former included "dependent tendencies", "loss of personhood" and "lack of therapeutic progress".³³ With respect to the latter, he pointed out that "when the locus of evaluation is seen as residing in the expert, it would appear that the long-range social implications are in the direction of the social control of the many by the few."³⁴ However, it is generally agreed that the problem does not loom quite as large as in the early years of the client-centred movement. "The conflict between empathic understanding and the understanding that grows out of a synthesis of everything one knows about a client need not be irreconcilable, since a large part of this so-called diagnostic thinking can occur between rather than during interviews. A counsellor is not confined to a single frame of reference and may find it advantageous to shift from one to another as he brings different counselling skills into play."³⁵

The issue which Tyler in this passage is trying to reconcile is only one of a number which are inherent in the inequality of the counselling relationship particularly in the school situation. To resolve them requires a balanced approach to each. In fact, Morris refers to the need for a

"multiplicity of.....balances" which ensures that "the role of relationship in guidance is infinitely subtle."³⁶

The work of McCallister, Morris, Blocher and others highlights the folly of suggesting that the concept of guidance should be regarded as superfluous. On the contrary, guidance as an educational concept is a lens through which the educational process can be viewed and it is at least as valid and productive of insights as any other perspective, like initiation or instruction. As defined by Morris it is a fundamental concept for understanding the place of guidance and counselling in schools.

Counselling is described as one of the activities, for some, perhaps many, pupils the most important activity through which the objectives of guidance can be achieved. This is not to devalue in any way the contribution the contemporary counselling movement has made to education and schooling. It can justifiably be argued that it is one of the most significant movements in education in the last thirty years. The reasons include the following:

(1) the development of counselling has encouraged the re-examination in a contemporary context of fundamental issues which have concerned philosophers and educators for many generations, for example, on the role of schools in a democratic society, on the aims of education, on what constitutes an acceptable level of intervention and direction in the development of individual children, and particularly on the relationship between the individual and society. Daws has put the point succinctly, "The advent of counselling in schools means, if it means nothing else, that children and the worlds of children will be better understood in future because teachers are learning that it is helpful and worthwhile to try and understand."³⁷

- (2) It focuses on the relationship through which much learning occurs and, therefore, provides a useful counterbalance to an excessive emphasis on content determinants in much of the current literature on curriculum development. It is no coincidence that the educational objectives of the cognitive domain in Bloom's celebrated taxonomy are better developed and based on a greater volume of research and development than those of the affective domain. Bloom himself and others have criticised American education for failing to emphasise affective goals and one has pointed out that "teacher-made tests used to assess student performance are geared almost exclusively to cognitive outcomes."³⁸
- (3) Since many of the skills of relating and communicating which are at the heart of good counselling practice are crucial to effective teaching, practice in teacher education could profitably draw on the expertise in skills training which has been built up through research and teaching. The work of such as Carkhuff³⁹, and Cottle⁴⁰ on training in counselling skills and Ivey⁴¹ on microcounselling have important implications for teacher education. Activities such as role-playing and simulation, and the analysis of audio and video tapes of interviews, small group work and class work have been introduced into some teacher education programmes.
- (4) The advent of counselling has contributed to an increase in awareness of the importance, not only of teacher-pupil relationships, but of pupil-pupil and teacher-teacher relationships also. For example, the recent encouragement given to the profession at the school level to take more responsibility for the professional nurture of its members, particularly new ones, has resulted in pilot schemes involving "teacher tutors" in schools. It would appear that the ability to relate to young teachers and student

teachers will be a prerequisite of success in this field and thus counselling skills are relevant to their work.⁴²

In summary, the counselling movement, and particularly the initial and continuing impact of the client-centred tradition, has done nothing less than revive in a new and challenging way an examination of the concept of guidance in education and establish new ways of implementing the concept. The view taken by this writer is that a synthesis of the insights of theorists like Morris and McCallister and the work of Rogers, Krumboltz, Blocher, Carkhuff and others associated with recent and contemporary developments in counselling would provide an appropriate basis for current practice.⁴³ The remainder of this chapter will be devoted to a consideration of the implications of this synthesis and of the results of the Northern Ireland study for the development of guidance and counselling in Northern Ireland. Two topics will be considered:

- (1) the role of the counsellor;
- (2) the training of counsellors and guidance (including pastoral care) staff, and research and development.

The role of the counsellor:

It would appear from the analyses of Morris and Blocher, both of which treat the concept of guidance as fundamental, that they would support the concept of a guidance service integrated fully into the educational process (integrated), rather than have the counsellor stand apart from the ordinary activities of the school (supplementary). In the latter situation, "the counsellor's influence is mediated through his personal contact with pupils who voluntarily seek his help."⁴⁴ In the former, while the counsellor is still concerned with the individual and in offering a helping relationship

to those who seek it, "his activities do not stop short at personal counselling. He is involved in attempting to change conditions so that the environment is conducive to individual development."⁴⁵ Thus the counsellor is engaged not only in one-to-one counselling, but in liaison with outside agencies including parents, in curriculum development in fields such as social education, in consulting, and acting as consultant to, individual teachers, in co-ordinating the provision of pastoral care, and devising and maintaining an efficient early-warning system to bring problems to light so that suitable action can be taken before they have more serious consequences.

Such a role makes great demands on counsellors not least in working out a system of priorities within the possibilities that are open to them in their individual schools. It is the counsellor role preferred by a large majority of all the groups which participated in the Northern Ireland study, although it is doubtful if a clear understanding exists among them of the full implications for the staffs of schools and the extra-school agencies.

A central feature of this approach to guidance and counselling is the concept of the guidance team which implies the implementation of the following principles:

- (1) All staff have an important part to play in school guidance programmes.
- (2) Guidance and counselling staff should operate in support of teachers rather than in isolation from them.
- (3) The team extends beyond the school and includes parents as well as the extra-school agencies involved in education.

As a number of writers have shown, the team approach to guidance is not without its difficulties. Flexibility of roles is one of its essential

characteristics. Thus one person may be functioning in a variety of roles and a number of people may be undertaking similar roles. Such flexible role structures increase the possibility of role conflicts, both intra-role and inter-role. Therefore, two essential requirements for team members would appear to be a respect for and acceptance of the professional competence of the other members of the team, and a sound working knowledge of guidance and counselling procedures and the positive impact they can make on what Blocher and others have called "the mainstream of educational activities."⁴⁶

While the role offered to the school counsellor in the team approach may be more demanding and difficult than that in which he functions as supplementary to the main business of the school, it provides him with unique opportunities to influence the working of the school at all levels. Perhaps the most important is that it places the counsellor in a position of leadership in the school and thus able to help "revitalise the organisation and provide for the needs of its members."⁴⁷

Training and research in guidance and counselling.

It is not intended to consider in detail the content of an appropriate course of training for counsellors in school settings, but to discuss a number of points which might give direction to future planning. In 1973 a sub-committee of the Standing Conference for the Advancement of Counselling was set up to investigate counsellor training. The sub-committee looked at training processes under three headings:⁴⁸

- (1) didactic - theoretical knowledge, information, (the "knowing" part of the course).
- (2) practical - skills training, placement practice, (the "doing" part of the course).

(3) experiential - sensitivity training, self-awareness, (the "becoming" part of the course).

These divisions are, of course, not discrete; for example, experiential effects can accrue from skills training. At a widely representative consultation on "Training for Counselling" held at Rugby in January 1974, there was a wide measure of agreement that these three areas were essential to any extended course for counsellors. There was less agreement about what should be included under each heading or the emphasis to be given to each.

It is difficult to see how adequate experiential training could be provided for school counsellors without an extended period of full-time study. As the education counselling group at Rugby pointed out, "Training involves changing attitudes and developing new approaches and this could best be accomplished in a full-time course where participants were helped through a strong group identity."⁴⁹ Thus it is important for teachers that they should be given the opportunity of getting away from the school situation for a period so that they have time for critical and objective reflection. It should also be said that school counsellors who have had such full-time training often encounter difficulties when they return to their schools, where the traditions are often at variance with the attitudes and approaches which they acquired during training. Thus it was suggested at Rugby that there was a need for an "organised procedure which would not simply provide contact and support but also on-going professional consultation."

The counsellor role outlined in the previous chapter assumes that the counsellor has mastery of a wide variety of skills and the altered role

demands would have to be reflected in the training courses provided. As well as having a sound training in the core counselling skills (eg relationship and communication skills) and guidance skills (eg testing, record keeping), the counsellor would require leadership and analytic skills of a high order. In terms of leadership, he should have a well-thought out, flexible position on the fundamental contemporary educational issues and challenges, for example the aims of education in a changing society, and in Northern Ireland the role of schools and particularly guidance staff in a society in which deep divisions and conflicts exist. He should be able to articulate his views on these and other important educational issues both inside and outside the school. He should have at his command a range of skills for analysing the problems of pupils for teachers, parents and other para-educational professionals. Thus he should be able to conceptualise, discuss and explain tentatively the possible causes and effects of problems, relationships and initiatives taken in school and classroom settings.

It has been pointed out in the previous chapter that counsellors and guidance staff need suitable resources in order to carry out their responsibilities. In the light of the analysis made of the counsellor's role, it is necessary to underline the importance of making adequate time available. If counsellors are to spend $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{2}{3}$ of their time at guidance and counselling and if, as has been suggested, the provision of the equivalent of one full-time counsellor for every 400 pupils is a reasonable aspiration, then provision will have to be made for training over 700 teachers. This represents a major in-service challenge.

One of the implications of the team approach to guidance in schools is that the growth of guidance and counselling depends not only on the

provision of the required number of well-trained counsellors but on the commitment and expertise of the teachers. It is recognised that many of the qualities and skills required by counsellors are similar to those required by teachers, particularly teachers of adolescents. Therefore, there is great merit in the "three-phase" model⁵⁰ of guidance training for school settings, viz.

Phase 1 - an element of guidance and counselling to be included in initial teacher-training courses, the main aim of which is to enable the prospective teachers to take their places intelligently in schools which are trying to implement a guidance philosophy.

Phase 2 - an extended course of full-time, or partly full-time, study, the main aim of which is to provide the preparation for specialised guidance and counselling work in schools.

Phase 3 - The provision of support resources and continued training, which is one of the most crucial areas for future growth.

Much of this work will be school-based and the senior counsellor (head of the guidance department) is in a key position to influence developments. Because the motivation is generated from within the school rather than outside, and the organisation and planning shared by the participants, school-based work is a uniquely effective form of in-service training. Its main purpose is to provide the support that teachers require in order to implement and direct innovation and change.

However, counsellor trainers will rightly continue to be one of the most potent influences in directing the development of guidance and counselling, and for this reason must be engaged in research and development

work in this field. They must be in a position not only to react to quantitative and qualitative changes in demand but must try to influence changes themselves. It is almost impossible to build up a coherent research programme based solely on work for diplomas of advanced study in education. This goal can only be satisfactorily achieved by offering access to higher degrees to those who wish to pursue research in guidance and counselling and related curricular fields. By research here is meant not only empirical studies but also informed and critical reflection on the issues involved.

The model of guidance and counselling which has been presented here is a synthesis of the views of writers of different traditions. It is not the intention to discard any but to take what is helpful and relevant from all, from the philosophy of education (McCallister, Morris), from the client-centred tradition (Rogers), from contemporary developments in behaviour modification (Krumboltz) and from the applications of systems approaches (Blocher, Dustin and Dugan). The search is concerned with finding "broader and more flexible models of intervention."⁵¹ As Carkhuff wrote some years ago, "It is time to develop a systematic eclectic stance, searching out the commonalities as well as the unique contributions of the various approaches to guidance, counselling and therapeutic processes.....
.....We have in our grasp.....the potential for a dynamic forward surge. We are not tradition-bound."⁵²

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- 1923 Education Act (Northern Ireland).
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- 1944 Education Act.
- 1946 Public Health and Local Government Act.
- 1947 Education Act (Northern Ireland).
- 1948 Employment and Training Act.
- 1956 Education (Amendment) Act (Northern Ireland).
- 1961 Youth Employment Service Act.
- 1972 Education and Libraries (Northern Ireland) Act.

APPENDICES.

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APPENDIX A.1.

Q/UK/1

Questionnaire : administration.

To: Principals of (i) Grammar Schools
(ii) Secondary Schools

1. (a) Name of School.....
Address of School.....
.....
Name of Principal.....

2. Enrolment:

Years	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th
Boys							
Girls							

3. Teaching staff (excluding principal):

	Number
Men	
Women	

4. Number of students who took examinations in 1971:

	Number
CSE	
GCE - O Level	
GCE - A Level	
Others	
Total	

5. Guidance/Discipline:

(a) In your school, which of the following are assigned to guidance/discipline duties? (Please tick)

- (i) form tutor
- (ii) year tutor
- (iii) house tutor
- (iv) head of house
- (v) full-time counsellor
- (vi) part-time non-teaching counsellor
- (vii) teacher-counsellor
- (viii) teacher-careers adviser

(b) Number of staff involved specifically in guidance and counselling and/or careers guidance.

(c) Name of teacher-counsellor/careers teacher/teacher in charge of guidance.

.....

Modification to Q/UK/1 for technical colleges.

2. Number of students:

Number of students	full-time	part-time
male		
female		

Question No. 4 (number of students who took examinations in 1971) was omitted.

4. Guidance/Discipline:

(a) In your college which of the following are assigned to guidance/discipline duties? (Please tick)

- (i) form tutor
- (ii) year tutor
- (iii) house tutor
- (iv) head of house
- (v) full-time counsellor
- (vi) part-time non-teaching counsellor
- (vii) teacher-counsellor
- (viii) teacher-careers adviser

APPENDIX A.2.

Results - Q/UK/1

No. of schools for which completed questionnaire was returned.

Type of school	No. of questionnaires sent out	No. of questionnaires completed	% completed
secondary	170	137	81%
grammar	81	68	84%
technical	26	21	81%
Total	277	226	82%

Q.2. Enrolment

(i) secondary schools

No. of pupils	Type of school			Total
	mixed	boys	girls	
1000 +	1	-	2	3
800 - 999	3	6	7	16
600 - 799	12	5	6	23
400 - 599	31	7	5	43
200 - 399	34	5	3	42
199 and under	7	2	1	10
Total	88	25	24	137

(ii) grammar schools

No. of pupils	Type of school			Total
	mixed	boys	girls	
1000 +	2	4	-	6
800 - 999	5	-	-	5
600 - 799	2	3	6	11
400 - 599	8	11	10	29
200 - 399	6	3	7	16
199 and under	1	-	-	1
Total	24	21	23	68

Q.3. Staff numbers

No. of teachers	No. of secondary schools	No. of grammar schools
80 +	-	1
70 - 79	-	1
60 - 69	3	3
50 - 59	3	5
40 - 49	15	8
30 - 39	23	17
20 - 29	43	26
19 and under	50	7
Total	137	68

Q.4. Secondary school pupils taking external examinations (1971)

% of pupils taking examinations	No. of secondary schools
40 +	6
30 - 39	8
20 - 29	17
10 - 19	46
9 and under	57
Total	134

Q.5. (a) Guidance posts (types)

(i) secondary and grammar schools

Type of post	No. of secondary schools (N=137)	No. of grammar schools (N=80)	Total (N=205)
form tutor	85	49	134
year tutor	25	7	32
house tutor	11	6	17
head of house	10	12	22
full-time counsellor	-	2	2
part-time non-teaching counsellor	4	2	6
teacher-counsellor	60	9	69
teacher-careers adviser	120	64	184

(ii) technical colleges

Type of post	No. of technical colleges (N=21)
form tutor	9
year tutor	-
course tutor	10
pecially appointed personal tutor	1
full-time counsellor	1
part-time non-teaching counsellor	1
teacher-counsellor	3
teacher-careers adviser	17

Q.5. (b) Numbers of staff in each school involved in guidance

Nos. of staff	No. of secondary schools	No. of grammar schools	Total
1-5	102	58	160
6-12	19	7	26
all	9	2	11
no answer	7	1	8
Total	137	68	205

Q.6. Preferred methods of using extra resources made available for guidance

(i) secondary schools (N=137)

Method	choice			
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
full-time counsellor	29	9	12	73
teacher-counsellor	43	35	41	9
extra staff-lower teacher-pupil ratio	41	31	28	20
extra staff - more time for tutors	20	45	39	18
Total	133	120	120	120

(ii) grammar schools (N=68)

Method	choice			
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
full-time counsellor	11	8	4	28
teacher-counsellor	23	11	15	6
extra staff - lower teacher-pupil ratio	16	12	15	9
extra staff - more time for tutors	10	19	16	7
Total	60	50	50	50

(iii) technical colleges

Method	choice			
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
full-time counsellor	6	2	4	6
teacher-counsellor	9	6	3	1
extra staff - lower teacher-pupil ratio	-	4	4	10
extra staff - more time for tutors	4	6	7	1
Total	19	18	18	18

APPENDIX B.1.

Q/UK/2.

Questionnaire : facilities and duties.

To counsellors, careers teachers and guidance teachers in secondary and grammar schools.

Section I

Facilities for guidance and counselling/careers guidance in schools.

A. Staff:

Number of school staff specifically concerned with guidance and counselling/careers guidance.

B. Rooms: (please use a tick where applicable)

- (i) Does the guidance department have an interview room? Yes
No
- (ii) Does the guidance department have a waiting room? Yes
No
- (iii) Does the guidance department have a secretary's office? Yes
No
- (iv) Is the interview room used solely for guidance purposes? Yes
No
- (v) If the answer to 2(iv) is No, for how many periods per week is it available for guidance?periods

C. Furniture/equipment: (please give the number of each item)

Type	Interview Room	Waiting Room	Secretary's Office
desks			
easy chairs			
upright chairs			
filing cabinets			
cupboards			
tables			
bookcases			
bookshelves			
display boards			
typewriters			
tape recorders			
Other furniture/equipment		
		
		

D. Telephone: (please use a tick where applicable)

Does the guidance department have

- (i) its own telephone
- (ii) its own extension
- (iii) the use of (a) the principal's telephone
- (b) the deputy principal's
telephone
- (c) the secretary's telephone
- (d) the staffroom telephone

E. Secretarial assistance: (please use a tick where applicable)

What secretarial assistance is available to the guidance department?

- (i) none
- (ii) part-time (give the number of hours)
- (iii) full-time

F. Money for equipment, tests, books: (please use a tick)

How is the guidance department financed?

- (i) a fixed yearly requisition
- (ii) if possible, money is made available when required

G. (i) How would you describe the facilities of the guidance department?
(please use a tick)

	Outstanding	Satisfactory	Fairly Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
rooms				
furniture/equipment				
telephone				
secretarial assistance				
money				

(ii) What facilities do you consider to be essential to the effective working of a school guidance and counselling department?

.....

- H. If you would like to add further comments on any item in this section, please do so below.

Section II

Duties of counsellors/careers teachers/guidance teachers.

- A. Number of periods in a school week
B. Length of one school period (in minutes)
C. Number of periods which you spend each week on:
 (i) teaching
 (ii) interviewing individual students
 (iii) group guidance and group discussion
 (e.g. discussion of vocational information).
D. Other duties which you undertake: (please use a tick)
 (i) administration and/or scoring of standardised
 tests
 (ii) filling in and maintaining school cumulative
 record cards
 (iii) interviewing parents

- (iv) referring cases to other services
- (v) consulting with teachers and other experts
- (vi) responsibility for allocating pupils to classes
- (vii) orientation of first year pupils
- (viii) gathering information for leavers' reports
- (ix) administrative work in connection with visits
of the youth employment officer
- (x) organising careers conventions
- (xi) planning careers visits
- (xii) planning "visiting speakers" programmes of
careers talks
- (xiii) writing references
- (xiv) organising extra-curricular activities
including clubs and societies

E. What agencies outside school have you been in contact with in the past twelve months? (please use a tick where applicable)

- (i) parents
- (ii) school psychological service
- (iii) child guidance clinic
- (iv) youth employment service
- (v) school health service
- (vi) education welfare department
- (vii) Others (please name)
-
- o.....
-
-

F. If you would like to add further comments on any item in this section, please do so below.

APPENDIX B.2.

Results - Q/UK/2.

No. of schools for which a completed questionnaire was returned.

(i)

Type of school	No. of schools in the province	No. of completed questionnaires returned
Secondary	170	100
Grammar	81	44
Technical college	26	8
Total	277	152

(ii)

Type of school	mixed	boys	girls	total
Secondary	54	17	29	100
Grammar	18	12	14	44

Section I

A. No. of staff involved in guidance.

No. of staff in a school	type of school		
	secondary	grammar	technical
1	33	23	1
2	38	10	5
3	9	4	0
4	5	6	0
5 +	15	1	2
Total	100	44	8

B. Rooms available for use by guidance staff.

Type of accommodation	type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical (N=8)
Interview room - sole use	16	11	1
Interview room - shared use	37	18	4
Waiting room	1	3	0
Secretary's office	0	0	0

C. Furniture/equipment available to guidance staff.

Type of furniture/ equipment	type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical (N=8)
Filing cabinet	38	23	4
Cupboard	20	12	2
Bookshelves/book- cases	27	23	5
Display space	46	19	2
Typewriter	2	3	1
Tape recorder	5	3	0

D. Telephone.

Telephone	type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical (N=8)
Own telephone line	0	1	0
Own extension	3	7	2
(use of principal's 'phone	34	5	1
{ use of deputy principal's 'phone	1	2	0
{ use of secretary's 'phone	39	12	3
{ use of staffroom 'phone	1	5	1
At least two of previous four	21	10	0
No answer	1	2	1

E. Secretarial assistance.

Secretarial assistance	type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical (N=8)
None	48	29	3
School secretary (when available)	49	12	4
No answer	3	3	1

F. Finance.

Method	type of school		
	secondary (N=100)	grammar (N=44)	technical (N=8)
Fixed yearly requisition	11	3	0
Informal	77	38	7
No answer	12	3	1

G. (i) Guidance teachers' assessments of facilities available.

Facilities	outstanding	satisfactory	fairly satisfactory	unsatisfactory
Rooms	2	38	39	71
Furniture/equipment	1	35	38	76
Telephone	1	43	30	76
Secretarial assistance	0	45	30	74
Finance	2	39	42	68

No. of teachers replying : 150

No answer : 2

(ii) Facilities considered essential by guidance teachers.

Facilities	No. of guidance teachers (N=120)
Interview room	105
Time	62
Telephone	46
Equipment (various types)	39
Secretarial assistance	27
Careers literature	17
Training	12

H. Secondary schools.

1. Careers guidance - provision should be made for pupils to work at various jobs for short periods to gain some experience before committing themselves.
2. At present, time may be given for counselling and counted as teaching time. Counselling time should be timetabled. It is impossible to interview a pupil and control a class of 36.
3. More opportunities should be provided for work experience. An allowance for careers periods should be compulsory. Careers diploma at the New University of Ulster or elsewhere should be made available to all "career" teachers.
4. It is essential that the Ministry should recognise counselling as a job and not as an extra to be tacked on to some capable and sympathetic person.

5. This questionnaire has in the main been completed by the careers counsellor. Another ten members of staff, designated from teachers and assistant form teachers each have a non-teaching period a week available for guidance and counselling with their particular year groups.
6. We draw a distinct line between careers teachers and counselling, regarding counselling as doing everything possible to help to solve emotional or home worries, or any other troubles arising within school. This I try to deal with, soliciting help from others when advantageous to do so. Our careers section is in charge of a careers master who deals solely with careers.
7. Any interviews are conducted either in the staffroom or in the headmaster's office, whichever is available. When pupils indicate to me that they wish to see me on a counselling matter, I arrange to see them in the staffroom or an empty classroom during one of my non-teaching periods. I arrange with the teacher concerned to allow the pupil out of class to come to see me then. This works out fairly well. I keep all careers and counselling papers in a locked filing cabinet in the Art room. We manage fairly well, but it would be great to have one room which could be used specifically for guidance/counselling/careers.
8. The careers room doubles as the languages book storeroom, therefore, in practice it is available when I need it, except for a few days at the beginning and end of the school year. As for secretarial assistance, between the school secretary's office and the Commerce department, I do fairly well.

9. It is quite understandable that a teacher is engaged to teach and that, until sufficient staff are available, teaching will come before careers work especially when further staff are absent due to illness. It is difficult to plan anything when one may not be free to carry it out for above reasons.
10. I should like to emphasise the importance of having an interview room used solely for guidance purposes. Essential furniture/equipment in this room - filing facilities (for records and reference material) and display facilities.
11. Suitable furniture is available if there was a room available for the sole use of careers/guidance.
12. In this school there are eight counsellors and two "careers" teachers - ten in all, but those involved in career guidance do not undertake counselling. The eight counsellors spend three periods each per week (twenty-four periods in all) and are always available should a student require special attention.
13. The obvious lack of facilities is due to the substantial increase in the number of pupils over the past 2-3 years. All available rooms are being used. Consequently for interviews, even of parents, youth employment officers etc., it is a matter of locating perhaps an empty classroom or some quiet corner of the staffroom if free.
14. An up-to-date supply of information about careers for careers teachers is necessary. (A reasonably adequate supply is forthcoming).
15. Guidance room is a normal classroom - the science room. Interviews with the youth employment officer are held in the medical inspection room, if available, or in the preparation room of the science department.

16. Our rooms are satisfactory from a space point of view, but more foresight in planning would have improved the location and design.
17. If I should request the allocation of money to the Guidance Department it would be deducted from the money intended for the English Department. This is due to a confusion of role as I am Head of the English Department.
18. As I am vice-principal, I realise that it is not enough for the Ministry to recommend that guidance be allowed for in the timetable by the principal (most principals are only too anxious to do this but with the broadening of the curriculum etc. cannot find the periods). Guidance must be recognised by the Ministry to be of major importance in the education of the adolescent and staffing points must be allowed for it.
19. The only furniture and equipment used solely for careers guidance and counselling here are the filing cabinets for cumulative records and careers reference library and two large display boards. All careers and counselling work has to be carried out in the classrooms of the two teachers responsible, i.e. a science room and a music room - no other space is available. A room may become available in the extensions to the buildings which are about to start.
20. Any careers guidance work is undertaken in my own classroom or the school library. My furniture is a cabinet put together by the woodwork teacher, plus the chairs and tables of my own room. We have one display board in a corridor but its effectiveness is minimal. I have the use of the principal's 'phone when necessary and can also get help from his secretary if it is necessary. No money is allocated to the

careers department as such. Books and literature about careers are obtained from the Youth Employment Office or from the County Library Service.

21. The room being used for interview purposes is one of two offices used by the headmaster. It is available when necessary but interviews are constantly interrupted by people looking for the principal.
22. One corner of the school library is set aside for careers literature. It contains a variety of books and journals dealing with careers for school leavers. All pupils in the school have access to the library; this section of the library is known as "Careers Corner".
23. I have persuaded four other teachers to do some "guidance" work in early classes in school. These are untrained people but interested in the welfare of the children and they deal with all normal guidance activities up to fourth year. They also handle a sex education programme with me. They have only 2 or 3 periods per week for this work and even this is not firmly timetabled.
24. Now that most schools are developing career guidance, the role of the youth employment officer is likely to change, and with it the type of administrative work imposed on the school. From past experience of the Youth Employment Office and its local officer, I feel we can look forward to full co-operation in defining areas of work and responsibility. The content of teaching on careers needs to be investigated with a view to finding out what could be done under curriculum subjects other than careers guidance. There is a danger at present that a lot of "mush" might be taught as careers information as teachers feel their way in the subject. This I see as the greatest danger in the development of careers in the schools.

25. Careers guidance must become a timetable subject with teachers trained specifically for it. In an educational system where money is made freely available (relatively) for other subjects, it is extremely short-sighted to leave careers guidance to be included among the "other duties" of a teacher and allowed, on an average, 4 periods per week.
26. After a short experience in school, having undertaken a counselling course, I am convinced that there are many differences between guidance and counselling. One of these differences is, I think, fundamental. Whereas a careers teacher, with a moderate amount of support and co-operation from his principal, can achieve most of the aims of a good careers programme, a counsellor has little or no chance of achieving any success, without the wholehearted support and co-operation of practically all the staff of the school. Obviously the support of the principal, vice-principal, heads of departments and form tutors is a sine qua non for his success. If the above seems irrelevant, my argument is that given the whole-hearted support of the principal, vice-principal, heads of departments, form tutors and the rest of the staff, the facilities, which are essential, will soon be provided. These facilities will increase the efficiency of the counsellor, and this is very important.
27. Interviews must be conducted in this school in any available empty room, e.g. library, classroom, staffroom, etc. This means that there is no central place available for display, filing facilities, records, etc.
28. Generally speaking, I feel that the time available for this type of work is so limited that I am only touching the surface. Having spent

seven years with the Youth Employment Service as area officer, the need for a full range of facilities is in my view so important that I feel frustrated in getting on with the job. Careers teachers need considerable background knowledge, e.g. interviewing techniques, careers information, testing, industry. I certainly could justify myself full time.

29. The success of a school counselling service depends greatly upon the co-operation and awareness of the individual form master in referring pupils to the counsellors and assisting in any remedial work suggested by the counsellors. The counsellor himself must be of sympathetic nature and one in whom the pupils will readily confide. A strong home-school bond must be developed as well as taking full advantage of the various services supplied by agencies outside the school.
30. If the counselling and guidance department is to be a department, it must have first-rate facilities and be seen to be highly regarded by the principal and the inspectorate.
31. I have been allocated one classroom for careers work. There is a small storeroom in which I keep careers books. The room is used for other classes when I am not using it, and is free during two of my free periods which I use to interview pupils. The youth employment officer uses the sitting-room of the flat to interview pupils when she comes to the school.
32. I feel that lack of facilities for guidance in my school is partly due to lack of interest on the part of the headmistress in this field.

Grammar schools.

1. I have insufficient time to do the work necessary just to keep "the

ball rolling", i.e. during school time. The result - often two afternoons after school when I interview those interested enough to come along. Any so-called "non-teaching time", I need for my own subject.

2. This school is overcrowded to the extent that very rarely is there a room of any description which is not used for teaching. This makes interviews and even the passing on of information and advice utterly impossible without using my own room, in my own teaching time.
3. I feel that the most important "facility" would be more time, but that a balance needs to be kept, so as to have contact also as a teacher. Also the fact that careers teachers must expect to attend meetings often at a distance, and on Saturdays or after school hours without an allowance for expenses and often with "careers responsibility" tacked on to an existing "head of department" post without any increase of post, surely cannot lead to the most active participation. Extra duties compared with being out of pocket, is scarcely an encouraging situation.
4. While we appear to have no facilities or equipment, this is not because we consider them unimportant. There is simply no space to spare.
5. I feel that an interview room (with careers and telephone) is a minimum. Accidentally, I have these - as I am in residence. Secondly, a waiting room is helpful. Thirdly, a careers room - a place where students may go during free periods and lunch-breaks to find information - is very helpful.
6. Some form of in-service training would be helpful so that careers guidance is not just handing out information.

7. The careers room is adjacent to the library and I use it as a general office. If a number of boys wish to see me, they wait in the library, but parents see me by appointment and these would be so arranged that no one was kept waiting. Other members of staff interview parents in a room in the residential part of the school. These interviews would be normally with form or house masters. Generally form masters are responsible for academic progress and house masters for general well-being. One of the curates from a local parish is available to discuss problems with boys, but there is no hard and fast rule. A boy can seek advice from any member of the staff and can expect a sympathetic hearing.
8. My subject is chemistry; hence I use my small chemistry store for interviewing. There is just about room for one school desk and 2 or 3 chairs. We interview among the bottles of chemicals and boxes of apparatus. The store is available at any time. The youth employment officer also uses it.
9. A new scheme is at present being developed. The key people in guidance are a vice-principal (guidance), two career specialists, and a number of house masters/mistresses on predominantly counselling work. The details of the scheme are still being discussed but will involve a team under the vice-principal as follows:-
- | | | |
|---------------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| (i) house master/mistress | - | personal counselling |
| (ii) form master | - | education |
| (iii) careers department | - | educational and vocational. |
10. Guidance is given by form teachers in varying ways and with varying efficiency and results. They also do a certain amount of interviewing

of parents for varying reasons and counselling. Heads of departments give advice on careers concerning their own subjects. The headmaster uses different teachers to advise on universities according to their knowledge of the particular universities. Various rooms are used according to availability and interviews may even be conducted in the corridor.

11. I think there is need for a trained counsellor - a member of staff who would be popular with the young people and who should get to know all she can about the pupils - preferably, therefore, she should teach the senior classes. A counselling room is essential for interviewing.

Technical colleges.

1. In order that the careers teacher be conversant with most careers, greater time must be given to industrial visits, seminars and conventions.
2. I feel that, with the raising of the school leaving age, more and more emphasis must be placed on counselling and guidance. In the near future, a counsellor/industrial liaison officer could become a full-time post in technical colleges.
3. The careers guidance is carried out by the various heads of departments, mainly in their own offices which, for the most part, are equipped with telephones.

Section II

C. (i) Time spent teaching school subjects.

Time (in hours and mins. per week)	no. of teachers	
	secondary (N=108)	grammar (N=42)
Under 15 hours	6	4
15.00 - 17.29	7	4
17.30 - 19.59	23	15
20.00 - 22.29	37	13
22.30 - 24.59	30	6
25 hrs. and over	5	-

<u>range:</u> (hrs. and mins.)	secondary	9.55 - 28.00
	grammar	11.20 - 24.40
<u>mean:</u>	secondary	20.37
	grammar	19.17

(ii) Time spent on group work in guidance.

Time (in hours and mins. per week)	no. of teachers		
	secondary (N=108)	grammar (N=42)	technical (N=7)
None	40	29	4
Up to 1.59	41	8	3
2.00 - 3.59	21	4	-
4 hours and over	6	1	-

<u>range:</u> (hrs. and mins.)	secondary	0 - 8.45	<u>mean:</u> secondary	1.11	
	grammar	0 - 5.50		grammar	0.36
	technical	0 - 1.40		technical	0.37

C. (iii) Time spent on individual interviewing.

Time (in hours and mins. per week)	no. of teachers		
	secondary (N=108)	grammar (N=42)	technical (N=7)
None	25	13	0
Up to 1.59	35	6	4
2.00 - 3.59	31	12	3
4.00 - 5.59	12	5	0
6 hours and over	5	6	0

<u>range:</u> (hrs. and mins.)	secondary	0 - 9.20	<u>mean:</u>	secondary	2.07
	grammar	0 - 12.00		grammar	1.49
	technical	1.20 - 3.20		technical	1.51

D. Duties of guidance teachers.

Duties/activities	no. of teachers		
	secondary (N=97)	grammar (N=43)	technical (N=8)
(i) administration and scoring of standardised test.....	30(31) *	13(32) *	2(29) *
(ii) filling in and maintaining school cumulative record cards.....	68(70)	17(41)	4(57)
(iii) interviewing parents.....	58(60)	32(80)	6(86)
(iv) referring cases to other services.....	51(53)	32(80)	4(57)
(v) consulting with teachers and other experts.....	73(75)	39(95)	7(100)
(vi) responsibility for allocating pupils to classes.....	22(23)	16(39)	3(43)
(vii) orientation of first year pupils.....	22(23)	4(10)	3(43)
(viii) gathering information for leavers' reports.....	88(91)	28(68)	4(57)
(ix) administrative work in connection with the visits of the YEO...	92(95)	39(95)	6(86)
(x) organising careers conventions.....	37(38)	12(30)	5(71)
(xi) planning careers visits.....	81(84)	39(95)	7(100)
(xii) planning visiting speakers programme of careers talks.....	74(76)	38(93)	6(86)
(xiii) writing references.....	38(40)	17(41)	4(57)
(xiv) organisation of extra-curricular activities including clubs and societies.....	33(34)	18(46)	2(29)

* Figures in brackets are percentages of each group.

E. Extra-school agencies - contacts.

(i) Secondary and grammar schools.

Agencies	no. of teachers	
	secondary (N=97)	grammar (N=43)
Parents	88(91) *	39(95)*
School psychological service	28(29)	11(26)
Child guidance clinic	9(9)	0(0)
Youth employment service	96(99)	43(100)
School health service	37(38)	6(14)
Education welfare department	18(19)	5(12)

* Figures in brackets are percentages.

(ii) Technical colleges.

Agencies	No. of technical college teachers (N=7)
Parents	6(86) *
Youth employment service	7(100)
Adult vocational guidance service	1(14)
Individual firms	6(86)
Medical doctors	0(0)

* Figures in brackets are percentages.

F. Secondary schools.

1. We will not have a fifth year until next year. In the past pupils have left us after four years, and a high proportion have gone straight to the local technical school. Those girls (my responsibility) who

left to go to work had ready-made jobs in local factories (wages are high and there are family traditions involved). Career guidance has been limited then to advising girls going to the "tech." on the courses available and the follow-up opportunities with those courses.

Obviously, with a fifth year and CSE this will change, and a much greater responsibility and urgency will attach to the work. My problem, frankly, is not so much facilities but the attitude of my principal and some members of staff to careers guidance. It is considered a waste of time - my time and the pupils when they get out of other classes to see me. A job is just a stop-gap - till marriage. This is the attitude of many parents and of the girls themselves. Unless the principal of the school feels the need to educate the parents and girls in the importance of a career rather than just a stop-gap job, the careers staff, should they have magnificent facilities, will be unable to do an effective job.

2. I feel the time available to me for careers guidance work is very limited. Careers guidance is only a small part of my PSR. This is due, of course, to the smallness of the school. We do, however, organise at least eight vocational guidance visits to the local factories per year. This is paid for by the local youth employment service. We make use of the TV programme "Going to Work".
3. Although no allocation of time for careers work, I interview pupils and at times parents after school, and have group discussions and class lessons during free periods. The school timetable is flexible so that I may extract classes or groups for films, visiting speakers, visits etc. at any suitable time.
4. Each careers guidance teacher should be allocated a number of careers

- periods solely for careers guidance depending on the numbers in the school, i.e. approximately 1/3rd school teaching time.
5. The time available for careers/guidance work is not sufficient; however, staff time alone is not sufficient - time and the necessary facilities to use that time must go together.
 6. I have seven periods in the week designated as non-teaching (providing no staff member is absent), into which I have to fit all my "outside-class" duties. This is clearly unsatisfactory, indeed impossible and, therefore, I have to see to many of these matters in my own time, i.e. after school and even at home. Occasionally I use a teaching period for a careers lesson with a class. Staff absences can mean no time available in school hours. What I consider to be an essential function of any school, i.e. the guidance of its students, particularly personal counselling, is being badly neglected.
 7. The basic need is a change of heart of principals and the Ministry of Education, but it is difficult to secure this without signs of improvement in the employment opportunities - these are very poor and it, therefore, seems pointless choosing "careers" when too often the real problem is finding jobs. Careers guidance is a poor relation - even the YES appears rather a token service. Counselling hasn't really been recognised in this part of the world - the universities have only recently introduced it, but one can detect a certain resentment towards the idea of specialists "intruding" into the field of the R.E. teacher, form teacher, housemaster, etc.
 8. I am given 4 free periods a week to cover the showing of career films, to interview individual boys (100 a year), to conduct industrial visits,

to organise school visits from outside agents, to fill in cumulative record cards, etc. No assistance is given in this specific work of careers guidance. My remaining free periods (5) are spent in organising and collecting savings and looking after the English Department. In the case of counselling, I have the assistance of six other members of staff. It is worth bearing in mind that the school is taking boys to GCE A level. As head of the English Department, I am responsible for the examination classes. One can well imagine the preparation and marking necessary - this, of course, has to be done at home.

9. In the secondary schools the careers teacher is involved a lot in recommending boys and girls to various occupations, e.g. the boys to tradesmen in all the various trades. I think that more weight must be placed on these recommendations. As it is a panel of interviewers usually made up of one youth employment officer and two representatives of the training board for the particular trade or industry involved, conduct an interview of some 20 minutes and without consulting their school, reject or admit the pupils for that occupation on the basis of impressions found. I find two serious faults in this procedure:
- (i) the boys should not be subjected to a formal interview for "non-personality" type occupations;
 - (ii) the teachers in the school who know the pupils over 5 years should be allowed, through the careers master, some say in the future of the pupils. It is they who prepare them for the future.
10. I have twelve non-teaching periods in which I fit everything that has

to be done as best I can. The time spent in interviewing individual students varies from week to week, depending on when the youth employment officer is coming and she is staying for a whole day or only for the morning - she comes most weeks. The other members of staff appointed for guidance work give any help needed during their free periods.

11. The limiting factor in careers guidance and counselling here is the lack of facilities, i.e. a special room with telephone extension and proper interviewing amenities. There are, however, sufficient teacher periods (22 per week between two teachers), good contacts with outside agencies, and a new minibus for industrial visits.
12. Time on individual interviews varies enormously and often eats into class time, breaktime, lunch time, etc. Religious education teachers are now working a guidance syllabus with three classes at least one period a week on a syllabus I gave them.
13. Any careers guidance work is done in my non-teaching periods and so there are no specified times laid aside for this work. I do some interviewing but this is carried on "in depth" by the careers officer and my work is chiefly to answer queries or distribute information or forms. From the children's point of view a scheme which would allow them to work at various jobs for perhaps a fortnight at a time during their last year at school would be very beneficial.
14. The careers position in this school was held by the headmaster until last September when I was appointed. The department is still in the process of organisation.
15. My contacts with parents is very limited. We do have a careers evening

(film show, talks and discussion) and some half-dozen parents have spoken to me in the last six months.

16. I consider that the lack of facilities which I understand is not peculiar to this school, severely handicaps the efficient working of a careers department. The amount of time allowed to the teacher is also inadequate, not through any fault of the school, for proper interviewing, record keeping, background reading, etc. There is probably too much time devoted to talk of jobs which, when the pupils leave school, they will not be able to find.
17. The time given to counselling does not allow sufficient time to be spent on agencies outside school. Counselling if properly done could be a full-time job.
18. I am responsible for physical education (boys). Careers are secondary. Time is a major factor in the development of counselling from my point of view. I consider the availability of standardised tests essential in the development of careers work.
19. The school leavers in this school are divided into three categories:
 - (a) Commercial: These are girls who have completed a fifth or sixth year combined academic/commercial course but who have specialised in commercial subjects to intermediate or advanced levels.
 - (b) Academic: These are girls who have continued at school up to 18 years of age for the purpose of gaining entry to college, university, nursing, etc.
 - (c) Junior: These are girls who leave school at 15 years of age and enter employment as shop assistants, factory workers, etc.

One member of the careers staff is responsible for each group.

20. I have only taken over careers guidance about five or six months ago. Since then the youth employment officer has come once a fortnight to show slides, give talks and interview pupils. Visits have been arranged to local firms and other places of employment.
21. I have been careers master for just over four weeks, and so I am not yet fully acquainted with the scope and requirements of the job.
22. There is one teacher in charge of careers for both boys and girls, one lady teacher looks after girls' welfare and counselling is my responsibility. I would prefer to have had more training in this field, but I do the best I can with the limited resources at my disposal.
23. I have just taken over the careers department this year (about 4 months ago). The literature was either out of date or completely irrelevant to the pupils, so I have written to several organisations asking if they can supply me with information and/or come and give a talk to the leavers. I have started to use the filing system used by CYEE/YES to file any information received. As well as taking careers I also teach Art/Craft, English and Religion. I have been given ten free periods per week - two of which go to interviewing pupils; four others are taken up each Thursday when the youth employment officer comes to the school; and at least two others are used for correcting exercises, so quite a lot of work is taken home.
24. This school is only in its second year of counselling. We are still trying to sell the idea to the rest of a large staff, who naturally feel (a) they should have been given the opportunity, and/or (b) counselling time is free time for the teacher. Some courses have

been attended and arrangements have been made for us to attend more. We have been addressed by people with a lot more experience than us on at least three occasions and have profited thereby.

25. In this school we operate a rota system for the replacement of absent teachers. This means that, although I have six non-teaching periods, I can possibly lose most of these in any one week. For example, I have lost two out of four this week. I arrange to have films and talks in the school during my free periods. In fairness -

- (i) I have insufficient time allocated to guidance to perform my duties really effectively;
- (ii) It is practically impossible to contact the educational psychologist in my school area, as he has a great number of children to attend to;
- (iii) I feel that the Youth Employment Service is taking up too much of its time (which could be put to better use) with individual interviews for each school leaver. Quite often a pupil is advised by the YEO to proceed to further education when my colleagues and I know very well, from our contact with the pupil over a prolonged period, that she is certainly incapable of this. This has happened even when details Y.15's have been submitted to the YEO.

27. I need much more time. I have to deal with 180-200 statutory leavers each year. To gather the information for the Y.15 report and fill it in would take all my allotted time. I would like more time to take groups for career discussions.

Grammar schools.

1. I have other senior responsibilities in the school and I'm afraid I can only do most of the work in my spare time in my own classroom. I do not feel this work to be my primary responsibility.
2. Two counsellors deal with personal problems of pupils. There is one careers teacher. One problem is a lack of money available for hiring suitable films.
3. I check all UCCA forms before passing them on to the headmistress for the writing of confidential reports. I also prepare notes for these reports from information obtained from staff who teach each pupil. I order forms which are required in large numbers and check any individual forms the girls get before posting them.
4. Because of a full timetable, careers work is carried on outside of the timetabled periods - lunchtime, after school.
5. I give advice to pupils about which subjects they should take. Our O level pupils normally take 8 subjects each, which means that the choice of subjects is more important than it is in a school where more subjects are studied. I give careers advice after school hours, especially this term when we are busy with UCCA forms.
6. I frequently find I use my free periods (8 in a week) to interview those I cannot see at other times, and I spend an average of 45 to 60 minutes after school each day similarly engaged. We do not have interviewing visits from the Youth Employment Service. I prefer to do my own interviewing and to use the YES as an advisory information service.
7. In addition to parent interviews during the day, we have on average

three evenings per year when parents of III, V, VI Forms respectively are invited to come to a "careers' evening" when the future plans of their children are discussed, first of all collectively and then individually.

8. We are starting this term to run interest tests for 5th formers - helped by an educational psychologist. I personally feel careers can become over-emphasised and special careers classes overplay careers choice. Most people have at least three careers - therefore, how important is the correct choice of the first one? I would appreciate more time for careers work and time given in this school is unsatisfactory.
9. I have eighteen periods per week of careers classes from 3rd Form upwards. This embraces group discussion and guidance among the many other facets of careers and guidance. I cannot administer any of the occupational tests as I have not taken any courses in these tests.
10. Much of my work in careers is done outside school hours. For twenty years I was heavily engaged on games, etc., but when I took over careers, I was relieved of all other responsibilities (except in teaching as head of the maths. department). So I consider it reasonable that I spend on careers the time spent on games, etc. - and this was a great deal. I suppose we all feel that our school is a special case, but you will realise that the problems of a boarding school are different from those of a day school.
11. I would like to see careers and guidance introduced at the beginning of secondary school education, not at 4th year as is the case now. If this were so, I feel that the pupils would benefit and the careers

teacher would know what the child was best suited for. I think it most important that full-time career guidance and counselling officers be appointed rather than the part-time slipshod method in which we are engaged. It is important to the children that they are set on the right course from the beginning, not at the end of their school career.

12. Neither I (careers master) nor the careers mistress have any specific time off for interviewing, nor do we have special careers classes. So interviewing, etc. is done at lunchtime or after school in our own classrooms. Our headmaster himself takes a keen interest in careers and does much interviewing and is closely involved with many items on this list.
13. Our policy is to interview every pupil in 3rd, 5th and 7th years, which means a very heavy load at certain seasons. It also means that group work is not regular but takes place as required, e.g. in 4th and 6th years as well.
14. The work of guidance covers such a wide spectrum of activities that it defies itemising. Much time is spent after school hours and also during August when all members of Forms III, V and VI are interviewed.
15. The headmaster comments that these questions do not judge the quality of the guidance given and that the provision of facilities alone does not ensure satisfactory guidance.

Technical colleges.

1. All my careers guidance work is done in my own time as I am not allocated any time for this work in the timetable. Due to this state of affairs, I find that teaching duties get priority as all my classes have examination targets varying from "O" and "A" level to final City and Guilds.

APPENDIX C.1.

RS/UK/1

Record Sheet

1. Number of students who received interviews:

2. Number of interviews (by type):

- (a)
 - (i) requested (self-referred)
 - (ii) referred
 - (iii) routine

TOTAL _____

(b) Number of interviews (by content):

- (i) mainly educational
- (ii) mainly vocational
- (iii) mainly personal

TOTAL _____

3.

Time (in minutes spent after school at:	MON.	TUES.	WED.	THURS.	FRI.
(i) administrative work related to guidance (e.g. marking tests, writing letters etc.)					
(ii) discussions with staff on guidance matters					
(iii) counselling					
(iv) other activities related to guidance					

4. Communication with external agencies:

<u>Agencies</u>	<u>Number of Communications</u>
(i) parents
(ii) school psychological service
(iii) child guidance clinic
(iv) youth employment service
(v) school health service
(vi) education welfare department
(vii) others (please name)

APPENDIX C.2.

Results - RS/UK/1.

1. Number of interviews by counsellors in each of the five weeks.

Week	No. of counsellors who responded	Total no. of interviews	Average no. of interviews per counsellor-week
1	18	261	14.5
2	20	288	14.4
3	19	251	13.2
4	17	310	18.2
5	14	242	17.3
Total	88	1352	15.4

2. (a)

(i) Number of interviews (by type - requested, referred, routine).

Week	type of interview			Total
	requested	referred	routine	
1	113	15	133	261
2	100	12	176	288
3	99	6	146	251
4	122	21	167	310
5	112	10	120	242
Total	546	64	742	1352

(ii) Each counsellor's interviews.

Counsellor	type of interview			Total
	requested	referred	routine	
A	7	0	6	13
B	31	4	0	35
C	15	2	51	68
D	18	13	57	88
E	55	0	17	72
F	N.R.	N.R.	N.R.	N.R.
G	23	0	139	162
H	26	5	115	146
I	20	7	26	53
J	15	0	18	33
K	15	3	32	50
L	28	2	84	114
M	11	1	34	46
N	14	1	17	32
O	14	10	32	56
P	8	2	45	55
Q	14	3	10	27
R	91	5	8	104
S	109	6	5	120
T	6	0	29	35
U	26	0	17	43
Total	546	64	742	1352

2. (b) Classification of interviews (mainly educational, mainly vocational, mainly personal).

Week	type of interview			Total
	mainly educational	mainly vocational	mainly personal	
1	124	105	32	261
2	95	161	32	288
3	88	138	22	248
4	148	133	32	313
5	93	109	40	242
Total	548	646	158	1352

3. Time spent after school on guidance issues.

Activity	total no. of counsellor-weeks	total time for 5 weeks (hrs. & mins.)	average time per counsellor-week (mins.)
administrative work related to guidance	88	94.45	65
discussions with staff on guidance matters	88	49.30	34
counselling	88	77.35	53
other activities related to guidance	88	82.20	56
Total	(88)	304.10	207

4. External agencies - contacts.

(i)

Agency	No. of contacts
Parents	223
School psychological service	3
Child guidance clinic	-
Youth employment service	211
School health service	17
Educational welfare department	22
Others	155
Total	631

(ii) Breakdown of others in above table.

Agency	No. of contacts
Employers/employment agencies	78
Higher education institutions (inc. UCCA)	50
Schools/teachers	16
Visiting speakers	5
Clergymen	3
Psychiatrist	1
Speech therapist	1
NFER	1
Total	155

5. Timetable - counsellor's week.

Code letter of counsellor	No. of periods per school week	Teaching	No. of free periods per week	No. of periods - group/class work in guidance	No. of periods - individual counselling	Time scheduled for counselling (hrs. & mins.)	Comments
A	45	34	8	0	0	0	3 periods - form teacher duties.
B	39	32	7	0	0	0	
C	45	35	4	1	2	1.20	3 periods - form teacher duties.
D	45	17	19	0	9	5.40	19 free periods - administrative duties.
E	40	21	5	10	3	2.00	1 period - form teacher duties.
F	40	24	5	4	7	4.40	
G	45	27	0	1	17	10.30	
H	40	17	1	0	21	13.55	1 period - weekly meeting with principal
I	40	22	0	4	14	9.20	
J	40	35	0	0	5	3.20	
K	40	28	3	4	5	3.20	
L	45	22	3	5	15	9.05	
M	40	30	2	2	6	4.00	
N	45	24	5	2	8	4.40	6 periods - administrative duties

O	55	40	4	2	4	2.20	5 ten-minute periods - form teacher duties
P	40	35	5	0	0	0	
Q	N/A	21 hrs.	N/A	0	6	6.00	
R	45	18	8	3	16	10.00	
S	50	24	0	7	14	8.45	5 periods - form teacher duties
T	30	5	0	13	10	6.40	2 periods - home visits
U	45	29	6	0	10	6.20	

- Note: (1) counsellors D, H and N are vice-principals;
 (2) counsellor Q is a technical college lecturer;
 (3) counsellor T is the part-time counsellor.

APPENDIX D.1.

Q/UK/4

Inventory of Counsellor Activities.

1. Individual routine interviews with first year pupils.
2. Individual careers interviews.
3. Interviews with parents.
4. Consultations with individual teachers.
5. Filling in and maintaining school cumulative record cards.
6. Keeping counselling records.
7. Administering and scoring group tests.
8. Administering certain individual tests.
9. Sociometric testing.
10. Discussions with groups of parents.
11. Participation in staff discussions concerning the curriculum.
12. Consultations with groups of teaching staff.
13. Teaching and discussion with groups of pupils on topics concerned with personal and social education.
14. Teaching and discussion with groups of pupils on vocational information.
15. Teaching and discussion with groups of pupils on choice of subjects and courses.
16. Helping pupils with study techniques.
17. Teaching school subjects.
18. Remedial teaching of ESN pupils.
19. Remedial teaching of maladjusted pupils.
20. Liaison and co-operation with outside agencies.
21. Communication of information about abilities and achievements of pupils to teachers.

22. Communication of information about a pupil's own abilities and achievements to him or her individually.
23. Communication of information about the abilities and achievements of a pupil to his/her parents.
24. Communication of personal information about pupils to teachers.
25. Helping individual pupils with educational difficulties.
26. Helping individual pupils with personal-emotional problems.
27. Helping individual pupils with choice of subjects and courses.
28. Writing references for leavers.
29. Gathering information for leavers' reports.
30. Routine administrative work in connection with the visits of the youth employment officer.
31. Checking attendance registers.
32. Planning the "visiting speakers" programme of careers talks.
33. Having the major responsibility for allocating pupils to classes.
34. Having the major responsibility for the orientation programme for first year pupils.
35. Devising and operating a system for identifying children needing help.
36. Defending pupils in difficulties in the school.
37. Organising extra-curricular activities including clubs and societies.
38. Organising careers conventions.
39. Arranging careers visits.
40. Acting in a disciplinary capacity.
41. Helping to compile the school timetable.
42. Helping teachers in the school who are in their probationary year.
43. Visiting some children's homes for discussions with their parents.

APPENDIX D.2.

Table D2.1.

Responses of counsellors (N=16).

Area	Item No.	counsellors are engaged in	counsellors should be engaged in	counsellors should not be engaged in
Counselling/ interviewing	1	1	11	5
	22	9	15	1
	25	7	13	3
	26	11	16	0
	27	11	15	1
Careers	2	14	15	1
	14	14	16	-
	30	12	9	7
	32	13	10	6
	38	5	9	7
	39	12	11	5
Liaison with outside agencies	3	11	16	-
	10	8	15	1
	20	14	16	-
	23	7	13	3
	43	5	11	5
Teaching/group work	13	5	16	-
	15	11	16	-
	16	4	14	2
	17	15	7	9
	18	-	-	16
	19	-	1	15

Table D2.1 (Contd.)

Area	Item No.	counsellors are engaged in	counsellors should be engaged in	counsellors should not be engaged in
School administration	28	7	6	10
	29	5	6	10
	31	3	3	13
	33	-	2	14
	34	-	10	6
	37	2	5	11
	41	4	8	8
Consultation/ discussion with staff	4	12	16	-
	11	12	16	-
	12	8	15	1
	21	5	11	5
	24	3	6	10
	42	3	6	10
Others	35	1	14	2
	36	9	13	3
	40	3	-	16
Total		297	471	217

Table D2.2.

Responses of principals (N=10).

Area	Item No.	counsellors are engaged in	counsellors should be engaged in	counsellors should not be engaged in
Counselling/ interviewing	1	5	5	5
	22	5	8	2
	25	3	7	3
	26	5	9	1
	27	9	10	-
Careers	2	9	8	2
	14	9	9	1
	30	8	7	3
	32	9	9	1
	38	6	8	2
	39	9	9	1
Liaison with outside agencies	3	9	8	2
	10	7	8	2
	20	10	10	-
	23	5	8	2
	43	5	7	3
Teaching/ group work	13	5	7	3
	15	8	8	2
	16	3	5	5
	17	10	6	4
	18	1	1	9
	19	1	2	8

Table D2.2 (Contd.)

Area	Item No.	counsellors are engaged in	counsellors should be engaged in	counsellors should not be engaged in
School administration	28	3	3	7
	29	3	5	5
	31	1	2	8
	33	2	2	8
	34	1	3	7
	37	1	3	7
	41	2	3	7
Consultation/ discussion with staff	4	9	10	-
	11	8	10	-
	12	5	10	-
	21	4	8	2
	24	4	6	4
	42	2	4	6
Others	35	1	6	4
	36	1	6	4
	40	2	2	8
Total		211	278	152

Table D2.3.

Responses of principals and counsellors (N=8 pairs).

Area	Item No.	agreed- counsellors should be doing.	agreed- counsellors should not be doing.	disagreed- principals, yes; counsellors, no.	disagreed- principals, no; counsellors, yes.
Counselling/ interviewing	1	4	3	1	-
	22	6	-	1	1
	25	5	-	1	2
	26	7	-	-	1
	27	8	-	-	-
Careers	2	6	-	1	1
	14	7	-	-	1
	30	3	-	3	1
	32	5	-	3	-
	38	3	-	4	1
	39	4	-	4	-
Liaison with outside agencies	3	6	-	-	2
	10	6	-	1	-
	20	8	-	-	-
	23	5	1	1	1
	43	5	-	1	2

Table D2.3 (Contd.)

Area	Item No.	agreed- counsellors should be doing.	agreed- counsellors should not be doing.	disagreed- principals, yes; counsellors, no.	disagreed- principals, no; counsellors, yes.
Teaching/group work	13	6	-	-	2
	15	6	-	-	2
	16	4	2	-	2
	17	4	2	1	1
	18	-	7	1	-
	19	1	6	1	-
Testing/ keeping records	5	4	2	-	2
	6	8	-	-	-
	7	5	1	1	1
	8	5	-	1	2
	9	4	2	1	1
School administration	28	-	3	3	2
	29	2	2	3	1
	31	-	5	2	1
	33	-	6	2	-
	34	1	4	1	2
	37	2	4	2	-
	41	1	5	-	2

Table D2.3 (Contd.)

Area	Item No.	agreed-counsellors should be doing.	agreed-counsellors should not be doing.	disagreed-principals, yes; counsellors, no.	disagreed-principals, no; counsellors, yes.
Consultation/ discussion with staff	4	8	-	-	-
	11	8	-	-	-
	12	7	-	1	-
	21	2	1	3	2
	24	3	1	3	1
	42	1	4	2	1
Others	35	3	1	1	3
	36	3	-	2	3
	40	-	6	2	-

Table D2.4.

"Counsellor" and "principal" scores.

Item No.	X "counsellor" score	Y "principal" score	x^2	y^2	XY
1	6	0	36	0	0
2	14	6	196	36	84
3	16	6	256	36	96
4	16	10	256	100	160
5	8	-2	64	4	-16
6	16	10	256	100	160
7	10	6	100	36	60
8	14	4	196	16	56
9	10	4	100	16	40
10	14	6	196	36	84
11	16	10	256	100	160
12	14	10	196	100	140
13	16	4	256	16	64
14	16	8	256	64	128
15	16	6	256	36	96
16	12	0	144	0	0
17	-2	2	4	4	-4
18	-16	-8	256	64	128
19	-14	-6	196	36	84
20	16	10	256	100	160
21	6	6	36	36	36
22	14	6	196	36	84
23	10	6	100	36	60
24	-4	2	16	4	-8
25	10	4	100	16	40
26	16	8	256	64	128
27	14	10	196	100	140
28	-4	-4	16	16	16

Table D2.4 (Contd.)

Item No.	X "counsellor" score	Y "principal" score	X ²	Y ²	XY
29	-4	0	16	0	0
30	2	4	4	16	8
31	-10	-6	100	36	60
32	4	8	16	64	32
33	-12	-6	144	36	72
34	4	-4	16	16	-16
35	12	2	144	4	24
36	10	2	100	4	20
37	-6	-4	36	16	24
38	2	6	4	36	12
39	6	8	36	64	48
40	-16	-6	256	36	96
41	0	-4	0	16	0
42	-4	-2	16	4	8
43	6	4	36	16	24
Total	254	126	5572	1572	2588

$$r = \frac{(43 \times 2588) - (250 \times 126)}{\sqrt{(43 \times 5572 - 250^2)(43 \times 1572 - 126^2)}} = 0.83$$

APPENDIX E.1.

Inventory : counselling issues.

1. Counselling makes only a marginal contribution to the attainment of the objectives of secondary schools.
2. Each school should devise a system by which pupils could be enabled to see the counsellor during class time.
3. The increased knowledge gained from a comprehensive and well-kept record system will lead to more effective teaching and guidance.
4. The school counsellor should be prepared to perform both disciplinary and counselling roles.
5. The senior counsellor in a school should have the status of a senior head of department.
6. The roles of teacher and counsellor cannot be carried out by one person.
7. Counselling requires at least one year of full-time in-service study and training.
8. Pupils should not be taken out of class for counselling interviews.
9. Standardised tests are valuable tools for counsellors.
10. The counsellor's most important function is to help each pupil to develop personal decision-making skills.
11. The provision of sound vocational guidance combined with a system designed to identify the talents of the pupils, provides a more suitable model for guidance and counselling in this country than one which attempts to cater for all developmental needs.

12. The most important responsibility of guidance and counselling is to promote the development of each pupil.
13. Guidance and counselling and related topics should have a low priority in the education of student teachers.
14. Trained counsellors are more able to give guidance than teachers.
15. In order to make contact with children in the classroom situation counsellors should do some teaching.
16. Counsellors should be prepared to compel pupils to change their behaviour if school policy and good discipline requires that they should do so.
17. Since the great majority of experienced teachers can do counselling, principals should be able to assign any of the teaching staff to counselling duties.
18. The principal area of guidance is that of teacher-pupil relationships rather than interviews with specialist counsellors.
19. Since counselling and teaching are fundamentally different activities, recruitment to counsellor training should be open to professions other than teaching, such as social work.
20. The guidance and counselling service is for all the pupils in the school.
21. Counsellors should not take part in the administration of discipline.
22. The primary aim of guidance and counselling in schools is to help pupils to become adjusted to society.
23. Counsellors should concentrate their efforts on pupils who have problems of one sort or another.

24. Counsellors are unnecessary when teachers are performing their duties adequately.
25. In a large secondary school, the senior counsellor should, from the point of view of status and salary, rank about number three or four in the school.
26. A school without a well-developed guidance service is not accepting the realities of today.
27. Since school counsellors must take a prominent part in curriculum planning, it is essential that they are recruited from the teaching profession.
28. We should emphasise the psychological and therapeutic aspect of school counselling less and the educational and vocational more.
29. Counsellors should try to influence the philosophy and practices of a school rather than operate entirely within them.
30. A counsellor should never disclose to anyone what a student has told him in a counselling interview except with the permission of the student.
31. Counsellors should aim primarily at fitting students to live in the community.
32. Guidance is an integral part of education rather than a fringe activity.
33. Pupils have problems with other than vocational or educational matters and counsellors should be prepared to help them.
34. In order to run the school effectively, the principal should have access to all the information given to the school counsellor.
35. All student teachers should be acquainted with the principles of guidance and counselling.

APPENDIX E.2(a).

Inventory : counselling issues.

Returns from groups (All results are presented in terms of agreement or disagreement with the Expected Counsellor Response)

1. Stoke-on-Trent counsellors (SOTC) N = 16.

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
A	1	11	3	2	0	0
	26	13	3	0	0	0
	32	9	7	0	0	0
B	14	4	10	2	0	0
	18	3	10	2	1	0
	24	10	6	0	0	0
C	10	11	4	0	1	0
	28	1	10	2	3	0
	33	15	1	0	0	0
D	16	11	4	0	1	0
	29	7	9	0	0	0
E	22	0	5	2	7	2
	31	0	6	3	5	2
F	11	5	7	1	2	1
	12	14	2	0	0	0
G	6	5	8	1	2	0
	15	3	7	2	4	0
H	4	15	1	0	0	0
	21	16	0	0	0	0
I	19	0	6	2	8	0
	27	0	5	3	5	3
J	7	15	1	0	0	0
	17	14	1	1	0	0

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
K	20	15	1	0	0	0
	23	3	3	1	8	1
L	5	13	2	1	0	0
	25	10	6	0	0	0
M	3	8	7	1	0	0
	9	8	8	0	0	0
N	30	6	7	0	3	0
	34	11	4	0	1	0
O	13	8	7	0	1	0
	35	11	5	0	0	0
P	2	12	4	0	0	0
	8	11	5	0	0	0

2. Northern Ireland counsellors (NIC) N = 19.

A	1	8	10	0	1	0
	26	12	7	0	0	0
	32	14	5	0	0	0
B	14	9	6	3	1	0
	18	2	12	1	3	1
	24	7	11	1	0	0
C	10	11	8	0	0	0
	28	3	9	4	2	1
	33	17	2	0	0	0
D	16	10	4	3	2	0
	29	6	11	2	0	0
E	22	2	5	2	5	5
	31	1	9	2	3	4
F	11	2	10	2	3	2
	12	10	7	1	1	0

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
G	6	1	4	3	10	1
	15	0	7	3	8	1
H	4	9	5	4	1	0
	21	7	8	1	1	2
I	19	1	5	8	4	1
	27	0	4	6	4	5
J	7	8	10	1	0	0
	17	5	11	2	1	0
K	20	15	4	0	0	0
	23	0	9	3	6	1
L	5	16	3	0	0	0
	25	10	8	1	0	0
M	3	12	6	1	0	0
	9	5	11	3	0	0
N	30	14	5	0	0	0
	34	11	6	0	2	0
O	13	10	7	0	1	1
	35	15	3	0	1	0
P	2	13	4	2	0	0
	8	6	8	2	3	0

3. School psychologists (SP) N = 21.

A	1	6	10	3	2	0
	26	6	9	4	1	1
	32	7	10	3	1	0
B	14	2	9	8	2	0
	18	1	11	5	4	0
	24	6	9	3	2	1
C	10	2	9	6	4	0
	28	2	7	4	8	0
	33	10	7	3	1	0

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
D	16	2	11	5	3	0
	29	1	15	2	2	1
E	22	1	6	2	11	1
	31	0	5	5	11	0
F	11	2	8	6	4	1
	12	3	11	5	2	0
G	6	1	1	0	17	2
	15	1	1	5	10	4
H	4	4	7	3	6	1
	21	2	7	6	6	0
I	19	1	6	2	8	4
	27	1	5	4	9	2
J	7	8	8	3	2	0
	17	8	8	2	2	1
K	20	13	8	0	0	0
	23	1	9	1	6	4
L	5	4	8	7	2	0
	25	1	8	8	4	0
M	3	11	10	0	0	0
	9	3	11	4	2	1
N	30	7	9	3	1	1
	34	5	10	3	3	0
O	13	3	18	0	0	0
	35	4	16	1	0	0
P	2	7	9	3	2	0
	8	3	13	3	1	1

4. Youth employment officers (YEO) N = 49.

A	1	13	24	3	9	0
	26	26	19	3	1	0
	32	26	21	2	0	0

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
B	14	21	21	5	2	0
	18	7	27	12	3	0
	24	20	25	1	3	0
C	10	23	20	3	2	1
	28	1	20	15	11	2
	33	24	24	0	1	0
D	16	21	18	5	5	0
	29	11	28	6	4	0
E	22	1	10	12	16	10
	31	0	11	9	21	8
F	11	3	16	14	12	4
	12	20	24	2	3	0
G	6	7	15	13	13	1
	15	3	15	13	16	2
H	4	21	21	3	4	0
	21	22	23	2	2	0
I	19	17	28	2	2	0
	27	10	32	5	2	0
J	7	24	14	7	3	1
	17	19	23	6	1	0
K	20	32	12	1	3	1
	23	6	12	13	16	2
L	5	15	23	10	1	0
	25	7	21	20	1	0
M	3	21	23	4	0	1
	9	15	28	4	1	1
N	30	34	9	4	1	1
	34	15	22	9	2	1
O	13	18	26	2	3	0
	35	23	24	1	1	0
P	2	18	25	2	3	1
	8	9	23	10	7	0

5. Educational welfare officers (EWO) N = 20.

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
A	1	0	5	1	12	2
	26	7	13	0	0	0
	32	7	12	1	0	0
B	14	3	14	3	0	0
	18	1	8	2	7	2
	24	2	10	3	4	1
C	10	1	14	2	3	0
	28	1	5	6	8	0
	33	5	13	1	1	0
D	16	0	5	2	11	2
	29	0	7	9	3	1
E	22	0	1	3	12	4
	31	0	1	1	14	4
F	11	0	3	1	16	0
	12	3	14	1	2	0
G	6	0	11	2	7	0
	15	0	5	1	10	4
H	4	1	16	1	2	0
	21	6	10	2	2	0
I	19	6	7	4	2	1
	27	2	9	3	5	1
J	7	3	13	4	0	0
	17	0	4	2	9	5
K	20	8	12	0	0	0
	23	0	4	2	9	5
L	5	1	4	9	4	2
	25	1	8	7	4	0
M	3	6	13	0	1	0
	9	0	11	6	3	0

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
N	30	9	4	2	4	1
	34	3	4	1	5	7
O	13	4	9	3	2	2
	35	4	14	1	1	0
P	2	2	12	2	4	0
	8	0	7	2	7	4

6. Secondary school teachers (SST) N = 97.

A	1	14	57	11	13	2
	26	30	58	8	1	0
	32	45	49	2	1	0
B	14	13	37	25	20	2
	18	4	20	28	40	5
	24	21	63	9	3	1
C	10	26	45	16	10	0
	28	3	42	27	19	6
	33	56	41	0	0	0
D	16	13	28	16	31	9
	29	12	47	19	18	1
E	22	1	17	17	43	19
	31	1	13	14	46	23
F	11	2	31	13	36	15
	12	33	55	6	3	0
G	6	6	18	10	51	12
	15	3	8	9	46	31
H	4	22	31	11	27	6
	21	24	30	13	25	5
I	19	5	29	22	29	12
	27	2	19	23	34	19

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
J	7	29	38	20	10	0
	17	15	33	13	33	3
K	20	55	38	1	2	1
	23	2	35	7	40	13
L	5	28	41	13	10	5
	25	10	36	34	14	3
M	3	41	45	5	5	1
	9	4	58	22	11	2
N	30	56	21	7	12	1
	34	17	36	10	16	18
O	13	28	55	5	5	4
	35	51	42	4	0	0
P	2	29	45	8	13	2
	8	10	39	13	20	15

7. Grammar school teachers (GST) N = 53.

A	1	6	27	9	11	0
	26	11	31	5	6	0
	32	22	27	3	1	0
B	14	6	22	12	8	5
	18	1	12	10	23	7
	24	9	31	9	3	1
C	10	11	30	7	5	0
	28	0	13	19	15	6
	33	22	30	0	1	0
D	16	8	13	7	18	7
	29	5	18	12	14	4
E	22	1	13	7	25	7
	31	2	6	12	27	6

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
F	11	1	5	15	20	12
	12	19	27	4	2	1
G	6	2	11	4	24	12
	15	1	4	5	33	10
H	4	6	13	10	20	4
	21	6	11	13	20	3
I	19	3	21	9	18	2
	27	4	17	10	14	8
J	7	20	16	9	8	0
	17	11	25	6	11	0
K	20	24	27	2	0	0
	23	1	23	8	17	4
L	5	12	24	13	3	1
	25	7	21	17	8	0
M	3	19	27	6	0	1
	9	5	31	13	4	0
N	30	20	18	7	6	2
	34	8	21	5	16	3
O	13	5	38	3	7	0
	35	10	40	3	0	0
P	2	9	26	4	10	4
	8	2	17	5	18	11

8. Technical college teachers (TCT) N = 17.

A	1	1	11	0	4	1
	26	5	10	1	1	0
	32	7	6	2	2	0
B	14	0	7	6	3	1
	18	1	6	3	5	2
	24	2	7	2	5	1

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
C	10	4	5	6	2	0
	28	0	3	7	5	2
	33	5	12	0	0	0
D	16	1	6	6	3	1
	29	2	6	3	5	1
E	22	0	3	4	5	5
	31	0	4	2	6	5
F	11	1	2	3	8	3
	12	4	10	2	0	1
G	6	2	6	1	6	2
	15	0	4	0	7	6
H	4	5	7	0	4	1
	21	4	5	4	4	0
I	19	1	6	5	4	1
	27	0	3	6	4	4
J	7	2	10	4	0	1
	17	3	5	2	6	1
K	20	10	7	0	0	0
	23	0	4	4	7	2
L	5	3	7	3	2	2
	25	1	6	6	3	1
M	3	6	6	4	1	0
	9	1	7	6	3	0
N	30	5	6	1	2	3
	34	0	7	1	6	3
O	13	2	8	1	6	0
	35	4	11	2	0	0
P	2	5	8	1	2	1
	8	3	4	3	6	1

9. Secondary school principals (SSP) N = 40.

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
A	1	9	17	5	7	2
	26	9	25	2	3	1
	32	17	20	3	0	0
B	14	3	12	16	8	1
	18	0	6	16	15	3
	24	6	25	4	5	0
C	10	12	13	8	7	0
	28	0	11	16	12	1
	33	11	28	1	0	0
D	16	1	15	6	14	4
	29	4	16	14	5	1
E	22	1	6	5	19	9
	31	0	4	6	22	8
F	11	1	11	11	17	0
	12	18	17	4	1	0
G	6	0	6	5	23	6
	15	0	4	0	26	10
H	4	5	11	9	12	3
	21	8	9	6	17	0
I	19	0	15	11	12	2
	27	0	8	7	17	8
J	7	10	12	9	9	0
	17	2	19	4	14	1
K	20	15	24	0	1	0
	23	0	17	7	15	1
L	5	12	18	7	2	1
	25	5	19	14	1	1
M	3	22	17	1	0	0
	9	7	16	15	1	1

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
N	30	11	14	10	4	1
	34	3	10	8	12	7
O	13	14	22	2	2	0
	35	18	21	1	0	0
P	2	9	22	9	0	0
	8	5	22	7	5	1

10. Grammar school principals (GSP) N = 22.

A	1	2	13	2	3	2
	26	2	16	1	1	2
	32	8	14	0	0	0
B	14	3	5	10	4	0
	18	1	5	4	10	2
	24	3	11	3	5	0
C	10	3	12	3	4	0
	28	0	4	12	6	0
	33	8	10	3	1	0
D	16	1	7	1	7	6
	29	1	5	7	9	0
E	22	0	7	1	7	6
	31	0	6	7	6	3
F	11	0	5	8	7	2
	12	4	14	4	0	0
G	6	1	2	2	15	2
	15	1	1	3	8	9
H	4	4	7	2	7	2
	21	3	7	4	8	0
I	19	1	8	4	7	2
	27	2	3	4	9	4

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
J	7	6	5	5	6	0
	17	0	10	2	7	3
K	20	8	13	1	0	0
	23	0	9	8	4	1
L	5	6	10	4	1	1
	25	1	12	7	2	0
M	3	7	10	4	0	1
	9	1	12	4	3	2
N	30	8	3	6	5	0
	34	2	4	4	6	6
O	13	2	14	1	4	1
	35	9	11	0	2	0
P	2	0	8	6	6	2
	8	0	7	6	5	4

11. Technical college principals (TCP) N = 8.

A	1	2	3	0	3	0
	26	1	6	1	0	0
	32	3	5	0	0	0
B	14	0	3	3	2	0
	18	0	3	3	2	0
	24	3	3	1	1	0
C	10	2	2	2	2	0
	28	1	1	2	4	0
	33	2	6	0	0	0
D	16	1	4	2	1	0
	29	2	3	2	1	0
E	22	0	2	1	5	0
	31	0	0	3	5	0

issue	statement number	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
F	11	1	3	0	3	1
	12	2	5	1	0	0
G	6	1	1	1	3	2
	15	0	0	1	6	1
H	4	2	5	0	0	1
	21	2	3	2	1	0
I	19	1	3	3	1	0
	27	1	2	2	3	0
J	7	2	2	1	3	0
	17	1	3	0	4	0
K	20	4	4	0	0	0
	23	0	5	0	3	0
L	5	1	2	3	2	0
	25	1	1	5	1	0
M	3	3	3	2	0	0
	9	0	5	3	0	0
N	30	2	3	1	2	0
	34	0	3	0	4	1
O	13	2	5	1	0	0
	35	4	3	1	0	0
P	2	1	4	2	1	0
	8	1	5	0	2	0

APPENDIX E.2(b).

Inventory : counselling issues.

Mean issue scores - all groups.

Issue	SOTC	NIC	SP	YEO	ENO	SST	GST	TCT	SSP	GSP	TCP
A	4.65	4.56	3.97	4.25	3.70	4.11	3.91	3.86	3.97	3.83	3.96
B	4.23	4.04	3.59	4.10	3.45	3.40	3.23	3.10	3.21	3.18	3.42
C	4.35	4.35	3.60	3.95	3.57	3.88	3.67	3.53	3.64	3.56	3.54
D	4.50	4.18	3.60	4.03	2.80	3.29	3.03	3.18	3.15	2.73	3.69
E	2.70	2.84	2.74	2.49	2.00	2.28	2.50	2.29	2.21	2.80	2.50
F	4.34	3.87	3.50	3.64	3.12	3.45	3.23	3.18	3.60	3.36	3.56
G	3.78	2.76	2.21	3.15	2.77	2.28	2.25	2.56	2.11	2.14	2.25
H	4.97	4.03	3.29	4.27	3.90	3.41	2.94	3.59	3.14	3.20	3.81
I	2.75	2.76	2.67	4.12	3.52	2.26	3.00	2.79	2.67	2.75	3.31
J	4.87	4.21	4.00	4.19	3.48	3.57	3.79	3.44	3.37	3.18	3.25
K	3.94	3.92	3.74	3.77	3.33	3.60	3.71	3.59	3.66	3.73	3.87
L	4.69	4.66	3.48	3.88	3.10	3.58	3.66	3.29	3.80	3.70	3.25
M	4.47	4.34	4.07	4.20	3.80	3.88	3.94	3.68	4.10	3.66	3.87
N	4.28	4.55	3.88	4.24	3.17	3.71	3.59	3.09	3.25	3.09	3.12
O	4.53	4.47	4.14	4.31	3.80	4.25	3.95	3.74	4.31	3.89	4.25
P	4.72	4.24	3.88	3.92	3.10	3.49	3.07	3.47	3.81	2.82	3.62

APPENDIX E.3(a).

Pool of statements.

Q/UK/5.

Issues	No. of items	No. of items to be used
A. Guidance and Counselling - general	8	3
B. Guidance by teachers v. guidance by specialists.	9	3
C. Vocational-educational v. personal-social.	5	2
D. Conforming function v. agent of change function.	6	3
E. Manpower needs v. individual development.	4	2
F. Teaching v. non-teaching counsellors.	5	2
G. Counselling and discipline.	4	2
H. Recruitment of counsellors.	4	2
I. Training of school counsellors.	4	2
J. For all pupils v. for pupils with problems.	3	2
K. Status of counsellors.	3	2
L. Testing.	3	2
M. Confidentiality.	3	3
N. Teacher training.	3	3
O. Time for counselling.	3	3
Total	67	33

A. Guidance and counselling - general

1. A school without a well-developed guidance service is not accepting the realities of today.
2. School counselling is only marginal to the effectiveness of the educational enterprise.
3. Counselling is uniquely characteristic of American culture and has no place in schools here.
4. Guidance is an integral part of education rather than a fringe activity.
5. A counsellor can make a distinctive contribution to the attainment of the school's goals and objectives.
6. The introduction of counselling into schools in Northern Ireland is a worthwhile experiment.
7. Guidance makes a significant contribution to the attainment of the objectives of secondary education.
8. Detailed and informed guidance should be the cornerstone upon which the school's efforts should be built.

B. Guidance by class teachers v. guidance by specialists

9. Counsellors are unnecessary when teachers are performing their duties adequately.
10. Counsellors usurp the guidance functions of teachers who are equally well qualified to perform them.
11. Trained counsellors are more able to give guidance than teachers.
12. The principal area of guidance is that of teacher-pupil relationships rather than interviews with specialised counsellors.
13. Form teachers are more concerned with guidance than counsellors.
14. All guidance functions can be carried out by class-teachers through the provision of appropriate curriculum experiences.
15. An extra full-time teacher would be more effective than a counsellor in raising the quality of the education provided in a school.

16. A reduction in the teacher-pupil ratio would be preferable to the employment of school counsellors.
17. Most guidance and counselling can be done by the principal and the teaching staff.

C. Guidance and counselling : vocational-education v. personal-social

18. Guidance in schools should be concerned only with educational and vocational problems.
19. We should emphasise the psychological and therapeutic aspect of school counselling less and the educational and vocational more.
20. The counsellor's most important function is to help each pupil to develop personal decision-making skills.
21. Personal guidance is the responsibility of parents, not the schools.
22. The school's responsibility is confined to educational and vocational matters and so counsellors should stick to this field.
23. Pupils have problems with other than vocational or educational matters and the counsellor should be prepared to help them.

D. Conforming function v. agent of change function

24. A counsellor's willingness to show deference to authority is inversely associated with his counselling effectiveness.
25. Counsellors should try to influence the philosophy and practices of the school rather than operate entirely within it.
26. Counsellors should not defend pupils who are in difficulties in the school.
27. Guidance programmes should operate closely within the status quo pattern of values in the school.
28. Counsellors should be prepared to compel pupils to change their behaviour if school policy and good discipline requires that they should do so.
29. Counsellors should aim primarily at fitting students to live in the community.

E. Manpower needs v. individual development

30. The most important responsibility of guidance and counselling is to promote the development of each pupil.
31. An appropriate system of guidance and counselling for Northern Ireland should concentrate on the identification of talents and aptitudes and the provision of a comprehensive system of vocational guidance.
32. The identification of the talented is the primary function of guidance.
33. The primary responsibility of guidance and counselling is to ensure that trained manpower of sufficient quantity and quality is forthcoming to meet the needs of the economy.

F. Teaching v. non-teaching counsellors

34. Counsellors should have no teaching duties.
35. The roles of teacher and counsellor cannot be carried out by one person.
36. In order to make contact with children in the classroom situation, counsellors should do some teaching.
37. Counselling should be separated from teaching.
38. There is no major conflict of roles between teaching and counselling.

G. Counselling and discipline

39. The administration of discipline is one of the counsellor's functions.
40. The school counsellor should be prepared to perform both disciplinary and counselling roles.
41. Counsellors should not take any part in the administration of discipline.
42. Counsellors have an important role to play in discipline.

H. Recruitment of counsellors

43. The recruitment of counsellors for training should be confined to teachers with classroom experience.
44. To be an effective counsellor, it is not necessary to have been a teacher.
45. Since counselling and teaching are fundamentally different activities, recruitment to counsellor training should be open to professions other than teaching, such as social work.
46. Since school counsellors must take a prominent part in curriculum planning, it is essential that they be recruited from the teaching profession.

I. Training of school counsellors

47. Any trained teacher with some years of classroom experience can do counselling.
48. Counselling requires at least one year of full-time in-service study and training.
49. School counsellors do not need special training beyond that of teachers.
50. Principals should be able to assign any of the teaching staff to counselling duties.

J. For all pupils v. for pupils with problems

51. The guidance and counselling service is for all the pupils in the school.
52. Counselling is only for pupils who have difficulties.
53. Counsellors should concentrate their efforts on pupils who have problems of one sort or another.

K. Status of counsellors

54. The senior counsellor should have the status of a senior head of department.

55. It is not necessary that a counsellor should hold a senior post.
56. In a large secondary school, the senior counsellor should, from the point of view of status and salary, rank about number three or four in the school.

L. Testing and records

57. School records are often not worth the time spent on keeping them.
58. The increased knowledge gained from comprehensive schools records generally leads to more effective teaching and guidance.
59. Standardised tests are valuable tools for counsellors.

M. Confidentiality

60. Counsellors should keep in strict confidence everything a student tells him in a counselling interview.
61. Counsellors should never disclose to anyone what a student has told him in a counselling interview except with the permission of the student.
61. In order to run the school effectively, the principal should have access to all the information given to counsellors.

N. Teacher-training

63. Training in guidance techniques should be available to all student teachers.
64. All student teachers should be acquainted with the principles of guidance and counselling.
65. In colleges of education the students should be taught how to teach, and topics like guidance and counselling should have a low priority on the syllabus.

O. Time for counselling

66. Pupils should not be taken out of class for a counselling interview.
67. Counselling should only be carried on outside normal classroom time.
68. Each school should devise a system, by which children could be enabled to see the counsellor during class time.

APPENDIX E.3(b).

Choices made from pool of statements by the University of Keels DASE counselling course (1970-71).

issue number	statement	index of choice	issue number	statement	index of choice	issue number	statement	index of choice
A	1	(24)	D	24	7	I	47	10
	2	7		25	(50)		48	(31)
	3	8		26	4		49	4
	4	(31)		27	4		50	(12)
	5	(18)		28	(22)	J	51	(30)
	6	10		29	(27)		52	4
	7	8	E	30	(34)		53	(23)
	8	8		31	(13)	K	54	(19)
B	9	(21)		32	2		55	11
	10	2	33	8	56		(27)	
	11	(40)	F	34	11	L	57	15
	12	(20)		35	(15)		58	(20)
	13	1		36	(18)		59	(22)
	14	10		37	3	M	60	11
	15	11		38	10		61	(33)
	16	2		G	39		3	62
17	7	40	(17)		N	63	13	
C	18	3	41			(28)	64	(29)
	19	(13)	42	9		65	(15)	
	20	(16)	H	43	12	O	66	(15)
	21	4		44	12		67	10
	22	3		45	(19)		68	(32)
	23	(18)		46	(14)			

Scores of statements chosen are indicated by ().

As a result of discussions with group members, some minor changes in wording were made.

APPENDIX E.4.

Inventory : counselling issues (first version - 34 items).

1. Counselling makes only a marginal contribution to the attainment of the objectives of secondary schools.
2. Each school should devise a system by which pupils could be enabled to see the counsellor during class time.
3. The increased knowledge gained from a comprehensive and well-kept record system will lead to more effective teaching and guidance.
4. The school counsellor should be prepared to perform both disciplinary and counselling roles.
5. The senior counsellor in a school should have the status of a senior head of department.
6. The roles of teacher and counsellor cannot be carried out by one person.
7. Counselling requires at least one year of full-time in-service study and training.
8. Pupils should not be taken out of class for counselling interviews.
9. Standardised tests are valuable tools for counsellors.
10. The counsellor's most important function is to help each pupil to develop personal decision making skills.
11. The most appropriate system of guidance and counselling for this country is one which concentrates on the identification of talents and aptitudes and the provision of a comprehensive system of vocational guidance.

12. The most important responsibility of guidance and counselling is to promote the development of each pupil.
13. Guidance and counselling and related topics should have a low priority in the education of teachers.
14. Trained counsellors are more able to give guidance than teachers.
15. In order to make contact with children in the classroom situation, counsellors should do some teaching.
16. Counsellors should be prepared to compel pupils to change their behaviour if school policy and good discipline requires that they should do so.
17. Since the great majority of experienced teachers can do counselling, principals should be able to assign any of the teaching staff to counselling duties.
18. The principal area of guidance is that of teacher-pupil relationships rather than interviews with specialist counsellors.
19. Since counselling and teaching are fundamentally different activities, recruitment to counsellor training should be open to professions other than teaching, such as social work.
20. The guidance and counselling service is for all the pupils in the school.
21. Counsellors should not take part in the administration of discipline.
22. Counsellors should concentrate their efforts on pupils who have problems of one sort or another.
23. Counsellors are unnecessary when teachers are performing their duties adequately.
24. In a large secondary school, the senior counsellor should, from the point of view of status and salary, rank about number three or four in the school.

25. A school without a well-developed guidance service is not accepting the realities of today.
26. Since school counsellors must take a prominent part in curriculum planning, it is essential that they are recruited from the teaching profession.
27. We should emphasise the psychological and therapeutic aspect of school counselling less and the educational and vocational more.
28. Counsellors should try to influence the philosophy and practices of a school rather than operate entirely within them.
29. A counsellor should never disclose to anyone what a student has told him in a counselling interview except with the permission of the student.
30. Counsellors should aim primarily at fitting students to live in the community.
31. Guidance is an integral part of education rather than a fringe activity.
32. Pupils have problems with other than educational or vocational matters and counsellors should be prepared to help them.
33. In order to run the school effectively, the principal should have access to all the information given to the school counsellor.
34. All student teachers should be acquainted with the principles of guidance and counselling.

Three reworded statements used in the Stoke-on-Trent survey.

- No.11. The provision of sound vocational guidance, combined with a system designed to identify the talents of the pupils, provides a more suitable model for guidance and counselling in this country than one

which attempts to cater for all developmental needs.

No.22. Rather than dissipating their energies and resources by trying to provide for all the pupils, counsellors should concern themselves primarily with those with problems.

No.30. The primary aim of guidance and counselling in schools is to help pupils to become adjusted to society.

APPENDIX E.5.

Inventory : counselling issues

t-test programme.

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0008 MASTER TEST
0009 DIMENSION IX(5,15),N1(15), TOT(15), XB(15)
0010 DIMENSION A(15),IA(6),IB(14)
0011 DATA IA(1)/24H(1H+, X,14F6.2) /
0012 DATA IB(1)/40H 16 22 28 34 40 46 52 58 64 70
0013 DATA IB(11)/16H 76 82 88 94/
0014 READ(1,3) N
0015 3 FORMAT(10)
0016 DO 123 N = 1,N
0017 READ(1,4)((IX(I,J),J=1,15),I=1,5)
0018 4 FORMAT(15I0)
0019 WRITE(2,14)(I,I=1,15)
0020 14 FORMAT(///1H ,10H GROUP NO. ,15(1X,I3,2X))
0021 DO 154 I = 1,5
0022 15 FORMAT(/1H ,10X,15(1X,I3,2X))
0023 154 WRITE(2,15)(IX(I,J),J=1,15)
0024 DO 6 J = 1, 15
0025 TOT(J) = 0.0
0026 N1(J) = 0
0027 DO7 I = 1,5
0028 N1(J) = N1(J) + IX(I,J)
0029 TOT(J) = TOT(J) + IX(I,J)*(6-I)
0030 7 CONTINUE
0031 XB(J) = TOT(J)/N1(J)
0032 6 CONTINUE
0033 WRITE(2,16)(N1(I),I=1,15)
0034 16 FORMAT(/1H ,10H TOTAL NO. ,15(1X,I3,2X))
0035 WRITE(2,17)(XB(I),I=1,15)
0036 17 FORMAT(/1H ,10H MEAN ,15(1X,F4.2,1X))
0037 DO 124 I = 1,14
0038 DO 12 J = I+1,15
0039 T = XB(I) - XB(J)
0040 S = 0.0
0041 DO 8 L = 1,5
0042 S=S+((6-L-XB(I))*2)*IX(L,I)+((6-L-XB(J))*2)*IX(L,J)
0043 8 CONTINUE
0044 S1=S/(N1(I)+N1(J)-2)
0045 R=N1(I)+N1(J)
0046 T=T/SQRT(S1*(N1(I)+N1(J))/R)
0047 A(J) = T
0048 12 CONTINUE
0049 IA(3) = IB(I)
0050 WRITE(2,19)I
0051 19 FORMAT(/1H ,1T FOR I,12,I V)
0052 WRITE(2,IA)(A(K),K = I+1,15)
0053 124 CONTINUE
0054 123 CONTINUE
0055 PAUSE
0056 END

```

END OF SEGMENT, LENGTH 318, NAME TEST

t-test results (all groups).

Issue A: counselling - necessary v. unnecessary.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	33	34	19	65	14	89	39	13	35	12	6
	13	22	29	64	30	164	85	27	62	43	14
	2	0	10	8	2	21	17	3	10	3	1
	0	1	4	10	12	15	18	7	10	4	3
	0	0	1	0	2	2	0	1	3	4	0
TOTAL NO.	48	57	63	147	60	291	159	51	120	66	24
MEAN	4.65	4.56	3.97	4.25	3.70	4.11	3.91	3.86	3.97	3.83	3.96
T FOR 1 V		0.74	4.45	3.02	5.25	4.47	5.36	4.68	4.55	5.06	3.95
T FOR 2 V			4.10	2.54	5.08	4.05	5.08	4.40	4.26	4.80	3.53
T FOR 3 V				-2.16	1.43	-1.24	0.42	0.58	0.01	0.79	0.04
T FOR 4 V					3.84	1.72	3.41	2.69	2.57	3.16	1.56
T FOR 5 V						-3.34	-1.45	-0.79	-1.64	-0.70	-0.99
T FOR 6 V							2.41	1.95	1.55	2.42	0.89
T FOR 7 V								0.33	-0.49	0.58	-0.24
T FOR 8 V									-0.63	0.16	-0.39
T FOR 9 V										0.89	0.04
T FOR 10 V											-0.54
T FOR 11 V											

Issue B: counselling - by specialists v. by teachers.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	17	18	9	48	6	38	16
	26	29	29	73	32	120	65
	4	5	16	18	8	62	31
	1	4	8	8	11	63	34
	0	1	1	0	3	8	13
TOTAL NO.	48	57	63	147	60	291	159
MEAN	4.23	4.04	3.59	4.10	3.45	3.40	3.23
T FOR 1 V		1.20	3.97	1.03	4.38	5.27	5.73
T FOR 2 V			2.62	-0.46	3.17	4.24	4.77
T FOR 3 V				-3.95	0.76	1.29	2.18
T FOR 4 V					4.72	7.01	7.55
T FOR 5 V						0.32	1.28
T FOR 6 V							1.58
T FOR 7 V							
T FOR 8 V							
T FOR 9 V							
T FOR 10 V							
T FOR 11 V							

8	9	10	11
3	9	7	3
20	43	21	9
11	36	17	7
13	28	19	5
4	4	2	0
51	120	66	24
3.10	3.21	3.18	3.42
6.08	6.50	5.95	4.08
4.81	5.28	4.70	2.70
2.55	2.49	2.28	0.75
6.85	8.01	6.86	3.68
1.71	1.50	1.41	0.13
1.80	1.73	1.53	-0.07
0.74	0.19	0.31	-0.75
	-0.64	-0.42	-1.21
		0.17	-0.94
			-0.95

Issue C: guidance - personal-social v. vocational-educational.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	27	31	14	48	7	85	33	9	23	11	5
	15	19	23	64	32	128	73	20	52	26	9
	2	4	13	18	9	43	26	13	25	18	4
	4	2	13	14	12	29	21	7	19	11	6
	0	1	0	3	0	6	6	2	1	0	0
TOTAL NO.	48	57	63	147	60	291	159	51	120	66	24
MEAN	4.35	4.35	3.60	3.95	3.57	3.88	3.67	3.53	3.64	3.56	3.54
T FOR 1 V		0.02	3.94	2.45	4.37	3.04	4.05	4.13	4.30	4.44	3.32
T FOR 2 V			4.16	2.61	4.60	3.26	4.33	4.35	4.57	4.69	3.46
T FOR 3 V				-2.27	0.20	-1.98	-0.40	0.37	-0.24	0.24	0.24
T FOR 4 V					2.54	0.68	2.40	2.54	2.52	2.66	1.82
T FOR 5 V						-2.24	-0.64	0.20	-0.48	0.04	0.10
T FOR 6 V							2.14	2.29	2.22	2.37	1.59
T FOR 7 V								0.80	0.20	0.70	0.53
T FOR 8 V									-0.66	-0.17	-0.05
T FOR 9 V										0.54	0.44
T FOR 10 V											0.08
T FOR 11 V											

Issue D: guidance function - agent of change v. cooling (re. school).

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	18	16	3	32	0	25	13	3	5	2	3
	13	15	26	46	12	75	31	12	31	12	7
	0	5	7	11	11	35	19	9	20	8	4
	1	2	5	9	14	49	32	8	19	16	2
	0	0	1	0	3	10	11	2	5	6	0
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.50	4.18	3.60	4.03	2.80	3.29	3.03	3.18	3.15	2.73	3.69
T FOR 1 V		1.68	4.82	2.71	8.45	5.87	6.47	5.91	6.70	7.80	3.44
T FOR 2 V			3.00	0.90	6.65	4.61	5.33	4.37	5.25	6.40	1.87
T FOR 3 V				-2.63	3.89	1.65	2.72	1.85	2.33	3.91	-0.35
T FOR 4 V					7.12	5.64	6.59	4.51	6.00	7.30	1.40
T FOR 5 V						-2.54	-1.06	-1.58	-1.76	0.31	-3.12
T FOR 6 V							1.85	0.54	0.94	2.96	-1.37
T FOR 7 V								-0.63	-0.71	1.39	-2.05
T FOR 8 V									0.12	1.75	-1.61
T FOR 9 V										2.07	-1.89
T FOR 10 V											-2.99
T FOR 11 V											

Issue E: guidance function - agent of change v. cooling (re. society).

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	0	3	1	1	0	2	3	0	1	0	0
	11	14	11	21	2	30	19	7	10	13	2
	5	4	7	21	4	31	19	6	11	12	4
	12	8	22	37	26	89	52	11	41	16	10
	4	9	1	18	8	42	13	10	17	3	0
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	2.72	2.84	2.74	2.49	2.00	2.28	2.50	2.29	2.21	2.80	2.50
T FOR 1 V		-0.41	-0.08	1.06	3.37	2.24	1.05	1.57	2.42	-0.33	0.73
T FOR 2 V			0.40	1.60	3.43	2.94	1.62	1.85	2.88	0.18	0.94
T FOR 3 V				1.31	3.92	2.67	1.30	1.86	2.86	-0.28	0.89
T FOR 4 V					2.69	1.63	-0.07	0.92	1.81	-1.64	-0.04
T FOR 5 V						-1.69	-2.85	-1.37	-1.23	-4.29	-2.35
T FOR 6 V							-1.77	-0.06	0.54	-3.08	-0.84
T FOR 7 V								1.00	1.95	-1.65	0.00
T FOR 8 V									0.39	-2.14	-0.67
T FOR 9 V										-3.23	-1.13
T FOR 10 V											1.12
T FOR 11 V											

Issue F: guidance function - individual development v. manpower needs.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	19	12	5	23	3	35	20	5	19	4	3
	9	17	19	40	17	86	32	12	28	19	8
	1	3	11	16	2	19	19	5	15	12	1
	2	4	6	15	18	39	22	8	18	7	3
	1	2	1	4	0	15	13	4	0	2	1
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.34	3.87	3.50	3.64	3.12	3.45	3.23	3.18	3.60	3.36	3.56
T FOR 1 V		1.81	3.60	3.12	4.82	3.93	4.42	4.04	3.32	4.12	2.33
T FOR 2 V			1.56	1.05	2.94	1.96	2.67	2.41	1.23	2.12	0.88
T FOR 3 V				-0.72	1.65	0.26	1.22	1.25	-0.50	0.64	-0.20
T FOR 4 V					2.48	1.32	2.43	2.01	0.26	1.41	0.26
T FOR 5 V						-1.56	-0.44	-0.10	-2.26	-1.04	-1.31
T FOR 6 V							1.47	1.19	-0.97	0.43	-0.36
T FOR 7 V								0.19	-2.07	-0.62	-0.96
T FOR 8 V									-1.80	-0.72	-1.01
T FOR 9 V										1.19	0.12
T FOR 10 V											-0.64
T FOR 11 V											

Issue G: counsellors - non-teaching v. teaching.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	8	1	2	10	0	9	3	2	0	2	1
	15	11	2	30	16	26	15	10	10	3	1
	3	6	5	26	3	19	9	1	5	5	2
	6	18	27	29	17	97	57	13	49	23	9
	0	2	6	3	4	43	22	8	16	11	3
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	3.78	2.76	2.21	3.15	2.77	2.28	2.25	2.56	2.11	2.14	2.25
T FOR 1 V		4.11	6.84	2.93	3.96	7.22	7.37	4.19	8.66	6.87	4.77
T FOR 2 V			2.52	-1.94	-0.05	2.49	2.66	0.74	3.58	2.76	1.66
T FOR 3 V				-4.99	-2.51	-0.38	-0.17	-1.34	0.60	0.37	-0.13
T FOR 4 V					1.88	6.48	6.20	2.65	7.05	5.34	3.16
T FOR 5 V						2.58	2.72	0.77	3.59	2.76	1.63
T FOR 6 V							0.29	-1.31	1.24	0.81	0.12
T FOR 7 V								-1.44	0.93	0.59	-0.02
T FOR 8 V									2.14	1.60	0.82
T FOR 9 V										-0.14	-0.55
T FOR 10 V											-0.38
T FOR 11 V											

Issue H: should counsellors perform a disciplinary role? - no v. yes.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	31	16	6	43	7	46	12	9	13	7	4
	1	13	14	44	26	61	24	12	20	14	8
	0	5	9	5	3	24	23	4	15	6	2
	0	2	12	6	4	52	40	8	29	15	1
	0	2	1	0	0	11	7	1	3	2	1
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.97	4.03	3.29	4.27	3.90	3.41	2.94	3.59	3.14	3.20	3.81
T FOR 1 V		4.68	8.48	4.81	7.31	6.96	9.87	6.39	8.66	8.16	5.81
T FOR 2 V			2.96	-1.37	0.57	2.81	5.00	1.59	3.86	3.16	0.64
T FOR 3 V				-5.80	-2.85	-0.58	1.64	-1.13	0.67	0.32	-1.62
T FOR 4 V					2.38	6.10	9.37	3.64	7.47	6.11	1.94
T FOR 5 V						2.36	4.81	1.32	3.65	3.06	0.33
T FOR 6 V							3.13	-0.77	1.63	0.97	-1.24
T FOR 7 V								-2.80	-1.12	-1.24	-2.82
T FOR 8 V									1.84	1.39	-0.63
T FOR 9 V										-0.30	-2.10
T FOR 10 V											-1.76
T FOR 11 V											

Issue I: recruitment - open v. restricted to teachers.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	0	1	2	27	8	7	7
	11	9	11	60	16	48	38
	5	14	6	7	7	45	19
	13	8	17	4	7	63	32
	3	6	6	0	2	31	10
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106
MEAN	2.75	2.76	2.67	4.12	3.52	2.68	3.00
T FOR 1 V		-0.05	0.32	-8.39	-2.95	0.35	-1.10
T FOR 2 V			0.38	-8.61	-3.01	0.44	-1.11
T FOR 3 V				-9.10	-3.35	-0.04	-1.59
T FOR 4 V					3.70	11.66	8.34
T FOR 5 V						4.34	2.46
T FOR 6 V							-2.38
T FOR 7 V							
T FOR 8 V							
T FOR 9 V							
T FOR 10 V							
T FOR 11 V							

8	9	10	11
1	0	3	2
9	23	11	5
11	18	8	5
8	29	16	4
5	10	6	0
34	80	44	16
2.79	2.67	2.75	3.31
-0.17	0.35	0.00	-1.77
-0.12	0.43	0.05	-1.74
-0.49	-0.04	-0.33	-1.96
8.11	11.09	8.58	3.97
2.78	4.10	3.03	0.64
-0.57	0.00	-0.40	-2.20
0.92	2.00	1.20	-1.03
	0.55	0.17	-1.60
		-0.37	-2.27
			-1.69

Issue J: training for counsellors - necessary v. unnecessary.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	29	13	16	43	4	44	31	5	12	6	3
	2	21	16	37	20	71	41	15	31	15	5
	1	3	5	13	8	33	15	6	13	7	1
	0	1	4	4	7	43	19	6	23	13	7
	0	0	1	1	1	3	0	2	1	3	0
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.87	4.21	4.00	4.19	3.48	3.57	3.79	3.44	3.37	3.18	3.25
T FOR 1 V		4.68	4.41	4.16	7.49	6.55	5.65	6.73	7.51	7.60	6.74
T FOR 2 V			1.04	0.10	3.77	3.43	2.26	3.50	4.30	4.62	3.62
T FOR 3 V				-1.11	2.32	2.30	1.08	2.22	3.03	3.34	2.30
T FOR 4 V					4.16	4.84	2.92	3.94	5.50	5.58	3.70
T FOR 5 V						-0.48	-1.65	0.14	0.49	1.21	0.72
T FOR 6 V							-1.71	0.61	1.30	2.04	1.08
T FOR 7 V								1.66	2.62	3.09	1.87
T FOR 8 V									0.29	0.97	0.54
T FOR 9 V										0.91	0.41
T FOR 10 V											-0.19
T FOR 11 V											

Issue K: counselling - for all pupils v. for those with problems.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	18	15	14	38	8	57	25	10	15	8	4
	4	13	17	24	16	73	50	11	41	22	9
	1	3	1	14	2	8	10	4	7	9	0
	8	6	6	19	9	42	17	7	16	4	3
	1	1	4	3	5	14	4	2	1	1	0
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	3.94	3.92	3.74	3.77	3.33	3.60	3.71	3.59	3.66	3.73	3.87
T FOR 1 V		0.05	0.63	0.66	1.88	1.33	0.97	1.06	1.14	0.78	0.16
T FOR 2 V			0.65	0.67	2.06	1.40	1.00	1.15	1.21	0.83	0.14
T FOR 3 V				-0.12	1.39	0.61	0.14	0.50	0.35	0.04	-0.37
T FOR 4 V					1.84	1.02	0.35	0.71	0.59	0.18	-0.33
T FOR 5 V						-1.22	-1.74	-0.85	-1.50	-1.58	-1.45
T FOR 6 V							-0.70	0.06	-0.36	-0.60	-0.81
T FOR 7 V								0.52	0.28	-0.10	-0.57
T FOR 8 V									-0.32	-0.55	-0.78
T FOR 9 V										-0.34	-0.75
T FOR 10 V											-0.52
T FOR 11 V											

Issue I: status - seniority, necessary v. unnecessary.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	23	26	5	22	2	38	19
	8	11	16	44	12	77	45
	1	1	15	30	16	47	30
	0	0	6	2	8	24	11
	0	0	0	0	2	8	1
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106
MEAN	4.69	4.66	3.48	3.88	3.10	3.58	3.66
T FOR 1 V		0.23	6.81	5.48	8.40	5.74	5.98
T FOR 2 V			7.11	5.69	8.83	6.07	6.28
T FOR 3 V				-2.68	1.85	-0.60	-1.10
T FOR 4 V					4.98	2.43	1.81
T FOR 5 V						-2.65	-3.24
T FOR 6 V							-0.63
T FOR 7 V							
T FOR 8 V							
T FOR 9 V							
T FOR 10 V							
T FOR 11 V							

8	9	10	11
4	17	7	2
13	37	22	3
9	21	11	8
5	3	3	3
3	2	1	0
34	80	44	16
3.29	3.80	3.70	3.25
6.28	5.18	5.48	6.81
6.60	5.40	5.70	7.02
0.78	-1.89	-1.18	0.85
3.32	0.61	1.17	2.91
-0.80	-3.92	-2.98	-0.53
1.44	-1.60	-0.70	1.21
1.89	-1.03	-0.27	1.65
	-2.52	-1.77	0.13
		0.56	2.21
			1.71

Issue M: tests and records - helpful v. unhelpful.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	16	17	14	36	6	45	24	7	29	8	3
	15	17	21	51	24	103	58	13	33	22	8
	1	4	4	8	6	27	19	10	16	8	5
	0	0	2	1	4	16	4	4	1	3	0
	0	0	1	2	0	3	1	0	1	3	0
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.47	4.34	4.07	4.20	3.80	3.88	3.94	3.68	4.10	3.66	3.87
T FOR 1 V		0.85	2.15	1.73	3.91	3.53	3.45	4.10	2.26	3.87	3.12
T FOR 2 V			1.49	0.94	3.18	2.96	2.74	3.48	1.54	3.38	2.29
T FOR 3 V				-0.86	1.40	1.22	0.84	1.84	-0.17	1.90	0.77
T FOR 4 V					2.67	2.97	2.32	3.16	0.84	3.36	1.55
T FOR 5 V						-0.52	-0.96	0.60	-1.84	0.67	-0.32
T FOR 6 V							-0.59	1.20	-1.84	1.41	0.03
T FOR 7 V								1.61	-1.28	1.78	0.32
T FOR 8 V									-2.35	0.07	-0.74
T FOR 9 V										2.51	0.99
T FOR 10 V											-0.74
T FOR 11 V											

Issue N: confidentiality - absolute v. qualified.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	17	25	12	49	12	73	28	5	14	10	2
	11	11	19	31	8	57	39	13	24	7	6
	0	0	6	13	3	17	12	2	18	10	1
	4	2	4	3	9	28	22	8	16	11	6
	0	0	1	2	8	19	5	6	8	6	1
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.28	4.55	3.88	4.24	3.17	3.71	3.59	3.09	3.25	3.09	3.12
T FOR 1 V		-1.30	1.70	0.19	3.47	2.29	2.91	3.97	4.17	4.16	3.48
T FOR 2 V			3.32	1.80	4.90	3.72	4.54	5.59	5.93	5.82	5.14
T FOR 3 V				-2.04	2.43	0.79	1.35	2.86	2.82	3.01	2.37
T FOR 4 V					4.93	3.52	4.24	5.30	6.06	5.81	4.19
T FOR 5 V						-2.19	-1.71	0.25	-0.28	0.26	0.11
T FOR 6 V							0.71	2.44	2.59	2.71	1.65
T FOR 7 V								2.03	1.89	2.22	1.43
T FOR 8 V									-0.61	-0.01	-0.09
T FOR 9 V										0.65	0.37
T FOR 10 V											-0.09
T FOR 11 V											

Issue 0: counselling training for student teachers - desirable v. undesirable.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	19	25	7	41	8	79	15	6	32	11	6
	12	10	34	50	23	97	78	19	43	25	8
	0	0	1	3	4	9	6	3	3	1	2
	1	2	0	4	3	5	7	6	2	6	0
	0	1	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	1	0
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.53	4.47	4.14	4.31	3.80	4.25	3.95	3.74	4.31	3.89	4.25
T FOR 1 V		0.29	3.06	1.55	3.50	1.84	4.22	3.87	1.56	3.12	1.36
T FOR 2 V			2.05	1.11	3.02	1.50	3.62	3.27	1.06	2.69	0.85
T FOR 3 V				-1.37	2.01	-0.80	1.68	2.47	-1.50	1.52	-0.73
T FOR 4 V					3.29	0.60	3.59	3.62	-0.06	2.80	0.29
T FOR 5 V						-2.99	-1.05	0.28	-3.31	-0.39	-1.62
T FOR 6 V							3.13	3.25	-0.62	2.50	-0.01
T FOR 7 V								1.46	-3.60	0.47	-1.63
T FOR 8 V									-3.68	-0.67	-1.92
T FOR 9 V										2.81	0.34
T FOR 10 V											-1.32
T FOR 11 V											

Issue P: time for counselling - inside v. outside classtime.

GROUP NO.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	23	19	10	27	2	39	11	8	14	0	2
	9	12	22	48	19	84	43	12	44	15	9
	0	4	6	12	4	21	9	4	16	12	2
	0	3	3	10	11	33	28	8	5	11	3
	0	0	1	1	4	17	15	2	1	6	0
TOTAL NO.	32	38	42	98	40	194	106	34	80	44	16
MEAN	4.72	4.24	3.88	3.92	3.10	3.49	3.07	3.47	3.81	2.82	3.62
T FOR 1 V		2.64	4.63	4.59	7.37	5.56	7.10	5.28	5.74	9.49	5.39
T FOR 2 V			1.69	1.76	4.70	3.53	5.12	2.94	2.46	6.35	2.17
T FOR 3 V				-0.21	3.33	1.93	3.72	1.62	0.41	4.90	0.92
T FOR 4 V					4.28	3.01	5.34	2.17	0.78	6.15	1.15
T FOR 5 V						-1.83	0.15	-1.31	-3.81	1.16	-1.59
T FOR 6 V							2.80	0.08	-2.14	3.34	-0.43
T FOR 7 V								-1.60	-4.50	1.13	-1.66
T FOR 8 V									-1.70	2.48	-0.43
T FOR 9 V										5.72	0.79
T FOR 10 V											-2.67
T FOR 11 V											

APPENDIX E.6.

Factor analysis. Inventory : counselling issues
COUNSELLOR SURVEY

FILE NONAME (CREATION DATE = 09/01/74)

FACTOR MATRIX USING PRINCIPAL FACTOR, NO ITERATIONS

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3
A	=0,61804	=0,44644	=0,08817
B	=0,69718	0,20997	0,09749
C	=0,59883	=0,21677	0,26613
D	=0,72025	0,11960	=0,08827
E	=0,06208	0,27052	=0,67414
F	=0,50320	=0,13148	=0,04818
G	=0,59757	0,46753	0,16479
H	=0,55939	0,36151	=0,07024
I	=0,34247	0,57364	=0,07181
J	=0,67973	0,15576	0,15576
K	=0,34088	=0,06085	=0,59807
L	=0,45220	=0,42609	=0,17298
M	=0,39260	=0,39820	0,25045
N	=0,55592	0,27782	0,13170
O	=0,39205	=0,55952	=0,18267
P	=0,56415	=0,22487	=0,00261

COUNSELLOR SURVEY

FILE NONAME (CREATION DATE = 09/01/74)

VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3
A	0,16790	0,74710	0,05209
B	0,47591	0,28776	0,00160
C	0,36397	0,52952	=0,25250
D	0,60197	0,38766	0,16811
E	0,09231	=0,10141	0,71603
F	0,28738	0,43153	0,06338
G	0,77573	0,02282	=0,02347
H	0,63650	0,09921	0,18320
I	0,40650	=0,20176	0,20727
J	0,63938	0,31184	=0,06713
K	0,10758	0,32282	0,60150
L	0,04001	0,63158	0,12534
M	0,09124	0,53279	=0,28851
N	0,61858	0,14144	=0,03055
O	=0,09125	0,69345	0,10456
P	0,28287	0,53758	0,00605

COUNSELLOR SURVEY

FILE NONAME (CREATION DATE = 09/01/74)

VARIABLE	MEAN	STANDARD DEV	CASES
A	12.2210	1.8386	362
B	10.5304	2.1943	362
C	11.4061	1.6470	362
D	6.7928	1.7906	362
E	4.8619	1.8572	362
F	6.9779	1.4062	362
G	4.9862	1.9473	362
H	7.1050	2.1980	362
I	5.9834	2.1404	362
J	7.4807	1.7074	362
K	7.3785	1.3181	362
L	7.4337	1.7240	362
M	7.9834	1.3622	362
N	7.3757	2.0580	362
O	8.3343	1.3005	362
P	7.1657	1.9861	362

COUNSELLOR SURVEY

FILE NONAME (CREATION DATE = 09/01/74)

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS..

	A	B	C
A	1.00000	0.35606	0.39198
B	0.35606	1.00000	0.32884
C	0.39198	0.32884	1.00000
D	0.36482	0.41228	0.34420
E	0.07297	0.06629	0.07217
F	0.26975	0.25787	0.37107
G	0.14167	0.47885	0.23581
H	0.21017	0.32787	0.23458
I	0.05865	0.34632	0.07892
J	0.28110	0.50922	0.30866
K	0.25688	0.16143	0.07831
L	0.39966	0.22827	0.26169
M	0.31336	0.21146	0.26845
N	0.17420	0.34773	0.31527
O	0.43243	0.12990	0.26235
P	0.38971	0.31538	0.28591

D	E	F
0,36482	=0,07297	0,26975
0,41228	0,06629	0,25787
0,34420	=0,07217	0,37107
1,00000	0,09966	0,30622
0,09966	1,00000	0,01792
0,30622	0,01792	1,00000
0,39798	0,05002	0,22649
0,41517	0,09110	0,25529
0,29543	0,09629	0,02013
0,43315	0,01837	0,23635
0,19998	0,08252	0,18238
0,24725	0,02482	0,15594
0,18256	=0,08303	0,11639
0,39554	0,09841	0,18188
0,24632	=0,01065	0,20854
0,37810	=0,00805	0,29589

VARIABLES ...

G

H

A	0.14167	0.21017
B	0.47885	0.32787
C	0.23581	0.23458
D	0.39798	0.41517
E	0.05002	0.09110
F	0.22649	0.25529
G	1.00000	0.41001
H	0.41001	1.00000
I	0.39006	0.26769
J	0.44441	0.38585
K	0.11968	0.19661
L	0.11236	0.02597
M	0.12522	0.05054
N	0.37594	0.29929
O	0.00036	0.06231
P	0.20400	0.25109

I	J
0.05865	0.28110
0.34632	0.50922
0.07892	0.30866
0.29543	0.43315
0.09629	0.01837
0.02013	0.23635
0.39006	0.44441
0.26769	0.38585
1.00000	0.18486
0.18486	1.00000
0.12300	0.17374
=0.03108	0.24331
=0.04760	0.25593
0.23347	0.37812
=0.05075	0.14826
0.03518	0.27623

	K	L	M	N	O	P
A	0.256888	0.399666	0.313356	0.174200	0.432443	0.389771
B	0.161233	0.228227	0.211446	0.347773	0.129990	0.315338
C	0.078331	0.261669	0.268445	0.315227	0.262335	0.285991
D	0.199988	0.247225	0.182556	0.395554	0.246332	0.378110
E	0.082522	0.022482	*0.063033	0.098441	*0.010665	*0.008055
F	0.182338	0.155994	0.118339	0.181888	0.208554	0.295889
G	0.119668	0.112336	0.125222	0.375994	*0.000336	0.204000
H	0.196661	0.025997	0.050554	0.299229	0.062331	0.251099
I	0.123300	*0.031008	*0.047660	0.233447	*0.050775	0.035118
J	0.173774	0.243331	0.255993	0.378112	0.148226	0.276223
K	1.000000	0.179992	0.092299	0.088337	0.155447	0.118882
L	0.179992	1.000000	0.214221	0.164476	0.297117	0.310664
M	0.092299	0.214221	1.000000	0.129669	0.295553	0.198552
N	0.088337	0.164476	0.129669	1.000000	0.059556	0.213779
O	0.155447	0.297117	0.295553	0.059556	1.000000	0.219779
P	0.118882	0.310664	0.198662	0.213779	0.219779	1.000000

DETERMINANT = 0.02226291 (0.22629051E+01)

COUNSELLOR SURVEY

FILE NONAME (CREATION DATE = 09/01/74)

VARIABLE	EST COMMUNALITY	FACTOR
A	1.00000	1
B	1.00000	2
C	1.00000	3
D	1.00000	4
E	1.00000	5
F	1.00000	6
G	1.00000	7
H	1.00000	8
I	1.00000	9
J	1.00000	10
K	1.00000	11
L	1.00000	12
M	1.00000	13
N	1.00000	14
O	1.00000	15
P	1.00000	16

09/01/

EIGENVALUE	PCT OF VAR	CUM PCT
4.50763	28.2	28.2
1.88244	11.8	39.9
1.11525	7.0	46.9
0.97019	6.1	53.0
0.93050	5.8	58.8
0.81733	5.1	63.9
0.78335	4.9	68.8
0.74302	4.6	73.4
0.69636	4.4	77.8
0.62977	3.9	81.7
0.58195	3.6	85.4
0.54828	3.4	88.8
0.49723	3.1	91.9
0.46457	2.9	94.8
0.44518	2.8	97.6
0.38694	2.4	100.0

APPENDIX F.

St. Joseph's College of Education,
Belfast.

September 1971.

Dear Principal,

I have spent the past year at the University of Keele on sabbatical leave from my post as principal lecturer and head of the Education Department in the above College. During this time, I have been studying the question of guidance and counselling in schools.

Over the next two years, I intend to carry out a survey which hopefully will provide some answers to the problems involved in future developments in this field in Northern Ireland. Specifically, the research will be concerned with ascertaining:-

- (a) the usual ways in which guidance and counselling is organised in secondary schools in Northern Ireland, e.g. house tutors, form tutors etc.
- (b) the activities in which guidance teachers, careers teachers, teacher-counsellors and counsellors, are engaged and the facilities they use.
- (c) the attitudes of significant groups e.g. principals, teachers, careers-teachers etc. to various issues connected with guidance, e.g. the nature and scope of guidance, the ways in which guidance should be organised, etc.

It is hoped that from this research some indications about future development will emerge and their implications for teacher training and teacher-counsellor training will be discussed widely in the profession. It is only by generating our own research and discussing possible ways of solving the problems which become apparent, that we will be able to respond to the challenges in ways relevant to Northern Ireland.

I know that the calls on your time are many and pressing, particularly at this time of the year. Nevertheless, I hope that you will give this study your support. I have enclosed a short questionnaire (Q/UK/1) and I will be grateful if you will complete it and return it to me in the stamped addressed envelope provided. Further questionnaires will be sent to the senior guidance teacher/careers teacher in each school and to groups of teachers and others professionally concerned.

I wish to assure you that returns from each school will be treated in the strictest confidence. As soon as the results for the whole survey are

known, I will make them available to you. This will probably be in twelve to eighteen months' time.

With thanks for your support.

Yours sincerely,

John F. Fulton.

APPENDIX G.

The interview schedule (for the five schools study).

1. General information:

- (a) type : co-educational/single sex
- (b) number of pupils
- (c) number of staff
- (d) catchment area of pupils
- (e) communications to school

2. Academic aspects:

- (a) entry - number of forms
- (b) strategy for placing people in classes e.g.
streaming
- (c) transfer of pupils
- (d) subject choice (including range)
- (e) academic structure e.g. departmental
- (f) roles
- (g) interdepartmental communications

3. Guidance aspects:

- (a) organisation of guidance
- (b) structure
- (c) roles of guidance staff
- (d) training of guidance staff
- (e) counselling
- (f) curriculum development
- (g) liaison including home-school

4. Goals of guidance.

5. Future plans.