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ABSTRACT

This book contains a collection of 14 papers dealing with guidance and guidance programs in the Philippines, the Republic of China, Japan, and Thailand. An overview of the place of American counselors in international guidance and benefits to counselors and the counseling profession of world-wide contacts is reviewed in the initial paper. Issues facing the helping professions in Asian countries are discussed, including career counseling and manpower development and the role of public and private educational funding. Among the programs described are counselor training, vocational counseling, career information resources and testing programs in the Philipines, manpower development and junior high placement services in China, career guidance in Japanese senior high schools, and a guidance information-week fair in Thailand. (JAC)

GUIDANCE EAST AND WEST

A Collection of Occasional Papers

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INTRODUCTION

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This monograph is one of a number of publications developed by ERIC/CAPS dealing with guidance outside the United States. In a direct and concrete way, it communicates CAPS commitment to involvement in the guidance scene around the world. Just as the ERIC database and system have become the world's educational information system, so ERIC/CAPS has become, through its publications and the participation of its staff in international conferences and events, both a responder to and a shaper of the international guidance movement.

One of the most satisfying aspects of our work at CAPS is our ongoing interaction with guidance specialists from around the world. While recently these contacts have focused on the east, particularly the Philippines, Malaysia and Australia, we also have been involved in many international guidance programs and activities in the west. Though the culture of a particular country and the state of its socioeconomic development all influence the form of the guidance processes and systems it adopts, common values and interests inherent in the international guidance movement reward and enhance the exchange of ideas. For our part, we believe that our active participation in the international sphere gives us a better understanding of the needs and interests of human services specialists throughout the world. This direct contact and interaction helps us identify ERIC resources that are particularly useful, those which are inadequate, and areas for which materials must still be developed. Travel and the exchange of ideas on an international level have shown us that ERIC and CAPS products are used throughout the world and that we have an obligation to be responsive to the needs and interests of these international users.

There are at least two ways that involvement in international guidance can be beneficial to Americans. First, the process of identifying concepts that we want to communicate and share with others from a different culture challenges us to clarify

those concepts. Frequently, we find that explaining what we mean to others reveals gaps in our thinking. What seemed self-evident and easily intelligible is, in fact, vague and difficult to comprehend. Thus, the very process of preparing to communicate with others from different cultures compels us to examine our beliefs and values and why they are important to us and potentially to others.

A second reason that involvement in international guidance can be helpful to American human services specialists arises from the opportunity such involvement presents to view our own practices in another context. Assessing the impact of ideas and practices generated in our country and used in another contributes to a better understanding of their worth, and provides cultural validation of their usefulness. If, however, an idea or practice fares poorly in another context and culture we are forced to reconsider. Is it perhaps only a "sacred cow" and indeed one that cannot hold up under examination and use in another culture? It may be safe to say that ideas and practices which are readily transferable to different cultures are those which will prove to have the most strength and power within our own culture. The way others respond to original American concepts can significantly change the original concepts and enhance and improve them.

Our goal at CAPS is to help create an international marketplace of guidance ideas and practices. We see this one, as in any marketplace, involving zesty negotiation and interaction. National boundaries are blurred and the "purchase agreements" negotiated; transactions are the result of user needs and interests. Clearly, the role that guidance plays in a Third World country will be very different from that in a post-industrial western society. But the marketplace of international guidance exchange can translate to the developing countries lessons already learned in the more industrialized west. We can help them proceed more rapidly in the development of their guidance systems, and avoid the difficulties and pitfalls that plagued those who came early on the guidance scene. We have no desire to Americanize world guidance but rather to share American ideas and guidance practices in the hope that our investment will be returned with interest in the form of sharpened concepts and improved practice.

We hope that this volume will stimulate those who read it to an interest in international guidance and a desire to travel and learn firsthand about the programs described. Additionally, we hope that anyone who has worked in guidance-related

programs around the world will consider this volume an invitation to share experiences and ideas with us. We welcome responses which will contribute to the growing body of materials in the ERIC database relevant to human services specialists about the world. To paraphrase an old Chinese saying: "The development of a truly international guidance database begins with the submission of the first document or paper about guidance in any given culture."

INTERNATIONAL INVOLVEMENT OF AMERICAN COUNSELORS

by
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REASONS FOR GETTING INVOLVED

As the nations of the world become increasingly interdependent, this country as a whole and Americans individually are ever more affected by events far removed from their shores. For instance, the sociopolitical tensions among relatively small countries in the Middle East cast ominous shadows on the economies and living patterns of virtually all technologically developed nations. The world has become a global village in which no national family can attempt to go it alone and prosper.

Under these conditions, adequate knowledge of the international scene is expected of every educated person, no matter what his or her occupation. For members of the guidance profession, the implications are even more compelling. To remain in tune with the times, counselors have to increase their understanding of world-wide social developments and particularly of the work by helping professionals in other countries. Sweeney (1979) considers the inclusion of international issues in counselor preparation curricula and the cooperation of American counselors with their colleagues abroad to be among the important priorities in the 1980's.

Herr (1979) makes a strong case for international studies as a source of enrichment for the counseling practitioner:

> The study of guidance and counseling throughout the world provides the professional practitioner within any country a reassurance of the importance of guidance and counseling to human reclamation, to the personalizing of mass education, to individual purposefulness. Such study puts the practitioner in the company of other like-minded individuals, without the barriers of language, who are applying their skills to the needs of their countrymen. It reinforces the fact that human needs know no political boundaries. (p. iii)

There are indications that American counselors are responding to this new challenge:

1. They travel abroad and attend international meetings in larger numbers.

2. Members of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) show new interest in international issues which has led to the creation of an International Relations Committee that promotes contacts with foreign colleagues and studies of international issues within the Association.

3. Efforts are undertaken to include comparative guidance studies in counselor education curricula.

This essay provides a brief overview of international guidance efforts from the U.S. perspective. The following topics are discussed in five sections:

1. International efforts on the American scene.

2. World-wide contacts through international organizations.

3. The concept of guidance as a global helping effort and its various models.

4. Benefits for counseling practitioners derived from international involvement.

5. Implications for the future of the profession.

THE AMERICAN SCENE

The Unheeded Legacy of Frank Parsons

The guidance movement in this country grew out of the efforts of a few philanthropists and social innovators at the beginning of the century. Foremost among them was Frank Parsons, a respected economist, a social philosopher, and a prolific author. Although he was involved throughout his life in humanistic activism--advocating individual rights and exposing social abuses--it was in his final years that Parsons crowned his efforts with a deed for which he is remembered most. The increased complexity of the job market and the lack of knowledge about vocational opportunities among young people, many of them newly landed immigrants, led to his decision in 1908 to found the Vocation Bureau in Boston.

While these are relatively well-known facts, little has been written about Parsons' extensive studies of foreign educational systems, particularly those of Switzerland and New Zealand. Parsons traveled in Europe to observe its social,

economic and educational practices firsthand; he extensively studied the political and economic life of New Zealand which led to the publication of his book, The Story of New Zealand (Davis, 1969). Keeping in touch with the world and learning from the experiences of other nations greatly contributed to Parsons' social thinking, to his helping initiatives, and eventually to the establishment of the first career guidance center in the country. Unfortunately, this part of his legacy remained unheeded by the counseling profession for many years after his death.

Between World Wars I and II, the Great Depression and an increasing isolationism of American society discouraged international efforts within the fledgling guidance community. Intercultural studies were not highly regarded in a society which perceived the white, middle-class value structure as the ultimate standard of perfection. And some proponents of international efforts unwittingly hurt their own cause by creating the impression that international studies were a narrow subspecialty, of interest to writers of dissertations and to professional researchers, but of marginal value for a typical counseling practitioner.

Breaking Out of Isolation

Since the end of World War II, this isolationist attitude has shown signs of weakening. In 1966 the executive council of APGA adopted a policy statement which spelled out its support of international cooperation and resolved:

1. To help its members develop a broader understanding of the international dimensions of their professions. To this end each of the constituent associations of APGA is encouraged to develop the international aspects of its own specialized field.

2. To urge those responsible in colleges and universities to emphasize appropriate international perspectives in professional preparation programs in counseling, guidance, and related fields.

3. To encourage world-wide professional communication, including exchange of professional information and literature.

4. To promote the international exchange of persons preparing for or professionally engaged in personnel work and guidance.

5. To develop continuing liaison with professional organizations in other countries and with international organizations in personnel and guidance and related fields.

6. To encourage emphasis in regional and national conference programs on the international aspects of the personnel and guidance profession. (International Courier, 1966, p. 2)

In the fall of 1966, President Lyndon Johnson signed the International Education Act into law. The legislation provided for the strengthening of educational resources in the area of international studies and research. However, the response of the guidance movement was relatively weak. As the counseling profession missed its major opportunity for international involvement through projects in the Peace Corps and the Alliance for Progress in the days of President Kennedy, so it missed this new chance during the turbulent years of the Vietnam war. The energy of counselors was absorbed by the mounting crises on the domestic scene triggered by the nation's involvement in a war that few of its people supported.

In the mid-1970's, when the domestic unrest calmed down, international interests among counselors emerged anew. In 1976 APGA sponsored an opinion survey of its membership to assess the degree of international interests and the kinds of programs needed most. Nearly 1,000 APGA members expressed their desire to become actively involved in international programs, to obtain regular information on foreign guidance efforts through the APGA press, to have an opportunity for organized professional trips abroad, and to have more international programs scheduled at APGA conventions. That same year a committee was created to promote the cause of international relations and to stimulate international studies at home.

WORLD-WIDE CONTACTS

On a world-wide basis, international guidance projects have been supported by UNESCO, which has served since its foundation as a clearinghouse for the exchange of information in the field of education and culture. Out of these efforts the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance (IAEVG) emerged in 1951; it has since been extensively active throughout the world. From the beginning Americans were members of the organization and assumed significant roles in its leadership, including the presidency.

Fifteen years after the creation of IAEVG, another organization emerged, the International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling (IRTAC), which has mounted a concentrated effort, particularly on the European continent. In 1978 IRTAC initiated the publication of its own journal, The International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling. Although the top leadership of IRTAC has remained in European hands, Americans were also active in the organization from its very beginning.

IAEVG and IRTAC congresses and conferences are convened regularly in various parts of the world. These international meetings differ from the APGA conventions in several ways. They are smaller in size: whereas a typical APGA convention may be attended by 6,000-9,000 people, the international conferences usually attract only 1,000 persons or fewer. The smaller size of the conference offers, of course, ample opportunities for people from various countries to exchange ideas, meet socially, and form friendships.

These international conferences have few plenary sessions. Major emphasis is placed on the work of interest groups (each having about 20 persons) that meet daily for the duration of the conference and pool their findings at one of the final general sessions. For example, at the Ninth IRTAC Conference in Thessalonica, Greece, there were 19 groups (some of them in two sections) from which every conference participant could select one, depending on the preference of topics that were to be discussed. These topics included: vocational counseling and guidance in developing countries; transition of clients from secondary to post-secondary educational settings; priority of developmental or remedial school guidance in various countries; guidance in adult educational centers; and emerging approaches to counselor education.

The majority of international contacts have been initiated at these conferences: in group meetings, at meal times, in chance contacts between sessions, or at the end of the day. There is no substitute for the spontaneity of such encounters, particularly in a country which is neutral turf to most of the people who attend the conference.

GUIDANCE AS A GLOBAL HUMAN SERVICE

One of the more difficult tasks is to give a brief but comprehensive explanation of what is meant by guidance to someone who has never been exposed, directly or indirectly, to any of its services. A parallel degree of difficulty is involved in trying to explain (and understand) the exact meaning of guidance from one country to another.

In the international terminology, guidance assumes a broader meaning than indicated by our own professional terminology. It is perceived as assistance to individuals, particularly youths, that helps them overcome obstacles in a variety of developmental situations and attain coping skills within their culture. Many features of guidance are common to all societies, but the goals, the modalities, and the scope of guidance significantly differ from one country to another. Coping or coming to terms with "reality" means one thing in a pluralistic and highly permissive society. It means something very different in a monolithic and authoritarian society. Between these two polarities, we can visualize a continuum that will accommodate a variety of guidance approaches which differ in their functions, methods, and goals.

Informal and Formal Guidance Approaches

In any society there exist both informal and formal guidance processes. Informal guidance is prevalent in technologically underdeveloped, highly structured, autocratic societies. Individuals are helped in their adjustment to life through socialization within the family, community, or tribe, with well defined roles of the head of the family, of adult members of the household, and of children of both sexes. Further opportunities for socialization are provided through indigenous institutions, be they religious, political, or patriotic. An example of this societal guidance model can be found in Arab countries, in which ancient family traditions still have a predominant role.

Another fascinating example of informal guidance is given by Makinde (1980), who described indigenous helping techniques among the Yoruba and Igala people of Nigeria. The author argues that a healer steeped in tribal traditions and using parables, totems, myths, and legends is as useful to people as the professionally trained healer. Furthermore, he documents that tribal healers are not only highly skilled as diagnosticians but also proficient in communicating positive regard for clients and in using and interpreting nonverbal clues.

Most technologically developed countries have a system of formal guidance services, primarily in the vocational area. Generally, counseling is the core and the primary helping process of formal guidance. But the definition of counseling may range from therapeutic interventions by qualified professionals to mere advice or information giving by people with minimal training. The terminology is equally heterogeneous: counseling, career planning, orientation, ideological upbringing, or character formation.

Guidance Reflects Social Values

Every guidance model is an operational expression of the values of its society. In informal guidance the value input occurs effortlessly, without explicit formulations or overt procedures. However, every formal guidance system affirms certain values through its rationale and goal orientation--frequently linked with prevalent national traditions. Value-related issues include the relationship between the individual and society, the relative importance of a person's rights and responsibilities, the meaning of authority, the status of male and female members of society, and the definition of personal freedom.

Wrenn (1978) reports on a study that assessed the relationship of seven values in 16 countries (e.g., Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Egypt, India, Japan, Sweden, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia). He notes that changes of values in the United States parallel changes found in many of the study countries, e.g., value changes related to authority and to attitudes involving sex. In other areas, such as the status of women, the similarity of American and foreign value developments appeared to be minimal. Without doubt, the value dimension of a foreign guidance model constitutes one of the clearest indications of its priorities, methodology, and objectives.

Development of Formal Guidance Through Stages

When comparing guidance activities in various countries, we discover a pattern of development which parallels the growth of guidance in our own country. Whenever a society experiences its first extensive industrial thrust, the need for vocational guidance and counseling emerges. As the job market grows in complexity, vocational guidance becomes a necessity. Its models may differ, ranging from extensive counseling to matching workers' qualifications with job requirements, but vocational guidance is invariably the starting point for all other guidance activities.

A second developmental stage is related to the school system. When school curricula change from a highly structured to a more flexible format, young people have a need to obtain information on educational opportunities and assistance in selecting the most useful curricular option. This leads to the development of educational guidance, which is but one step away from personal-social counseling. The more choices a society provides for its people and the more complex life becomes, the greater the need for personal-social counseling. The highest levels of opportunities found in highly developed industrial societies, e.g., in the United States, Japan, or in countries of western Europe, unfortunately also promote the highest levels of personal problems. Many of these problems are the outgrowth of human alienation caused by rampant technology, high mobility levels, and competitive life styles.

BENEFITS FOR COUNSELING PRACTITIONERS

Learning From the Experience of Others

When exposed to foreign guidance models, we have an opportunity to learn from the professional experiences gained under a variety of conditions. Certain approaches which have never been tried in our own country may have shown some unexpected promise elsewhere, while others that are effective here seem to have been a failure abroad. We speak of positive and negative learning experiences, and international contacts provide us with both kinds. Even societies that significantly differ from our own social system offer us certain constructive suggestions; e.g., a Marxist-socialist society with its emphasis on the individual's responsibility to the group (the collective) and its insistence on total equality of men and women in the labor force (Drapela, 1979b), or a Latin American society with its respect for the extended family as a support system for the individual (Espin, 1979).

The area in which we can most profit from international contacts is probably vocational guidance. For some years our professional community has not given sufficient attention to career-related counseling—a trend which is now being reversed. During those same years, highly developed countries such as the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Australia, and Japan have maintained vocational guidance as their top priority. In fact, many west European guidance experts have

been critical of our approach to career counseling which, in their view, overly emphasized the satisfaction of individual needs and the fulfillment of a person's self-concept, but underestimated the impact of socioeconomic realities. They considered this attitude to be unrealistic in view of the fluctuating trends in the labor market. Rather than finding full satisfaction on the job, the individual was advised to obtain at least a part of his or her need fulfillment through avocations and hobbies.

Two samples of highly developed vocational guidance models are presented here. One is the curriculum-based vocational guidance in Swedish schools; the other is the vocational guidance service of West Germany, which operates separately from the school system.

The Swedish Model. Although Swedish schools emphasize personal-social counseling and offer comprehensive physical and mental health services to students through school-based "pupil welfare teams," they also maintain a proactive vocational guidance program which is integrated with the curriculum. A close liaison exists between schools and employment service centers. Since the 1950's, vocational guidance in schools has been organized jointly by the National Board of Education and by the National Labor Market Board. In the 1970's, the Swedish Parliament initiated a new program that combined the teaching of subject matter and career guidance. Teachers are required to articulate vocational implications while teaching all subjects. The vocational education program (SYO), which has been in operation for almost ten years, can be found in virtually all curricula, especially at the secondary level ("Vocational Guidance in the Labor Market Administration," 1977).

While the SYO program follows the academic route to career guidance, a parallel program has been initiated at the experiential level--practical vocational guidance (PRYO). It provides job training for all students in Swedish schools, who are required at two levels of their schooling to spend several weeks in some occupational setting. Initially, all eighth and ninth grade students had to spend three and two weeks, respectively, in occupational training. The program has since been methodically expanded and improved.

Within Sweden's social structure as a welfare state, the PRYO program experience is the beginning of a citizen's ongoing relationship with the multiple services available throughout life, particularly for job retraining or rehabilitation. It should be noted, however, that in addition to the career guidance programs, the Swedish system places major emphasis on vocational counseling.

The West German Model. In the past fifteen years, West Germany has made impressive strides in developing school guidance, including counseling for educational and personal-social problems. However, West German law requires that vocational guidance be separated from the school system. All vocational guidance is provided through a network of offices operated by the Federal Institute of Labor. The Institute keeps the public informed about fluctuations of the labor market through frequent releases in the media. Its guidance counselors offer individual assistance to young persons who are in the process of making a vocational decision, entering apprenticeship, or looking for a job, and to adults who are changing careers in midlife. The Institute also provides retraining opportunities and financial aid to unemployed workers.

The basic approach of the West German Institute of Labor is best described as "guidance by correspondence." Every potential graduate at the secondary school level is mailed a brochure, "Booklet of Coupons for Vocational Choice," containing three pre-addressed postcards by which he or she may request certain services from the Federal Institute of Labor. These services are free and include:

1. Receiving by mail an 86-page spiral-bound booklet called STEP which is a comprehensive workbook for the student's self-appraisal. It covers achievement, interests, values, lifestyle, willingness to defer reward, etc. It helps students understand their attachment to a particular geographical area and their readiness to discard sex-related occupational stereotypes.

2. Receiving by mail three illustrated informational monographs on selected clusters of occupations, for home study.

3. Scheduling an interview with a vocational guidance counselor at a location within commuting distance from the town in which the student lives. (Federal Employment Institute, 1975)

The student has the responsibility to send in the postcards, to work through the self-administered inventory, to read the informational materials, and to schedule the one-hour counseling interview. The interview is the culmination and wrap-up of the student's self-evaluation. It is not a typical counseling encounter as we know it from our professional practice. A second interview may be scheduled if major problems are identified, and referrals for psychological or medical evaluation are made if needed. However, comprehensive vocational counseling is not emphasized. The system operates with considerable efficiency, and by now has proven its value for the German labor market, its workers, and employers.

Learning From Others About Ourselves

International contacts and comparative studies enhance our self-understanding. This happens in two ways: first, foreign colleagues often make interesting observations about the way we appear to them; and second, when we analyze the values, methodology and goals of foreign guidance models, we clarify our own values and commitments.

Foreign visitors to the United States and our colleagues at international meetings are usually ready to share their perception of the American professional scene (as explained at greater length in Drapela, 1979b). They are amazed by the vastness and variety of U.S. guidance programs. They consider our counselors generally well prepared for their job and recognize the many additional training opportunities available to those who wish to upgrade their levels of expertise. Foreign colleagues are also impressed by the extensive practicum and internship components within our master's and post-master's curricula. But they feel that, in spite of our high educational standards, we tend to become over-involved in activities that could adequately be discharged by competent clerks.

Some foreign colleagues consider typical U.S. counselors anti-intellectual and overly enthusiastic about anything that is new, whether or not it holds promise for professional work. They are also puzzled by the apparent gap that exists between the great volume of research generated year after year in this country and the limited use of research findings in the actual guidance work.

They often speak of the complexity of American life and of the high degree of mobility typical of people in this country. The fact that Americans have many options to choose from, including a variety of life styles, is seen both as an advantage and as a danger. American society is not an easy setting to live in unless a person gets used to coping with the complex environment early in life. Another observation is that in spite of the plethora of counseling services that operate in the United States, a high degree of maladjustment remains. Does it mean that counseling is ineffective? Or does it mean that U.S. society generates excessive amounts of emotional stress?

Although some of these remarks are critical, foreign observers hold very positive opinions of American guidance. The negative comments occasionally voiced are

a by-product of the high expectations they have of our profession and are not meant as an indication of ill will.

Values Clarification

In addition to receiving such input from foreign colleagues, we learn much about our own values, goals, and methods by contrasting them with value structures and methodologies that differ from our own. In the routine of daily work we tend to forget the "why" of our professional commitments. It is the reality of foreign guidance practices that helps us see ourselves in a new perspective. We may even discover occasional contradictions between our theoretical principles and the way we apply them in our daily work--an insight that helps us rethink our commitments and stimulates professional renewal. Exposure to foreign cultures is also beneficial for attaining a higher degree of intercultural sensitivity when we deal with clients who belong to minority or ethnic groups or whose values significantly differ from our own.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PRESENT AND THE FUTURE

What follows is a number of suggestions relative to present and future international concerns of counselors. Some are directed to counseling practitioners who wish to travel abroad and combine recreation with professional enrichment. Some are meant for counselor educators who want to broaden the professional perspective of their students. Others are offered to guidance workers here and abroad who are concerned about the professional image of the counseling community on a world-wide basis.

Meeting Foreign Colleagues

American counselors are increasingly traveling abroad, going on vacations, or taking part in educational group excursions. Such contacts with foreign cultures stimulate their curiosity about professional activities in other lands. Often a chance meeting with a professional colleague abroad or at a conference in this country will stimulate additional contacts and exchanges of professional experiences through correspondence.

There is value in attending international meetings and conferences which are scheduled every year in various parts of the world. However, those of us who have been involved in such projects realize that one needs to do homework prior to all foreign contacts. Without such preparation it is difficult, if not impossible, to make intelligent observations of guidance activities abroad.

Occasionally, uninformed beginners who omit this preparation acquire superficial, over-simplified, or totally erroneous opinions. Those who hope to gain an international perspective by merely attending a professional meeting abroad become bewildered by the great number and heterogeneity of ideas presented there. They discover that professional terms have variable meanings from one country to another. No matter how flexible people are, if they come unprepared for such conferences, they squander much of their time and energy in trying to attune themselves to the cultural differences (Drapela, 1981). A cultural shock of this kind may be a healthy start for experiencing a culture in depth, if one plans to stay in a foreign country for an extended period of time, but in the case of a week-long congress it does not promote effective learning.

Individual travel and visits of professional colleagues abroad should also be well prepared by advance study of the country to be visited and by writing to the foreign colleagues well in time to receive their confirmation prior to departure. In the letters one should state: (1) the dates of the planned arrival and departure in the addressee's area; (2) primary interests in the guidance field (e.g., vocational, educational, personal-social, rehabilitation counseling); and (3) other information that will help the foreign colleagues prepare a meaningful professional program. It should be added that "travel as education" (if appropriate conditions are met and properly documented) is a legitimate income tax deduction.

International Studies in Counselor Preparation

At present, only a small number of counselor preparation curricula in the United States contain an international or comparative studies component. Pedersen (1978) points to evidence that current counselor training at times reinforces culturally biased attitudes in the students. While this lack of international studies is typical of counselor training in the United States, other countries that initiated counselor education programs much later have included a substantial component of

comparative guidance in their curricula. This is especially true in Europe. The three-volume work by Heller (1975-1976) and the book by Martin (1981), used in German-speaking countries of Europe, and the textbook by Kosco, Fabian, Hargasova and Hlavenka (1980), used in Czechoslovakia, can serve as examples of the comparative guidance emphasis.

In recent years, international and comparative studies have made an inroad into some counselor education programs in this country (Drapela, 1975, 1979b, 1981). The methodological approach of such studies parallels that of comparative education. The course work is designed for maximum experiential learning to help students feel the cultural impact of selected foreign cultures. This is accomplished not only through lectures and discussions, but also through audiovisual presentations and role playing. Students are to search for samples of folk music, native art, and food or dress items from the countries under study and share these among themselves. Only when class members have become well aware of the cultural climate in a country and of its prevalent value orientation are they able to fully understand its educational system and guidance model.

Students research primary sources (whenever available) to answer some basic questions:

1. Do formal guidance services function in the country or does only informal guidance exist?
2. If a formal guidance structure exists, how does it define itself?
3. Is it linked with the school system or does it operate outside of it?
4. Is its primary emphasis on vocational, educational, personal-social or ideological development?
5. Which methodology is prevalent--individual or group work, high or low directiveness?
6. What professional training do counselors or guidance workers receive?

The strengths and weaknesses of the foreign guidance model are first assessed in terms of its stated goals and the social values of the country, and the assessment is based on data supplied by the foreign professional community. The next step is to place the foreign guidance model alongside our own and identify similarities and

differences between the two. Are there any indications of convergence, or is it safe to assume that the differences will remain?

Finally, the foreign guidance model is evaluated from our own point of view, influenced by our cultural biases. Can we identify clear strengths and weaknesses? Can we incorporate some of its features into our own professional work? How effective would they be? Are there any practices in the foreign guidance model that have proven counterproductive and need to be avoided in this country? The questioning usually does not stop there. Students are stimulated to analyze the current guidance practices in our own schools or agencies. They frequently come up with very creative ideas that have grown out of the heightened awareness of different approaches.

Students consider the learning experience both a cultural shock and an eye-opener. While remaining appreciative of the professional achievements in this country, they also recognize our errors and omissions, particularly in the area of vocational guidance. Many students indicate that comparative studies have helped them understand the full meaning of the American guidance philosophy for the first time in their lives.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE OF THE PROFESSION

While in the United States the counseling community considers itself an established profession and is accepted as such by the general public, counselors throughout the world have not achieved a recognized professional status as yet. For that reason counselors in many countries have to use other titles such as educators, youth supervisors, or officials of employment agencies. The counseling function is merely attached to an established and accepted occupational classification. This state of affairs has major implications for the future of the counseling profession and is closely linked with the issue of counselor education.

At present, there is a great disparity among countries in their programs of professional counselor preparation. Only the United States and Canada maintain roughly parallel standards of counselor preparation that allow counseling professionals to transfer from one country to the other with minimal complications. In other parts of the world there is little or no comparability of counselor preparation;

counselor training ranges from graduate studies at the university level to brief in-service experiences.

This unevenness of counselor preparation counteracts the development of a counseling profession that could be recognized throughout the world. Physicians, psychologists, lawyers, and nurses are known to have received a comparable education in most countries, and thus are accepted as members of their respective professions on a world-wide basis. This is not the case with counselors; unless a way is found to establish a common denominator of counselor training in at least the major developed countries, there is little hope that counseling will be recognized as an established profession by the people of the world.

This matter was brought up at the World Congress of IAEVG in Koenigstein, West Germany, in 1979, but no action was taken. The proposals made during the congress included the following:

1. A set of minimal standards is needed for counselor education. These standards should cover both the study of theory and the acquisition of practical counseling skills. A core of training experiences should be a basic requirement for all counselors.

2. The difference between psychologically oriented and socioeconomically oriented counselor training should not be allowed to grow into a dichotomy. This can be done by including a basic introduction to both fields in the required core courses of the general training program.

3. Vocational planning should not be eliminated from personal counseling. Both aspects are essential to the comprehensive development of mental health. The client's self-perception in occupational terms is a major factor affecting personality development and social adjustment. It should not be overlooked by therapists and other helping professionals.

4. The cooperation of professional counselors and paraprofessional or lay helpers should be carefully structured. The functions of each group should be clearly spelled out to assure a realistic division of staff responsibilities. Even paraprofessionals should receive adequate training for their tasks. (Drapela, 1979a)

Super (1974), a recognized protagonist of international guidance cooperation in this country and abroad, addresses this basic problem from a different perspective. He points to the major conflicting trends, particularly in European countries, that need to be reconciled or resolved in order to promote clear governmental policies related to guidance. In his view, the fundamental issues are as follows:

1. Is guidance a means for the utilization of manpower or for human development of the person?

2. Is the proper focus of guidance the person's occupational choice or long-term career development?

3. Is the primary function of counselors the dissemination of information or counseling in the professional sense?

4. Should guidance be in the hands of professional counselors or lay persons?

International associations unfortunately do not have the same degree of influence on the world-wide counseling community as APGA or ACES have on the professional community in this country. However, they could find a way to frame basic professional policies and develop a set of minimal standards for counselor preparation on a world-wide basis--an international parallel of the 1973 ACES "Standards for the Preparation of Counselors and Other Personnel Service Specialists." It would be an act of true statesmanship if IAEVG and IRTAC would jointly propose such professional standards for acceptance by their members who would then promote them within their own countries. This would be a major step towards establishing the counseling profession internationally.

IMPLICATIONS FOR U.S. COUNSELORS

It may be too early to predict if and when the counseling profession will attain a world-wide recognition. However, we can predict changes in the professional outlook of American counselors who have sought exposure to the international guidance forum.

As we approach the end of this essay, it may be useful to recall our point of departure--the interdependence of nations on a planet that is gradually shrinking. We are rightly concerned about the quality of life in our country and we make every effort to promote a healthy environment (both physically and psychologically) for our clients and ourselves. However, as national boundaries cannot stop the flow of volcanic ashes traveling at high levels of the atmosphere, so they cannot hinder the spread of ideas, social movements, and behavioral trends, be they healthy or unhealthy. The quality of life in one country will affect the quality of life in other

countries. The struggle of people for personal fulfillment and social progress in one nation will stimulate parallel efforts among people of other nations. The success or setback of human striving in one geographical area will be reflected by parallel developments in other regions.

As counselors, we should consider ourselves active partners in the global enterprise. Our professional efforts for promoting mental health, personal growth, and social progress are not restricted to the immediate perimeter of our school or agency. Applying the existentialist phrase, we rightly state that every helping intervention which benefits a single client also benefits the world. This new awareness in no way detracts from the work we have been doing thus far. Rather it adds new vigor to our motivation and new urgency to the task at hand, since we perceive our work in global perspective.

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THE THIRD WORLD AS A COMMUNITY: ISSUES FOR THE HELPING PROFESSION and THE ASIAN SCENARIO

by

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In spite of widely divergent cultures and marked contrasts in social, political and economic conditions, those of us in the helping professions share similar concerns and face common issues. The following problems have been found to be common among Third World countries and shared, perhaps, to a lesser extent, among the developed countries:

1. Guidance and counseling in our countries is viewed as an American import superimposed on the existing educational milieu. Approaches and techniques in developing countries are basically American, many of which are adopted in their entirety or adapted to fit our needs. We even use American theories and concepts to explain our thoughts and behaviors because we have not been able to articulate and develop our own, based on our actual human conditions. We have long felt the need to develop our own indigenous concepts or to "indigenize" the concepts we have been using so that we could agree on our counseling philosophy and goals, define counselor roles, and evolve our own approaches and techniques--not only within the context of the Asian culture but within the context of the culture of each country and each country's various ethnic groups.

2. The image of guidance and counseling is not generally positive. There is an ignorance and misunderstanding of what guidance and counseling is and does and what guidance counselors do. Guidance and counseling is perceived as a service that can be dispensed with altogether or dispensed by a teacher with no guidance background. The way guidance and counseling is done by untrained people erodes the image further. As a result of what the counselor does or fails to do, the public's image of a guidance counselor is one who gives and interprets tests, gives advice, or provides solutions to problems. Many of our counselors, even the professionally trained ones, reinforce this perception because they think it is the only way they can be relevant and responsive to their client's needs.

Among parents, the fact that a child is seeking counseling is seen as a reflection of their failure or irresponsibility, much like going for psychiatric treatment which is always filled with apprehension, misunderstanding and fear. Students themselves prefer 'their teachers' help with personal and vocational problems, as they regard guidance counselors as strangers who do not know and understand them well enough. School administrators, more often than not, also see no value for this service and thus provide no support or give it low priority. A guidance counselor is made to assume so many various roles, e.g., teacher, administrative helper, discipline officer, admissions officer, and liaison, that there is hardly any time for counseling. Guidance services are considered extra-curricular activities for which no regular time is allotted; they are not even accorded the same status as sports and games.

3. The dual role of teacher and counselor is accepted and perceived by guidance personnel as the only practical arrangement. Having a "guidance teacher," "teacher counselor" or "career master" shows that the school administrator at least recognizes the need for guidance. With the dual role, however, comes conflict in loyalties, interests, and values.

4. Support is lacking from government, private business and industry, and even the agencies and institutions where guidance counselors work. Thus, career exploration activities which involve time for other subjects or other school personnel or the community cannot be undertaken.

5. Counselor preparation is inappropriate or inadequate. There is a reality gap between the jobs counselors are prepared for and the jobs as they actually exist. A related problem is whether counselors should be prepared for jobs as they actually exist or for those in accord with American standards.

6. Facilities for counselor training are lacking, such as a counseling laboratory, VTR, video tapes, films and other devices important for training.

7. A related problem is that counselor training is generally weak in areas leading to the development and enhancement of the personality of the counselor. There is the tendency for training to be focused on methods and techniques, on the how-to-do-it aspects.

8. Conflicts exist in role expectations by different groups and individuals, including the counselor's own expectations of himself/herself vis-a-vis the role as he/she perceives it in the actual work setting. Such expectations not only make

conflicting demands on the counselor's time and energy but also make counselor credibility open to question.

9. In schools where there is a guidance counselor, the ratio is usually at least one for every 1,000 to 5,000 or even as many as 20,000. The large number of clients would understandably affect the nature and quality of the services delivered, as well as leave the counselor with neither time nor energy to undertake self-renewal programs or to further professional growth.

10. The many demands on counselor time and energy prevent research efforts to evaluate counselor effectiveness or counseling effects. Concomitant with this is the problem that research is not given support or recognition.

11. As a result of these problems, we now have the phenomenon of "counselor drain" or the loss of professionally trained counselors to full-time teaching or administration or both and to business and industry. We have no way of knowing what this is due to: (a) disillusionment with low salaries, (b) lack of support and recognition, (c) failure to cope with the many conflicting demands on their time and energy, (d) a sense of futility in their attempts to make themselves relevant, or (e) a need to make a career change to a more satisfying job in a non-helping career outside the guidance profession.

In international and regional conferences in guidance, we note an increasing interest to have an international dialogue or to find new and creative ways of strengthening existing dialogues. There is the expressed desire to develop an outlook that provides a double perspective, both national and international at the same time. Drapela (1975), in presenting a strong case for international study, expressed the view that practicing counselors should be open to many human concerns and new ideas and behavior patterns because cultural isolation and provincial mentality become serious professional handicaps. While a transformation of perspectives will not come easily or quickly, we can at least hope that we can develop the empathy and understanding necessary for internationalism. Since the world is becoming increasingly interdependent, world-wide concerns need to be communicated through sensitivity to the needs and conditions of others. In 1971, Maslow called on Americans to be world citizens, to be, first and foremost, members of the human race.

At the least, the expansion or deepening of Americans' vision of the world outside may help them understand and relate more effectiviely with their own cultural minorities, with disadvantaged groups, with the foreign students from Third World countries who study in American universities and schools, with foreign visitors sent by their governments or institutions at great costs to observe and learn from American work settings, or with the people abroad who seek their help as experts, trainers, or consultants. Effective interaction is most likely to take place if we know and understand the cultural, economic and social class conventions of those we are relating with and providing assistance to.

THE ASIAN SCENARIO

There is no satisfactory way of describing the developing countries of the world as a group, or, for that matter, even the developing countries in Asia. First of all, they vary enormously in size. They include India with more than 600 million people and Gambia with about 300,000. There are wide differences in industrial development and per capita income. Every form of political organization is represented in the developing world, from fully participatory democracy through one-party systems to complete dictatorships. In economic policy, some depend heavily on the market mechanism and public enterprise, while others rely almost completely on the private sector. Some governments are strongly committed to modernization and economic growth; others proclaim the primacy of traditional and non-materialistic values. Social systems range from religious or tribal hierarchies to polyglot unions of numerous religious and cultural groups. Issues and problems differ from country to country because of religious, ethnic and linguistic differences. Countries like Malaysia, the Philippines, Hong Kong, and Singapore provide cultural contrasts of various ethnic groups undergoing the process of both modernization and nation-building.

One characteristic common to all developing countries is the constant struggle to meet basic survival needs or maintain a minimum level of satisfaction of these needs: food, shelter, clothing, health and education. The poorest sections can be as low as 40% and as high as 85% of the population. Our aspirations may range all the way from the mere uplift of living conditions in the countryside to the upgrading of

per capita income, as in the case of Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan and South Korea. Our aspirations may also be as modest as a full stomach, a nearby water pump or a health clinic, or as ambitious as a full-scale modernization program for almost one billion people, as in the case of the People's Republic of China. In recent instances, the case of the Vietnamese and Kampuchean refugees demonstrates the existence of more basic needs: a piece of land to stand on; a crude shelter to sleep in, and the right to live in peace, free from the danger of unexpected assault and death.

It is understandable that the resources of many developing countries (human, material, financial and physical) are geared toward meeting these basic needs. It is estimated that about 900 million people, many of them in Asia, subsist on even less than $200 a year. Many subsist on $76 a year, about as much money as some skilled workers in the U.S. earn for an eight-hour working day.

In this century of space-age progress, some 700 million people in the rural Third World are still destitute: hungry, ill-clothed, sick, disabled, landless, badly housed, unemployed. They are far from "developing" and, in fact, are below any rational definition of human decency. The formidable reality of unemployment and underemployment has produced marginal people, those who have reached adulthood unprepared for any useful role to play in their societies, unable to find meaningful employment, and therefore, unable to provide for themselves and take part in, much less contribute to, the life around them.

Most people in the Third World generally take whatever work they can find, with many subsisting on casual or temporary labor, if and when they can find it. It is estimated that in Asia the working force may be beyond 600 million workers with at least 186 million unemployed. Of those who do not earn at all or earn too little, 80% are found in rural areas.

Unemployment and underemployment are not so much due to lack of opportunities as to ignorance about these opportunities or, worse, lack of interest in getting training in those vocational and technical areas that would lead to employment. Our young people and their parents continue to shun employment in jobs that would soil their hands or darken their skin. They want jobs in the professional areas and in those that would provide social mobility and enhance family prestige. While many countries in Asia have emerged from the colonial era politically, the misconceptions

about work and aversion to manual labor remain. The problem of unemployment is compounded by the fact that more and more secondary school graduates go to college, which is the only place to go--there are very limited jobs for those with only secondary education, and these jobs are in areas they do not like.

The situation is different in South Africa where choice is denied or severely constrained for the blacks who form 72% of the population and where policies are based on the principle of apartheid or separate development (Watts, 1980). Only certain forms of labor are available to blacks, and the provision of training above those levels is useless. It is bad enough that in the developing countries in Asia, opportunities are limited; it is worse when opportunities are severely curtailed because of race or color or where one is prohibited by law from pursuing certain careers for the same reasons. Unfortunately, similar situations exist even in affluent countries where the non-whites continue to be pushed to the end of the opportunity line.

The dismal scenario of despair and desolation continues to persist. There seems to be no clearcut solution to these problems that have long confronted us. This is the reality that very often leads to the development of negative self-concepts, the reality that puts constraints on our freedom to decide and to plan our future and that affects the way our counselees see themselves and their world. Many of them see no future ahead of them; they live only in and for the present. Although religion continues to offer solace and comfort for the present and hope for the future, many experience neither comfort nor satisfaction. To many of them, assistance in identifying and maximizing options and in using their freedom to choose from these options would have no value.

For those of us in the helping profession, this is the reality that has provided the impetus for the soul-searching we have engaged in these last few years. This is the reality that has brought about conflicts between our role as we perceive it and the role that our clientele expect of us; conflicts between what we know and what we actually do. These conflicts have brought about the need to re-examine the theoretical bases of our counseling and the approaches and techniques that we use. For it is clear that, for our assistance to be sought, we need to be in constant dialogue with the social and economic realities of our world; we need to be accessible, relevant and responsive to the immediate needs of those we help.

IMPLICATIONS FOR GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING AS A HELPING PROFESSION

The socioeconomic conditions that plague Third World countries impact on the way we teach and practice guidance and counseling and the way we train our counselors. Guidance and counseling is expected to gear its efforts not so much toward individual growth and development as toward national development goals and priorities. Guidance personnel need to know and be constantly aware of what the country expects. Self-actualization in the context of the developing world means realizing one's potentials as a contributing and useful member of society. One's needs and goals must harmonize with those of the community to which one is expected to contribute (Hattari, 1980).

Most theories of counseling place a high premium upon verbal, emotional and behavioral expressiveness and the attainment of insight, either as end-goals of counseling or as the medium through which counseling is conducted. Thus the counselee is expected to talk and to discuss his/her concerns while the counselor listens and responds. The exchange is generally unstructured, and the counselee is the primary active participant with communication flowing from him/her to the counselor.

In contrast, and because of our socioeconomic realities and human conditions, Asian counselors tend to be action-oriented in initiating counseling, in structuring the counseling process, and in providing direct and specific assistance to our counselees. Direct assistance may be in the form of helping a counselee get a job interview, fill out application forms, make resumes, write letters of application, take and interpret tests, and decide on a particular course of action, instead of just merely providing guidelines for self-exploration, occupational or career exploration, decision-making, and the like. These forms of direct assistance are the means by which counselors establish rapport and trust, and they lend validity and credibility to their position.

In the last few years, however, as a result of the efforts of various professional and guidance associations and counselor training institutions, the following trends have become evident:

1. Improvement of counselor training and preparation on a degree or non-degree basis, with particular emphasis on personality development and competencies training.

2. Focus on the developmental and preventive aspects of guidance and counseling.

3. Career guidance focus on the development of life skills and on life/career planning rather than on the matching of person and job. Drs. Garry Walz and Libby Benjamin of The University of Michigan have greatly contributed to this development by introducing the Life Career Development System (LCDS) in many parts of Asia and by training facilitators in the use of the LCDS.

4. Increased emphasis on group process and group counseling.

The achievements of our various guidance associations, though modest by APGA standards, are landmarks for us, considering that we face many constraints, both personal and environmental. There is so much more that needs to be done, and we realize that solving our problems is our responsibility and that we need to take united action.

POSSIBLE IMPACT OF THIS PERSPECTIVE ON AMERICAN COUNSELING AND CONSULTING

There is an increasingly high percentage of people--children, youths, and adults--in American schools and communities who come from the Third World. They have difficulty mastering the language and cultural conventions and often experience a shattering sense of cultural alienation and social isolation. They are "strangers in two cultures" in spite of American efforts to integrate them into the mainstream of educational, social and community life. They experience strong pressures to adopt American ways and see their own ethnicity as a handicap to be overcome, something to be ashamed of or to be avoided.

From a reading of American journals, it appears that counseling ethnic minorities, the culturally different, and international sojourners continues to be problematic. There seem to be at least three points of view. One is that only minorities can counsel minorities (Vontress, 1971). The second is that the ethnically dominant group

should receive intensive training on how to counsel the culturally different (Stein, 1971). Thus, seminars and workshops are held in various parts of the U.S. and purport to train teachers, counselors and school administrators how to teach, counsel and cope with the culturally different.

The third view proposes an existential approach to bridge cultural differences and overcome cultural encapsulation. It is based on the assumption that, although differences appear on the surface, humans are fundamentally more alike than they are different, that regardless of race, ethnic background or culture, people are more similar than dissimilar (Vontress, 1979). Exponents of this view urge counselors to focus on human psychophysiological similarities instead of sociocultural differences. They would have counselors discontinue their preoccupation with analyzing differences between cultures and concentrate on the commonalities of people.

The question that seems relevant to ask, therefore, is: Do we really think, feel and act in the same way? Do we perceive things in the same way? Because we are biologically and physiologically alike, do we see the same objects, hear the same sounds and smell the same aromas? Can we truly know and feel the perceptual view of the world as it is experienced by a counselee? Is self-understanding the key to understanding the private interpersonal world of a counselee?

There are a number of studies that have revealed racial or ethnic factors as barriers to cross-cultural counseling, a process of interpersonal interaction which relies heavily on verbal and non-verbal communication. Three major factors have been identified that hinder the formation of an effective counseling relationship: (1) language differences that exist between the counselor and the client; (2) class-bound values which indicate that counselors conduct counseling within the value system of the American white middle class; and (3) culture-bound values that are used to judge the normality and non-normality of counselees (Sue & Sue, 1977). Perhaps without realizing it, we often expect counselees from non-American, non-white and/or non-middle class backgrounds to show some degree of openness, assertiveness, psychological-mindedness, or sophistication and to communicate their thoughts and feelings in "good" standard English.

Cultural minorities use different patterns of communication, however, that may place them at a disadvantage in counseling. Many have been raised to respect

elders and authority figures and "not to speak until spoken to." Clearly defined roles of dominance and deference are established in the traditional family. Thus, the minority counselee may become uncomfortable and respond only with short phrases or statements; these may be interpreted negatively when they are actually a sign of respect. Also, the counselor may use words and phrases not entirely understandable to the counselee and vice-versa. A counselee's "poor" verbal responses and limited verbal repertoire may lead a counselor to ascribe certain characteristics to him/her, e.g., uncooperative, sullen, negative, non-verbal, or repressed.

Americans also value directness, forthrightness, conciseness, "getting to the point" and "not beating around the bush." Among other cultures, indirectness in speech is a prized art to be mastered, a reflection of one's breeding and finesse. Traditional Chinese, Korean and Japanese cultures, for example, value restraint of strong feeling and subtlety in approaching problems. Intimate revelations of personal or social problems may not be acceptable because such difficulties reflect not only on the individual but on the whole family (Sue & Sue, 1977).

The counselor may assume that eye contact such as gaze holding and directness are indicative of one who is actively listening. Many minorities have been raised to show respect or deference by avoiding direct eye contact. Silence, too, has many meanings. In Asia, silence is perceived as a sign of respect and politeness for elders rather than a "lack of desire" to continue speaking. Among the Japanese, Korean and Chinese, silence is not a sign for others to pick up the conversation, but rather an indication of the speaker's desire to continue talking after making a particular point (Sue & Sue, 1977).

The counselor may expect the counselee to take initiative and responsibility for decision-making, but many Asians want direct advice about the "right" path to follow. They expect to be treated by the counselor the way they are treated by doctors, priests, ministers and other religious leaders. Immediate solutions and concrete forms of treatment, such as advice, consultation, mediation, absolution and other types of relief from guilt and pain, are thus expected. Coming mostly from a lower-class socioeconomic background, they are also concerned with meeting basic needs. They are likely to think that appointments made weeks in advance with 50-minute weekly contacts are inadequate and that reflection of feelings, concern with insight, and attempts to discover underlying intrapsychic problems are inappropriate

and useless. Not receiving advice or some tangible assistance very often leads to premature termination of the helping relationship.

When Americans come to Asian countries as experts or consultants, it is often assumed that we understand the language, concepts and technology. Even common terms like "delivery system" or "competency-based" may be unknown to some of us. Although we are embarrassed at our ignorance and afraid of "losing face," we are eager to learn so that we can adopt and adapt according to the needs of our situation. It is important that the relationship not consist of a simple transfer of concepts and technology but include a mutual desire to understand each other, to see things from each one's perceptual and phenomenological world because it is on this that we base our action, reaction and interaction. Such a relationship must be characterized by mutual respect and trust. This is easy to establish between countries equal in power and influence, but between a big nation and a small one, between an affluent nation and a poor one, between an overdeveloped country and a developing one, a feeling of consideration is needed to redress the imbalance and to create the conditions necessary for respect. This kind of relationship can only develop if we are disposed to learn from each other and to see our interaction as mutually beneficial.

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THE ROLE OF PRIVATE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT

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Introduction

Education has long been recognized as the process for sustaining civilization through the transmission of informed tradition and the maintenance of a social and cultural consciousness. Today, however, societal changes have placed another demand on education--not only to sustain and conserve cultural traditions but also to criticize and revise their development. It is within this context that the role of private educational institutions in the Philippines can be meaningfully discussed.

In the process of cultural revisions and development, educational institutions, whether public or private, have been looked at as potent forces for inducing and implementing changes. Rightfully or not, educational institutions are seen as a vehicle by which societal goals are attained. The dilemma that educational institutions face in this particular role stems from the fact that these societal goals may often conflict with individual, personal goals; the ways and means by which goals may be attained are not always clearly defined; the bases from which these goals emanate are obscure or weak and therefore misunderstood or misinterpreted. Despite these problems, educational institutions in our society, perhaps in any society for that matter, still constitute the greatest single force by which cultural revisions and development take place.

In the Philippines, education is regarded as the means by which national development can be accelerated, generally through the educational enrichment of the masses, particularly through redirection of education to meet national manpower needs. The promulgation of educational decrees to hasten the transformation process in the New Society and the institution of certain checks on education, such as the National College Entrance Examination, attest to the effort to curb excesses and to create a balance in manpower stock.

How do private educational institutions come into the picture of Philippine national development? Statistics show that approximately 90% of higher education

is in the hands of private educational institutions; 47% of secondary education and 10% of elementary education rest with such institutions. Private educational institutions can substantially contribute to this change or redirection.

Mechanisms for Change

While several strategies may be specifically developed by private educational institutions to meet the challenge for change or redirection, three specific areas can be identified: solid vocational guidance programs, curricular offerings to meet industrial needs and regional and national manpower development priorities, and adequate placement procedures. These three groupings overlap in some aspects of their philosophical bases and implementation mechanisms; however, each may be treated separately to point out evolving specific processes that more efficiently attain the objectives of the creative activity of education.

Vocational Guidance Programs

Vocational guidance programs, as already seen in some of our schools, have tremendous opportunities for increasing student awareness of their individual potential and initiating school activities that can enhance these emergent potentials. Guidance counselors, through individual and group counseling techniques, have been able to focus on students' needs. So strong has been the recognition of the role of guidance counselors that within the last decade or so most, if not all, schools in the country have included at least one guidance counselor on their staff. Some schools carry a ratio of three or four guidance counselors, providing at least one counselor for every 300 to 500 students.

Vocational guidance programs have been able to reach a sizable number of students and have helped to increase awareness of their individual potentials as well as their weaknesses or deficiencies. Administrators have likewise benefited from guidance programs that provide them with a systematic base for instituting corrections of weaknesses or deficiencies.

In addition to the above activities, orientation or re-orientation for career opportunities may give students the chance to explore the world of work more objectively and systematically. Biases and long-standing prejudices against certain types of occupational endeavors may be modified or eradicated in the face of

enlightenment and renewed commitment to the emergent needs of a developing Filipino society. National priorities can be better understood as a new perspective is presented alongside individual needs and concerns. The stigma that has in the past been associated with vocational and technical training programs may diminish at an accelerated rate as students begin to realize the dignity and worth of all occupational endeavors. These attitudinal changes can be attained by the efficient management of vocational guidance programs that should start during the earliest years of formal education and continue into adolescent and adult training. Vocational guidance programs should be seen as a continuing, ongoing process and not as a last minute remedial or crisis-oriented measure; vocational guidance programs should be as efficiently and deliberately planned as the other training activities in the curriculum normally associated with formal education. Only through the acceptance of this philosophy can we guarantee that private educational institutions will contribute to the mandate for redirecting, revising or creating cultural traditions.

Curricular Offerings and Training Programs

A second area where private educational institutions play an important role in manpower development is in the structuring of their curricular offerings or training agenda. Because of their flexibility, private educational institutions are in a better position to meet changing needs arising from new market needs. They can provide programs which will develop needed skills and adapt these programs to market innovations. Many short-term training programs are geared toward meeting immediate market needs. On the other hand, long-term training programs, or degree programs, may be structured to have more relevance to the world outside the school. Because curricular offerings can be realigned with industrial sector needs, schools can become an effective conduit to work satisfaction, contributing to the adjustment and well-being of members of society. The trend toward skills development and cognitive development should be accompanied by development of humanized training programs.

Since manpower is a basic resource of society, especially in the Philippines with a rapidly expanding population, it is expected that effective training programs (those that develop the total person) can tap the vast reservoir of manpower potential. This is perhaps where conflicts and problems arise. Critical observations point

to the fact that curricular change is not keeping pace with the complex needs of the occupational world. There seems to be a gap between manpower development and manpower utilization; i.e., a tendency toward heavy training in a few professions whose graduates the market is unable to absorb.

Perhaps because of longstanding expectations that educational institutions exist to conserve tradition and culture, schools are hesitant to make abrupt changes in their training agenda. Perhaps other economic or psychological factors prevent schools from undertaking novel approaches that can hasten change. In the Philippines there are fewer schools that offer first-rate technical-vocational training programs as compared to those that offer professional courses in commerce, education or liberal arts. There seems to be a propensity for private educational institutions to engage in already saturated traditional four-year programs, e.g., commerce, law, education and nursing. There are few excellent low- and middle-level skills training programs.

This situation is not totally unalterable. Nor does it negate the fact that private educational institutions can do much in providing different levels of training, adapting training strategies to make them more relevant, and developing ladder-type training programs to strengthen lower and middle level manpower skills. The reasons for the curricular lag and the imbalance of various skills should be explored fully if we are to expect schools to contribute to restructuring. There must be some measures undertaken to motivate private educational institutions to unleash their capacities for ordering change.

Adequate Placement Program

Concomitant with the mechanisms for vocational guidance programs and training agenda is the development of adequate placement programs. This specialized network system should serve as a two-way conduit for effecting an efficient inflow of trained personnel into the occupations and the dissemination of information regarding occupational needs for the training agenda. Well managed placement programs should almost ensure graduates systematic knowledge of job opportunities, if not actual job placement. Unemployment and underemployment should be reduced as applicants to training programs have a better picture of market needs. Highly saturated occupations may no longer be as enticing to students when

they know that other fields can give equal if not better chances of employment and better economic remuneration. Regional market demands, job opportunities and apprenticeship requirements may be the types of information needed by students in making decisions which will eventually lead to a balance of manpower stock. The laws of supply and demand may be used as a gauge of marketability of skills, and, in turn, may accelerate the development of better or new training programs. An adequate placement program requires a closer coordination between private educational institutions as the means for developing skills and business and industry as the end users of skills.

Assists to Private Educational Institutions

Obtaining an education is an expensive process. Costs vary, depending much on the quality of education. While tertiary education in the Philippines is largely in the hands of the private educational sector, this apparently has not deterred a good number of students from getting an education. It is to the credit of the system of higher education that this level of education has been accessible to a large proportion of families, despite the scarcity of scholarships and financial assistance. A UNESCO report on a 1965 comparative study of fourteen countries showed that the enrollment of college bound youth in the Philippines, in proportion to its population, was second only to that of the United States and even higher than that of Japan and Israel. Considering that the Philippines belongs to the Third World countries, and considering the low per capita income in comparison to highly industrialized, affluent nations like the United States and Japan, this phenomenon is rather spectacular.

In recognition of the societal role that private educational institutions play, government has assisted private endeavors by creating the Fund for Assistance to Private Education (FAPE). FAPE has assisted many private schools in strengthening their faculty and physical facilities through support of various training programs, staff development projects, and grants-in-aid projects.

A particular area in which FAPE has recently committed itself is in the area of student recruitment, assessment and guidance. In response to the expressed needs of the private educational sector, FAPE has launched the Centralized Testing Program and is committing its research endeavors to the development of measurement instruments necessary for improving the quality of education. Thus far, FAPE has

developed various tests to assist schools in generating differential information about students for admissions, placement and guidance, including diagnosis of weaknesses or deficiencies. All these tests were locally developed and normed for the Filipino student body.

Another source of assistance to private education is a FAPE proposal for financing private education. The plan involves creating a capital pool, seeded by government but composed largely of funds raised from the general public, including business and industry, through a variety of voluntary and forced saving schemes. Financing of education is thus shared by many sectors; this capital pool is then used to ensure educational opportunity for every Filipino family, particularly the poor, to induce self-reliant qualities and to increase productivity. Mechanisms to achieve these goals include the establishment of an Education Development Bank.

The Education Development Bank serves the following publics:

1. Students and individuals, through loans under a massive Study Now Pay Later program, to be funded from the capital pool. The potential size of the capital pool enables us, over time, to support literally every Filipino who seeks some educational opportunity in accordance with our aspiration to democratize education.

2. Schools and other educational institutions, through loans or equity participation for capital improvements or investments in auxiliary business enterprises. Schools, both public and private, are assisted in setting up auxiliary enterprises to enable them to raise revenues for school operations from sources other than tuition fees and to prime them to participate in productive ventures, e.g., food production.

The FAPE plan offers exciting possibilities for rejuvenating and activating private educational institutions. FAPE's successful performance may then assist private educational institutions in the challenging task of redirection and change.

COUNSELOR TRAINING PROGRAM IN MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AT DE LA SALLE UNIVERSITY

by

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Introduction

Guidance and counseling geared toward manpower development is not a novelty in the Philippines. Its beginning can be traced to the early '50's when the country's need for school guidance counselors was voiced through a directive from the Department of Education. Elementary and secondary schools, both public and private, were required to have guidance counselors, particularly for vocational guidance. The Department of Education's directive was prompted by the conditions that normally beset a developing country. The nation became alarmed at problems such as the lack of trained manpower for available jobs; the imbalance between students' expressed interests, measured aptitudes, and job realities; school dropouts; youth unemployment; juvenile delinquency; accelerated cultural transition due to increased travel opportunities; and increased demand for complex technological know-how. Such problems affected the nation's economy as well as other phases of development; they pointed up the need for educational institutions to review, evaluate, update, and/or change their current objectives and curricular offerings, and to add another non-teaching arm that would be responsible for guidance programs. These guidance programs were designed to assist students to crystallize their career choices, make better decisions, and resolve personal, social, educational and vocational conflicts.

Schools began to offer guidance programs and various other student services, the extent of which depended largely on their perception of the situation. A teacher with (or in some cases, without) adequate preparation in the field of guidance and counseling, who also could generate some appeal to students, was chosen to function as guidance counselor.

Training Programs

To meet the demands for skilled guidance counselors who could develop viable and meaningful programs, training was necessary. Experts in the fields of guidance and counseling, psychology, and other related areas pooled their resources. Degree and nondegree, short- and long-term, school and/or community-based training programs were organized by colleges and universities. The Philippine Guidance Personnel Association and other civic/educational associations helped facilitate the training of guidance personnel for immediate positions. Funding agencies such as the Asia Foundation, the Fund for Assistance to Private Education (FAPE), and the United Board of Higher Education through the Association of Christian Schools and Colleges (ACSC) extended their support to institutions to accelerate the training of counselors, including those who worked in remote areas. Seminars, workshops, conferences, and other guidance activities were provided for existing guidance counselors. Side by side with these projects were degree programs developed by educational institutions. Some colleges began offering guidance and counseling as a major at the undergraduate level. Some selected universities initiated doctoral programs in education with a major in guidance and counseling.

The following institutions offer guidance and counseling as an educational major at the master's level:

Ateneo University, Quezon City
De La Salle University, Manila
University of the Philippines, Quezon City
Centro Escolar University, Manila
Manuel L. Quezon University, Manila
Notre Dame University, Cotabato
Philippine Christian University, Manila
Silliman University, Dumaguete City
University of Santo Tomas, Manila
Philippine Women's University, Manila
University of Bohol
Philippine Normal College, Manila
Ateneo de Davao
St. Bridget College, Batangas
San Carlos University, Cebu
Central Philippines University, Iloilo City
Divine Word College, Tagbilaran, Bohol
San Pablo College, Laguna
St. Mary's College, Bayombong, Nueva Vizcaya
Adelphi College, Pangasinan
Philippine Wesleyan College, Nueva Ecija

La Consolacion College, Bacolod City
St. Mary's College, Pangasinan

It is interesting to note that these institutions are widely distributed, with the result that individuals even from distant regions could avail themselves of opportunities for formal training in guidance and counseling. Centro Escolar University, University of the Philippines, Philippine Women's University, and the University of Santo Tomas are some of the leading universities in Metro-Manila that confer doctoral degrees in education with majors in guidance and counseling.

The need for training in guidance and counseling has not been adequately met, as evidenced by the number of teachers who still enroll in guidance and counseling courses and by the number of schools that do not have formally trained guidance counselors. At De La Salle University, for example, the Guidance and Counseling Department has remained strong, in spite of major upheavels and changes.

Course offerings are occasionally reviewed, and new ones added, to make training relevant to manpower development. Most institutions granting degrees in guidance and counseling include courses to enable counselors to render competent help in the area of the world of work.

Duration of Formal Training Programs

On the basis of observations and inspection of course offerings in brochures and catalogs, it appears that most seminar-workshops run from four to eight weeks during the summer term. The master's program usually extends from two to three years and is offered during weekends. Some schools, however, offer master's and doctoral courses during weekdays after the conclusion of the professional work day. The completion of a degree on the graduate level is largely geared to individual need.

The DLSU Training Programs in Guidance and Counseling

In the mid '60's in response to social demands, the De La Salle Graduate School of Education began offering a major in guidance and counseling in the master's program. From the outset, a course or two in the vocational field comprised part of the curricular offerings. The M.A. students consisted mostly of teachers from the private sector of the greater Manila area. As with many educational institutions having counselor education programs, the DLSU experienced some setbacks, one of

which involved program content. A careful study of the M.A. courses in guidance and counseling and the needs of schools ensued, and in the early '70's a new program, the Master of Science in Guidance and Counseling, was developed to supplement the ongoing M.A. program. This is a 14-month, fulltime, packaged program with scholarship funding from FAPE and ACSC, available to schools all over the country. These programs are still in operation, and the students form a large percentage of the Graduate School of Education population. In 1973, the DLSU was identified as a National Training Center in Guidance and Counseling by FAPE, which has supported scholars since 1971. Part of the administrative support of the program was generated by the same funding agency. The Assocation of Christian Schools and Colleges also sent scholars to the M.S. program.

M.S. program objectives. The present M.S. in Guidance and Counseling is designed to serve not only applicants from local schools and colleges but also an Asian and ecumenical clientele, and to produce counselors not only for schools but also for hospitals, social welfare agencies, parishes, and other settings. The program affords specialization in the areas of counseling psychology, testing, career counseling--and the latest specialization--pastoral counseling. Counselors-in-training are expected to acquire competencies in preventing problems and promoting human development, helping individuals learn the decision-making process, assisting people to alter maladaptive behavior and translate problems into goals, applying scientific research methods to find improved approaches for counseling individuals, demonstrating awareness of self and understanding and accepting people with varied beliefs and backgrounds, and developing a counseling style adaptable to a wide variety of problems.

Thus, every M.S. graduate is expected to do counseling, interviewing, and observation. Each graduate must be able to select and use appropriate appraisal instruments, techniques, and approaches for individual or group behavioral management, as well as to demonstrate appropriate strategies to others. The individual should be able to influence others to become more realistic, especially in terms of career choice or life style.

General requirements. An applicant to the M.S. program is released by the sponsoring institution from teaching or other responsibilities for the duration of the program. If the applicant is institution-sponsored and supported by a funding agency,

then he/she is bound to serve the sponsoring institution for an agreed period of time (usually two years), just as the institution also obligates itself to fund part of the schooling expenses.

Every M.S. applicant is subjected to extensive testing and interviews and has to fulfill all of the usual requirements prior to admission. Foreign applicants are not subjected to psychological testing; however, they must fulfill all other requirements. An added requirement for foreigners is the ability to communicate in English, in spoken or written form. Priority is given to applicants who are actually working in guidance offices and to those who are expeced to initiate guidance services in their own settings. For those who choose pastoral counseling as a specialization, one prerequisite is adequate background in Christian theology.

Course offerings. To give a clearer idea of the counselor training program and its objectives, a list of course offerings is included at the end of this paper. Evaluations gathered from past graduates in both the M.A. and M.S. programs reveal that more intensive practicum should be provided. In the past, practicum has always occupied a large portion of the M.S. schedule. For a closer supervision and monitoring of feedback, practicum is suggested to be given unit equivalents.

M.S. candidates also engage in practicum and research activities while they are taking academic courses. Thesis/project papers are integrated into the program so that as candidates finish the academic requirements, they also complete a thesis or project paper. A research mentor is assigned to each student to facilitate the student's research.

The training staff. The staff is composed largely of graduates of the M.S. and M.A. programs, but also includes experts from different universities. The latter remain in the university for a period of time, contributing to the enrichment of trainees and faculty alike.

Opportunities for Graduates. The M.S.-M.A. graduates of the DLSU guidance and counseling programs have a 100% employment rate in such varied sectors as schools, industry, and hospitals. Some are involved in programming, administration, counseling and testing. Credit goes not only to the training staff but also to the DLSU administration which has always been supportive, to funding agencies who have given not only financial but also administrative and moral support, and to the students themselves.

Other Activities of the Department of Guidance and Counseling

The graduate guidance department likewise conducts nondegree programs in coordination with funding agencies. In the past, faculty have extended assistance to various institutions in different parts of the country for the inservice training of counselors and teachers. This project is still part of the services extended by the Department for manpower training and for supplying the immediate needs of counselors.

Within the umbrella of the Department are research projects which strengthen ties with the community and with various agencies dedicated to manpower development and other community projects, e.g., the Cooperative Vocational Testing Project (COVOTEP), the Career Materials Development Project (CMDP), and the Education Testing and Training Project (ETTP). The ETTP, a self-generating project, has always worked closely with FAPE, particularly as a test center responsible for testing applicants to the DLSU M.B.A. and M.A. programs. Through these projects, M.S.-M.A. students are given ample opportunity to put their knowledge into actual practice. The CMDP and the ETTP are practicum sites for those specializing in career counseling and testing, respectively.

Problems

Like any other developing programs, the M.S.-M.A. programs face a number of problems. Lack of funding and lack of facilities and equipment are the main obstacles to the further development and improvement of these programs.

Conclusion

Research, theory, and practice make up the programs of the DLSU counselors-in-training. Aptitudes, experiences, and interests of the graduate guidance students are given consideration, particularly in the groupings and learning experiences that are provided. Degree and nondegree programs are offered and research activities are conducted by both the training staff and the trainees to bring the University closer to the community, and to enhance its contributions to manpower development. Through the training process, educators develop both professionally and personally, and community interaction is achieved.

Foremost among the objectives set by the guidance staff is patterning the program to make it responsive to the needs and demands of the country. This effort cannot be achieved if only the human and material resources of the institution are used. Consortia must be formed and working relationships must be established with educational and social welfare institutions and other agencies to achieve the desired goals. The exponential factors of the program may be observed in the numerous guidance programs and activities in varied settings and different regions sponsored by the graduates. Thus, the graduates will act as catalysts, as effective and humane agents for personal and national change.

DESCRIPTION: M.S. IN GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

Regular and Pastoral Counseling Programs

Objectives

The M.S. in Guidance and Counseling is a counselor training program designed to service an Asian and ecumenical clientele. The regular M.S. prepares school counselors in Counseling Psychology, Testing in Counseling, and Career Counseling, while the M.S. specialization in Pastoral Counseling prepares counselors in hospitals, parishes, and other religious, community, or welfare settings.

The M.A. in Education, major in Guidance and Counseling, is designed to prepare guidance counselors in education and/or allied fields.

Length of Program

The M.S. in Guidance and Counseling is a full-time, 14-month program of two semesters and two summers.

The M.A. in Education, major in Guidance and Counseling, is a weekend program which normally takes about two or three years for a working candidate to complete.

Prerequisites

Each M.A.-M.S. program candidate is extensively tested and interviewed. A bachelor's degree with at least 15 units of psychology, guidance or other related fields is required, along with an overall grade average of B, 2.0, or 85%.

The M.S. applicant must be presently working in a guidance office and must have at least one year's experience in guidance.

In addition to these requirements, the M.S. candidate specializing in Pastoral Counseling must have an adequate background in Christian theology. This is necessary for a better understanding of the nature and purpose of pastoral work.

Research Papers

The traditional thesis requirement is developed within the courses, and not as a separate assignment to be completed after finishing the course work. The course

content and research assignments are integrated into two project papers or a thesis which must deal with topic(s) specifically applicable to the setting from which the counselor-trainee comes, or to the field of care and counseling in the parish and/or institution in the case of the pastoral counselor-trainee.

The M.S. candidate thus takes courses plus research and practicum while on campus. The M.A. candidate attends regular classes on Friday afternoons and Saturdays, and engages in practicum at a time that is convenient.

General Skills of M.S.-M.A. Counselor-Trainees

Stated in behavioral terms, the counselor-in-training will learn to:

Prevent problems and promote human development; the highest priority involves the prevention of problems.

Help individuals learn the decision-making process and the systematic analysis of all possible alternatives.

Help people alter their maladaptive behavior and translate their problems into goals which are stated in terms of what they would like to do.

Demonstrate a deeper awareness of self (reactions, attitudes, beliefs, feelings, and biases) and manifest a positive thrust for growth.

Manifest a deeper understanding and acceptance of people with varied beliefs and backgrounds.

Use a counseling style suited to various problems of students, parishioners, or institutionalized people, and manifest ease and a beginning competence.

Apply scientific research methods to find improved approaches for counseling in schools, parishes, and institutional settings.

Specific Competencies of M.S.-M.A. Graduates

Stated in behavioral terms, the graduate should be able to:

Demonstrate a counseling style with which he/she is comfortable, using techniques supported by knowledge of underlying theory and practice.

Demonstrate interviewing and observational skills by conducting interviews and compiling a detailed behavioral description of counseling.

Demonstrate competency in selecting appropriate appraisal instruments and/or techniques and approaches.

Demonstrate appropriate strategies for individual or group behavioral management.

Program Course Schedule

Master of Science (M.S.)	Counseling Psychology, Testing, Career Counseling Specialization Units	Pastoral Counseling Specialization Units
Summer I (April-May)		
Guid 105 Educational Statistics	3	3
Guid 109 Techniques of Counseling	3	3
Research Paper	2	2
Semester I (June-October)		
Guid 103 Testing in Counseling	3	3
Guid 102 Methods of Research	3	3
Guid 114 Group Process	3	-
Guid 110 Techniques of Counseling II	3	3
Pastoral Counseling I	-	3
Research Paper	2	2
Introductory Practicum	3	3
Semester II (November-March)		
Guid 101 Organization of Guidance Services	3	3
Guid 115 Career Counseling	3	3
Guid 112 Mental Health & Personality Development	3	-
Guid 113 Seminar in Counseling	3	-
Pastoral Care	-	3
Pastoral Counseling	-	3
Research Paper	2	2
Advanced Practicum	3	3
Summer II (April-May)		
Completion of Research Paper	-	-
Written Comprehensive Exams	-	-
Oral Defense	-	-
TOTAL UNITS	42	42

Master of Arts (M.A.)

Program Course Requirement

Basic Courses	12 units
Field of Concentration	18 units
Practicum	6 units
Thesis Paper	6 units
Total	42 units

Basic Courses

ED 551 Educational Statistics
ED 552 Methods of Research & Research Design
ED 553 Psychological Foundations of Education
ED 554 Sociological-Philosophical Foundations of Education

Field of Concentration (Core Courses)

ED 650 Organization of Guidance Services
ED 652 Techniques of Counseling I
ED 653 Tests and Measurements
ED 660 Introductory Practicum
ED 661 Advanced Practicum

Electives (9 units - any 3 of the following)

ED 555 Advanced Tests & Measurements
ED 556 Advanced Statistics for Psychology and Education
ED 557 Adolescent Psychology
ED 558 Psychology of Learning & Teaching
ED 651 Mental Health
ED 654 Developmental Psychology
ED 655 Advanced Educational Psychology
ED 656 Techniques of Counseling II
ED 657 Group Counseling
ED 658 Vocational Guidance
ED 659 Career Counseling
ED 800 Projective Techniques I
ED 801 Projective Techniques II
ED 802 Experimental Design
ED 803 Advanced Counseling Theories

VOCATIONAL COUNSELING IN THE PHILIPPINES

by

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The necessity of dealing with the present society as students prepare for the world of the future underscores the complexities of vocational counseling in the Philippines. Additionally, there is the difficulty of taking into account both personal psychological data and occupational data while developing an understanding of the individual as a whole.

Many have argued that counseling is counseling, denying the separate existence of vocational counseling, or the assistance a person is given for entry into work or for help in making work adjustments. To combat this notion, the Fund for Assistance to Private Education in the Philippines and De La Salle University undertook a joint project to encourage rational career choice in the Philippines; the project resulted in the Manual for Career Counseling which adopted the view that career counseling was not an isolated activity. The Manual was concerned with educational plans, choice of an occupation, and life style, e.g., married or single, full-time homemaker or employed wife and mother.

Why vocational counseling in the Philippines? Social scientists have described the Filipino as a unique person. He is an entity by himself, but his life style has been influenced by the "baranggay" or old values, by Western and by Asian values. These value systems may conflict with one another.

A brief historical perspective on guidance in the Philippines may help to explain the difficult but progressive stages during which professional counseling has evolved:

- Guidance as it is now thought of was practically unknown before 1925. In 1932, Dr. Sinforoso Padilla started a psychological clinic, and the intellectual basis for counseling was introduced.

- Psychological testing and counseling were used in the Bilibid Prison, the country's national penitentiary, in 1934. In 1939, psychological testing and counseling were used in Welfareville.

- During 1939-49 the Division of City Schools of Manila recognized the need for school counselors and appointed the deans of boys and the deans of girls to serve in this capacity.

- In November 1945, the first guidance institute was held in Manila at the National Teachers College with United States Army psychologists as resource persons. A direct result was the organization of the first association of guidance counselors, called the Guidance Association of the Philippines.

- In 1951, the Joint Congressional Committee on Education stated that every secondary school should have a functional guidance and counseling program. The Philippine Association of Guidance Counselors was organized in 1953. Both associations are now defunct.

- In the early 1960's, Brammer was the leader of the guidance movement in the Philippines. By the middle of the 1960's, the Philippine Guidance and Personnel Association, Inc. was born. Its membership has now surpassed the 2,000 mark.

- In the early 1970's, the University of the Philippines Guidance System was created after Dr. John Krumboltz's visit to the University. In the middle 1970's, the Philippine Vocational Guidance Association was organized.

Vocational counseling in the Philippines is not only a current concern, but also an old, old concern--as old as the primary institution in the Philippines. Choosing a child's occupation and the place to obtain preparatory training is a family affair that involves the family finances for the duration of the training and education and affects the prestige and social mobility of the family. Data have indicated that parents often put pressure on their children to take up law, medicine, or engineering;

regardless of abilities or aptitudes, because these professions would provide economic security and give social status to the family. Parents also put pressure on their children to follow the occupational pathways that they themselves failed to take, or the vocations of wealthy or influential people in the community.

Students do not generally make their own decisions. Child rearing practices in the countryside do not emphasize self-reliance and the development of decision-making skills. There are limited opportunities to develop decision-making competency. The authoritarian atmosphere in many schools and the "I know better than you because of my age and experience" attitude stifles initiative, self-responsibility, and the opportunity to set one's own goals.

The family's welfare usually has priority over individual choices. Older children are expected to "sacrifice" their desires so that younger siblings can go to school by entering a two-year certificate course which will lead to gainful employment rather than a four- or five-year curriculum for a bachelor's degree, or by postponing further studies, or marriage plans. This picture is not as dreary as it seems; it has the advantage of promoting close family ties and family responsibility.

Vocational counseling in the Philippines can hardly proceed without taking into consideration the sociocultural context within which the counselee and counselor operate. In spite of the increasing pressure on the Filipina (the female of the Philippines) to "liberate" herself from the traditional roles of wife and mother, she is still expected, even if she has a full-time job, to put the family and home above her own desires for career or vocational development. The prevailing attitude affecting choice of vocation is that formal education, even now, is felt to be an avenue to social mobility. A prospective employer may say, "If it takes a long time for the office of the registrar to issue your transcript of records, just bring me your diploma."

In addition, there are certain cultural concepts which influence attitudes toward vocational planning. "Bahala na," which means "leaving things to chance," discourages or even destroys decision-making and analytical thinking. A student says, "I will enroll in fisheries." His friend says, "Are you sure you like to go out in the open sea, catch fish, and do research on them?" He will answer: "Bahala na."

It is said that regardless of aptitudes and abilities, one can succeed in any endeavor if he has "tiyaga" (a combination of endurance, patience, and ability to

suffer) or if one just prays hard and long for blessings from heaven ("magdasal ka araw-araw-siguradong pakikinggan ka ng Diyos," which means "Pray every day; surely the Lord will hear you").

"Hiya" is a Philippine value that also influences one's choice of a profession or vocation. It literally means "It is embarrassing." It is "nakakahiya" to be a carpenter if one's father is an executive in a big business firm. It is "nakakahiya" to be a classroom teacher if one's mother is an outstanding lawyer. It is "nakakahiya" to be a psychologist if one's parents are separated or if one's brother is mentally ill. Such concerns put pressure on a person's decision-making and make counseling even more difficult.

In addition, counseling is difficult because it requires skills and competencies which take some time to learn. It is further complicated by having to deal with today's society as well as what the world of work will be like ten or twenty years hence. The Fund for Assistance to Private Education has begun to develop and produce materials which provide a comprehensive picture of the outlook, prospects, and opportunities in different careers and occupations in this country.

The individual is assessed as a whole--the psychological data, e.g., academic aptitudes, special aptitudes, strengths and weaknesses, and the social data are analyzed to provide a framework in which to interpret the psychological data. There are other influential factors, such as occupational level of parents, vocational achievements of the subject's brothers and sisters, industrial and cultural resources of the home and the community, individual educational experience, and leisure-time activities. With the improvement of testing techniques, it has become possible to measure an increasing number and variety of important psychological characteristics. But the psychological study of a person's abilities and personality traits requires more than testing techniques. A primary goal is not to match people with job vacancies in the community or in the country, but to understand the obstacles to growth and development in the person, to assist the person in understanding and removing these obstacles, and to encourage psychological growth. If the growth force in the individual is released from all restrictions, she/he will be better able to adjust to the environment.

The increasing migration to the Metro Manila area presents complex problems in living conditions, labor and school. There is an urgent need to help people who

have come there to make vocational adjustments and facilitate smooth functioning of the economy through the effective use of manpower. There is an increasing need to focus attention on countryside development and the world in which Filipinos live, as well as on the research findings such as the discovery of a shortage of labor in the lower occupational groupings of farming, fishing, logging, and mining. This is why some guidance counselors are more impressed by exploratory activities in school and on the job than by appraisal and counseling. They have more faith in the abilities of individuals to "find themselves" as a result of exposure to a variety of experiences.

The effective vocational counselor is one who knows when and how to use the various techniques of counseling, and when and how to help the counselee engage in activities designed to obtain insights and information. Counselors in the Philippines have used different approaches in vocational counseling, such as trait-factor, person-centered, psychodynamic, developmental, and behavioral. Counselors either use one approach exclusively or evolve their own counseling style. They have freedom, but it is a freedom that includes responsibility. So much depends on the counselor's philosophy of life, philosophy of counseling, belief in the nature of the individual, level of expertise, skill in counseling, and available time. Much depends also on the person being counseled and the social environment.

Counselors are encouraged to make use of the Information Materials Pool--sources of occupational information, manpower projections in the Philippines, overseas employment trends, career clusters and trends, classified occupation career surveys, checklists, psychological appraisals, and counseling models for references. But reforms in the educational system also require a shift from the traditional concept of crisis-oriented and test-oriented services to a concept of service concerned with the total person's growth and development. Counseling must become oriented to life careers, and counselors have to consider things of the future, things not under their or anyone else's exclusive control. It is a preparation for tomorrow's world, a world that is difficult but not impossible to predict.

CAREER INFORMATION RESOURCES IN THE PHILIPPINES: THE CAREER MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (CMDP)

by

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The Career Materials Development Project (CMDP) is one of the projects of the Department of Guidance and Counseling, Graduate School of Education, De La Salle University. It is geared toward the development of indigenous career materials for use by students, including the field-testing of the materials to determine their comprehensibility, practicality and appropriateness, and the distribution of these materials. The project was organized in 1973 under the joint sponsorship of the Graduate Center for Guidance and Counseling of the De La Salle University and the Office of Vocational Preparations of the National Manpower and Youth Council (NMYC). The Fund for Assistance to Private Education (FAPE) was also a co-sponsor in the initial two phases of the project.

Conditions that Prompted the Creation of the CMDP

Prior to 1973, when the Graduate Center for Guidance and Counseling conceived of developing materials to support its Counselor Education Program, there was little, if any, locally produced information on the world of work in the Philippines. There was no organized information about career opportunities available for use in career planning and decision-making. It could readily be inferred that the career choices of youths did not include a consideration of the employment market and manpower trends or of occupational prerequisites--training, skills, aptitudes, and interests.

The unemployment problem has always posed a challenge to the government. The problem of "educated unemployed" is particularly serious. A 1970 study of employment problems and policies described the Philippines as an overeducated country with the highest literacy rate in Asia. As expected, the Philippines also has a higher rate of unemployment among the educated than any other Asian country, with unemployment heavily concentrated among young people 17-25 years old.

Colleges and universities produce about 10,000 graduates every year, of which only an estimated 40% are able to find employment within a year after graduation. Even among those who find employment, many accept jobs that do not utilize their abilities and training. Thus, we have engineers working as technicians, while graduates of law, education, liberal arts, business administration, medical technology, and dentistry work as clerks and salesmen. The underemployment of highly educated persons co-exists with the dearth of manpower in the mechanical, electrical, chemical, and communication fields, in agriculture and fisheries, and in other industries which have been identified as vital to the country's social and economic growth.

The Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education (PCSPE) cited the following reasons for the absence of an efficient choice process among Filipino students: lack of guidance and counseling in the early years of high school and lack of information concerning job alternatives and the incentive scales for jobs. One of the PCSPE's recommendations was the establishment of an information service to provide students with adequate and reliable information on (1) school offerings and possible measures of the quality of those offerings; and (2) expected employment opportunities and income potentials corresponding to educational programs. The purpose of such an information system is to promote the voluntary streaming of students into relevant employment opportunities as a means of eliminating the imbalance between the outputs of the educational system and the manpower demands of business and industry under the New Society.

Nature of Career Materials Developed by the CMDP

On the assumption that career choice is a process that spans a period of time and that this process generally includes career awareness, identification with role models, career motivation, and career exploration, the CMDP has developed indigenous materials for students in the elementary, secondary, and tertiary school levels as well as for out-of-school youths. Written in both English and Filipino, these materials include:

1. Coloring books on the Filipino farmer and fisherman for Grade I pupils. These provide information on what the farmer and fisherman do for a living, what tools they use, the products they get from their tools, etc.

2. Readers on the Filipino farmer and fisherman for Grades 2 and 3 pupils. These readers give additional information by bringing in the concept of career requirements in terms of aptitudes, abilities, interests, education, and training.

3. Biographical readers for Grades 4 through 6. These readers describe how several Filipinos developed awareness and motivation for work, how they explored their interests and abilities, and how they made their career decisions.

4. Occupational monographs describing career opportunities in agriculture, fisheries, accounting, engineering, and technical, mechanical, electrical, chemical, secretarial and marketing fields. Each monograph contains information on the nature of the work at the skilled, technical, and professional levels of the occupation; actual working conditions including occupational risks and hazards; salaries, wages and benefits; education and training needed for each level; opportunities for advancement; desirable attitudes, aptitudes, abilities and interests; present manpower demands for the occupation; and trends of employment in the occupation for the next five to ten years.

5. Industrial monographs. These materials contain information about industries that are given various incentives by the government because they contribute to economic growth. Each monograph describes job opportunities at various levels, including the education and training required for entry and for advancement, actual working conditions, manpower demands, and employment prospects in the industry. The CMDP has developed materials giving information on career opportunities in the textile, shoe making, drug manufacturing, graphic arts, hotel and restaurant, mining, ceramics, and transportation industries.

6. Occupational briefs. As the term implies, each of these materials contains a short description of a specific occupation, such as mechanical engineer, mechanical technician or mechanic. In question-and-answer form, the brief gives answers to: What type of work is done in the job? What qualifications are needed? What educational preparation is required? Where is employment available? What are the working conditions? How much does he/she earn? What are the possibilities for advancement? To date, the CMDP has developed briefs on occupations such as electrician, sheet metal worker, welder, and mining engineer.

7. Illustrated or comics pamphlet. Available in Filipino, this pamphlet, which is entitled "Hagdan sa Tagumpay," gives true-to-life accounts of six out-of-school youths who obtained useful skills that enabled them to be self-employed, help their families, and provide employment for other out-of-school youths in their community.

8. Sound-slide presentation. This audio-visual material in Filipino is entitled "Pare, Trabaho Ito." It gives information on employment opportunities in the mechanical and electrical fields, which do not require a college education.

9. Handbooks for high school teachers. These provide the teachers of social studies, communication arts (English), and Filipino with suggested strategies and techniques for making their subjects vocationally relevant. The materials demonstrate how career information can be integrated in these three areas of study for the entire school year, from the first through the fourth year of secondary school.

10. Handbook for guidance counselors. This handbook shows how to set up a career guidance program; to identify and use local community resources; to use certain approaches, methods and techniques in delivering career information within the context of an existing guidance program.

11. Brochures for students and guidance counselors. These present in outline form the various jobs requiring high school education and those which do not, those requiring vocational and technical training, and those requiring college education.

Research Methodology

The CMDP maintains a small staff of full-time researchers and part-time interviewers. In its production efforts, it contracts the services of professional writers and editors for the level of the target users and uses a board of consultants who evaluate career materials at various stages of production. The procedures the CMDP employs in gathering the data for the occupational and industrial monographs are:

1. Identification of priorities in manpower needs.
2. Identification of industries and occupations for research.
3. Review of local literature on industries and occupations.
4. Identification of professional and trade organizations and schools from which to draw technical consultants as well as companies that represent the industry and individuals representing the occupations at various levels.
5. Field research, e.g., interviews with personnel and production managers and observations of actual working conditions.
6. Validation of interview data by interviewees.
7. Organization of data and preparation of a summary.
8. Evaluation by technical consultants.
9. Writing and editorial work.
10. Preparation for printing.

Present and Future Activities

The CMDP is involved not only in the production of additional career materials but also in promoting the utilization of career materials by students, out-of-school youths, and parents. The staff of the CMDP gives several career education workshops to high school teachers of communication arts (English), Filipino, and social studies (and to their school administrators) to help them integrate career information and career education concepts into their teaching units. Students are encouraged as part of classroom activities to learn about the need for career information and the ways to obtain it from primary sources, such as persons in their own communities. The CMDP staff conducts career guidance workshops for guidance counselors and

school administrators to train them in setting up career guidance programs and utilizing career information in counseling. The CMDP also researches the impact of career information after such programs of dissemination and utilization have occurred.

The CMDP is a pioneering project in the Philippines because Filipinos in general are not cognizant of the need to use career information to make rational vocational decisions. Attitudes and values need to be changed; this is a slow and painful process. The De La Salle University, the Fund for Assistance to Private Education, the National Manpower and Youth Council, and the National Educational Testing Center believe in the necessity of the Career Materials Development Project. These institutions know that eventually career information will play a role in helping youths identify and pursue careers with high employment potentials and opportunities for self-fulfillment and social service. The availability of valid and accurate career information may help create a climate conducive to human resources development and utilization.

TESTING PROGRAMS AND MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT IN THE PHILIPPINES

by

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For the Philippine education and manpower development sector, the past decade has been a period of redirection, adjustment, and innovation. Since the promulgation of martial law on September 21, 1972, a number of reforms in the country's educational system have been instituted. The government's policy views education as essential to the attainment of national developmental goals.

Lack of human resources is a key problem in developing countries, and the Philippines is no exception. There are no easy remedies for the widespread unemployment. Productive use must be made of every available facility. Developing countries cannot waste resources by training people who may turn to less critical occupations after graduation.

Previously, the general, open system of college and university admission created a swelling college enrollment. This produced many more college graduates than the labor market could absorb. The crucial need today is not for college graduates, but for trained middle level manpower. Thus the need for a nationally administered college entrance examination became clear.

The National College Entrance Examination (NCEE)

In response to this need, President Ferdinand E. Marcos issued Presidential Decree No. 146 on March 9, 1973. The objectives of this decree were to upgrade the quality of education and to maintain a healthy and viable balance of manpower stock. Also, it required all high school graduates seeking admission to postsecondary degree programs to take the National College Entrance Examination (NCEE). A passing score on this exam was to be used as a national criterion for college admission.

The NCEE, a general scholastic aptitude test developed in the Philippines, measures a student's developed ability to cope with the intellectual tasks of college

work. Scores on this test indicate the student's probability of succeeding in degree programs.

During the initial years of implementation, the educational community and the general public expressed misgivings. The National Educational Testing Center's first task was to establish its credibility and develop public confidence in its new service. This required a steady effort to meet the real needs of students and institutions, to explain the Center's purposes as clearly as possible, and to do dependable work which was clear in its structure and open to public control.

This work has had good results. The NCEE has proven to be a legitimate predictor of academic success. The results of studies of the National Educational Testing Center and other individual research are consistent. By and large, the higher a student's test scores are on the NCEE, the greater the probability is of succeeding in college. The NCEE scores, when used in combination with high school grade point average, are even better predictors of college success. The test is about equally predictive for low, middle and high income groups.

The impact of the NCEE is obvious. Overall, college enrollment is reduced. Studies on the trends of postsecondary freshmen enrollment covering the period of 1973-77 (using 1973 information as baseline data) showed that the decrease of enrollment in degree programs was evident in a majority of the schools included in the study. Enrollment in academic programs with an oversupply of graduates (such as teacher training and liberal arts) decreased drastically, while a noticeable increase occurred in enrollment of short-term postsecondary courses or the so-called vocational-technical courses.

While the evidence seems to indicate that the NCEE objective of maintaining a viable balance of manpower resources is slowly being attained, training the right number of students in each field of specialization has not yet been achieved. This reflects the lack of a sound, updated educational and manpower plan. The National Educational Testing Center is responding to this need by developing the Philippine Specific Aptitude Test Battery, which complements the National College Entrance Examination for occupational or career guidance and is administered to students in the third year of high school.

Assessment Instruments for Accreditation and Equivalency

As early as 1972, the Secretary of Education and Culture began to give increasing recognition to nonformal education. Education was seen as the essential factor for achieving the social goal of equality, for in education an "underprivileged" individual is given opportunity for vertical movement in our society. President Marcos expressed the same idea in his call for the institution of a coordinated effort at manpower development, for both in-school youths and those who drop out. He emphasized the roles of the school and community in continuing education.

By 1976, it was estimated that over 5,000,000 Filipinos of school age were out of school for various reasons, mostly economic. Recent data on dropouts show that approximately 45 out of every 100 who enroll in first grade finish elementary school. Thus, more than half of first grade enrollees join the ranks of school dropouts.

In line with the government's efforts to develop human resources at all age levels, and utilize them to the fullest, school dropouts are encouraged to continue their education, formal or informal, or to train for appropriate jobs. The educational placement test has been developed as an instrument to assess knowledge and work experiences in various areas for which academic credit will be given. This equivalency may be used for grade/year placement in the formal school system, for manpower training, or for job placement. In brief, the instrument is designed, first, to retrieve school dropouts and place them in the formal educational system, if they wish; and second, to accredit and validate work experiences of school dropouts for promotion, entry to training, employment, and self-fulfillment.

In the effort to offer every Filipino the maximum benefits of education from all possible entry points, equality of opportunity should not be confused with identical opportunity. The programs that the Philippine educational system offers must be in tune with the changing needs of society and with the varying desires and capabilities of each individual through the national testing programs. An earnest attempt is being made to show that equality and individuality can co-exist and that learners with different competencies can complete appropriate educational programs. This approach to human resource development is essential for national progress.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

by

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The Bureau of Employment Services

The Bureau of Employment Services is one of the bureaus in the Department of Labor. It is a line bureau whose major objectives are to:

1. Help maximize human resource utilization through effective and systematic matching of jobs and skills.
2. Help safeguard the interest of Filipino workers through close supervision of the recruitment activities of private agencies and the entry of aliens into the labor force.
3. Provide accurate and timely information on the labor market situation for use in planning and decision-making.

To meet these objectives, the Bureau has set up a network of public employment offices in major labor market areas of the country. The employment offices provide the framework by which workers can find challenging and rewarding employment and employers can obtain qualified workers to meet their manpower needs. Individual choice is the central theme of the employment service.

Under the New Labor Code of the Philippines, the measures to promote employment are explicit. An effective employment service helps maximize employment through vocational guidance and employment counseling--functions which are vital for achieving and maintaining full productive employment, occupying workers to the fullest measures of their skills, and providing industry with qualified workers. The social overtones of the manpower problem are obvious as participation in national development and the status that comes with rising skills and steady work contribute significantly to individual dignity and independence.

Vocational Guidance

In pre-industrial communities, the number of occupations was relatively small and the young person had fairly clear ideas about the sort of work to engage in, including pay, social status, working conditions, and prospects. It was easy to shift him/her to other jobs if necessary. With the growth of industrialization, the number

of occupations multiplied rapidly. There is now difficulty in classifying or simply listing them. Specialization has occurred so rapidly that even the educational system cannot keep pace. Moreover, social and geographical mobility has increased--hence, the need for more guidance.

Vocational guidance is the assistance given to an individual in solving problems related to occupational choice and progress, with due attention given to occupational opportunities. It is based on the free and voluntary choice of the individual and is a continuous process throughout an individual's lifetime.

The Bureau of Employment Services and the Division of City Schools of Manila have an agreement covering three areas of cooperation: vocational guidance, job placement, and student-trainee training programs. Students who choose to pursue higher education are referred for further counseling interviews with school guidance counselors. Those who seek assistance for job placement and temporary jobs, as well as for on-the-job training in industries, are handled by the public employment offices in Metro-Manila; i.e., the Manila, Makati, and Caloocan Employment Offices which are under the direct supervision and control of the Bureau of Employment Services.

Vocational guidance services are carried out jointly by the Bureau and cooperating schools. These services involve such activities as the dissemination of occupational information, testing of interests, evaluation of abilities, and organization of visits to places of training or employment. All these are provided to students to help them make rational career choices and carry out appropriate behavior leading to success in the world of work. In this process, individuals are assisted, through their own efforts, to discover and develop their potential for both personal happiness and social usefulness.

Employment Counseling

This activity involves the development of techniques and the collection and organization of a substantial body of vocational information resources which are designed to assist individuals to arrive at a vocational choice, or to solve other problems which might affect their ability to undertake or hold employment (such as the presence of a physical handicap). For its effectiveness, this activity relies heavily upon basic interviewing techniques, occupational information and references produced through job and worker analysis, and information regarding the location and number of job opportunities resulting from an active placement program and sound

labor market information. Targets of this activity are long-unemployed and/or inexperienced job seekers who register with the public employment office.

An innovative approach, devised for workers who are ready to accept immediate referral to job opportunities, is called "self-service through job information." This marketing approach enables employment counselors to inform potential employers of applicants' skills. Through this method, applicants, particularly those experiencing difficulties in finding suitable employment, are assured that their skills, work experience, and personal traits will be highlighted in a personal interview with the employer.

The counseling services are supportive in the sense of advice and information. Employment counselors do not impose their will on the applicants. Information is shared; decisions affecting applicants are made by counselor and client together.

Occupational/Employment Testing Service

The underlying purpose of occupational testing is effective placement of individuals in jobs where their qualifications (i.e., their skills, knowledge, and abilities) meet the requirements of the job. The testing services are used primarily for vocational guidance and employment counseling, in selecting individuals for admission to vocational training courses, and in selecting individuals for employment in specific jobs. Some of the tests administered by the public employment offices are: The General Aptitude Test Battery, Purdue Non-Language Test, SRA Verbal Form, Culture Fair Intelligence Test, Supervisory Index, Survey of Interpersonal Values, Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire, Flannagan Industrial Tests, Oral Trade Questions, Short Test in Clerical Ability, and Shorthand and Typing Tests.

Tests are used where appropriate to obtain a better assessment of the applicant's interests, potentials, aptitudes, and skills. An applicant does not pass or fail tests. The purpose of a test is to show the applicant "where he/she is" so that the counselor can help him/her make the best possible occupational or career decision. A variety of skills tests, e.g., typing and stenography, is used to assess an applicant's current level of performance in relation to existing and potential employment opportunities. To provide the highest quality testing and counseling services the Bureau of Employment Services continues to train and develop counselors in the administration and interpretation of the tests listed above.

Vocational Guidance Libraries

Participating schools and public employment offices are building their own vocational guidance libraries for use by young people and others seeking information about jobs. Materials for the library include occupational guides, career monographs, brochures provided by individual firms, charts, occupational outlook pamphlets, occupational handbooks, employment situation reports, labor market indicators, and other career references. The Bureau of Employment Services has set up labor market information units in eight major labor market areas of the country. These units have developed information on employment trends and the occupational outlook in specific labor market areas in order to provide vocational guidance libraries with adequate and up-to-date occupational references on both local and national levels.

Problems and Needs

Some factors contribute to an implementation lag in the vocational guidance program. The lack of trained guidance counselors is a major problem, especially in the public employment office network. The selection and training of vocational guidance counselors should be encouraged and regulated by certain general directives.

Apathy still exists among school administrators and officials toward the vocational guidance program. Greater emphasis on vocational guidance is urgently needed from the elementary grades through higher education. Careers teaching should be part of the high school curriculum. Professional vocational guidance organizations can also do much to help plan and implement meaningful vocational guidance programs.

Lack of adequate, up-to-date, and reliable occupational and employment information has greatly handicapped the vocational guidance program. Efforts of the Bureau in operationalizing labor market information units all over the country should answer this need in part. Career information centers initially established in the major labor market areas of the country, in cooperation and coordination with business and civic organizations under the management of the public employment offices, can serve as the major outlets for all occupational and employment information.

Conclusion

The fact that there are serious deficiencies in the existing labor force (as evidenced by the numerous want ads in the daily newspapers for skilled labor) makes vocational guidance and the acceleration of formal and informal training programs all the more necessary. This is particularly true in a rapidly changing environment. This task has been greatly magnified by the fact that many young people entering the labor force have neither the appropriate vocational guidance nor the technical training necessary to meet advancing industrial requirements.

Awareness is growing of the need for effective employment services in a broad range of career areas in order to sustain economic well-being and promote employment growth and stability. Intensive emphasis should be given to how government employment services, including vocational guidance, can contribute best to the goal of optimum preparation, development, allocation, and utilization of the nation's human resources.

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PHILIPPINE PSYCHOMOTOR APPARATUS (PPA)

by

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Introduction

Any successful business or industrial enterprise requires superior manpower. At the recruitment and selection stage, candidates are subjected to intensive psychological test batteries to gauge mental ability, personality characteristics, and aptitudes. Applicants are likewise interviewed to probe into behavioral and attitudinal patterns.

Are psychological tests really valid measures of a person's potentials and can they assess required abilities and aptitudes? Or can they lead to misjudgment of a candidate for a job or promotion? Several factors influence their validity and thus lessen their usefulness. Most companies overlook a vital condition—the individual's psychomotor skill. This factor is apparently taken for granted if not completely ignored. The prohibitive cost and limitation in scope of foreign psychomotor or dexterity tests have led to restriction of their use in a great number of firms in the country today. In response to business and industry's need for a more adaptive and comprehensive tool to measure the psychomotor and dexterity quotients and to ensure the required competence and efficiency in applicants/workers, the Philippine Psychomotor Apparatus (PPA) was devised.

Description of the Test

The Philippine Psychomotor Apparatus is a finger and manual dexterity test designed to assist in the selection of employees in business and industry. The PPA attempts to measure the degree of coordination of physical movements such as arm-hand movements in manipulating fairly large objects under speed conditions, as well as finger movements in manually operating small objects. The PPA may also be used as a color distinction test. An individual may be asked to identify and manipulate four basic colors (red, yellow, blue and green) which are applicable in the operation of automatic and semi-automatic industrial machinery.

Administration and scoring are quick and easy. This is a "Level A" test. The only equipment necessary besides the apparatus is a stop watch, and only a small space is needed for carrying out the test. Administration and scoring take just ten minutes.

The Apparatus is a rectangular, leather-covered wooden board which is divided into two portions. The inner portion contains slots and slits with colored plastic tiles and is referred to as the Manual Dexterity Test (MDT). The outer portion is called the Finger Dexterity Test (FDT). It has an aluminum sheet on the center where rivets and washers are assembled. When folded and locked, the entire case can be carried and stored conveniently.

The PPA has been administered to a large number of applicants, as well as to employees on the job, such as bank tellers, cashiers, electronic assemblers and welders, operators for automatic and semi-automatic machines, press operators, waiters, garment sewers and cutters, general factory workers, and the like. At present, the Apparatus is utilized with other applicants/workers in specific operations in several industries.

Norms

The norms presented at the conclusion of this paper are based on workers and applicants in four manufacturing firms. Since the motivation of workers in taking the tests may vary considerably from the motivation of applicants, the norms are presented only as guidelines in interpreting test scores.

Individuals scoring at or above the 90th percentile are generally competent and productive workers, who contribute more effectively to a company than do low scorers. Individuals who score between the 79th and 85th percentiles can be expected to perform moderately and give satisfactory results. Those whose scores range within the 50th to 65th percentiles are likely to improve their performance as soon as they have mastered the job. Individuals scoring below the 45th percentile tend to be accident-prone and unsatisfactory workers.

Companies are urged to build their own norms and to conduct follow-up validity studies in order to determine the most effective test score standards to use in selection and placement. However, as data are collected on the Philippine Psychomotor Apparatus, more definitive and useful norms will be developed.

Validity

The validity of a test is a measure of its effectiveness in identifying those people who eventually succeed and those who eventually fail. Validity studies in four manufacturing firms yielded evidence that the Philippine Psychomotor Apparatus can be an effective aid in the selection and placement of workers. This claim is strengthened by the fact that, in these studies, an efficient and productive worker, once selected, remained consistently effective throughout the production process.

It takes time, however, for a test user to accumulate enough data to conduct his/her own validity studies. For this reason, the experiences of others in using the PPA are presented as evidence of the test's validity in specific situations. These studies are encouraging and may provide helpful information for prospective PPA users.

Reliability

One important test characteristic is its reliability, or the consistency with which it measures ability, aptitude, or dexterity. Its relative consistency--the degree to which individuals maintain the same relative standing in a group from one test administration to another--is called the coefficient of reliability.

Table 1 presents the correlation coefficients of mean total scores in four manufacturing firms which indicate similarity in mean total scores and standard deviations. Selection in the textile and garment firm appears high as shown in their mean total scores of 30.05 and 30.31.

Table 2 shows significant correlation coefficients of FDT total scores that yielded evidence of strong similarity in mean total scores. Standard deviations are relatively low except for that of male workers in a semi-conductor firm (14.75).

Intercorrelations in the industrial setting between the MDT and FDT of the PPA were calculated for 1,459 production workers. The age range was from 18 to 26 years with a mean age of 21.

TABLE 1

Correlation Coefficients of MDT Total Scores

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	S.D.	r
Semi-Conductor				
female	100	25.16	8.8	.16
male	43	24.16	19.8	.39
Car Manufacturing	589	28.91	7.33	.14
Textile & Garment				
female	142	30.05	4.78	.26
male	32	30.31	5.9	.20

TABLE 2

Correlation Coefficients of FDT Total Scores

VARIABLES	F	MEAN	S.D.	r
Semi-Conductor				
female	120	28.86	6.2	.12
male	43	25.6	14.75	.29
Car Manufacturing	114	23.91	4.78	.9
Textile & Garment				
female	143	23.81	3.6	.08
male	83	21.75	6.8	.047

Although the validity and reliability of the PPA appear to be fairly high, more research is needed to confirm the applicability of the PPA in various work settings.

VOCATIONAL COUNSELING FOR THE DISABLED

by

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Since the last World War, more attention has been given to the vocational aspects of rehabilitation and in particular to developing vocational guidance and assessment as well as work preparation for the disabled. In various developing countries, special centers have been set up highlighting such activities in combination with medical, paramedical, educational and other rehabilitation services.

Philosophy

If the disabled are to take advantage of their right to an equal share of employment opportunities with the nondisabled, it is essential that every effort be made to ensure that the employment they are offered is within their physical and mental capacity. This will involve a process of total evaluation of the disabled person, taking into consideration not only his vocational training and employment potential, but also other related factors.

The Vocational Guidance Process

Vocational guidance of the disabled person is essentially no different from vocational guidance of the able-bodied. However, because of the uniqueness of the disability and the variable environmental circumstances, the process becomes more elaborate or more time consuming. The process is a continuum of services and activities which assist an individual in solving problems of occupation, taking into consideration personal characteristics and their relation to employment opportunities. It is based on free and voluntary choice on the part of the client. Its primary objective is to provide full opportunity for personal development and work satisfaction with due regard for the most effective use of national manpower resources.

The vocational counselor plays an important role in the vocational rehabilitation process by using interpersonal skills to help the client deal with problems in the world of work. Vocational guidance is the process of gathering, interpreting,

analyzing, and synthesizing all vocationally significant data (medical, social, psychological) regarding an individual, and relating it to occupational requirements and opportunities. The process includes some or all of the following:

1. The initial interview to help the counselor understand as much about the applicant as may be necessary to assist the vocational adjustment process.

2. The review of the client's vocational history in order for the counselor to acquire an understanding of aptitudes, occupational skills, and work habits developed through past employment, as well as vocational interests and ambitions.

3. The evaluation and assessment of the educational level at which the client is functioning and the potential for further education and training, in addition to the formal level completed.

4. A careful examination of the medical evaluation in order to establish the nature and extent of the disability, and an appraisal of the general health status of the individual to determine capabilities and limitations.

5. Study of the psychological evaluation to enable the counselor to help the client achieve self-understanding and gain better insights into relative strengths and limitations.

6. Study of data relating to the client's social relationship with peers, family, and community.

7. Exploration of ranges of employment available and suitable to the skills and capabilities of the client.

8. The use of the above mentioned data by the counselor and the client to plan the rehabilitation services needed to prepare the client for the adjustment to the job.

9. An exploratory period for the client to experience actual training or work situations and decide on his vocational goals with the help of the counselor.

10. Permanent scheduling in a vocational course or on-the-job training in a particular trade.

11. Follow-up through observations on the job or training.

The Vocational Counselor

The nature of the activities of vocational counselors encompasses various skills in the vocational areas, as well as the generic skills of those professionals concerned with rehabilitation. They should be able to conduct meaningful interviews, and they must possess the sensitivity to recognize the measures of interpersonal relationships. They should also have a complete understanding of situational psychodynamics, as well as the ability to use appropriate therapeutic measures. More importantly, counselors must be able to channel these abilities into dealing with problems of work and vocational choices of the disabled.

Vocational counseling does not take place in a vacuum. In making appropriate vocational plans, counselors also make certain that these plans are implemented when it is most appropriate for the client. Experienced counselors recognize the effects of adverse life situations upon a client's own aspirations when planning for his/her integration into the community and the labor force. Suddenly shoving the client into independent living after a recent traumatic experience, such as the loss of a loved one, or release from a halfway house, may be inappropriate and overwhelming.

The counselors must be aware of their crucial roles in vocational rehabilitation and their contribution to the placement of clients in the labor market. A practical service such as job placement may sometimes involve dialogues with employers in acquiring a thorough knowledge of the labor market. Here the quality of counseling services may be measured in quantitative terms, namely the number of clients who have become successfully employed.

The Philippine Experience

In vocational rehabilitation in the Philippines the task of vocational counseling is the responsibility of the guidance psychologist who functions both as a vocational counselor and a psychologist, and when necessary even as a placement officer. The merging of these roles has become necessary to maximize the services of qualified staff, to ensure continuity of service, and to overcome personnel and logistic limitations.

Most, if not all, of the guidance psychologists in the rehabilitation facilities of the Department of Social Services and Development (DSSD) are psychology graduates equipped with adequate knowledge of psychological testing and counseling. This knowledge is further enhanced by intensive on-the-job training provided by DSSD to enable them to develop the necessary skills needed in rehabilitation.

The guidance psychologist's contributions to vocational rehabilitation are the special training and ability to combine medical data from the physician, data on social relationships in home and community from the social worker, trade skills from the instructor, psycho-vocational data from testing and counseling, and information about the world of work from the placement service and other sources. These data are transmitted through the counseling process, thus enabling the client to arrive at a vocational plan which is acceptable to both the client and the counselor. This promises the client the best possible chance of achieving job satisfaction and vocational success. The counselor, with the help of the placement officer, tries to fit the right person to the right job.

The counselor utilizes several counseling and assessment processes, methods, and techniques to assist the client to achieve vocational goals:

1. A one-to-one counseling relationship--the counselor conducts individual counseling to help the client acquire insight into capacities, aptitudes, interests, and personal characteristics related to vocational rehabilitation.

2. A pre-vocational unit which is a vocational evaluation laboratory--the client has a trial in the performance of a wide variety of work experiences, within a specific period of time. The program for each individual is planned according to physical capacities, mental outlook, emotional adjustment, and other services provided by the center. The basic skills and job operations that are evaluated in

the unit are fundamental to occupational areas such as garment trades, clerical, practical electricity, vending, semi-skilled jobs, etc. The evaluations are based on standards which have direct relationship to employment requirements.

3. Group counseling--the counselor, working with a group of clients, prompts them to share their experiences in vocational rehabilitation. Vocational adjustment problems are discussed, and solutions are suggested by the peer group. Information on job availability, job application, and other activities relating to job preparation and entry are thoroughly discussed. Their experiences are compared and evaluated. Group pressure and support are provided.

4. Perceptual Motor Skills Training (PMST)--in this technique, a set of manual tests is utilized, particularly with the blind, to improve gross manual and bi-manual coordination, finger dexterity, tactile discrimination, speed of arm movement, single memory, and memory development. This training takes as much as ten days or more, depending upon the capacity of the client, and prepares individuals to assume work operations requiring these skills. Among the blind, the PMST provides the counseling team with a guide to orientation and mobility skills, daily living skills, and social and communication skills.

Conclusion

The goals of any rehabilitation program should be clear and its limitations accepted. Any actions taken within the limits will depend upon the needs and circumstances of the prevailing social and economic conditions. Each community's traditions, culture, politics and specific social circumstances determine the priorities. The progression involved in a rehabilitation process is certainly a highly complex and demanding one, but the rewards are great. It is a counselor's professional responsibility to determine strategies that will utilize the disabled--the vast storehouse of untapped manpower. Then the disabled will become contributing partners in the development and progress of the Philippines.

MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

by

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Foreword

Manpower development is a part of public administration encompassing the cultivation and training of the young and the effective utilization of manpower. Manpower is the main resource in economic development; it is the primary force in the exploitation of natural resources. The proper matching of manpower quality to quantity is the key to speeding up economic development. The purpose of social development is to seek an environment conducive to work and living. Therefore, modern nations put great emphasis on education for cultivating the various kinds of manpower to develop the economy and to promote social prosperity. The cultivation of manpower, however, is a lengthy process which cannot always meet practical needs, a situation that creates an imbalance between manpower supply and demand. The various kinds of manpower needed in coming years must be carefully projected and manpower planning must be based on those projections in order to balance supply and demand and to avoid the waste of manpower. Therefore, the formulation of manpower development plans is an important part of public administration. Another important purpose of manpower development planning is to enable individuals to select the proper path of development depending on their intelligence, aptitude and interest so that their potentials can be fully realized while they make the greatest contributions to the society. Manpower planning has great impact on economic development, social progress, and individual development and is prerequisite to the effective development of human resources and full manpower utilization.

Taiwan is an island with limited natural resources, but with bountiful human resources. In order to effectively develop and fully utilize human resources the government has emphasized manpower development in recent years. In fact, a manpower development unit was set up as part of the central economic planning agency as early as 1964.

The Beginning and the Evolution of Manpower Development Planning in the Republic of China

In 1953, Taiwan began to implement the Four-Year Economic Development Plan. By the early 1960's, the Third Four-Year Economic Development Plan was nearly completed. During that time the policies of economic construction included developing labor-intensive industries, expanding foreign trade, and continuing development of agriculture. The conditions noted in the manpower development situation were: the surplus of unskilled workers, the great shortage of skilled manpower, the high unemployment rate, and the increase in the dependent population caused by a high birth rate. The feeding of so large a dependent population offset much of the gain from economic development. Although the R.O.C. had six-year compulsory education, and the enrollment rate of children aged six to eleven had reached 96.8% in 1964, the percentage of primary school graduates was 55%. Since education was required only for six years, the quality of manpower in general was rather low, but because of limited capacity of lower secondary education, bitter competition existed in the entrance examination for junior high schools. At the upper secondary level, most youngsters preferred entrance into senior high school, leaving the number of students in vocational schools low. During that time the ratio of students enrolled in these two kinds of education was six to four. Additionally, senior high graduates planned to enter colleges and universities, again causing bitter competition in the collegiate entrance examinations.

In order to solve problems in manpower development, a unit for planning manpower development was needed. The government accepted suggestions from the experts as well as interested publics, and set up a manpower unit at the Council for International Economic Cooperation and Development (CIECD). A Manpower Development Committee was established a short time later. The former was responsible for clerical work for manpower planning, the latter for the approval of manpower policies and measures. Since its establishment, the manpower unit has reviewed and analyzed manpower situations, and has begun to study serious problems concerning manpower development.

The evolution of manpower planning may be divided into three phases:

1964-1966. The main work in this phase was to introduce manpower development ideas, to shape manpower policies, to let the public know the importance of manpower planning and the various manpower development conceptions, and to persuade people to accept and support the policies and measures which were to be implemented. Since manpower development requires complicated and diverse public relations administration, the cooperation of other agencies was vital. Therefore, coordination was an important aspect in manpower planning. In addition to collecting and analyzing material concerning manpower development from other countries and issuing manpower publications, the unit studied various problems of manpower development in this country and established basic data which were used in formulating manpower development plans. The First Manpower Development Plan was promulgated in 1966.

1967-1973. The main work in this phase was coordinating the agencies to implement the policies and measures prescribed in the manpower plan, collecting and analyzing material concerning manpower plans according to the present conditions, and projecting future development. During this period the manpower plan was reviewed three times. The first revision, entitled the Second Manpower Development Plan, was completed in 1968. This plan was included as a chapter in the Fifth Four-Year Economic Development Plan. Henceforth, manpower planning was formally included in the system of economic planning. The second revision was completed in 1970 and was known as the Third Manpower Development Plan. The Fourth Manpower Development Plan was formulated in 1972. Because of the reorganization of CIECD into the Economic Planning Council (EPC) in 1973, the Manpower Development Unit was dismantled and some manpower specialists assigned to the Overall Planning Department of the EPC. The fourth manpower plan was not promulgated.

1973-1977. This phase may be divided into two stages. Before 1975, manpower planning was limited to the study of special problems, the establishment of basic data, and the planning and coordinating of important manpower aspects concerning education, training and manpower utilization. During this period, in order to deal with the shortage of skilled workers in big construction projects, a coordinating committee for skilled manpower was set up at the Ministry of Interior, which was responsible for planning the training and utilization of skilled manpower. In 1976,

the Executive Yuan accepted the suggestion of the National Education Conference to strengthen the responsibility of the EPC for manpower planning. In addition to the formulation of the manpower development plan of the Six-Year Economic Plan, a Special Manpower Development Plan covering six years from 1976 to 1981 was formulated for implementation by the agencies concerned.

The Procedures of Formulating Manpower Development Plans

As the administration of manpower development is widely inclusive, the deputy ministers of the related ministries, the commissioners of the provincial government and municipal government, and scholars and experts were invited to the Manpower Development Committee to formulate the First Manpower Development Plan. According to the overall concept of manpower planning, the Manpower Unit was divided into eight working groups: manpower statistics, manpower recruiting, training, manpower security and stability, manpower allocation, utilization, guidance and education. Scholars and experts were invited to the eight groups to study problems concerning manpower development. Several conferences were held to discuss the results of these studies and final reports were worked out. A general report was written by the manpower unit on the basis of the reports presented by the groups. Finally, a draft of the manpower development plan was formulated by the manpower unit according to the general report and forecasted needs. The draft was presented to the Manpower Committee for discussion, and it was decided that a seminar for discussing the draft should be held in hopes that the public would understand and support the plan.

A five-day Manpower Development Seminar was held in August, 1965. Representatives invited to the seminar included the section chiefs of the related agencies of both central and local governments, representatives from public and private enterprise, labor organizations, trade unions, training institutions, and schools of secondary and higher education. The draft of the manpower plan was revised according to the opinions and suggestions which resulted from the seminar. The revised draft was submitted to the Executive Yuan for approval. The Executive Yuan promulgated the draft as a formal plan and directed the related agencies to implement it. The CIECD was authorized to review the plan once a year.

At the promulgation of the first plan, biannual revision was anticipated. The revision of each plan was based on the results of annual review by the related agencies, the conclusions from the studies on important problems by the manpower unit, the objectives set forth in the previous plan, and future needs. A new plan was drafted by the manpower unit and presented to the National Manpower Development Seminar for discussion.

The Special Manpower Development Plan was formulated to meet the manpower needs of the Six-Year Economic Development Plan; however, the formulation of this plan was different from those mentioned above. Except for projection of population and labor force levels and the input and output of education made by the EPC professionals, all the sectional plans were formulated to flow from the local to the central agency level. After the plans made by the related agencies were sent to the EPC, they were reviewed by manpower experts according to overall needs and the manpower policies and measures set forth in the Six-Year Economic Development Plan. Priorities were established and decisions made regarding the feasibility of various plans, and how to implement them financially. Finally, advocates of these plans were invited to discuss the policies and measures related to their agencies. For example, the deputy minister and the directors of the departments of the Ministry of Education were invited to discuss matters concerning educational development. The discussions resulted in the revision of the general plan. The final plan was presented to the EPC Commission for approval and then submitted to the Executive Yuan for promulgation.

The Long-Term Objectives Set Forth in the Manpower Plans

Although the contents of the four manpower plans were different, the formats were similar. Each was divided into three parts: long-term objectives, the mid-term plan (manpower policies), and the short-term plan (manpower development programs). The long-term objectives set forth in the First Manpower Development Plan are as follows:

(1) to relieve population pressure and improve age structure,
(2) to improve manpower quality and exploit manpower potential,
(3) to increase the rate of employment and accelerate economic development,
(4) to introduce an employment security system and achieve full employment,
(5) to introduce the concept of occupational balance in order to improve the manpower structure,

(6) to encourage technical innovation and productivity,
(7) to establish labor standards and provide an incentive to workers.

The mid-term manpower policies and the short-term manpower development programs were derived from these objectives. The First Manpower Development Plan as well as the remaining plans were formulated in this manner.

The Coordination and Implementation of the Manpower Plans

The effective implementation of the manpower plans relied greatly on the coordination and cooperation among the related agencies. The Manpower Development Unit shouldered the responsibility for coordinating the implementation of manpower plans in the following manner:

1. Routine coordination. The manpower unit keeps close contact with agencies such as the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Interior, the related departments of the provincial and municipal governments, the training institutions, etc. Unit experts often consult with the related agencies concerning manpower problems and visit these agencies to help them solve any difficulties they may have in implementing the manpower plan.

2. Coordination by meetings. The Manpower Unit often invites representatives from various agencies to discuss manpower policies and measures which require the coordination and cooperation of several agencies, and to decide jointly the means of implementing the plan. The related agencies also often invite manpower experts to meetings concerning plan implementation. Through such participation mutual understanding among the agencies can be enhanced and approaches toward work unified.

3. Coordination by seminars. National or regional manpower seminars are held before the establishment of new policies and measures. Representatives from government agencies, schools, and private organizations related to manpower development attend the seminar. By means of the seminar, not only are various ideas and opinions interchanged, but also unified approaches and conclusions to important problems are obtained. Some of the seminars held are: National Manpower Development Seminars, Seminar on Vocational Education and the Cooperation Between Education and Industry, Seminar on Entrepreneurial Management and Labor Relations, and the Regional Seminar on Employment Vocational Training and the Cooperation Between Education and Industry.

To implement the manpower plan, the related agencies must work out detailed means according to the policies set forth in the plan. Because the manpower plan is based on overall points of view, some of the policies and measures may be impractical, although the related agencies have participated in the formulation of the plan. Therefore, the agencies cannot always implement the plan in its entirety because of different conditions or lack of money. Nevertheless, since the implementation of manpower use plans, a number of social programs, including population and family planning, educational development, training, and employment service, have resulted from the policies of these plans. In order to attain full implementation of the manpower plans, the Manpower Unit reviews them each year to ascertain their merits and weaknesses.

Important Measures and Major Achievements in the Implementation of Manpower Plans

The first manpower plan aimed at establishing foundations for manpower development, changing public attitudes toward population, education, and selection of employment, and forming manpower policies. In the period of the second manpower plan, employment service systems were set up, the techniques and tools of vocational guidance were developed, and the in-plant manpower plan was initiated in the public enterprise. The policies for changing the educational structure were undertaken; thus the manpower requirements of economic and social developments could gradually be met by the educational output. During the time of the third manpower plan, the emphasis was on the cultivation of technical manpower, improvement of vocational education, strengthening of vocational training, and improvement of labor statistics to make the data used in planning more complete and precise. An additional examination was made on the expansion of vocational training, the improvement of education, the study of specific problems concerning manpower development, and the formulation of a special manpower plan to meet the new needs designated in the Six-Year Economic Development Plan. The important measures taken and major achievements obtained by these plans are as follows:

1. Promotion of family planning to lower the natural birth rate. To reduce the growth of the population, the government has promulgated Population Policies of the Republic of China, Readjusting Programs of Population in Taiwan, and Regulation

Governing the Implementation of Family Planning in Taiwan (RGIFPT). Family planning has been taking place since 1949, but the national emphasis began in 1968 when the government promulgated the RGIFPT. In 1972, the Five-Year Plan for Strengthening Family Planning was enforced. As family planning has been carried out successfully, the birth rate in Taiwan decreased from 2.88% in 1964 to 1.83% by 1975. Because of the superstition of the people "to have dragon-sons in the Dragon-year" (1976), the birth rate increased to 2.12% in that year; however, this is a special phenomenon. The age structure of the population has undergone great change in recent years. The percentage of the dependent population under fifteen decreased from 45.5% in 1964 to 34.7% by 1976, and the percentage of the population fifteen to sixty-four increased from 51.9% to 61.7% in the same period. The reduction of dependent population and the increase of potential workers are favorable to economic development.

2. Readjustment of manpower utilization to improve the structure of the employed population. To promote the modernization of the economy, specialization of employment has been encouraged to improve manpower structure. The structure of civilian employment by industry in 1964 was 49% for primary industry, 21.8% for secondary industry, and 29.1% for tertiary industry. Because of the fast development in industrial and business sectors, employment opportunities greatly increased. The mechanization of agriculture and the measures taken to encourage the surplus workers in agriculture to seek employment in other industries, have significantly altered the structure of the employed population. By 1976, primary industry dropped to 29.1%, while secondary and tertiary industry increased respectively to 36.4% and 34.5% The structure of the employed population is gradually approaching that of the industrial nations.

3. Implementation of nine-year free eduation to raise the quality of manpower. In order to raise the quality of manpower, speed economic development, eliminate the crowding of primary schools, secure the health of the children, and extend compulsory education as in other nations, the government extended the six-year compulsory education to nine-year free education in 1968. All primary graduates who are willing to study in junior high schools are given the opportunity to do so without entrance examinations or tuition. Since the implementation of nine-year free education, not only has crowding been eliminated in primary schools and the

health of the children significantly improved, but the quality of manpower has been extensively improved. By 1976, the enrollment rate of primary school graduates increased to 91%. The implementation of the program of nine-year free education caused expansion at other levels of education: higher education increased to 6%, secondary education to 31.7%, primary education to 47.6%, and the percentage of illiterates decreased to 12.1%.

4. Limitation of quantitative expansion of general education and expansion of vocational education at the secondary education level to increase the supply of skilled manpower. At the beginning of manpower development planning, the ratio of students in senior high schools and vocational schools was six to four. The number of students in senior high increased the pressure on higher education, while the quality of general education remained static. The structure of vocational education was not appropriate to meet the manpower demand. In 1964, student composition in the six types of vocational schools consisted of 19.2% in agriculture, 19.5% in industry, 47.0% in commerce, 4.3% in marine products, 2.5% in nursing and midwifery, and 7.2% in home econmics. The percentages in agriculture and commerce were high while the percentage in industry was relatively low, thus resulting in a shortage of skilled workers. To change this and to limit the quantitative expansion of general education while expanding vocational education, programs of transforming agricultural schools into industrial schools, setting up industrial classes in agricultural and commercial schools, and slowing the quantitative expansion of commercial education were undertaken. By 1976, the ratio of students in senior high and vocational schools was 3.5 to 6.5, and the composition of vocational education was 4.7% for agriculture, 45.2% for industry, 42.7% for commerce, 2.3% for marine products, 3.3% for nursing and midwifery and 1.8% for home economics. The increase of students in industrial schools has improved the supply of skilled manpower.

5. Readjustment of departments in universities and colleges to speed up the cultivation of high level professional and technical manpower. The development of higher education in earlier years was geared toward the expansion of humanities and social departments, as in many other countries. In 1964, the ratio of students in the humanities and social departments was 60.4 to 39.6. Finding employment for graduates of the former was getting more difficult, and output from the latter could not meet the manpower demand. In order to solve the imbalance of high level man-

power, the departments and their enrollments were readjusted each year according to practical needs. The increase of new entrants into higher education has been limited to within 5% since 1973, with priority given to students of engineering, agriculture, science and medicine. By 1976, the ratio of students in these two areas of education was 53.9 to 46.1. The supply of high level technical manpower has been greatly increased.

6. Establishment of a technical education system to develop technical and vocational education. Vocational and technical education was, for the most part, considered terminal eduation, with most of the graduates seeking employment. Because most students sought a general education in preference to a vocational education, enrollment in vocational schools was low. To encourage students to pursue vocational education and thus increase the supply of skilled manpower, it became important to create a sound system of technical and vocational education and to enable students to have opportunities to pursue such advanced education. Therefore, a technical college named National Taiwan Institute of Technology was established in 1973 so that graduates of related vocational schools and technical junior colleges could pursue additional education. Since then, a system of technical and vocational education has been established. The graduates of vocational schools may go to technical junior colleges and the Institute of Technology for Advanced Study, and the graduates of the technical junior colleges may study for degrees in the two-year programs at the Institute of Technology. Many students now apply to the Taiwan Institute of Technology or to other vocational schools and technical junior colleges.

7. Strengthening of student guidance to help students select an appropriate future direction. Guidance of students is of primary importance in manpower development. In order to effectively help them select an individualized direction for education and employment, special emphasis has been placed on the guidance of junior high school students since the implementation of nine-year free education. In the junior high, in addition to the guidance activity included in the curriculum and the regular guidance on living, learning, and vocation selection, a committee for guidance activities and a student guidance office for planning, coordinating and pursuing guidance work were established. In the senior high, student evaluation and guidance have been established in 50 schools since 1974. Various mental and

achievement tests are used to evaluate the students. If they are found unable to continue successfully in an academic learning track, the school will help them enter vocational schools or five-year junior colleges, or receive vocational training. Student evaluation and guidance have been extended to all senior high schools. In most vocational schools, junior colleges and universities, the employment service for graduates and the vocational guidance for students are provided by the employment office in each school. The strengthening of student guidance has gradually encouraged students to select an individualized program of development. Competition is thus reduced while individual potential can be more fully developed.

8. Expansion of vocational training to increase the supply of skilled workers. Although vocational industrial education has undergone rapid expansion in recent years, because of the heavy demand for skilled workers, graduates of industrial schools still were unable to meet the demands of the employment market. To expand vocational training, the government, in addition to the establishment of public vocational training centers, promulgated the Vocational Training Fund Act to collect funds for vocational training from business enterprises, and set up the National Vocational Training Fund Governing Board to take responsibility for vocational funds and for conducting vocational training. If a business enterprise conducts its own training, its share of the vocational fund is offset by those training expenses. In order to accentuate vocational training, the government has budgeted expenditures to conduct vocational training of crucially needed skilled workers. Furthermore, the government has formulated the Vocational Training Act, established the system of vocational training, and set up a unified vocational training agency in order to effectively conduct vocational training.

9. Establishment of an employment service network to strengthen the employment service to the people. To realize full employment and reduce the unemployed population, the government established six regional employment service centers in Taiwan and 12 employment service stations in the industrial areas. These centers and stations are responsible for registration of job applicants and job orders, and for placement of both adults and junior high graduates seeking employment. Moreover, to match job applicants with job orders, to promote the exchange of job opportunities, and to enhance the quick dissemination of employment information, the government selected one of the employment service centers for an experimental

local employment market/information disseminating program. Since the experiment proved successful, the program has been extended to all other areas of employment service. This system of information dissemination is helpful to both job seekers and employers. In 1964, the number of job applicants was 53,845, that of job orders 34,560, and the number of persons employed through the employment service was 11,552. The percentage of the employed to job applicants was 21.5% and employed to job orders 33.4%. By 1976, there was an increase of 211,105 in job applicants, 498,470 in job orders and 134,171 in persons employed. The percentage of the employed to job applicants increased to 63.6%, and that of the employed to job orders decreased to 26.9% The work of the employment service centers is directed mainly to the employment of persons whose educational attainment is under the secondary level. Employment services for those who pursue higher education is provided by the National Youth Commission. In addition to offering employment help to graduates of universities and colleges, the Commission is also responsible for vocational training of senior high school graduates who have completed military service, and for making loans to youths who plan to start their own businesses.

Conclusion

Although manpower development in the Republic of China has been very successful, there are several serious problems which remain and some weak areas which must be strengthened. Vocational guidance continues to require the utmost priority from the manpower development agency.

THE PLACEMENT SERVICE OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN R.O.C.

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The Nature of Junior High Schools

Since 1968, the government of the Republic of China (R.O.C.) has been successfully carrying out its nine-year free education program—an extension from the original six-year program. Thus, the free education program now includes not only six years of elementary education but an additional three years of junior high education.

The nature of and guidelines for junior high education today have undergone drastic changes. The old system was designed merely to enable students to prepare for another three-year senior education, emphasizing only the development of intelligence and knowledge. The new junior high education is designed to cultivate a sound citizen through the harmonious development of knowledge, physical training, and socialization. Hence, each student after graduation can be guided to further study or can be employed according to what the late President Chiang Kai-shek termed "endowment, capability, ability, characteristics, and potential."

The Major Methods of Vocational Guidance Used in the Junior High Schools

In general, vocational guidance in junior high is two-fold. First, the school counselor offers vocational guidance during the three school years. Secondly, the counselor cooperates with governmental employment service institutions to arrange student work opportunities prior to graduation.

During in-school vocational guidance, each school designs various programs for the first through third academic years, according to governmental regulations. Fundamental programs are:

1. To apply the guidance activities course, which is designed to help students recognize their characteristics and develop their potentials. This course, one hour a week, is taught by counselors and teacher-counselors with special training in guidance and counseling. In addition to educational and personal guidance, this course contains many units of vocational guidance. During the first academic year

there are eight units which emphasize self-understanding and occupational choice. During the third academic year, 17 units are offered, with emphasis on vocational choice and work opportunities.

This is a required course from the first to the last academic year. A Guidance Activities Handbook is provided each semester by the government and all units must be discussed according to the handbook. There is emphasis on different activities and performances. No examination or credit is given. However, student performance and participation are recorded for counseling and follow-up studies. Through the course of Guidance Activities and the performances and activities of the units of vocational guidance, students obtain a better understanding of themselves and their environment.

2. To carry out aptitude and interest tests during the second academic year, as well as an interest test in the last academic year of junior high. Test results are used to determine whether a student can pursue further study in senior high or a suitable job. The specialists, counselors, or teacher-counselors in each junior high are responsible for the testing.

3. To collect and introduce the occupational information provided by the governmental employment service institutions and the schools. Information is gathered as follows:

a) Introductory occupational courses are offered in the second and third academic years. These courses cover workmanship, housekeeping, gardening, cartography, abacus, processing of agricultural production, poultry raising, electrotechnology, bookkeeping, statistics, boarding management, costume designing, and electronics.

b) Students are able to obtain first-hand information from visiting and touring factories and companies.

c) With the counselor's assistance, students explore various occupations to develop a better understanding of occupational allocation, work opportunities, and work environments.

d) Information is available from publications of governmental and private institutions such as the Youth Guidance Committee, Economic Device and Planning Committee, Ministry of Interior, and Ministry of Communication. In addition, the Occupational Classification of Taiwan

and Occupational Guidance References, two books published by the Taiwan Provincial Government (TPG), provide valuable information.

e) Relevant newspapers, magazines, and TV programs are sources that provide informative data for student reference.

4. To help students know themselves better by taking these tests and examining the occupational information. At the beginning of the third academic year, teachers guide the students in choosing occupations. The procedure requires that the students know themselves and know the occupations so that with vocational counseling, they can decide on a career based upon their abilities and an awareness of occupational requirements. When a student chooses his/her future goals, parents' opinions are also taken into account.

5. To make pre-vocational preparations: to teach students occupational techniques in the school and to apply cooperative plans involving enterprises, schools, and occupational training. All junior highs provide the facilities and environment for students to learn and practice basic work skills.

The cooperative plans between enterprises and schools encourage schools to cooperate with nearby factories or companies by providing students with a half-day study and half-day practice program during their academic year. Occupational training involves the school, permitting some students to accept vocational training from other training institutions. This program is generally applied one or two months before graduation, after which students can continue to learn in certain institutions.

The Concrete and Substantive Means of Vocational Guidance

Educational and social administrations have been assisting those students who graduated from the new compulsory education system since 1971. The substantive means of the program are illustrated in the following chart. In the future, schools, employment services, and the government must continue their efforts to enhance vocational guidance and training in junior high.

ITEM	MEANS	RESPONSIBLE UNITS	CO-RESPONSIBLE UNITS	TIMING
1) To coordinate institution to help junior high graduate to find suitable job	• Vocational Guidance Committee of the junior high school of TPG devises and implements the program • Counties and cities may establish similar committee	• Dept. of Educ. of TPG • Dept. of Social Welfare of TPG • Bureau of Education	• Relevant department of TPG • Relevant local bureau	Immediately
2) To hold seminars for counselors	• Seminars held by TPG • Seminars held by local governments • Focus on handbook	• Dept. of Educ. of TPG, Dept. of Social Welfare of TPG • Bureau of Education		Each April
3) To provide information on job opportunities	• Collect information on labor market conditions and vocational training for students	• All institutions related to vocational guidance	• Junior high school	April-June
4) To provide data on students who want to work following graduation	• Maintain student lists • Create student data	• Junior high schools		April-May

ITEM	MEANS	RESPONSIBLE UNITS	CO-RESPONSIBLE UNITS	TIMING
5) To create more job opportunities	• Work with parents • Investigate job opportunities • Work with potential employers	• Junior high school and institutions of vocational guidance		April-August
6) To explore job opportunities and provide occupational training	• Encourage students to participate in occupational training • Enlarge occupational exchange	• Institutions of vocational guidance		June-December
7) To provide occupational guidance to those students not planning further study	• Encourage registration of potential occupational students and provide information on job opportunities	• Junior high schools and institutions of vocational guidance		August-September
8) To trace the guidance process	• Take sample survey of those students who have jobs • Trace those anxious to work but unemployed	• Junior high schools and institutions of vocational guidance		August-December

ITEM	MEANS	RESPONSIBLE UNITS	CO-RESPONSIBLE UNITS	TIMING
9) To do a statistical analysis of the data	• Collect and collate data on regularly working students	• Institutions of vocational guidance		July-January
10) To evaluate the data and program	• Youth Guidance Committee of Executive Yuan together with other institutions supervises and evaluates program	• Dept. of Educ. of TPG		July-January
	• Hold evaluative seminar at end of each year	• Dept. of Social Welfare of TPG		
	• Provide support for institutions which have done a successful job of guidance during the year	• Youth Committee of Executive Yuan		

CONTEMPORARY CAREER GUIDANCE IN JAPANESE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

by

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Preface

Due to the popularization of democratic education and the improvement of income levels after World War II, Japanese educational needs are rapidly increasing. The percentage of students who receive secondary school education is also increasing.

The data since 1950 show that about half of the junior high graduates entered senior high in 1955, a percentage that has increased every year; in 1975 it reached 90%. The national average was 92.6% by 1976 (the highest prefecture 97.5%, the lowest 81.1%). Senior high school education has almost become compulsory. In 1956, 16% of the students entered colleges or universities; in 1963, 20%; in 1965, 25%; and by 1976, 33.9%.

This rapid increase in the educational population might be termed an "educational explosion." Owing to the increase, educational quality has become diversified, and this makes a considerable impact upon the entire educational system. Career guidance, as a major part of the system in the stimulation of student career development and career maturity, has been affected by this increasing diversity.

Current Practices

The definition of career guidance in Japan. The main aims of secondary education as evidenced in the school education laws of 1947 are appropriate career choice and increased student ability. The Ministry of Education defines career guidance practice in the Teachers Manual of Career Guidance as follows:

> Career Guidance means a process whereby the student designs and chooses his future career through personal material, career information, and experience. On the other hand, the teacher should continue to guide the student because of the development of his ability to adjust and improve his way of life. The teacher should continue follow-up after the student has completed school.

The position of career guidance in the course of study. A Curriculum Council composed of scholars, teachers, and businessmen works to improve the curriculum to comply with societal values and serves as an advisory body to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education has also given the New Course of Study in secondary schools, one of whose aims is the cultivation not only of the student's mind but also of the student's personal qualities and abilities.

Position and activity of the career guidance teacher. The career guidance teacher is a teacher-counselor who is responsible for the career guidance of each student. There are approximately 4,800 public and private senior high schools; each one has a career guidance teacher who is responsible for providing career guidance as well as for serving as advisor to homeroom teachers.

Career guidance in long-time-homeroom activity. There is a long-time-homeroom hour 50 minutes a week (35 hours per year) for grades 7 through 12. The long-time-homeroom is the nucleus of career guidance in the senior high. In general, the homeroom teacher takes charge of homeroom activities. But in conformity with the subjects taught, the homeroom teacher may take the advice of a career guidance teacher or another subject teacher.

10th grade:

Purpose: Student develops an understanding of his aptitude and ability, and basic thinking about his future career.

Content: Mental aptitude of student; future planning; making a learning plan; developing self-awareness; need for counseling; career choice and career planning; knowledge of careers; making a career plan.

Psychological tests: Intelligence Test, Kraeplin Test, Y-G Test, Survey.

11th grade:

Purpose: Student develops self-awareness; engages in reality-testing of career planning and attitude toward career choice.

Content: Job or college; developing self-awareness; solving problems; learning about world of work; world of education; training opportunities after graduation; reading letters from graduates; learning about careers and aptitudes.

Psychological Tests: Work Value Test, Vocational Readiness Test, Self-Analysis, Vocational Interest Test, Career Survey.

12th grade:

Purpose: Student takes intensive preparation and develops ability for self-actualization in future life.

Content: Making decisions; intensive preparation; deciding on school life after career; thinking about life style; self-actualization in future life.

Psychological Tests: GATB, Personality Test, Career Survey.

The homeroom teacher prepares information in advance of long-time-homeroom hours so that the student receives full attention in the homeroom activity. The teacher completes one theme each hour, makes an evaluation for each hour, and at the end of each term puts together the results of the evaluations and uses them to improve career guidance.

Inservice training. It is generally said that educational public servants must engage in lifelong training in order to perform their duties effectively (Educational Public Servant's Law, Article 19). As the importance of career guidance in senior high increases, the training of senior high teachers for career guidance becomes more necessary. There are five kinds of training: nation-wide training under the auspices of the Ministry of Education; local training under the Local Board of Education and Educational Institute; private training by teachers' groups; training by teachers within a single school; and lastly, training by an individual teacher.

1. The national seminar of career guidance is held at two locations in East and West Japan. Participants (two teachers, each prefecture) recommended by the Board of Education attend a week-long seminar held by university professors and directors of Boards of Education. Participants later become leaders in each prefecture.

2. The local seminar of career guidance involves training of the participants, under the auspices of each prefectural Board of Education, for three to six days. Subsidies are provided by the Ministry of Education. There is also training by the teachers' group in each prefecture.

3. The training within a single school includes guest lecturers, readings, and inspection of other schools, with the aid of career guidance teachers.

4. There are also conferences by teacher groups of each prefecture, and summer workshops by the Japan Vocational Guidance Association and various publishing companies. For example, during the summer seminars are held for senior high teachers on the topics of career development and pupil understanding.

Various Problems

There are three specific problems. First, there is the problem of career guidance and structure within the senior high. Career guidance requires the cooperation of each teacher, but in reality some teachers think that career guidance is unnecessary, that subject-learning is more important than career guidance. Usually, each school has one guidance teacher appointed by the principal. That teacher carries four to six hours less than other teachers (high school teachers have an average of 18 hours). Although the guidance teacher has fewer hours, she/he is burdened, for she/he teaches subjects in addition to guidance work. Therefore, guidance teachers in some schools rotate duties every year. Guidance in homeroom activity is handled by homeroom teachers. But homeroom teachers do not have any professional guidance training. Furthermore, there is little time allotted to career guidance in the homeroom.

Secondly, there is the problem of the high school students themselves. Generally speaking, they have little interest in their future career and are uncertain about career planning. The Ministry of Education has investigated the life needs and accessibility of high school students. The results indicate that 61.3% want to enter college, while 33.1% want to take jobs. The standards regulating their choice of college were four: aptitude, high school achievement, tuition fees, and job after graduation. They identified five points which interfere with their entering college: high school achievement, self-understanding, financial problems, educational information, and their parents' opinions. When asked whether they had a clear decision about their future career, 50% were undecided, 14.7% were decided, and 35.3% were uncertain. Those who had decided were predominately female, pursued more vocational courses than academic ones, were largely from rural localities, and preferred jobs rather than college. One out of every two was uncertain about plans after graduation, concentrating only on entering college.

Finally, there are problems with family and society. Many parents are interested in their childrens' academic achievement, but not in a good way of life and self-actualization for their children. Because of this, Japan has extra schools in addition to the regular ones, from primary through secondary. This is largely due to traditional "degreeocracy," as demands for higher education steadily increase.

Future Trends

1. Today, interest in career guidance is increasing. Career education in America has had an impact on career guidance in Japan's senior high schools. Parents and teachers have recognized the necessity for career guidance.

2. Career guidance theory and practice have become integrated. For example, a senior high may implement a career guidance practice in order to promote career development.

3. The National Organization of Career Guidance, the Organization of Senior High Schools, and the Organization of Junior High Schools have been formed.

4. The unified entrance examination of governmental colleges, first held in 1969, is based on the model of ACT and SAT. This new examination system will end the severe competition of entrance examinations.

5. Both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour are continuing to make an effort to develop career guidance.

6. New research on career guidance is being promoted energetically. The sequential follow-up study of junior high graduates, the career pattern study and the development of vocational maturity tests are examples of such activities.

Conclusion

During the last several years the theory of career guidance in Japan has become the same as the most advanced theory in other settings, but the techniques of delivering career guidance and the guidance systems in the schools are years behind those of other countries, especially in America and Europe. Since 1970, the educational and vocational problems of young people have come to be questions of national priority in every country. Because the development of education and the future prosperity of a country cannot be achieved without consideration for career guidance, each Asian country must continue to make career guidance efforts suitable for its special condition. The practice and efforts of each country must be studied in order to design career guidance programs that will lead to the happiness of young people and the development of Asian society.

GUIDANCE INFORMATION WEEK FAIR

by

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At the end of every school year a great number of Thai students in grades 7, 10, and 12 face the crucial problem of deciding where and how to continue their education or what occupation to pursue. The problem is made worse by the lack of available information about the educational and vocational worlds. Counselors themselves often lack information, and therefore are unable to help. The result is a great human and economic loss.

To solve these problems, the Center for Educational and Vocational Guidance of the Ministry of Education in Thailand has worked with several governmental and nongovernmental agencies to organize the Guidance Information Week Fair for students and the general public. The main aims of the Fair are:

1. to provide educational and vocational guidance to students who need to further their studies or to choose a career;
2. to exhibit educational and vocational data, charts, tools and information useful to both students and the general public; and
3. to unite educational and vocational agencies at various levels to prevent needless waste of human and economic resources.

The annual Guidance Information Week Fair lasts five days. Activities, designed to attract the students' interest, include discussions by educational and vocational experts, chart displays and demonstrations by various agencies, a testing service to measure educational achievement and vocational aptitudes, an individual counseling service, and movie and slide shows on educational and vocational activities.

Besides a number of governmental departments and agencies, participants include all the vocational colleges in Bangkok and all the colleges and universities of the Higher Education Bureau. These participating agencies provide their own budgets and activities for the Fair. The Center for Educational and Vocational

Guidance acts as executive coordinator, providing discussion programs, display boards, refreshments and all necessary services.

Each day approximately 5,000 interested youths from Bangkok and nearby towns attend in order to get information and enjoy the activities. The Center for Educational and Vocational Guidance is now working to popularize the concept of the Guidance Information Week Fair in other parts of the country, so that the importance of guidance information services will be recognized throughout Thailand.

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