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ABSTRACT

The third international conference on counseling in the 21st century focused on three themes: schools, families, and higher education. The school theme presentations included topics on: the past and future of higher education; diversity on college campuses; career guidance for high school students in Taiwan; learning environments and self-esteem; mood disorders and its impact on learning; stress, burnout, and ways of coping for teachers; and pupil counseling in Singapore schools. Some of the family counseling topics included: family violence; blended families; single-parent families; wife abuse; and changing marriage patterns. Education topics included: applying overseas counselor training to the homeland; changes in teacher education; creating a community for diversity; and issues in higher education for Singapore during the 1990s. All conference presentations are included. The thirty papers include: (1) "Behind the Classroom Door: A Study of Learning Environment and Self-Esteem" (T.K. Lim); (2) "Burnout, Stress and Ways of Coping of Teachers in Hong Kong" (B. Yau); and (3) "Change and Continuity in Teacher Education in Singapore" (W.K. Ho). (JDM)

THIRD INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

SINGAPORE
DECEMBER 29-31, 1992

THIRD INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

SINGAPORE 1992

COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

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Conference Program Themes:

Schools In The 21st Century
Families In The 21st Century
Higher Education In The 21st Century

Sponsoring Committee:

Dr. William EVRAIFF, San Francisco State University
Dr. Yoshiya KURATO, Osaka City University
Dr. Esther TAN, National Institute of Education
Dr. Betty YAU, The Chinese University of Hong Kong

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Travel Arrangements:

Dr. Phillip HWANG, Universal Travel, San Diego, CA

DECEMBER 29 - 30

29	2:30 - 5:30	Registration. Proceedings Distributed.
	4:30 - 5:30	Social Hour Hosted By Sponsoring Universities
30	7:45 - 8:15	Late Registration
	8:15 - 8:35	**Welcome** HO Wah Kam, National Institute of Education Yoshiya KURATO, Osaka City University Betty YAU, Chinese University of Hong Kong William EVRAIFF,San Francisco State University and Northern California Graduate University
	8:35 - 9:15	**"Singapore: Past, Present and Future"** Chair: Assoc Professor HO Wah Kam Speaker: Professor WU Teh Yao
	9:15 - 9:45	**Tea Reception**
	9:45 - 10:30	**Theme: School In The 21st Century** Chair: Yoshiya KURATO Speaker: Donald HAYS
	10:30 - 11:00	Panel Discussion of School Theme Chair: Yoshiya KURATO Tock Keng LIM, Singapore Hsintai LIN, Taiwan Betty YAU, Hong Kong
	11:00 - 11:10	Organize for Small Group School Theme Discussions
	11:10 - 12:00	Small Group Discussions on School Theme React to Theme and/or Papers on School
	12:15 - 1:15	**Lunch**
	1:30 - 2:30	Continue Small Group Discussions
	2:45 - 3:30	**Theme: Families In The 21st Century** Chair: Esther TAN Speaker: Jon CARLSON
	3:30 - 4:00	Panel Discussion of Family Theme Chair: Esther TAN Grace KO, Hong Kong Lindy PETERSEN, Australia Lynda SAYER, Canada
	4:00 - 4:15	Organize for December 31 Family Theme Discussions
	5:00 - 6:00	Reception Hosted by National Institute of Education

DECEMBER 31

31	8:30 - 11:00	Small Group Discussions on Family Theme React to Theme and/or Papers on Families
	or	
	8:30 - 11:00	Workshop on Reality Therapy Led by Robert WUBBOLDING
	9:30 - 10:00	**Tea Reception**
	11:15 - 12:00	**Theme: Higher Education In The 21st Century** Chair: Betty YAU Speaker: Lawrence BRAMMER
	12:15 - 1:15	**Lunch**
	1:30 - 2:00	Panel Discussion of Higher Education Theme Chair: Betty YAU Michael GOH, Singapore Yukiko KURATO, Japan Nancy SCOTT, United States
	2:00 - 2:15	Organize for Small Group Higher Education Discussions
	2:15 - 4:15	Small Group Discussions on Higher Eduction Theme React To Theme and/or Papers on Higher Education
	or	
	2:15 - 4:15	Workshop on Mediated Learning Model Led by Louis FALIK
	4:15 - 5:00	**Conference Evaluation and Closure** Esther TAN Yoshiya KURATO Betty YAU William EVRAIFF

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SCHOOL THEME

SCHOOLS: THE NEXT GENERATION

(SCHOOLS IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY)

Donald G. Hays, Ph.D.
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University of La Verne
La Verne, California

- a paper presented to the -
3rd International Counseling Conference
Singapore
December 28, 1992 - January 2, 1993

I can see clearly what is and what ought to be. You can not "see" my vision because each person's vision tends to obscure (like a veil) the visions of others. Therefore, your vision obscures mine. We need to share our visions if we are to develop together preferable and desirable futures.

D. Hays

I cannot teach you anything; I can only share with you my knowledge, my skills, my perspectives and my experience. I can guide you to the cumulative and collective knowledge, skills, perspectives, and experiences of others, but I cannot teach you. You must learn from this and absorb what you believe will help you grow.

D. Hays

Education in the United States is being severely criticized by its citizens. The people are not pleased with what they perceive as an "inferior product." A variety of reform movements have emerged, each suggesting that education, and its product, be improved in order for the country to remain competitive with the rest of the developed world. From a very parochial point of view, Americans believe that it is not enough to be competitive--they want to be the best--to regain the leadership position they traditionally have held.

"Reform" and "restructure" are two terms used extensively to describe what needs to be done to improve the American educational system. In surveying current popular and professional literature, a precise, commonly accepted, definition of both terms and the concepts behind the terms is difficult to denote (Elmore, 1990; Sarason, 1990). A dictionary definition of "reform" means to amend or improve by change of form or removal of faults or abuses, and "to restructure" means to change the makeup, organization, or pattern. The prefix "re" indicates that one should do over what

one has done. It appears that neither word adequately reflects what needs to be accomplished for the youth of today to prepare them for a continually changing world!

It seems safe to say that American society wants its schools to be different than they are now. Goodlad (1983) argued that Americans have not outgrown their need for schools, but the schools that are needed are not like the ones they have known. Education in the United States is in a period of confused transition, being pulled in a variety of directions by a diverse society without any clear, collective purpose as to what is required of our youth to enable them to meet the challenges of alternative futures. On the other hand, futurists Cetron & Gayle (1991) described an optimistic scenario that projected education at the turn of the century to be, as a result of the reforms occurring now, what we presently want it to be! More and better of the same, reform and/or restructure of the current system, does not equate with what is needed in the schools of tomorrow.

The Present

With that brief introduction, my assignment is to speculate on what schools will be like in the twenty-first century--a task that is both threatening and beckoning. Coming from a society that is not sure what it wants education to be and to do, the task is very threatening. It is my belief that we cannot look to our present educational system as a model for what schools and schooling throughout the world ought to be like in the 21st century. On the other hand, "the future is not a distant place that we can see if we have a very powerful telescope, but a place that no one can see, no matter how powerful their telescopes, because it does not exist until it is created" (Cornish, 1991). Since the future does not exist and it must be created, the challenge beckons me significantly. What will the schools of the world in the next generation look like? In this paper I will present my perception of schooling in the 21st century. But first we need to consider some definitions in order for us to understand each other.

The terms "education" and "schools" have been used to denote that "education," whatever it might be, takes place in facilities we call "schools." One definition that seems to apply here is that education is the field of study that deals mainly with *methods* of teaching and learning in schools. Two new terms are added: "teaching" and "learning." It is important for our purpose not to confuse these different terms or use them in any sort of interchangeable way. As Thomas (1991) pointed out, "the distinction between education and learning is vital, but it has been lost during the ascendancy of formal schooling in this century." He makes a distinction among three major domains: 1)

the Social Domain where people conduct their daily lives; 2) the Learning Domain where people try to satisfy learning needs; and 3) the Educational Domain which includes all systems of formal education. For our purpose, I will concentrate on the Learning Domain and whether or not it will or should take place only in what we call "schools," the Educational Domain.

The Future

In most existing societies, there are people who make a study of, and are very skillful in attempting to forecast the future. Forecasting is an inexact science--if we are even permitted to call it a science! A futures forecaster is one who gathers significant data, trends, beliefs, etc.; studies the relationship of that information; and extrapolates its potential meaning five or more years into the future. Based on that information, we either play out the forecast or we let it influence us into creating a different scenario. Forecasts help shape the direction we will go, whether we want to go there or not! It is important to acknowledge what Baker (1987) said about forecasting:

> Knowing that forecasts are uncertain, futurists continue to offer them primarily because they serve up hope sometimes and sometimes alarm, both of which contribute to the actual future that becomes the present.
>
> Further, forecasts stimulate imagination, creativity, and action in the individual's response and in the social and political arenas, contributing to the shape of things to come.
>
> The inherent value, then of forecasting social and global futures is not in accurate forecasting but in its power to influence human individual and corporate behavior in the present.

Considered in this light, reforming and restructuring our school system seems to reflect what many people, educators included, expect to happen in the future--more of the same. It is their belief that by tinkering with the system improvements being sought can be achieved, but they feel that there is little need to change the fundamental structure. They say we want the kind of schooling we had when we went to school. Humans always seem to see the past with 20/20 vision and believe it to be true. Glines and Long (1992) addressed these various efforts by stating that they:

> ...are primarily rearrangements and restatements of what has been in place for generations. And history has confirmed the system's limited success. Vast changes around the world call for a

reexamination of personal, institutional, and community lifestyles, values, and priorities. Eventually, we will have to create entirely new learning systems.

A Paradigm Shift

What if we were to experience a dramatic paradigm shift that would allow us to change significantly the way we look at schools and schooling? What if we were able to begin anew. Would we create our schools and the process of schooling in a manner that would be an extension of what we see today, or would we be able to break our often impregnable mind-set and create something different? My scenario for the future is to create something dramatically different. Schwartz (1991) noted that a precise definition of a scenario is "a tool for ordering one's perceptions about alternative future environments in which one's decision might be played out....alternatively: a set of organized ways for us to dream effectively about our own future." A scenario will help you "to see" what my perceived future looks like. It will enable me to share my vision with you and others.

Several years ago, Haas (1986) generated six scenarios for American education futures as impacted by a number of factors (public policy, court decisions, technology, economic concerns, etc.):

1. **Contemporary Traditional**: schools in 2000 very much like those of the present; the few small changes that have occurred do not challenge the basic infrastructure of schooling.

2. **Humanistic Traditional**: change in the climate of schools, with greater trust, morale, growth, caring, opportunities for active learning, cooperatively determined policies, and a process for improving school goals.

3. **Partial Technological Deschooling**: application of multiple communications media so that some school functions might be decentralized to homes, businesses, public agencies, and school annexes in neighborhood education cottages.

4. **Multiple Options**: choice of schools within a district, voucher plans, or tuition tax credit plans.

5. **Experimental and/or Communal Schools**: not likely to be wide-spread, but could be an alternative for some students and their parents.

6. **Total Deschooling:** a highly improbable scenario calling for the complete elimination of schools; short of a cultural revolution, it will remain a romantic dream.

My scenario expands beyond the third scenario identified above, although it might be closer to the sixth scenario, which Haas believes will not occur.

What you will read is similar to viewing the tip of the iceberg and it will be you, the interested and concerned reader/explorer, who will need to plumb the depths under the sea's surface to determine the dimensions and the complexity of the scenario to be presented. If the scenario is favorably received, join with me in further explorations. If you prefer another scenario, please share it with us.

My scenario is my perception of what is not only possible but is a biased preference, based upon the integration of current thinking of many forecasters and other experts in the field of education as well as in other disciplines. Since change is ever present, these views may be entirely different by the time this document is read, and/or by the time the paper is presented. Thus, I am threatened by the prospects of how wrong and/or how right I may be and whether or not my ideas will be accepted by the participants of the Conference. The task still beckons me since I am a pragmatic, but optimistic, futurist.

Where Are We Going?

Henchey (1990), while addressing Canada's future, may have spoken for all of us when he stated that:

> the world has entered a period of major and rapid transformation, presenting three major challenges to education: to shift priorities from natural to human resources as a key to economic competitiveness, to require greater depth in understanding goals and setting priorities, and to open up our concepts of content (what should be learned), access (how to reach the learner), and strategy (how and when to learn).

We will begin the scenario by considering what we, as a global society, want our youth to know in order for them not only to maintain but to enhance a sustainable world for themselves, their children, and their children's children. We have yet to accomplish that goal in this or any preceding generation; indeed, we seem to be destroying our planet at an alarming rate. Hicks (1991) suggested that an explicit futures element is needed if we are concerned about the total education of young people for the 21st century. He spoke about emphasizing the need to set

contemporary issues in a global context, and exhibiting an interest in the human condition and its improvement in the areas of education for peace, human rights education, and environmental education. A rationale for these concepts has been appropriately identified by Marien (1992) when he set forth seven major trend clusters and their implications for education:

1. **World Population Growth**: preparing for a world of 8-10 billion people in the 2020-2050 period (when most of us will be living) requires greater attention to family planning, sustainable development, human needs and rights, and ethnic and cultural diversity;

2. **A Rapidly Globalizing Economy**: requires global education and a competitive workforce;

3. **Technology Growth**: requires workforce adaptation and responsible public decisions in development and control of technology;

4. **Growing Environmental Degradation**: requires a focus on sustainability in all societies and much more "State of the Environment" information for public decisions;

5. **Threats to Physical and Mental Health**: requires more attention to health education and healthy public policy that can prevent or alleviate many problems;

6. **Threats of Democratic Erosion**: requires serious attempts to enhance civic education;

7. **Imperatives for School Reform**: requires that we think much more broadly about the many facets of meaningful change, and how to seriously attain the goals that we articulate.

To develop the 21st century citizen that will address these issues, Dickenson and Macrae-Campbell (1991) acknowledged that success was being achieved in the process of learning for today's world and presented ideas to "fuel the revolution so that every child should have the opportunity to become an independent, cooperative, productive, creative and ultimately self-actualizing member of society." One may raise the question of which society--the global society or individual nation/societies that collectively make up the global society? It may require having the ability to exist in both an individual nation/society and the global society.

As a part of that development, we need to help our youth learn how to use the tools and the processes required to achieve those critical goals. Self-actualized individuals are not dependent upon the paternalism of those who believe they know what is best for the people. "The spread of knowledge is the driving force behind increasing demands for political choice worldwide" (Cleveland, 1990). Cleveland goes on to state that the spread of knowledge is "the revolutionary impact of getting millions of people--especially young people--educated to think for themselves, an impact enhanced by the widespread use of modern information technologies." Because of this significant movement, Cleveland (1992) believes that "the right to choose is already the dominant metaphor of the 1990's; the twenty-first century may prove to be the Age of Choice."

As counselors, we understand that for the individual, considered decision-making, that is, making appropriate choices about one's future, is based on his/her having available timely and accurate information and that the individual understands and knows how to use that information appropriate to his/her future needs. The individual requires specific tools to access and internalize the information and then to synthesize that information with knowledge he/she has previously learned. Some of the tools include being able to communicate and to compute in a variety of ways, and, most importantly, to apply critical thinking to a variety of situations facing the individual--now and in an alternative future.

As Dickinson and Macrae-Campbell (1991) pointed out, there should be more emphasis placed on developing multiple intelligences, beyond the traditional verbal/linguistic and logical/mathematical, to include non-traditional intelligences of spatial, musical, kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. In addition, it was Seif (1984) who proposed the following seven dimensions of a future living education:

1. **Thinking**: should include all four levels--collection and processing of information, comprehension of ideas, the ability to analyze and reason, and the ability to solve problems and make decisions.

2. **Feeling**: students should be helped to feel good about themselves and about learning, rather than feeling boredom, anxiety, and disinterest.

3. **Communicating-Expressing**: an emphasis on both particularistic and holistic approaches to reading, writing, speaking, listening, and expression through many media.

4. **Relating**: all three types of 'pure' relationships--cooperative, competitive, and individualistic--can and should be developed within schools.

5. **Growing**: and emphasis on many different elements of personal development and on helping students to become self-directed learners.

6. **Believing**: instilling beliefs about democracy, the dignity of all people, use of scientific method, and a positive vision of the future.

7. **Knowing**: knowledge about the human condition, American heritage and institutions, worldwide issues and ways of living, future studies, trends and alternatives for careers, mathematical and scientific principles, survival skills (nutrition, use of energy, stress management, consumer knowledge, mechanical knowledge), aesthetic knowledge, and knowledge about self.

From what we has been stated above, we might consider Bowman's (1985) aims for education as a means of focusing on what we want our young people to be able to accomplish in the future:

1. To develop skills and behaviors appropriate for interdependent roles and relationships.

2. To cope with the demands of global interdependence--to be immersed in a diversity of thoughts, values, beliefs, and cultures.

3. To continue to evolve a tolerance of ambiguity, reflecting the transition of society to greater pluralism and ambiguity of roles.

4. To discover that all of life must be open to question, rather than the recitation of facts or demonstration of techniques.

5. To have an awareness of the applicability of the concept of 'fixability'--opportunities to mend and heal in an era of scarce resources.

6. To appreciate stating things tentatively, rather than definitively and magisterially.

In developing the whole person, the self-actualized global citizen, we need to acknowledge what Gardner (1991) identified as three types of learners: "1) the intuitive or natural learner (the young child who learns language in the early years); 2) the traditional or scholastic student, who seeks to master the

literacies of the school; and 3) the disciplinary expert or skilled person, who has mastered the skills of a discipline or domain." "The key," stated Gardner, "is to devise learning environments in which students come naturally to link their intuitive ways of knowing with scholastic and disciplinary forms, in a rich and meaningful context."

How Will We Get There?

If there is agreement on what our youth should know, the question that must be addressed is how best can we help our youth to know it. The traditional method of transmitting knowledge, verbally from a teacher to some twenty-five or more pupils within the confines of a thirty by thirty foot classroom, can not meet the new tasks that need to be done, adequately or sufficiently. Bullough (1988) offered several metaphors that represent the schools of today:

> the factory metaphor (underlying many recent reform proposals), the school as family, the school as a social event and necessary evil (the view of many young people), the school as war zone or zoo (a view of teachers), the school as marathon (education as a difficult academic course through which all young people must run), school as a teacher and student seated on a log, and school as an information network.

He suggested the metaphor of the school as a community "dedicated to the emancipation of human capacities and to enhancement of common interests, linking the individual to the public world." Kearns (1991) argued that future schools must shift away from an industrial factory-like metaphor to a high-tech metaphor. By merging the metaphors we will find one that describes the "school of the future."

It is essential that we consider new modes of delivery with a greater reliance on high technology through electronic communications, softened with the high touch of caring humans concerned with the holistic welfare of our most valuable resource--the children of Planet Earth! Hicks (1991) noted that how young people learn is as important as what they learn and thus a greater emphasis needs to be placed on participatory and experiential modes of learning to foster pupil autonomy and critical thinking skills.

Halal (1992) pointed out that "a number of trends seem to converge on the year 2000 as the turning point when the IT (information technology) Revolution will become the dominant force governing modern societies." Evidence of this movement can be seen in a variety of ways. To begin with, a new breed of educator is emerging on the scene--one who is knowledgeable about the

"three R's--RAM, ROM and Relational Database..." (Magid, 1992). For another, electronic technology is expanding at an incredible rate. Consider the ongoing development of the following as they pertain to learning: satellite technology for distance learning; CD-ROMS, video and laser discs; multimedia presentations; computer-assisted instruction; microcomputer-based laboratories; simulation software programs in all subject disciplines; electronic networks; desktop publishing; graphics; spreadsheets; word processing; electronic grids; fiber optics; sound boards; virtual reality; to name just a few.

Additional evidence can be seen in Singapore's efforts to become the world leader in information and communication technology (Reuter, 1992). The government of Singapore plans to install a communication network linking all households with grids of fiber-optic cables that will enable high-speed exchange of text, sound, video and other media forms. There are electronic networks (National Geographic Kids Network for one) in place to a limited extent throughout the world but no real grid connection to every household has been achieved.

The 21st century will find that the home will become once again the basic center of learning. What we now call schools will transform into Community Learning Centers (CLCs), designed primarily to serve as a catalyst for learning. People of all ages, involved in life-long learning, will use the CLCs for a variety of specific activities from diagnosing their current learning achievement to determining next steps for them to take in moving toward mastery of the mutually agreed upon outcomes determined by each nation/society within the framework of the needs of the global society. The CLCs will contain techrooms, media centers, offices, recreational-socialization spaces, day-care facilities and other spaces necessary to the learning process. Each CLC will meet the greater goals of the global and nation/societies, but at the same time be responsive to the needs of the local community. Considerable flexibility will be built into the management of the CLCs.

The home and the CLCs will not be the only learning environments within a community. Informal learning environments will exist everywhere. Pesanelli (1990) stated that: "children should have opportunities to learn informally wherever and whenever they choose to. The public park, playground, schoolyard, and sidewalk--places children are naturally attracted to--are ideal locations for interactive learning environments." He suggested three formats of learning environments--a fantasy, curriculum-review and discovery--and presented separate scenarios for each based on electronic-assisted learning involving the use of all of the students' senses. Pesanelli went on to say that "the key to the success of new learning environments is public access to learning <u>when</u> children want it. These new places for

learning can compete successfully for students' attention and time by "packaging" information content in ways that are both provocative and appealing."

Within each of the several learning environments technology exists that will transmit each learner's efforts, in whatever endeavor is accomplished, back to the CLC for inclusion in the learner's personal data record. The new learned information will be matched against what had been previously prescribed in cooperation with the learner that requires further analysis, diagnosis and prescription. A broad spectrum of time will be allowed for each individual to accomplish specified goals enumerated earlier in this paper, to recognize individual differences and maturation levels. At some point, the lack of mastery of prescribed outcomes may require remediation and/or consideration of different outcomes.

Within each learning environment there will exist the capacity to connect learning data banks worldwide. As an example, a child in Penang, Malaysia, using the technology in her local CLC, will be able to request information about the Grand Canyon in the United States for a report she is doing. Not only will she be able to obtain written (text) information but she will be able to see a video of the Canyon, hear the sounds of the fauna and the roar of the rapids of the Colorado River, and smell the pine trees growing on the North Rim. She may choose to have projected before her a holograph that gives her the sense of being on the South Rim viewing the Canyon in three dimensions or using the technology of virtual reality she will climb on a mule and experience the thrill of descending into the Canyon. The possibilities are endless.

While technology will be able to provide different approaches in delivering knowledge, the key element to facilitate learning will be the high touch side of education--caring humans who will assist the learner in his/her endeavors. There will be at least two types of facilitators: learning specialists and developmental counselors. Since the theme of the conference is counseling in the 21st century, we will dwell on the function of the developmental counselor. This person will be housed in the CLC. His or her primary function will be to intervene, on a regular, developmental basis, at key points in the learner's life in a similar way that one visits a family doctor or dentist for periodic checkups. Goodman (1992) acknowledged the medical and educational models of counseling and proposed a different model--the dental model. It is suggested that the educational and dental models be fused into a developmental counseling model.

The key intervention points involving the developmental counselor would begin shortly after the birth of the individual and continue to occur at critical developmental points throughout the individual's life. A variety of activities will take place at

each critical point depending on the needs of the learner and what research and experience indicates should take place at that particular developmental stage of one's life. The developmental counselor will serve as a listener, advisor, broker, skill developer, assessor, diagnostician, prescriber, friend, etc., to the learner. At each key point, any significant variations in the developmental growth pattern will be addressed and plans will be made for further learning, or if necessary, relearning.

The developmental counselor would be the high touch person helping individuals not only cope with the high technology world, but make that world work for the individual. The home as a center for learning, the CLCs as transformed schools, learning specialists, and developmental counselors are now a possible reality but our mind-set is on a different plane. We need to make a major paradigm shift and see things differently. Gelatt (1992) suggested a new vision for counseling in which he identified several revelations: learning is now the new bottom line; everything is connected to everything else; the most powerful forces driving change come from the future; and one's future is created right behind one's eyes! So it is in my scenario--my vision.

Summary

We can continue to develop my scenario of what might be. If we were to brainstorm the possibilities based on current and future technology with a different mind-set, one that is in tune with alternative futures based on futures forecasting and scenario planning, we could play out the preferable and possible future of learning as alluded to in this paper. On the other hand, there are problems with scenarios that we do not want to overlook. Scenarios may be too focused or too general. They can be too pessimistic or too optimistic. But the most important potential problem was proposed by Schwartz (1991) when he said that "an effective scenario almost always changes behavior." Therein lies the challenge that once again is threatening and beckoning.

What is being proposed is the need for a new concept of learning with new goals that will emphasize the need to maintain and enhance a sustainable planet for our children and our children's children. To reiterate a past theme of the World Future Society, we must think globally and act locally. We must continue to spread knowledge to everyone in order for the people to make considered decisions about their futures, individually and collectively as a community, a nation and a global society. We must empower the people to achieve Cleveland's (1992) age of choice. We must link high technology to this entire process so that the greatest dissemination of knowledge can occur.

Finally, we must ensure that alongside the exponentially exploding technological advances, we must have high touch to ensure that we develop as humans and not as electronically-controlled, mechanistic robots. Developmental counselors in local CLCs have the potential to accomplish that major task. Our world is becoming too small, too fragile, and too valuable not to do otherwise.

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Career Guidance Services for Senior High School Students in Taiwan

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BACKGROUND

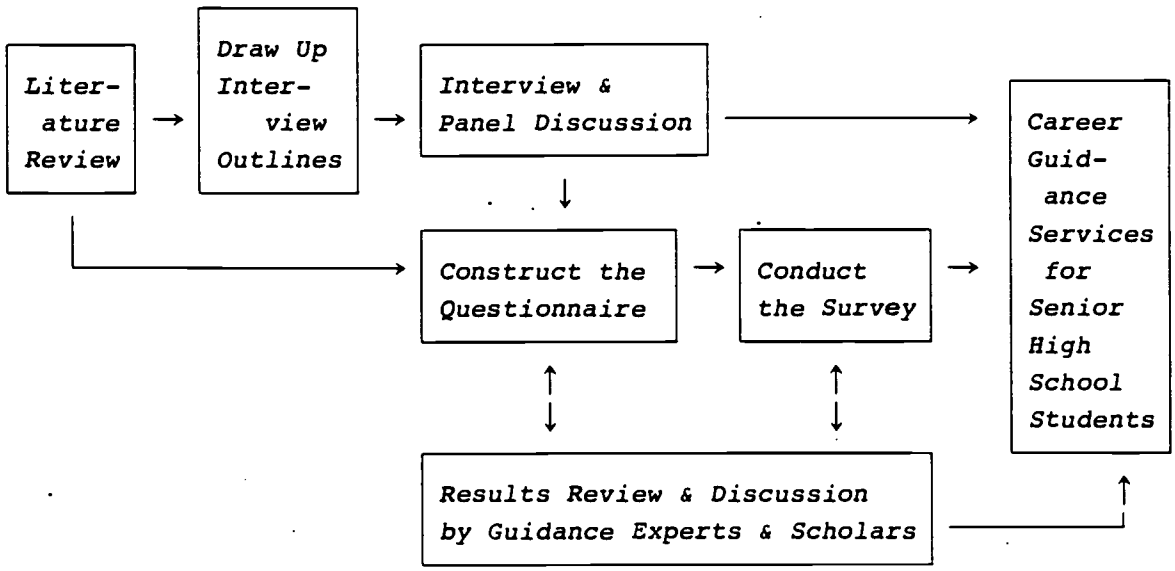
Due to heavy competition for entrance examination, few senior high school students in Taiwan have considered their career development besides of entering the four-year college. Although, according to the General Guidelines of Senior High School Education, there are 64 elective courses for juniors and seniors to select for exploration, many schools provide only those connected with entrance examination. Even the examination system was changed to flexibly reflect students' choice for college majors, it does not help much due to the deep-rooted entering-higher-school doctrine.

Various career guidance services have been put into practice for them in the past few years. However, they are provided occasionally, and there is no systematic design and planning for providing such services. Wu's (1987) survey indicated that college freshmen did not feel satisfied with what they were provided in the senior high school, even in terms of guidance for preparing college education. This fact reflects obviously that students did not have much ideas about career.

Since there is no enough vacancies for every senior high school student to enter college, at least one-third of students need to re-consider their future after graduating from school. Because senior high school students do not learn any vocational skills for employment, they need to make decisions and take vocational training for their work if they can not enter college. For such matters, career guidance is badly needed .

METHOD

A six-year plan for guidance movement was sponsored in 1991 with the intention to promote guidance services for all students in Taiwan. This report is part of its first-year products. It is considered to be a need assessment with the purpose of knowing what career guidance services had been done in senior high schools and what are needed for better service to these students. The schedules outlined below were followed to obtain results to provide references for further planning on career guidance services for senior high school students.



Ninty-eight schools (about half of the population) were randomly selected for the survey. Career Guidance Services Questionnaires were sent to principal, dean of study, dean of student, counselor, 2-3 classroom teachers, and eight students from each grade. There were 84 high school principals, 82 deans of study, 72 deans of students, 88 guidance teachers, 186 classroom teachers, and 2003 students available for analyses, with 72.4% to 89.8% rate of return.

RESULTS

Results from panel discussion with school principals, guidance

teachers and students showed that students and teachers in senior high schools were college-bound oriented, with strong belief that good grades guarantee their future. Even little chance for entering college, they hold that finishing senior high school is one matter, and future career is another. The latter matter can be waited till graduation.

Findings from the survey indicated that administratives and teachers gave higher points on students' participation and benefits from career guidance services, but students' responses were much lower on every items. The most recognized services were those concerned with college entrance issues. Others, including discussion with parents on career development problems, understanding factors that influence career development, as well as issues on work and employment, were neglected in schools. But students and teachers are aware of necessity providing such guidance services in senior high schools, especially for students in rural areas or schools of low rate of college entrance.

The most difficult problem is time for providing such services in schools, because students are loaded heavily with academic courses and no spare time for guidance activitiies. Besides, lack of professional training, work experiences and enough persons providing career guidance are problems needed to be solved.

Based on the findings from this study, career guidance services needed for senior high school students and appropriate methods are provided with suggestions for in-service training program for teachers and counselors.

Table 1 Degree of Participation on Career Guidance Services

ITEMS	students (N=2033)			Dean of Study (N=82)			Dean of Students (N=72)			counselors (N=88)			teachers (N=186)		
	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK
Help students:															
1.aware of necessity of career planning and preparation.	1.93	.53	16	2.11	.49	19	2.12	.54	21	1.94	.56	19	2.07	.52	17
2.learn to explore their career alternatives.	2.02	.61	14	2.24	.59	15	2.23	.54	15	2.19	.61	14	2.05	.64	18
3.evaluate their abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality.	2.25	.62	5	2.55	.55	8	2.44	.58	12	2.53	.57	8	2.35	.64	9
4.Develop students' career decision making abilities.	1.88	.60	22	2.14	.54	17	2.17	.62	18	1.94	.64	20	1.96	.59	23
5.understand social influences on their future career.	1.85	.62	*26	2.09	.56	21	2.03	.62	24	1.90	.61	22	1.92	.56	25
6.analyze factors that help/hinder their career development.	1.87	.63	23	2.11	.50	20	2.15	.61	20	1.97	.68	18	2.10	.61	15
7.learn hov to converse with their parents for career planning.	1.70	.62	30	1.97	.55	26	2.05	.66	23	1.84	.63	26	1.89	.56	26
8.deal with conflicts with parents on their career decisions.	1.81	.64	28	1.94	.56	27	2.18	.67	17	1.99	.63	17	1.98	.61	22
9.make plans for their career.	1.90	.63	21	2.22	.65	16	2.09	.55	22	1.87	.68	23	1.99	.59	21
10.understand senior high school education's objectives, courses, and their relations with career development.	2.16	.69	10	2.59	.50	7	2.54	.53	9	2.25	.68	13	2.23	.68	12
11.understand relations between academic aptitudes (including school achievement) and their career when entering college.	2.33	.64	*3	2.61	.55	6	2.66	.48	5	2.54	.59	6	2.51	.59	*4
12.undertand educational alternatives after graduation.	2.33	.65	*3	2.67	.50	2	2.74	.47	2	2.62	.56	3	2.51	.59	*4
13.undertand vocational alternatiives after graduation.	2.07	.68	12	2.26	.59	14	2.22	.71	16	2.13	.78	15	2.16	.65	13
14.undertand alumnus' career development status.	2.03	.69	13	2.33	.56	13	2.46	.56	11	2.33	.71	12	2.12	.69	14
15.analyze their possibility staying in senior high school (or turning to other type of high school.)	1.91	.68	19	2.14	.58	18	2.32	.61	14	2.10	.68	16	2.09	.65	16
16.undertand factors that should be considered for choosing educational tracks in second semister in the first year.	2.43	.64	1	2.68	.47	1	2.69	.50	3	2.79	.41	1	2.65	.57	1
17.undertand various tracks and their relations with career development.	2.24	.68	6	2.50	.53	10	2.54	.58	9	2.54	.57	6	2.46	.63	6
18.choose track based on their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and personality.	2.35	.66	2	2.66	.48	3	2.67	.50	4	2.61	.58	5	2.53	.60	3
19.undertand regulations about changing tracks and make decisions for necessary change in the second year.	2.01	.69	15	2.34	.56	12	2.43	.58	13	2.34	.72	11	2.25	.68	11
20.obtain information about college and other alternatives.	2.20	.70	8	2.63	.52	*4	2.75	.44	1	2.69	.56	2	2.60	.56	2
21.undertand relations of entering college and their future career	2.11	.66	11	2.42	.58	11	2.55	.56	8	2.43	.63	9	2.37	.58	8
22.undertand factors that should be considered in choosing college majors.	2.18	.67	9	2.51	.56	9	2.56	.58	7	2.41	.69	10	2.34	.62	10
23.choose college majors based on their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and personalities.	2.23	.68	7	2.63	.49	*4	2.57	.61	6	2.62	.56	3	2.40	.62	7
24.undertand trends of manpower supply and demand as well as vocational opportunities.	1.92	.67	17	2.07	.56	22	2.03	.71	25	1.85	.68	25	2.04	.66	19
25.analyze the possiblity to re-take college entrance examination (if fail on first trial).	1.91	.67	20	2.03	.48	25	2.01	.62	26	1.91	.69	21	2.02	.65	20
26.undertand regulations about going abroad for education.	1.86	.72	25	2.05	.64	24	1.95	.72	27	1.84	.66	27	1.83	.65	27
27.obtain information on various employment examination.	1.87	.68	24	1.85	.61	28	1.94	.57	29	1.66	.63	30	1.73	.65	29
28.obtain information on vocational training.	1.76	.67	29	1.76	.62	30	1.91	.75	30	1.70	.67	29	1.72	.66	30
29.undertand ways of choosing vocation and application procedures.	1.85	.67	*26	1.81	.62	29	1.95	.62	28	1.81	.67	28	1.82	.69	28
30.learn methods of social adaptation and adjustment.	1.92	.65	18	2.06	.63	23	2.16	.61	19	1.87	.57	24	1.95	.59	24

* ties in rank. **three-point scale with 3 as the most needed.

Table 2 Degree of Benefits from Career Guidance Services

ITEMS	students (N=2033)			Dean of Study (N=82)			Dean of Students (N=72)			counselors (N=88)			teachers (N=186)		
	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK
Help students:															
1.aware of necessity of career planning and preparation.	2.07	.59	16	2.21	.45	23	2.22	.49	25	2.16	.45	18	2.28	.51	17
2.learn to explore their career alternatives.	2.17	.63	12	2.29	.49	18	2.34	.48	19	2.25	.49	15	2.31	.48	14
3.evaluate their abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality.	2.29	.61	8	2.46	.53	10	2.52	.53	9	2.52	.50	6	2.45	.54	10
4.Develop students' career decision making abilities.	2.05	.65	19	2.28	.49	20	2.31	.50	21	2.12	.49	21	2.28	.54	18
5.understand social influences on their future career.	2.03	.67	20	2.29	.52	19	2.35	.48	17	2.11	.53	23	2.20	.51	24
6.analyze factors that help/hinder their career development.	2.02	.69	21	2.22	.46	22	2.34	.48	20	2.03	.59	28	2.24	.54	19
7.learn how to converse with their parents for career planning.	1.81	.69	29	2.23	.58	21	2.23	.57	*23	2.13	.46	20	2.17	.52	26
8.deal with conflicts with parents on their career decisions.	1.92	.70	*26	2.19	.55	25	2.35	.55	18	2.17	.47	17	2.19	.56	25
9.make plans for their career.	2.00	.66	23	2.34	.54	16	2.25	.51	22	2.06	.54	27	2.22	.53	21
10.understand senior high school education's objectives, courses, and their relations with career development.	2.19	.66	11	2.65	.48	4	2.58	.50	7	2.29	.56	14	2.35	.57	11
11.understand relations between academic aptitudes (including school achievement) and their career when entering college.	2.34	.61	4	2.59	.52	5	2.63	.52	4	2.52	.55	7	2.49	.55	6
12.undertand educational alternatives after graduation.	2.40	.63	2	2.69	.46	2	2.79	.44	2	2.61	.52	3	2.50	.55	5
13.undertand vocational alternatiives after graduation.	2.17	.69	13	2.44	.53	12	2.41	.62	15	2.31	.64	13	2.32	.58	12
14.undertand alumnus' career development status.	2.06	.70	17	2.36	.54	15	2.44	.61	13	2.43	.53	11	2.29	.50	15
15.analyze their possibility staying in senior high school (or turning to other type of high school.)	2.01	.75	22	2.34	.51	17	2.43	.53	14	2.23	.59	16	2.29	.64	16
16.undertand factors that should be considered for choosing educational tracks in second semister in the first year.	2.42	.63	1	2.72	.45	1	2.65	.51	3	2.68	.52	1	2.65	.49	1
17.undertand various tracks and their relations with career development.	2.32	.64	*5	2.57	.50	6	2.46	.53	12	2.40	.56	12	2.51	.55	4
18.choose track based on their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and personality.	2.39	.65	3	2.57	.53	7	2.61	.52	5	2.61	.54	4	2.54	.56	3
19.undertand regulations about changing tracks and make decisions for necessary change in the second year.	2.12	.67	14	2.38	.52	14	2.47	.53	11	2.45	.60	9	2.32	.60	13
20.obtain information about college and other alternatives.	2.31	.66	7	2.67	.47	3	2.81	.39	1	2.67	.47	2	2.58	.53	2
21.undertand relations of entering college and their future career	2.25	.65	10	2.46	.56	11	2.58	.50	8	2.44	.52	10	2.47	.51	7
22.undertand factors that should be considered in choosing college majors.	2.28	.65	9	2.55	.50	8	2.52	.53	10	2.48	.53	8	2.46	.54	8
23.choose college majors based on their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and personalities.	2.32	.67	*5	2.54	.50	9	2.61	.52	6	2.55	.50	5	2.46	.54	9
24.undertand trends of manpower supply and demand as well as vocational opportunities.	2.06	.71	18	2.15	.47	27	2.23	.58	*23	2.09	.55	26	2.23	.52	20
25.analyze the possiblity to re-take college entrance examination (if fail on first trial).	1.99	.73	24	2.20	.48	24	2.17	.46	27	2.10	.59	25	2.22	.55	22
26.undertand regulations about going abroad for education.	1.92	.73	*26	2.11	.56	28	2.21	.56	26	2.12	.49	22	1.97	.58	29
27.obtain information on various employment examination.	1.92	.73	*26	2.06	.52	29	2.10	.63	*28	1.91	.60	30	1.99	.59	*27
28.obtain information on vocational training.	1.80	.70	30	2.02	.56	30	2.10	.67	*28	2.00	.59	29	1.95	.63	30
29.undertand ways of choosing vocation and application procedures.	1.95	.72	25	2.17	.52	26	2.10	.63	*28	2.11	.57	24	1.99	.58	*27
30.learn methods of social adaptation and adjustment.	2.10	.70	15	2.39	.49	13	2.41	.53	16	2.15	.44	19	2.22	.56	23

* ties in rank. **three-point scale with 3 as the most needed.

Table 3 Degrees of Neededness on Career Guidance Services

ITEMS	students (N=2033)			counselors (N=88)			teachers (N=186)		
	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK	M	SD	RK
Help students:									
1.aware of necessity of career planning and preparation.	3.23	.69	14	3.56	.52	*10	3.47	.53	12
2.learn to explore their career alternatives.	3.37	.69	10	3.63	.51	*8	3.52	.54	*10
3.evaluate their abilities, aptitudes, interests and personality.	3.46	.68	6	3.75	.44	*3	3.63	.52	3
4.Develop students' career decision making abilities.	3.20	.73	16	3.48	.57	13	3.37	.62	15
5.understand social influences on their future career.	3.14	.75	17	3.41	.62	16	3.35	.58	17
6.analyze factors that help/hinder their career development.	3.11	.77	20	3.30	.63	19	3.38	.59	14
7.learn how to converse with their parents for career planning.	2.97	.80	27	3.26	.60	24	3.31	.63	20
8.deal with conflicts with parents on their career decisions.	3.12	.79	18	3.32	.60	18	3.39	.61	13
9.make plans for their career.	3.11	.80	21	3.46	.59	14	3.28	.70	23
10.understand senior high school education's objectives, courses, and their relations with career development.	3.08	.84	22	3.34	.63	17	3.31	.64	21
11.understand relations between academic aptitudes (including school achievement) and their career when entering college.	3.38	.72	9	3.56	.60	*10	3.54	.55	8
12.undertand educational alternatives after graduation.	3.52	.67	*3	3.56	.59	*10	3.60	.55	*5
13.undertand vocational alternatiives after graduation.	3.32	.78	12	3.29	.76	20	3.35	.74	18
14.undertand alumnus' career development status.	2.99	.87	25	3.21	.75	25	3.21	.71	25
15.analyze their possibility staying in senior high school (or turning to other type of high school.)	2.88	.95	29	3.28	.74	21	3.36	.75	16
16.undertand factors that should be considered for choosing educational tracks in second semister in the first year.	3.53	.70	2	3.78	.52	1	3.76	.44	1
17.undertand various tracks and their relations with career development.	3.43	.70	8	3.72	.48	5	3.61	.52	4
18.choose track based on their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and personality.	3.52	.67	*3	3.76	.45	2	3.64	.53	2
19.undertand regulations about changing tracks and make decisions for necessary change in the second year.	3.08	.79	23	3.44	.57	15	3.33	.64	19
20.obtain information about college and other alternatives.	3.34	.76	11	3.69	.56	6	3.56	.58	7
21.undertand relations of entering college and their future career	3.45	.67	7	3.63	.53	*8	3.52	.57	*10
22.undertand factors that should be considered in choosing college majors.	3.48	.67	5	3.65	.50	7	3.53	.54	9
23.choose college majors based on their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and personalities.	3.55	.65	1	3.75	.46	*3	3.60	.55	*5
24.undertand trends of manpower supply and demand as well as vocational opportunities.	3.22	.77	15	3.27	.66	22	3.29	.65	22
25.analyze the possiblity to re-take college entrance examination (if fail on first trial).	3.00	.87	24	3.06	.60	26	3.07	.77	26
26.undertand regulations about going abroad for education.	2.89	.85	28	2.81	.70	30	2.72	.76	30
27.obtain information on various employment examination.	2.99	.84	26	2.83	.76	29	2.84	.77	28
28.obtain information on vocational training.	2.83	.84	30	2.98	.64	27	2.80	.77	29
29.undertand ways of choosing vocation and application procedures.	3.12	.82	19	2.96	.74	28	2.98	.73	27
30.learn methods of social adaptation and adjustment.	3.32	.76	13	3.27	.63	23	3.28	.69	24

* ties in rank. **four-point scale with 4 as the most needed.

BEHIND THE CLASSROOM DOOR: A STUDY OF LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND SELF ESTEEM

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BEHIND THE CLASSROOM DOOR: A STUDY OF LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND SELF ESTEEM

INTRODUCTION

School life is a series of transitions, a major one being from primary to secondary school. This study investigated the classroom learning environment and self esteem of eleven- to twelve-year-old students in a primary school and thirteen- to fourteen-year-old students in a secondary school to find out more about this transition. In both the U.K and the U.S., attention had been focused on the middle grades, the problems of young adolescence and helping students to make the transition to middle and high schools (Dorman, 1987; MacIver, 1990; O'Dell & Eisenberg, 1989; Weldy, 1990). Such studies were mainly descriptive, considering the problems of transition from elementary to secondary school and suggesting programs to support students in making the transitions successfully. They focused on students with problems.

This study in 2 schools examined the perceptions of primary and secondary students on their classroom environment as well as their self esteem to find out how students in general, feel about the transition. Batten and Gerling-Butcher (1981) showed that students' perceptions of their school social climate can provide an insight into the quality of their school life. In addition, Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer & Wisenbaker (1979) pointed out that such perceptions might yield useful information on the social climate of the schools and its relation to academic self esteem.

Two instruments were identified for the study: the Class Environment Scale (CES), developed by Moos and Tricket (1974) and CooperSmith's (1981) Self Esteem Inventory (SEI). The CES assesses the social climate of classrooms, focusing on student-student and student-teacher relationships, as well as the organizational structure of the classroom. Environment is defined in terms of the shared perceptions of the students in the classroom. Self esteem is concerned with people's perceptions and evaluations of their self image. It is thus a set of attitudes and beliefs that people bring with them when they face the world. The SEI measures these evaluative attitudes toward self in social, academic, family and personal areas of experience. It was partly derived from CooperSmith's earlier study on the antecedents and consequences of self esteem (CooperSmith, 1967).

The study also included a naturalistic inquiry component, where a small group of students from each school was interviewed to allow students to clarify their thoughts and views on the perceptions given in the two instruments, to consider the problems of transition and to give suggestions on how to prepare for the transition.

METHOD

Instrument

The Classroom Environment Scale (CES) has 9 subscales, listed in Table 1. There are 10 items in the True-False response format for each subscale. The 9 subscales of the CES provide coverage of 3 basic dimensions. The Relationship Dimension identifies the

intensity of personal relationships, student-student and student-teacher relationship, within the classroom. The Personal Growth Dimension examines basic directions on which self-enhancement occur. The System Maintenance and Change Dimension considers the extent to which the classroom environment is orderly, clear in expectations and responsive to change (Moos & Trickett, 1974). In the manual, the CES subscales are reported to have adequate internal consistency (ranging from 0.67 to 0.86) and good six-week test-retest reliability (ranging from 0.72 to 0.89). The CES has proved to be suitable for study of Singapore classrooms (Tajuddin, 1985).

The Self Esteem Inventory (SEI) has 4 subscales, listed in Table 2, and a total of 50 simple self-descriptive statements in a two-response alternatives (like me / unlike me) format. There is an additional Lie subscale of 8 items. The SEI appeared to be well accepted and validated measure of self esteem. The manual reported reliability studies on the SEI (Kimball, 1973; Spatz & Johnson, 1973), which obtained consistency estimates, ranging from 0.81 to 0.92. Construct validity for the SEI was reported by Kokenes (1978).

The students' perceptions of their self esteem and their learning environment, given by the two instruments, provided an insight into the quality of school life. Interview sessions with two groups of about 8 students from each school helped to clarify and elaborate on perceptions given in the study. Students also considered the problems of transition and gave suggestions on how to prepare for the transition. These interview sessions were then transcribed and their contents were analyzed.

Sample

The two school selected for the study were average schools in Singapore with students from a lower to middle socio-economic background and a mix of ethnic Chinese, Malay and Indian students. The sample was made up of 4 classes of 162 eleven- to twelve-year-old Primary 5 (the equivalent of Grade 5) students and 4 classes of 119 thirteen- to fourteen-year-old Secondary 2 students (the equivalent of Grade 7). It consisted of 51% males and 49% females.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This study combined the use of quantitative analysis and naturalistic inquiry. The variables of the study were the subscales of the classroom environment instrument, CES1 to CES9 and the subscales of the self esteem inventory, SEI1 to SEI4. The means and standard deviation of the variables for each of the levels, primary and secondary, are in Table 1 (CES subscales) and Table 2 (SEI subscales). Generally, the means of the CES subscales of the secondary pupils were lower than that of the primary pupils and had higher variability. The t-test comparison of the means of these subscales indicated significant differences between the two groups for all the subscales except task orientation and rule clarity.

Insert Table 1 about here

Primary students appeared to perceive their classrooms as having significantly better involvement, affiliation and teacher support. They also perceived more competition, order and organization and teacher control in their classrooms. In the primary school, a class teacher would handle most of the subjects and could bring about a better relationship dimension in the classroom environment while in a secondary school, the class would be facing a bewildering number of subject teachers. Primary classrooms had a better system maintenance dimension as teachers tend to be stricter with their students. The primary 5 students had to sit for a major primary school leaving examination at the end of the next year and thus would feel more competition. It would appear that the secondary 2 students have yet to adapt to the environment of a secondary classroom.

Insert Table 2 about here

The means and standard deviation of the SEI subscales in Table 2 only showed significant differences students in the academic subscale, SE3 and in the lie subscale, SE5. Primary students had significantly higher self esteem. This was in line with what Galluzi, Kirby and Zucker (1980) found, that students' concepts of themselves and others were more positive in classes with greater involvement, affiliation and teacher support. One disconcerting fact was that the primary students' mean scores in the lie scale was significantly higher than that of the secondary students. Primary students could be trying to respond defensively or trying to respond "positively" to the items to give a good impression. However since their mean for the Lie scale was quite low, it would appear to be acceptable.

Insert Table 3 about here

The relationship between the environment and self esteem subscales were examined. Table 3, which showed the Pearson product-moment correlations among the subscales, demonstrated fairly moderate positive relationships between the 3 CES subscales of the relationship dimension and the academic and general self esteem subscales. This supported the finding that students with higher self esteem responded positively in classrooms with better student-student and student-teacher relationships. It was not surprising that the academic self esteem subscale also correlated positively with the innovative environment subscale. However, the two self esteem subscales also correlated positively with the order and organization subscale.

The above investigation demonstrated that the learning environment and academic self esteem of Primary 5 students were significantly better that of Secondary 2 students. The way in which the classroom climate was developed in the two schools could not be answered fully by statistical analysis. There was a need to go into naturalistic inquiry to gather more information from the students. Two groups of 8 students each were interviewed from each of the schools.

In terms of the relationship dimension of the classroom environment, the secondary 2 students felt that they did not know their classmates well partly because they no longer

played games together in a secondary; in addition, there were cliques.

> "In primary school, we know each other well by playing games, so it's easier to get along but in secondary school, your classmates are one side with their group; you can't play games in a secondary school."
> "People make fun of you; sometimes, like, people play jokes on you. Sometimes, you maybe, like, matured and you want to study and you don't want to mix around much. Nobody wants to come to talk to you, when you really want to talk to somebody."

Primary pupils had known most of their classmates for four to five years and had "best friends". they felt they treated each other nicely. The comments by the primary and secondary students supported Ahola and Isherwood's (1981) views that the primary school provided opportunities for students to build and maintain friendship ties; students developed intimate and extensive friendship ties within their schools. With a familiar and supportive environment in a primary school, it was not surprising that primary pupils were a little apprehensive about making new friends in a secondary school:

> "Our old friends and us will be separated; we'll go to different secondary schools."
> "I can't trust anyone except my best friend."
> "Maybe you say hello to a person and the person just turns away. This will not happen in a primary school."

The secondary students would interact mainly in segregated gender groups. The boys and girls are in the same class but they were too shy to interact with each other, unless necessary. They claimed they were not in the awkward adolescent stage, however their body language and mannerisms during the interview demonstrated that they were. Some students felt isolated and were not confident enough to speak up in class. Their answers reflected the loneliness and confusion of teenagers.

> "People are more matured and so you find the difference. You may agree with certain things but people may not agree with you"
> "We are afraid of speaking up in class because our friends will laugh at us behind our backs."
> "I talk to my sister when I have problems; she understands, she's been through what you have been through."

Where teachers are concerned, a couple of primary students felt they were able to talk to their teachers. Some of the secondary students claimed that their primary teachers were friendly:

> "I can talk to my teacher like a friend"
> "In primary school, the teachers seemed to be our friends, guide us; they will come, get close to us ... teachers act like parents."

As for the personal growth dimension, primary students appeared pressurized by competition as they would have a major leaving examination at the end of their next year in school. In Singapore, entry to secondary schools was based on merit and most parents wanted their children to enter prestigious schools.

"In exams, must compete, because my mother wants me to go to Raffles."
"Maybe it's because our parents want us to go to a good school, so that we can get a good job later on."

Secondary students gave some pertinent comments on competition:

"Sometimes we go to these very good schools but we cannot cope with our studies but the teachers do not find this out; they just make you do it."
"Teachers may make you feel that you are not good enough because they want you to do better."

Primary students were more concerned with the problem of getting into what they considered to be very good schools, than the actual transition process itself. When asked on how primary teachers could help in the transition, one pupil suggested that teachers could continue teaching after the exams to prepare them academically for the secondary school. They also suggested going to look at the schools during the holidays, buying books etc; they were not aware of the problems of making new friends and of being able to adapt to the new school.

It would appear that primary schools have much to do in terms of preparing their pupils for the transition to the secondary school. O'Dell and Eisenberg (1989) suggested that primary schools can assist the students in terms of predictable transitions, so as to make the transition process less anxiety-laden, when the students actually experienced it. Most secondary schools in Singapore have short orientation sessions for their new secondary 1 students. A few schools used the buddy system to help their new students during the initial transition period.

CONCLUSION

This study had been conducted in only two schools. Its findings suggested a need for principals and teachers, both in the primary and secondary schools to prepare students for the crucial transition from primary to secondary school. In Singapore, as the "press" for scholastic achievement from a meritocratic society is great, it would appear that the teacher's "push" towards academic achievement had been transmitted to pupils. However teachers must realise that students need a conducive learning environment that will enhance their students' self esteem. There is a need to extend this study to more schools to investigate intensively the transition problems that secondary students faced. Schools that have good successful programs on helping new students should share them with other schools.

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TABLE 1 t-Tests between Schools on the Classroom Environment Scale (CES)

Variable	Mean/S.D.	Pri.	Sec.	t Test
Relationship Dimension				
CE1 Involvement	Mean	6.85	5.55	33.21***
	SD	1.76	2.02	
CE2 Affiliation	Mean	6.75	5.55	31.89***
	SD	1.69	1.86	
CE3 Teacher Support	Mean	5.91	4.95	20.54***
	SD	1.52	2.05	
Personal Growth Dimension				
CE4 Task Orientat.	Mean	6.47	6.73	2.08
	SD	1.57	1.46	
CE5 Competition	Mean	6.81	6.10	15.93***
	SD	1.53	1.39	
System and Change Dimension				
CE6 Order & Organ.	Mean	6.17	4.66	44.43***
99	SD	1.78	2.01	
CE7 Rule Clarity	Mean	6.65	6.29	2.84
	SD	1.59	1.96	
CE8 Teacher Control	Mean	6.26	5.66	9.16**
	SD	1.47	1.82	
CE9 Innovation	Mean	4.40	3.71	13.8***
	SD	1.62	1.43	
TOT_CE CES Scale	Mean	55.56	49.92	
	SD	8.22	8.29	

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$
*** $p < 0.0001$

TABLE 2 t-Tests between Schools on the Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory (SEI)

Variable	Mean/S.D.	Pri.	Sec.	t Test
SE1 Social Self	Mean	3.82	4.03	1.67
	SD	1.33	1.27	
SE2 Home/Parents	Mean	4.53	4.50	0.03
	SD	1.45	1.64	
SE3 Academic	Mean	5.20	4.53	15.58***
	SD	1.37	1.47	
SE4 General Self	Mean	15.15	14.47	2.49
	SD	3.43	3.80	
SE5 Lie Scale	Mean	3.28	2.09	38.08***
	SD	1.68	1.46	
TOT_SE SEI Scale	Mean	28.12	26.96	3.04
	SD	5.33	5.81	

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$
*** $p < 0.0001$

TABLE 3 Intercorrelation matrix between the variables the Classroom Environment and the variables of the Self Esteem Scale

	CE1	CE2	CE3	CE4	CE5	CE6	CE7	CE8	CE9	TOT_CE	SE1	SE2	SE3	SE4
CE1 Involvement														
CE2 Affiliation	50													
CE3 Teacher Support	50	33												
CE4 Task Orientation	16	22	23											
CE5 Competition	08	10	15	32										
CE6 Order & Organ.	54	42	41	23	11									
CE7 Rule Clarity	34	25	40	28	27	31								
CE8 Teacher Control	-02	04	-04	20	01	07	08							
CE9 Innovation	23	25	20	06	04	22	17	-05						
TOT_CE CES Scale	72	65	63	48	39	71	63	25	43					
SE1 Social Self	-01	05	-03	08	-04	05	04	-06	11	03				
SE2 Home/Parents	19	19	17	04	-06	16	02	-11	13	16	16			
SE3 Academic	28	24	24	10	-08	34	15	04	24	33	20	34		
SE4 General	26	23	14	10	-03	25	14	-10	15	25	19	48	41	
TOT_SE SE Scale	29	27	19	12	-06	30	13	-10	21	29	44	67	64	88

Note : Decimal Points are omitted

Title: **STOP THINK DO: Motivation for Learning**

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Over the past 18 years, my experiences as a child and family psychologist have convinced me that there are three major factors effecting children's happiness and well-being. These include

* their relationship with their parents
* their relationship with their peers
* their ability to learn in the school setting.

In my practice, I am referred children with problems in these areas. Together with my colleagues at the Adelaide Children's Hospital, I have developed a programme to address the first two areas of stress for children. The programme is called STOP THINK DO and aims to improve children's family and peer relations by teaching social skills and attitudes for inside and outside the home.

Essentially, people learn to STOP and THINK before they DO anything when they have problems with other people.
In practice, this is achieved by STOPPING to listen to other people, understanding their feelings, talking positively and respectfully to them, keeping calm and clear THINKING, and taking responsibility for DOING something about problems.

Children learn to use these skills when relating with other children, and adults learn the same skills and problem solving process to use when they are relating with their children, even when they are dealing with misbehaviour. Through this democratic method of behaviour management, the parent-child relationship is preserved by respectfully communicating and sharing responsibility for resolving issues which effect both parent and child.

The learning relationship

While the STOP THINK DO model was developed for improving social skills and relationships for children, I have found it very useful for dealing with the third mentioned problem area affecting children's happiness; namely, difficulty learning in a classroom. Since the STOP THINK DO method applies to any situation which involves people relating, it is relevant in the teacher-learner, and learner- learner situation which characterizes the school classroom.

There are a number of factors within these learning relationships which may effect a child's learning, and thereby his happiness and

general well-being. For simplicity, I shall refer to the child in my discussions as 'he' since I seem to see many more boys than girls for assessment and advice.

A child's learning in a classroom is effected by aspects within the child himself. He may have intellectual disabilities, specific difficulties with reading, spelling or numbers, attention deficits, memory problems, or perceptual and motor problems. In other cases, problems with learning relate to imbalances in the various developmental areas, like his intellectual, academic, physical, emotional or social maturity. For instance, he may be intellectually gifted with no specific learning difficulties, but be underachieving academically due to emotional immaturity, or even a more pervasive personality disorder. Although these aspects are particular to the child himself, they impinge variously on teachers and fellow learners, and effect the quality of learning relationships for the child.

A child's difficulty learning in a classroom may also relate to problems outside of himself for example, the emotional tone and social climate within the classroom, the physical and interpersonal milieu of the learning environment. If he is be preoccupied with these issues, his attention to work and motivation to achieve in that context will be necessarily effected.

The motivational process

In essence, this paper offers a method for motivating any child's learning in any situation. The method provides a framework into which any teaching programme may be fitted, regardless of its content or purpose. It may be a remedial programme for children with learning difficulties, an extension programme for more able learners, or a general maths, language or writing programme for the "average" child.

The method takes account of the basic principles of motivation namely, that people want to learn what interests them and what they consider of value to them. The way to make learning interesting and valuable is to involve the learner in choosing, planning and actively committing himself to it. He then feels some degree of power and control in the situation and hence, is more likely to feel some responsibility to see it through. He has an emotional, cognitive and behavioural commitment to his progress. Moreover, when goals are set and achieved, his self-esteem and confidence is enhanced, providing the impetus or motivation for further goal achievement and thus, sustained learning.

Whether the aim is the achievement of social-relating or learning-relating goals, motivation grows by the same process. It proceeds from the realization that "I can", the actualization that "I do", and

the feedback from others that " You do O.K.". To this end, the STOP THINK DO motivational process represents a blueprint for happiness in children's social and learning relationships.

Applying the STOP THINK DO model to motivate learning

An understanding of the psychological workings of the child is valuable for motivating learning, just as it is generally useful to lift the bonnet on the car to improve its performance. When a child is experiencing difficulties, psychologists are often consulted to provide additional expertise or fine-tuning for the teacher or parent. Ideally, a psychological assessment includes the following

- developmental strengths and weaknesses
- intellectual or cognitive potential
- concentration, attention span and memory factors
- academic achievement levels
- emotional status and personality factors including self concept, confidence and motivation
- social status in classroom and schoolyard

The STOP THINK DO model requires the child to accept more responsibility for his problems and become an active partner in his own remediation. One way of helping him understand the nature of his difficulties is to describe his assessment results to him with a degree of sophistication suitable for his age and maturity. He needs to be clear about what the problem is if he is to change it. Then he can relate the learning problem to specific areas of weakness rather than seeing himself as just a bad or dumb or lazy person.

There are often arguments put forward against assessments of individual children because they identify problems in the child or label the child, and this may make him feel worse. However in my experience, children feel much worse when they know they have a problem compared with their mates, they don't know exactly what the problem is, yet they are still directly or indirectly labelled dumb, immature, lazy or naughty.

In short, a good assessment achieves objective fine-tuning of the problem which can be used to make specific plans of action. The child's relative strengths and weaknesses are discussed directly with the child, with the amount of detail determined by his age and maturity.

I use the STOP THINK DO format for discussion with the child, and also with his parents and teachers. A traffic light cue is useful to define the steps. STOP is signalled by the red light, THINK by the yellow light, and DO by the green light. Coloured stick-on circles

available from newsagencies are useful to draw up STOP THINK DO plans for children after assessments.

The steps are as follows

STOP **Clarify the problem**

Mark on a scale his relative strengths and weaknesses in mental age levels and discuss.

Identify the child's feelings

Reflect the child's apparent feelings about his areas of strength and weakness, or empathize with him
e.g."I can imagine how frustrating it is when you can draw so well but you have trouble writing." Or, "You like Drama and you're good at it, but you feel like giving up on Maths".

It is always possible to find a child's relative strengths, even if he is very low functioning generally. Bright children also have relative highs and lows, and the same method may be used to describe them, regardless of absolute scores obtained.

Define goals

Ask the child what he wants to do about the problem, and what he really wants to achieve. Even if he chooses low priority goals from the adults viewpoint, it is important to really listen to his choices since he is more likely to be actively committed to them.

THINK **Consider solutions and likely consequences**

Discuss what things the child can do to achieve his goals; and what will be the likely consequences of these strategies.

Children usually do not realize that there are a number of things they could try. They are likely to believe that there is one right answer to school learning, or to their particular problem - and they don't have it.

Some ideas will have more acceptable consequences than others, but as many as possible should be discussed, again depending on the child's maturity. Alternative plans of action might include

- change classes or schools
- truant or leave school
- join a remedial group at school
- private tutoring
- a self-talk, self-monitoring plan for improving concentration, memory or organization
- a specific programme for the weak area e.g. 'learn a word a day by sight' for reading and spelling problems
- a meeting at school with parents and teachers
- a specialist assessment of weak area e.g. speech, physio or occupational therapy, vision or hearing assessment, paediatric or neurological opinion
- dietary or medical management
- physical modification of the classroom e.g. seating arrangements, reducing distractibility, providing visual cues

DO **Choose a plan of action**

Encourage the child to choose one or two 'tricks' to try initially. Let him know that you will be discussing the plan of action with parents and teachers, or invite him to join the discussion if he is in senior school.

Follow up

Review the plan with the child, his parents and teachers. If things are not working try other 'tricks' i.e. go back to STOP and THINK again about another plan to DO. There is no failure in this method since there are no right answers, just millions of answers.

By increasing the child's awareness of his own relative strengths and weaknesses, and by enlisting his active participation in planning what to do about them, the child is more committed himself to take responsibility for his learning. Moreover, he also feels more power and control in the situation. Surely the basis for motivation is feeling empowered, confident and responsible ("I can and I do") in an atmosphere of positive encouragement ("You are doing O.K.").

This atmosphere is fostered by actively involving parents and teachers in the STOP THINK DO plan devised with the child. Their support is particularly required to bring about changes in aspects outside of the child's control.

Changes of schools, classrooms or seats, the provision of remedial services, attendance at specialist appointments and the like cannot be completely decided upon and implemented by the child. However, the decision to choose these options if they are acceptable and possible for parents or teachers should involve the child. The child's motivation for learning is enhanced by the cooperative encouragement of home and school.

Mood Disorders and its Impact on Learning.

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The three main mood disorders that are affecting the learning environment of the child in the classroom seem to be Depression, Attention Deficit Disorder (with and without hyperactivity) and Anxiety. The DSM III-R categorizes Attention Deficit Disorder as a Developmental Disorder, yet, as clinicians, we have found that the symptoms of this disorder affect and influence the mood of the child in any learning environment.

Parents have a difficult time admitting that their child is suffering from a mood disorder since this is guilt provoking thought to most. As a result, many of these children are not going to be seen walking into a Community Mental Health Center to be diagnosed and treated. According to Kashani JH, et al, 13% of children brought in to Community Mental Health settings were diagnosed as having a major depressive disorder (Kashani JH, Cantwell DP, Shekim WO, et al: Major Depressive Disorder in Children Admitted to an Inpatient Community Mental Health Center. Am J Psychiatry 139:671-672, 1982). Yet, in a study by Weinberg D., 53% of children who were seen in Educational Diagnostic Centers were treated for depression (Weinberg WA, Rutman J, Sullivan L, et al: Depression in Children Referred to an Educational Diagnostic Center: Diagnosis and Treatment. Behavioral Pediatrics 83:1065-1072, 1973). This is indicative of the fact that parents do have a difficult time admitting their child's struggle with their mood disorder. They are apprehensive in taking them to a mental health center and are more likely to seek treatment from an educational center, since it is more appealing (and less threatening) to see their child as having a learning deficit, something that can be treated with remedial teaching methods, rather than a mood disorder—a mental "disease."

The provisions that need to be made for these children in the learning environment are similar for all three mood disorders. Initially we will look at the symptomatology of these disorders and then at the treatment model for the learning environment.

Diagnostic Criteria - Attention Deficit Disorder

Judged by *intensity*, *persistence* and *patterning* of behavior and moods. Behaviors should have onset before AGE 7 (even though the diagnosis may be made later) and have lasted 6 months during that period. Of the DSM-III-R criteria, 8 symptoms must be present for definite diagnosis. The criteria here are a superset of the DSM-III-R and have been arranged according to cognitive and

sensory systems affected. Criteria similar to DSM III-R are marked by a star (☆). The DSM-III-R requires that one manifest 8 of the total list to establish the diagnosis. In practice we find that there are subtle variations in these symptoms as will be seen below.

1. VISUAL PERCEPTION DISABILITY
    - Word reversal such as "saw" and "was"
    - Problems judging distance may be accident prone
    - Tend to have "flat sight" instead of "3-D", so does not have depth perception
2. AUDITORY PERCEPTION DISABILITY
    - May hear "blew" as "blow"
    - Tend to have auditory depth perception problem
    - Also may have auditory lag
3. INTEGRATION DISABILITY
    - Events may not be in sequence. Child may be accused of lying.
4. MEMORY DISABILITIES ☆
    - ADD child may have good long term memory but problems with short term memory.
    - Loses track of things, loses important items, messy, disorganized.
5. ORAL LANGUAGE DIFFICULTY ☆
    - Good at spontaneous language.Poor at command response: "Where is your Mom?" Brain takes time to decode.May be talkative in class. May develop stalling method to cover their ADD traits: "Huh?"
    - Interrupts or controls dialogues.
    - Talks too much and/or too loud.
6. DIFFICULTIES IN MOTOR CONTROL COORDINATION
    - Handwriting may be poor. Also avoids activities that need fine motor coordination.
7. DISTRACTIBILITY ☆
    - There is environmental distraction (visual and auditory), as well as the child can often get distracted by their own thoughts.
8. HYPERACTIVITY ☆
    - The baby may have been very active in the womb during pregnancy
    - The child seemed to learn to run before walking
    - Is the child constantly fidgeting/squirming?
    - A child may continually chew on his collar or shirt, pick at scabs or chew his fingernails.

9. EMOTIONAL DISABILITIES
   - Child manifests emotional dyscontrol, either *externalizing* behaviors such as aggressiveness, fighting, impulsively striking out or talks about fighting.
   - Or the child may *internalize* his feelings: "I'm not loved or worthwhile", "I'm really bad." Child may be shy.
   - Avoids projects he feels he might fail.

10. SOCIAL DISABILITY.
   - Has lack of insight. Poor social skills. Difficulty following conversations because mind is so distractible. Difficulty getting along with other children. Acquires controlling behaviors.

11. IMPULSIVITY ☆
   - There is a high level of risk taking that goes on and on.
   - These children act without thinking.
   - They may lie and swear with no thought of consequences.
   - Difficulty waiting for things.

12. PHYSICAL PROBLEMS AND COMPLAINTS
   - Enuresis and encopresis are common.
   - Sleep disorders and nightmares are common.
   - Psychosomatic symptoms: headaches, stomachaches.

13. IMMATURITY
   - Prefer to play with or plays better with younger children.
   - Avoids activities using fine motor skills. Prefer activities such as running, climbing, kicking using large motor skills.
   - Rigid in behavior - does not tolerate change well (changing the furniture around in rooms, surprise parties).
   - Unaware of how behavior affects others.

14. PERFORMANCE INCONSISTENCY
   - Test results are inconsistent because child varies from day to day because impulsivity plays a part.
   - Never assign an ADD child sequence jobs all at once. "Take out the garbage and then clean the fridge and then clean the garage." He panics because he can't process the messages.

15. COGNITIVE FATIGUE
   - These children yawn and tire very easily. Their energy level peaks in the morning when the Dopamine level is highest and they tire by afternoon.

16. DRUG/ALCOHOL HISTORY
    - Alcohol use could be a form of self medicating process for ADD. When interviewing the family, ask if there has been a history of alcohol abuse or use.
    - Alcohol may help an ADD person to concentrate. One adolescent began drinking a can of beer before school. He said, "I found out that if I drink a can of beer in the morning, I can concentrate and pay attention to the teacher."

Diagnostic Criteria - Depression

Also taken from the DSM-III-R, five of the following symptoms must be present including either one of the first two for at least two weeks. Other forms of depression such as Dysthymia (milder depression that has been on going in a child for a year or more) and Bipolar (depression with alternating elation-depression cycles) have some of the overlapping ingredients of the following symptoms.

1. Depressed, sad, anxious, empty, irritable, restlessness
   Children tend to exhibit a sense of being in a "blue mood" and act short tempered with their peers. They tend to be ignored or left alone to their own miseries.
2. Diminished interest in pleasure
   They tend to lose interest in activities such as hobbies and games that once were pleasurable. Their inactivity especially in Dysthymic children can often times be misconstrued as low intelligence.
3. 5% weight gain or loss
   With the loss of pleasure, children often indulge in food and therefore over a period of time become overweight of tend to lose interest in food and lose weight. This can vary from season to season, and can often be see as Seasonal Affective Disorder.
4. Feelings of helplessness or inappropriate guilt
   Children will begin to act helpless in the classroom with a tremendous loss of self esteem. As it continues on for a period of time, hopelessness sets in. Also as they become aware of the effect their depression is having on the rest of the class or family, they begin to feel guilty and withdraw.
5. Insomnia, Hypersomnia, disturbed sleep
   Children tend to be tired part or most of the day partly because of oversleeping and partly because of disturbed diurnal rhythms. These children often will fall asleep in a classroom setting and their

energy level seems to be low, yet they can seem wide awake in the evening.

6. Psychomotor agitation/retardation

   Children, especially males can respond to depression in an aggressive, agitated fashion. They can oscillate between hyperactive behavior to that of psychomotor retardation. It is often important to know how their behavior was before the period of depression began. Adolescent girls can often be overtly flirtatious and boys can exhibit sudden outbursts of anger and aggression involving fighting.

7. Decreased energy, slowed down, fatigue

   Some children especially those with dysthymia will exhibit ongoing lower levels of energy and participation in a classroom setting. Their movements tend to be slower than other children in their age group and the child has difficulty keeping up with the teacher and the class as a whole.

8. Suicidal ideation

   Due to the ongoing feeling of hopelessness, children will begin to talk about wanting to die or wishing that they were dead. Some children will attempt to hurt themselves in masochistic behaviors of self-mutilation and injury. Drawings related to death can begin to become a point of obsession.

9. Difficulty concentrating

   Because of the slowing down effect depression has on the cognitive responses, the child often has difficulty paying attention or concentrating on a task for too long. This leads to difficulty in making decisions or responding to commands and demands at home and at school.

10. Persistent physical symptoms that do not respond to medical treatment. Children will begin to exhibit psychosomatic illness such as headaches, stomach pains, digestive disorders such as diarrhea as a result of their depression. This in turn creates absenteeism as well as difficulty staying on task in a school/learning environment. Pediatricians often will be sought out for initial treatment and when all else fails, counseling is seen as the final option.

Anxiety Provoking Events in Children

Anxiety disorders are quite prevalent in children. Many times the anxieties are simple phobias based on threats or losses that are real or imagined. These vary according to the developmental age of the child,

though some can persist in significance far into the future. The following table lists common targets of anxiety according to age and is adapted from: Treating Children's Fears and Phobias: A Behavioral Approach by R. Morris and T. Kratochwill.

0-12 months	Loss of support; strangers; sudden unexpected and looming objects.
1 year	Separation form parents; injury; strangers
2 year	Separation form parents; loud noises (vacuum cleaners, sirens/alarms, thunder) ; large animals; dark room; large objects/machines; change in environment; strange peers.
3 - 4 years	Separation form parents; masks; darkness
5 years	Separation form parents; "bad" people; bodily harm
6 years	Separation from parents; supernatural beings (ghosts, witches, Darth Vader); bodily injuries, thunder/lightning; sleeping/staying alone.
7-8 years	Separation from parents; supernatural beings bodily injuries; staying alone; media events (pictures of war, starving children, child kidnappings, realistic video—"Police Story")
9-12 years	Tests and examinations in school; school performance; bodily injury; physical appearance, death
Puberty - teens	Issues of sexuality, Physical Appearance; Social Performance; peer issues

Basic treatment Models:

1. Capitalization Model (empowering gifted areas)

The focus of treatment is to find the areas of activities that the child is still able to perform or have pleasure in, and encourage, support and develop these areas. This is particularly essential for children who have given up on themselves. Sometimes this could be as simple as playing catch with a ball, using dance related movements, art etc.

2. Security (self-esteem)

Finding and strengthening sources of support such as grandparents, religious leaders, a supportive teacher or even stabilizing the home situation or parental involvement can increase the child's self-esteem.

3. Social Skills Training

Using a prepackaged program such as "The Adolescent Coping With Depression Course" by Gregory Clarke Ph.D, Peter Lewinsohn, Ph.D., Hyman Hops, Ph.D. This is made up of the Leader's Manual and Student Workbook, (Obtainable from: Castalia Publishing Co., P.O.Box 1587, Eugene, OR 97440)

This program consists of 16 sessions of 2 hours each to be used over a 8 week period. Even though it is designed for ages 14-18 years old, the information can be adapted for younger children. Skills are taught to aid children in gaining control of their mood using some of the following lesson plans:

a. Learning how to relax.
b. Increasing pleasant activities.
c. Changing negative or irrational thinking patterns.
d. Communication and negotiation skills.
e. Problem-solving skills.
f. Improving social skills (e.g., "friendly skills").

4. Decision Making Skills

Training parents to gradually "let go" by teaching them how to set their children up to succeed in making decisions in everything from food preparation to money management in the "safe"environment of the home.

5. Creativity Encouragement Model

Helping the children to express their creativity in terms of writing, poetry, and arts and handicrafts. The teacher needs to be alert to the child's responses and address them as the "play therapy" progress.

6. Organizational Skills

Most children who are suffering from a mood disorder tend to be disorganized, either as an innate or acquired problem. Hence children need to be trained in ways to track and file homework, arrange their desk as well as organize their thoughts before responding.

Schools 2000: A Vision of Education Futures

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Introduction

The education reform movement of more than a decade peaked in the United States in the early 1990s, with the announcement of America 2000 (U.S. Department of Education, 1991) by the federal administration. Propelled by A Nation at Risk (U.S. Department of Education, 1983), the movement has generated considerable data collection and analysis, much dialogue, many publications, and many collaborative and other efforts directed at redesigning the inputs, the processes, and the products of American schools.

America 2000 (1991), an education strategy, concentrated on four developmental and positive themes: (a)creating better and more accountable schools for today's students; (b)creating a New Generation of American Schools for tomorrow's students; (c)transforming America into a Nation of Students; and (d)making our communities places where learning will happen. Four goals were identified:

1. Readiness for School: By the year 2000, all children in America will start school ready to learn.
2. High School Completion: By the year 2000, the high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%.
3. Student Achievement and Citizenship: By the year 2000, American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography; and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy.
4. Science and Mathematics: By the year 2000, U.S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics achievement.
5. Adult Literacy and Lifelong Learning: By the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Safe, Disciplined, and Drug-Free Schools: By the year 2000, every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

Each goal statement included explication; for example, under the first goal, reference was made to the inclusion of disadvantaged and disabled children, high quality and developmentally appropriate preschool programs, parent education and training, parent responsibility, nutrition and health care, and prenatal health systems.

This notable and ambitious pronouncement, which stressed the human being/human mind as the greatest national resource in the United States, was closely followed by the publication of Learning a Living: What Work Requires of Schools: SCANS Report for America 2000 (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991) and Transition from School to Work: Linking Education and Worksite Training (U.S.

General Accounting Office, 1991), and preceded by America's Choice: High Skills or Low Wages!: Report of the Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce (National Center on Education and the Economy, 1990). In general, these documents stressed the strong connection of education and work, and the contribution of education to the development of national economic productivity.

Forces Driving the Education Reform Movement

Various forces have been preeminent in driving the education reform movement: changes in demographics and social structures, values, and behaviors; the increased rapidity of change; the development of new technology, and movement from the Industrial Age to the Information/Knowledge Age; shifting conditions of economic productivity; changes in the workplace and in the home; shifts in international economics and commerce; and trends toward interdependent globalization and internationalization.

Social scientists and educators (American Association of School Administrators & National School Boards Association, 1991; Duckett, 1988; Education Vital Signs, 1990; Miller & Editors of Research Alert, 1992; Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Office of Education, 1988; Racial/Ethnic Diversity Confirmed in New Study, 1992; William T. Grant Foundation Commission on Work, Family, and Citizenship, 1988) have studied and analyzed the many situations, conditions, forces, and happenings which impact not only education but also the rest of American society today.

Futurists (Center, 1990; Cetron & Davies, 1989; Cetron & Gayle, 1990; Johnson, 1992; Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990; Snyder & Edwards, 1992; Toffler, 1990) have actively engaged, for education and other arenas, in (a)predicting possible futures from existing information, and (b)developing scenarios for creating alternative possible futures through identifying potential combinations and series of "what-if" and anticipated forces, conditions, situations, and events.

Certain information has been identified, and certain conclusions may be drawn, among them:

1. Although the United States has always been a pluralistic nation (Takabayashi, 1992), the country is becoming "more" pluralistic. The birth rate of Whites is declining, immigration from other-than-European countries is steadily increasing, the frequency and the variance of alternative lifestyles are increasing, and intergenerational differences in lifespans are widening, with concomitant changes in values, behaviors, and patterns of social organization. For instance, 6% of U.S. households are now comprised of the intact traditional family of four, and 50% of children are being reared by single parents (Duckett, 1992); one-half of the total population of 249 million reside in nine states, Hispanics are more geographically concentrated than Blacks, and Hispanics, Blacks, Native Americans, and Asians comprise one-fourth of the population (More Than a Question of Black and White, 1992); one in three Americans is expected to be other-than-White in the year 2000 (Reynolds, 1990). In 1990 teachers cited major student problems as teen pregnancy, drugs, suicide, and violence, in contrast to running in halls, chewing gum, and talking in class in 1940 (DiMarco, 1992); kindergarten teachers have identified 35% of children as not ready for school, with language proficiency the most deficient area (Boyer, 1991).

2. Life has generally become "better" throughout the ages (Reynolds, 1990). The "new rules," however, place emphasis on "doing more with less," with fewer material and external resources, with greater internal quality-of-life resources, and with more sharing of economic productivity among the countries of the world (Yankelovich, 1981). A "powershift" based on knowledge, wealth, and violence is occurring, with alternating world power and economic leadership and dominance to be expected (Toffler, 1990).

3. In the year 2000 the workforce is anticipated to be 15% aged 18-24, 40% 25-44, and 33% 45-64; one-half of the labor force will be in the information industry, and 85% will be in the service sector (Reynolds, 1990). Statistics such as these abound about the workforce and the workplace, although they do not always agree. Clearly technology, invention, and the Age of Information are "in," along with downsizing, rightsizing, reorganization, and restructuring. Direct linkages between school and work are being drawn; training and retraining of employed workers are being emphasized (Congress of the United States Office of Technology Assessment, 1990). Invention is creating the once-thought-impossible, such as the wireless computer (Gifford, 1990), pills that

improve the memory by 400%, voice-recognition computer systems, the wristwatch-mounted computer that translates from English to any foreign language (Reynolds, 1990), and the inscription of an entire encyclopedia on an object the size of a pinhead. Social invention continues as well, for example, the identification of ways to develop multicultural awareness (Pedersen, 1988), the creation of networks (which, incidentally, may be identified with at least 32 different nomenclatures) (Kaplan & Usdan, 1992), and the development of new support and leadership roles for voluntary, community, interest, trade, and professional associations (Snyder & Edwards, 1992).

4. The school is conceptualized as the place for education (translation="book learning"), but is increasingly operationalized as the place where the ills (and benefits) of society are incorporated and/or mirrored. The "fix-it-all-at-school" attitude is common, without matching resources, and without collective community ownership and responsibility for the problems that keep children from coming first (DiMarco, 1992). The resolution of the e pluribus unum question (a nation of one from many, or many from one; one, a blend of many, or a super-subordinate or co-existence of differentiated groups) (Black and White in America, 1991) may partially reside in the resolution of school futures; for example, offerings of monolingualism, bilingualism, or polylingualism will affect not only education but also social systems. Haas (Cited in The Future of U.S. Education, 1987) has indicated that education futures may align with six alternatives, in declining order of probability: contemporary traditional, humanistic traditional, partial technological deschooling, multiple options (voucher, tuition tax credits), experimental and/or communal, and total deschooling. The time for conscious decision-making about the schools and education, as opposed to other-controlled solutions or unaltered evolution, is approaching quickly. The best forecasts (and decisions) are based on solid demographic analysis of needs and wants, analysis of economic and utility values, analogy with past events and relationships, and interpretation (Center, 1990). Citizens and educators have responded in the past, and they can respond again.

Responses to the Call for Education Reform

Throughout history—from the court-ordered establishment of the first colonywide school in 1647, to the Franklin-Jefferson call for universal education in the 1700s, to the publication of John Dewey's School and Society in 1899, to the schooling of immigrants in the early 1900s, to the Education for All Handicapped Act of 1975—U.S. education has been known for innovation and reform (Lagemann, 1992). The current call for reform has created responses from education, business and industry, labor, community, and other arenas.

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has sponsored High School Futures Planning Consortia which have studied core curriculum, school organization, the use of technology, teaching, and strategic planning for program design appropriate to student needs. Consortia have investigated or piloted many approaches: mastery learning, school-within-a-school, community volunteer service, shared decision-making, peer coaching, interdisciplinary teams, creativity, and assessment of long-term performance (Cawelti, 1989). School of the Future model programs have been initiated in four communities to provide for the educational, social, and health needs of the children and their families (Holtzman, 1992). The Association of California School Administrators, has created the Region 18 Consortium of (20) Schools for the Future to conduct study, think tank seminars, strategic planning, and action projects on restructuring school organization, educational processes, including curriculum and instruction, and fiscal and human resources; the use of technology; and the equipping of learners for lifelong learning. Case studies have been published to describe the institutions, which represent grades K-16 in San Diego County, and to report on the action pilots undertaken (Olivero, 1990).

The New American Schools Development Corporation, financed by corporate monies, has been formed to award competitive grants for innovative educational proposals (Toch, 1992); leading corporations have established partnerships with schools (What's Ahead for Partnerships? Four Top CEOs Say Schools Are Everyone's Business, 1990). Since the late 1970s communities have supported education foundations (White, 1990).

The San Diego Unified School District has initiated the Center for Children and Families at one school site, a collaborative effort of the city, county, school district, and housing commission, to provide comprehensive family counseling, prevention and referral services, health education, and parent education (Jehl & Kirst, 1992). School-based health clinics have been organized in Arkansas through linkages of the state health department and school districts (Elder, 1992). Control of Chicago schools has been designated to locally elected parent councils (Joravsky, 1992). Year-round schools in the nation have increased 500% in number from 1983-1992 (Lucas, 1992).

Rural/small-town school districts have been exemplary in innovation, for example, with distance learning, audiographics, teleconferencing, and interactive television; this is of special interest since these districts enroll 40% of the school-aged population, comprise 60% of all school districts, and are present in every state (Spicker, 1992). Nachtigal (1992) recommended general adoption of the many quality factors in rural schools, including strong, positive leadership; high expectations for student and teacher performance; respectful relationships; emphasis on the academic basics; and healthy balance of activities. Surveyed students seconded these recommendations in emphasizing many factors of a positive school climate (Phelan, Davidson, & Cao, 1992).

Others have recommended strategies: seven steps for young children, including quality preschools, empowered parents, and neighborhoods for learning (Boyer, 1991); life skills training in early adolescence (Hamburg, 1992); fundamental changes toward more personal organization, curriculum, and instruction in the middle school (Jackson & Hornbeck, (1989); apprenticeships and youth-oriented enterprise for the 20 million not likely to attend college (William T. Grant Foundation, 1988); values education (Kirschenbaum, 1992); school choice (School Choice: Boon or Bane?, 1992); greater student responsibility for education, and teacher roles as coaches, not "tellers" (Gifford, 1990); active learning and direct student accountability (Thomas, 1992); "real-world" learning, critical thinking, and problem-solving (Davis, 1992); visionary leadership (Harvey, Frase, & Larick, 1992); more refined definition of students-at-risk (Ralph, 1989); the professionalization of teaching (Soder, 1988); full use of technology (Congress of the United States Office of Technology Assessment, 1989); common standards/assessment (National Council on Education Standards and Testing, 1992); and the integration of education and employment (Snyder & Edwards, 1992).

Education and the Schools in the Year 2000

Education will remain "everybody's business" in the year 2000; the nation will be a learning society—and becoming a learned society. The ambitious goals of America 2000 will not have been reached, but progress will have been made toward a targeted system. This system will thread through the institutions and structures of the nation; responsibility for models and delivery will be shared by education, government, labor, business, industry, and community. The sense of community will be invigorated, the rich diversity of peoples and their lifestyles will be reinforced, all will have access to opportunity, innovation and research will be expanded, evaluation and redesign will be continuous, and discovery of information will continue to outdistance delivery.

Education will be characterized as open-door, intergenerational, lifelong, information-intensive, experiential, customized, formal and informal, not-site-bound, and user-friendly. Education will be a profession, with differentiated staffing, many options, standards, and accountability. School curricula will include basic skills; values and citizenship skills; functional verbal and nonverbal skills and attitudes for productive employment, including the work ethic and teamwork skills for total quality management; responsible leisure skills; and self-management skills. Delivery will include the team approach, with management, instructional, and student services, and with networking and brokering for a variety of alternative settings; individualized assessment and matching of learning styles with modes/materials of instruction; and maximum use of technology for optimal human benefit. Outcomes will be marked by longitudinal achievement records, mastery standards, and certification.

Careers, education, and work will be watchwords, with extensions of career education to tech prep, school-to-work and work-to-work transitions, and direct relevance to the edu-techno-econ-biogenetic-space evolution. Economic, societal, and personal development will be primary. The American love affair with education will continue—with defined expectations and realistic support.

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An Investigation into Classroom Instructional Environments for Special Needs Students in Hongkong Mainstream Schools.

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Introduction

Research indicates that learning and behaviour problems are quite common among Hongkong students (see, for example, Winter, 1991; Crawford, 1991). In so far as these students place particular demands upon teachers we may term them 'special needs' (or SN) students. Concern has been expressed in Hongkong Government documents and media that at least some of the problems displayed by SN students may be curriculum related. Specifically, concern has been expressed that the Hongkong curriculum (which we may define broadly here to include structure, goals, objectives, content, teaching methods and means of assessment) may not be well suited to the needs of SN students. Attention has been drawn recently to the possible unsuitability (for these students) of the prevailing curriculum structure (eg Hongkong Education Department, 1990), content (eg Holbrook,1990) methods of assessment (eg Biggs, 1991), and language of instruction (eg Falvey, 1991).

By contrast, relatively little research has been done to ascertain how suitable are the methods Hongkong teachers actually use within the classroom to deliver the curriculum to SN students; their procedures for (a) planning instruction, (b) managing students, (c) presenting material and tasks, (d) motivating students, (e) providing practice, (f) providing feedback, and (g) monitoring/evaluating student understanding and performance.

This is not to suggest that there has been no enquiry into what Hongkong teachers do in the classroom. On the contrary, there is much valuable published work in this area (for example Morris, 1983; Falvey et al 1988; Ch. 8 of Holbrook, 1990; Barker, 1990; Mok, 1990; Peart and Stimpson, 1991). The present writer has contributed to research in the area (Winter, 1990). However, most published material in the area has focused (a) upon a narrow aspect of what teachers actually do when delivering the curriculum, (b) upon one subject area in the timetable, and/or (c) upon the needs of more able students. The present writer suggests there is a lack of broad-based work which applies to SN students.

This research deficiency is unfortunate in view of the substantial literature that exists worldwide that identifies the classroom teaching procedures which are effective for SN students. Some of that research is reviewed in Christenson and Ysseldyke (1989). They present a model of instruction (called 'Student Learning in Context') which draws attention to the clearly demonstrated importance of the instructional environment of the classroom in determining student learning outcomes. They also describe an instrument (TIES) by which classroom instructional environments may be assessed.

The Research Project

Funded research is now under way in Hongkong which targets classrooms in several mainstream secondary schools in order to assess the quality of instruction delivered to pupils identified as having some sort of learning or behaviour problem. In addition it is hoped to investigate the links between quality of instruction (as assessed by TIES), teachers' beliefs about quality of instruction, and student satisfaction.

The research project is due for completion before December 1992.

In view of the central role played by TIES in this research project, there follows a description of the instrument.

TIES

The TIES instrument ('The Instructional Environment Scale'; Ysseldyke and Christenson, 1987) provides a framework enabling a trained user to collect data on the quality of instructional procedures for individual students in terms of twelve areas empirically demonstrated to be of importance in determining learning outcomes. These are (a) instructional planning, (b) teacher expectations, (c) management of the classroom environment, (d) instructional presentation, (e) motivational strategies, (f) cognitive emphasis, (g) relevant practice, (h) informed feedback, (i) ensuring student understanding, (j) maximising academic-engaged time, (k) adaptive instruction, and (l) evaluation of progress.

TIES is a relatively versatile device for investigation of the instructional environment, but is capable of adaptation for local settings.

It may be useful to summarise very briefly the steps involved in using TIES. The user first familiarises him/herself with the descriptors (all established as effective instructional procedures) for each of the 12 areas listed above. He/she then sets about using TIES with a target teacher and with a target student, observing the teacher in action, and then interviewing the teacher and the student; all the time recording data on a 'Data Record Form'. This data, properly integrated, forms the basis for completion of an 'Instructional Rating Form' and a 'Summary Profile Sheet'.

TIES can be used in a number of ways. Data summarised on the Summary Profile Sheet can be used to form the basis of discussions with the teacher to identify instructional strengths and weaknesses and promote professional development (and this may be its main use in programmes of professional training or staff development), or may be used to enhance the instructional environment for the target student, who may be a referred SN student. For both these reasons the writer is introducing TIES to trainees on the MEd (Educational Psychology) professional training programme at the University of Hongkong. One possibility for the future might be that Educational Psychology trainees act as consultants employing TIES to examine the instructional environments provided by student teachers within within the University who might be experiencing problems during their initial period of professional training.

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Burnout, Stress and Ways of Coping of Teachers in Hong Kong

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Introduction

Teachers are required to spend a great deal of their time in intense involvement with their students. They guide them in their learning and help them to grow to become the pillars of the society. They work hard for long hours through difficult and unclear pathways, and their relationship with students may become strained. All this stress may remain unresolved and reach a state of burnout.

In Hong Kong, teacher-student ratio is 1 to 22. Apart from teaching, teachers engage in student counselling and extra-curricular activities. Induction programmes for new teachers are short and limited to brief introduction to the school facilities. With overload and limited support, teachers in Hong Kong are likely to suffer high jobstress and burnout. Indeed, the turnover rate of trained graduate teachers who had been teaching up to four years was well over 10% and that of untrained graduate teachers in their first year of teaching reached 26%. Apart from the legitimate reasons of emigration, further studies and retirement, the rest (56%) might have left because of dissatisfaction with the profession (Hong Kong government, 1992).

Burnout is defined as a state of mental, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion resulting from prolonged stress (Hendrickson, 1979; Edelwich and Brodsky, 1980; Cunningham, 1983; Farber, 1983). Maslach and Jackson who devised the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1986) defined burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Burnout is closely connected, but not, equated, with stress. It is chronic unmediated stress allowing no buffers or way out (Farber, 1984; Maslach and Jackson, 1986).

Stress is the body's physical, mental and chemical reactions to situations that excite, confuse, frighten, endanger, or irritate the individual (Ireland and Ireland, 1984). Teachers often experience strain in their work, whether they will feel stress depends on their perception of the circumstances as well as their perception of themselves (Payne and Fletcher, 1983; Tellenback et al., 1983). Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) developed the Job-related Stress Questionnaire to rate teacher stress.

There were much evidence and research on teacher burnout. Burnout not only affects productivity, it also contributes to the high turnover rate among teachers. High burnout and stress is predictive of teacher quitting the teaching profession (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 1982; Esteve, 1989). Teachers who feel stress and burnout need ways to cope. Coping refers to those actions and thoughts that enable teachers to handle difficult situations (Stone et al., 1988), and to reduce or avoid psychological stress (Houston, 1988). People use different ways to cope, depending on personality, experience and habit (Thomas, 1987; Fanshawe, 1989). Houston (1988) listed ten common strategies people tend to use when facing negative experience. Folkman and Lazarus found coping had cognitive and behavioral components, and they devised Ways of Coping in which they categorized coping into eight subscales/types,

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namely, Confrontive Coping, Distancing, Self-control, Seeking Social Support, Accepting Responsibility, Escape-avoidance, Planful Problem-solving and Positive Reappraisal (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980).

With overload and limited support, teachers in Hong Kong are likely to suffer high jobstress and burnout. Mo (1989) studied the relationship between teacher burnout and role conflict, ambiquity, personality and social support. It would be interesting to find out the degree of burnout among secondary school teachers in Hong Kong and to relate it with their jobstress and ways of coping. This is likely to complement the study of Lau and Yuen (1991) on job-related stress, coping strategies and burnout of teachers from 2 primary and 3 secondary schools.

Method

This study is a questionnaire survey research. The Questionnaire is made up of the Chinese versions of 3 forms: the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach and Jackson, 1986), the Job-Related Stress Questionnaire (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978), and Ways of Coping (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980) as well as a listing of school and personal characteristics including the thought of quitting the teaching profession.

Sample

The sample consisted of 201 secondary school graduate teachers attending an initial part-time in-service teacher training programme in a University Faculty of Education. It was made up of about equal number of men and women teachers (48% and 52% respectively). A majority of the sample was young (71% under 30 and 22% between 30 to 39), single (73%), new to the profession (27% 0-2 years, 48% 3-5 years) and taught matriculation classes (Grades 12-13, 75%). Even though it was a convenient sample, it was relatively representative in sex (48% men and 52% women versus 55% and 45% respectively of the teacher population), school type (4% Government, 79% aided, and 17% private versus 9%, 84% and 7% respectively), school location (12% on the Hong Kong Island, 37% Kowloon and 51% New Territories versus 22%, 36% and 42% respectively), and religious schools (51% with and 49% without versus 57% and 43% respectively).

Procedure

The Questionnaire was administered in class anonymously to 204 teachers in March, 1992. There was no time limit but an average of 20 minutes was taken to complete. Of the returned questionnaires, three were incomplete and discarded, so analysis was made on the remaining 201. The Maslach Burnout Inventory consists of three subscales: Emotional Exhaustion (9 items), Depersonalization (5 items), and Personal Accomplishment (8 items). It lists feeling/attitude towards items of teacher's work, and requires respondents to rate frequency of occurrence on a seven-point scale ranging from "0" meaning "never" to "6" meaning "everday". The Job-related Stress Questionnaire lists 50 items of a teacher's work/situation which constitutes stress and requires respondents to rate intensity of occurrence on a five-point scale ranging from "0" meaning "absence" to "4" meaning "extremely great". Ways of Coping consists of eight subscales. It lists 50 items of responses to unhappy events and it requires respondents to rate frequency of occurrence on a four-point scale ranging from "0" meaning "never" to "3" meaning "often".

A repondent's score for a subscale/scale is the sum of scores of all items under that subscale/scale. Calculations were made of the means and standard deviations of the sample for all subscales/scales; Pearson Product Moment correlations among Burnout, Job-related Stress, and Ways of Coping scores; one-way analysis of variance of scores between teachers of different characteristics/types of schools; and multiple regression analysis using burnout and jobstress as criterion variables and ways of coping as predictors, are calculated.

Results and Discussions

Reliability of Instruments

The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) of the instruments are .72 for Maslach Burnout Inventory, .94 for Job-related Stress, and .84 for Ways of Coping. They were all above .70 and substantial. The reliability coefficients of the Burnout and Ways of Coping subscales ranging from .41 to .88 were also substantially high.

Burnout, Jobstress, & Ways of Coping of Teachers

Burnout is indicated by the degree of Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment. Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation of teachers' scores. A mean of 21.32 for Emotional Exhaustion and 30.80 for Personal Accomplishment fell in the average category of the teaching profession (Maslach et al., 1986), while a mean of 6.31 for Depersonalization fell in the low category. These were slightly higher than an earlier Hong Kong teacher sample (Mo, 1989). This may indicate that teachers became more emotionally exhausted and depersonalized though they might feel slightly higher in personal accomplishment.

The present sample of teachers felt average emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment, and low depersonalization compared to the norm for U.S. teachers, i.e., they indicated average burnout. Perhaps they were young, largely single with no family to take care, short in years of teaching experience and attending a teacher training programme, all these factors may be more conducive to greater commitment to teaching and its ideals. The low depersonalization may particularly be in line with the Chinese

culture being warm and creating people more as persons. However, it is important to note that the average personal accomplishment felt by the sample is not conducive to the education profession in the long run.

The present sample had a mean job-related stress score of 111.80 (Table 1) which was around the mid-point of a scale ranging from 0 to 200, and was considered moderate. However, this was higher than that of Mo's sampel (1989). Also, it is quite alarming to find that the ten "very stressful" and "extremely stressful" items were endorsed by over half of the sample (Table 2). 75% endorsed "too much work to do"; 65%, "lack of time to spend with individual students"; 64%, "poorly motivated students"; and 62%, "lack of time for marking exercises". These ten most stressful items were similar to those of Mo's (1989) and they could be classified into two categories: too little time to do too much work (Items 5, 35, 8, 7, and 45); and difficult students, namely, poorly motivated, poor attitudes towards studies, noisy, large and difficult classes (Items 10, 15, 27, 42, and 11). Thus, if nothing is done

about decreasing teacher load and encouraging and improving student learning, teacher stress may soon reach a level to beyong coping.

The sample mean and standard deviation of ways of coping (Table 1) indicate the effective ways were sometimes used: Planful Problem-solving, Seeking Social Support, Self-control, Accepting Responsibility, Positive Reappraisal, Distancing and Confrontive Coping, (frequency ranging from 1.52 to 2.18 in a scale ranging from 0 to 3); while ineffective Escape-avoidance was "seldom" used (1.03 frequency). This was a healthy sign. Also use of effective ways of coping with stress may be one of the main reasons the present sample of teahers suffered moderate burnout and stress despite overload.

Correlations among Burnout, Jobstress, and Ways of Coping Scores

Table 3 shows the Pearson Product Moment correlations among Burnout, Jobstress, and Ways of Coping. In this sample, Jobstress correlated significantly positively with Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization, but significantly negatively with Personal Accomplishment. It is just natural that teachers who were more stressful tend to feel greater emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and less personal accomplishment.

Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization correlated negatively with effective ways of coping: Self-control, Seeking Social Support, Accepting responsibility, Planful Problem-solving and Positive Reappraisal; and positively with less effective ways of Confrontive Coping, Distancing and Escape-voidance. On the contrary, Personal Accomplishment correlated significantly positively with the more effective ways of coping and significantly negatively with the ineffective way of Escape-avoidance. Similary, Jobstress correlated significantly positively with ineffective ways of coping: Confrontive Coping, Distancing and Escape-avoidance. Thus, it can be concluded that teachers with low burnout and jobstress tend to use effective ways of copig than otherwise.

Different ways of coping correlated positively with one another, with the exception of Escape-avoidance which correlated significantly negatively with Planful Problem-solving. It means teachers who tend to use one way of coping would use other ways as well, excepting those who used escape-avoidance more, the latter would not use planful problem-solving in coping.

Differences of Scores on Burnout, Jobstress and Ways of Coping among Teachers Without and With Different Degrees of Thought of Quitting

One-way analysis of variance on the mean scores (Table 4) indicates that teachers who never or seldom thought of quitting scored significantly lower on Emotional Exhaustion ($F=34.11$, $df=3/192$, $p<.000$) and Depersonalization ($F=8.46$, $df=3/188$, $p<.000$) compared to teachers who sometimes and often thought of quitting. Teachers who never thought of quitting scored significantly higher on Personal Accomplishment ($F=6.28$, $df=3/190$, $p<.001$) compared to the other three groups who thought of quitting to different degrees. Teachers who seldom thought of quitting scored significantly lower on Jobstress ($F=5.07$, $df=3/114$, $p<.005$) and Distancing ($F=3.43$, $df=3/194$, $p<.05$) compared to the group which often thought of quitting. Teachers who never thought of quitting scored lower on Escape-avoidance ($F=4.63$, $df=3/194$, $p<.005$) but higher on Planful Problem-solving ($F=3.67$, $df=3/193$, $p<.05$) than those who sometimes or often thought of quitting. Thus, teachers who

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of Burnout, Job-related Stress & Ways of Coping

	Mean	S.D.
Emotional Exhaustion	21.32	10.18
Depersonalization	6.31	5.81
Personal Accomplishment	30.80	8.68
Job-related Stress	111.80	29.59
Planful Problem-solving	2.18	.49
Seeking Social Support	2.00	.50
Self-control	1.95	.36
Accepting Responsibility	1.82	.50
Positive Reappraisal	1.77	.49
Distancing	1.71	.45
Confrontive Coping	1.52	.37
Escape-avoidance	1.03	.44

Table 2: Top Ten Most Stressful Job-related Items (extremely stressful and very stressful)

Order	Item No.	Item	No.	%
1	5	Too much work to do	150	74.6
2	35	Lack of time to spend with individual students	130	64.7
3	10	Poorly motivated students	129	64.2
4	8	Lack of time for marking exercises	124	61.7
5	15	Students' poor attitudes towards studies	117	58.2
6	7	Not enough time to do the work	114	56.7
7	42	Large classes	106	52.7
8	27	Noisy students	103	51.2
9	45	Too many teaching periods	102	50.7
10	11	Difficult classes	101	50.2

Table 3: Pearson Correlations among Burnout, Jobstress and Coping Strategies (N = 201)

	Deper	Peracc	Jobstr	Conf	Dist	Self	Soci	Acce	Escp	Plan	Reap
E E	***	***	***		**	**			***	**	
	.66	-.37	.46	.12	.21	-.16	-.08	-.11	.29	-.20	-.08
Deper		***	***	*		*	**	*	***	***	**
		-.43	.38	.12	.07	-.13	-.18	-.13	.24	-.25	-.19
Peracc			***			**	***	***	***	***	***
			-.31	.05	-.04	.19	.21	.28	-.22	.44	.34
Jobstr				**	***				**		
				.25	.29	.09	.06	.03	.26	.06	.07
Conf							***	***	***	***	***
					.06	.08	.27	.25	.34	.35	.31
Dist						***	*	**	***	**	***
						.36	.13	.17	.22	.20	.24
Self							***	***		***	***
							.47	.35	.04	.51	.45
Soci								***		***	***
								.41	.08	.48	.47
Acce										***	***
									.07	.53	.55
Escp										*	**
										-.12	.18
Plan											***
											.52

E E = Emotional Exhaustion, Deper = Depersonalization, Peracc = Personal Accomplishment, Jobstr = Jobstress, Conf = Confrontive, Dist = Distancing, Self = Self Controlling, Soci = Social Support, Acce = Accepting Responsibility, Escp = Escape-Avoidance, Plan = Planful Problem-solving, Reap = Positive Reappraisal.

* significant at .05 level, ** significant at .01 level, *** significant at .001 level

never/seldom thought of quitting the teaching professional showed less stress and burnout and they used more effective ways of coping.

Difference of Scores on Burnout, Jobstress and Ways of Coping between Men and Women Teachers, Teachers With and Without Religious Beliefs and Other Characteristics

One-way analysis of variance on the mean scores (Table 4) indicated no significant difference between men and women teachers on all scores with the exception of Seeking Social Support, i.e., women teachers scored significantly higher on Seeking Social Support than men teachers ($F=14.26$, $df=1/194$, $p<.000$). It is evident that women in stress situations, tend to seek social support, most probably because they are more social and verbal by nature.

One-way analysis of variance on the mean scores indicated that teachers with religious beliefs scored significantly higher on Personal Accomplishment ($F=8.01$, $df=1/192$, $p<.005$), and Self-control ($F=6.68$, $df=1/196$, $p<.05$) than teachers without religious beliefs. Teachers in religious schools scored significantly lower on Jobstress ($F=5.08$, $df=1/103$, $p<.05$) but higher on Positive Reappraisal ($F=7.15$, $df=1/194$, $p<.01$) than teachers teaching in nonreligious schools. Thus, not only teachers with religious beliefs but also teachers teaching in religious schools showed less burnout and stress and used more positive ways of coping.

One-way analysis of variance on mean scores of teachers with number of years teaching in the present school indicated that teachers having taught 3-5 years in the present school scored significantly higher on Distancing as a means of coping compared to teachers having taught 6 and over years ($F=4.14$, $df=2/195$, $p<.05$). Teachers teaching in schools with over 35 classes and with 26-30 classes scored significantly higher on Distancing as a way of coping than teachers teaching in schools with 21-25 classes ($F=2.97$, $df=4/192$, $p<.05$). It is concluded that teachers new to the school or teachers in larger schools used Distancing more as a way of coping. Perhaps they were less familiar with the school and the students so that they used distancing more.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Burnout and Jobstress were taken as the criterion variables, the Ways of Coping as predictors. The linear dependency of Jobstress (Table 5) indicated that Distancing alone accounted for 8.5% of the variance on Ways of Coping; and Confrontive Coping, 5.8%. The linear dependency of Emotional Exhaustion (Table 6) indicated that Escape-avoidance accounted for 8.1% of the variance on Ways of Coping; Distancing, 5.5%; and Self-control, 2.8%. The linear dependency of Depersonalization (Table 7) indicated that Planful Problem-solving accounted for 6.5% of the variance on Ways of Coping; Confrontive Coping, 4.8%; Escape-avoidance, 2.1%; and Positive Reappraisal, 2.0%. The linear dependency of Personal Accomplishment (Table 8) indicated that Planful Problem-solving accounted for 19.3% of the variance on Ways of Coping; Positive Reappraisal, 3.6%; and Escape-avoidance, 2.6%.

Summary and Recommendations

The study used Maslach Burnout Inventory, Job-related Stress Questionnaire and Ways of Coping to measure teacher burnout, stress and ways of coping. Secondary graduate teachers (201) showed average emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and jobstress; and low depersonalization.

Table 4: Analysis of Variance on Criterion Variables of Burnout, Jobstress & Coping Strategies among Teachers Without & With Different Degrees of Thought of Quitting the Teaching Profession

Criterion Variable	F	df	p	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Emotional Exhaustion	34.11	3/192	.0000	Gr. 3 29.74	Gr. 2 26.24	Gr. 1 17.05	Gr. 0 13.24
Depersonal-ization	8.46	3/188	.0000	Gr. 2 8.36	Gr. 3 8.00	Gr. 1 5.16	Gr. 0 3.37
Personal Accomplish	6.28	3/190	.0004	Gr. 0 36.03	Gr. 1 30.75	Gr. 3 29.30	Gr. 2 28.87
Jobstress	5.07	3/114	.0025	Gr. 3 123.21	Gr. 2 118.66	Gr. 0 109.92	Gr. 1 96.07
Distancing	3.43	3/194	.0182	Gr. 3 1.94	Gr. 2 1.73	Gr. 0 1.67	Gr.1 1.61
Escape-Avoidance	4.63	3/194	.0038	Gr. 3 1.19	Gr. 2 1.09	Gr. 1 1.02	Gr. 0 0.82
Planful Prob. Solving	3.67	3/193	.0133	Gr. 0 2.38	Gr. 1 2.18	Gr. 2 2.11	Gr. 3 2.09

Gr. 0 = Never, Gr. 1 = Seldom, Gr. 2 = Sometimes, Gr. 3 = Often. Significant at .05 level

Table 5: Multiple Regression Analysis of the Relationship between Ways of Coping & Jobstress

Variable	R	R	Increase in R	SE	F
Distancing	.292	.085	.085	28.118	10.73
Confrontive	.378	.143	.058	27.336	9.51

Table 6: Multiple Regression Analysis of the Relationship between Ways of Coping & Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	R	R	Increase in R	SE	F
Escape-avoidance	.285	.081	.081	9.652	16.64
Self-control	.330	.109	.028	9.530	11.45
Distancing	.405	.164	.055	9.258	12.15

Table 7: Multiple Regression Analysis of the Relationship between Ways of Coping & Depersonalization

Variable	R	R	Increase in R	SE	F
Planful Problem	.255	.065	.065	5.667	12.90
Confrontive	.337	.113	.048	5.533	11.81
Escape-avoidance	.336	.134	.021	5.484	9.46
Positive Reappraise	.392	.154	.020	5.436	8.29

Table 8: Multiple Regression Analysis of the Relationship between Ways of Coping & Personal Accomplishment

Variable	R	R	Increase in R	SE	F
Planful Problem	.439	.193	.193	7.809.	44.86
Escape-avoidance	.468	.219	.026	7.699	26.29
Positive Reappraise	.505	.255	.036	7.541	21.24

Stress mainly related to too much work in too short a time and difficult students. The sample used more frequently more effective ways of coping, such as, planful problem-solving, seeking social support, and self-control; and less frequently the most ineffective way of escape-avoidance. Burnout and stress were significantly positively correlated with each other, and both were positively correlated with ineffective ways of coping. Teachers who never or seldom thought of quitting the teaching profession, as well as teachers having religious beliefs and those teaching in religious schools showed lower burnout and stress and they used more effective ways of coping. Female teachers used more seeking social support as a way of coping compared to male teachers. Teachers having fewer years teaching experience in the school and those teaching in larger schools used distancing more as a way of coping.

How to decrease teacher stress and burnout and help teachers to employ effective ways of coping is an important task because all these will enable teachers to give the best of themselves in the education of the young. Many educators advocated support groups (Raquepaw and deHaas, 1984; Ireland and Ireland, 1986;), setting up teacher centres (Farber, 1984), and teacher aide projects particularly to orientate new teachers (Foster, 1982). In Hong Kong, it is hoped that a reduction of class size from 40 to 35 in secondary schools will sooner be effected to reduce teacher overload; induction programmes for new teachers to teach them, in particular, effective ways of coping with stress in order to minimize burnout as suggested in the Education Commission Report, No. 5 (Hong Kong Government, 1992); and increased teacher participation in decision-making (Education and Manpower Branch and Education Department, 1991) to heighten teacher personal accomplishment, will enable teachers to give their best in the education of the young.

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Pupil Counselling in Singapore Schools

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Singapore

Counselling before the Introduction of Pastoral Care

Concern for pupils' welfare has always been recognised as part and parcel of teaching. Before the introduction of Pastoral Care in the schools, teachers played an active part in what was known as "Pupil Welfare". This was often interpreted as providing for the basic needs of pupils, like the payment of school fees and textbooks, and coping with schoolwork. Teachers felt comfortable in these roles. However, the task of counselling was often left to teachers given the overall charge of "Pupil Welfare" rather than an integral aspect of every teacher's role. Pupils who were counselled were often those who had problems with their schoolwork or those who had been repeatedly misbehaving. Counselling then tended to play a secondary role to remedial work and discipline. Often, this was done only when the form teacher, the Pupil Welfare teacher and the discipline master had exhausted all means of handling misbehaving pupils.

Most teachers, who were not trained in basic counselling skills, tended to interpret counselling as the dispensation of advice -- often advice on study skills and time management. Counselling then was mainly *reactive* and conducted by form teachers and teachers in charge of discipline and Pupil Welfare, and when these failed, the vice-principal and the principal.

Referral

In some cases, pupils are sent for referral. Principals need parental consent before the child could be referred. They often face the difficult task of having to convince parents that professional help is needed for their child. Often, teachers are not in contact with the referral agency and there is no cooperation between the two. When the pupil is referred to the agency by the school, there is no motivation for the pupil to remain in counselling and the rate of non-attendance is high.

Government referral agencies are the Institute of Health, Child Psychiatric Clinic, and the Ministry of Education Pastoral Care and Career Guidance Unit. Some non-government organizations include Counselling and Care Centre, Singapore Children's Society and Students' Care Service.

Pastoral Care and the Training of Teachers

Pastoral Care was introduced in schools in 1988. In response to the demand for training of in-service teachers, the National Institute of Education, (then Institute of Education) developed two levels comprising eight modules of coursework -- level one (modules one to four) which covers basic counselling skills, group and career guidance, and level two (modules five to eight) which covers the development, implementation and management of a pastoral programme, more advanced counselling skills, psychological testing and research. Teachers who successfully completed these courses are awarded a Specialist Diploma in Guidance and Counselling. Response to these courses, especially

level one modules, has been tremendously encouraging.

Pupil Counselling after the Introduction of Pastoral Care

The introduction of Pastoral Care and Career Guidance in the schools shifted the responsibility of counselling to the form teacher or the pastoral care tutor. One of the key aims of the pastoral care programme is to enhance the teacher-pupil relationship such that teachers are able to get to know each pupil better and consequently, help them maximise their potential. In other words, counselling began to adopt a more *proactive* and developmental approach. This one-to-one contact with pupils meant that teachers now have to see themselves playing a new role -- not merely as disseminators of knowledge but more of a guidance worker, mentor, confidant or surrogate parent.

Research Questions

Our exploratory study aims to gain an insight as to how these teachers react to these new demands and how they see their roles as counsellors and guidance workers. The following questions are addressed:

1. How do teachers rank the different roles of counselling (e.g. personal counselling, giving remedial help in studies) in terms of actual amount of time spent?

2. How are these roles of counselling ranked in terms of the ideal functions of a teacher-counsellor/guidance worker?

3. What advantages do teachers see in having the teacher perform the role of a counsellor as opposed to having a full-time school counsellor?

4. What are some of the difficulties teachers face as teacher-counsellors?

The Sample

We sampled teachers who attended our in-service courses in Pastoral Care. Fifty teachers from both levels of training, and who attended the modules on counselling were given the questionnaire. About 50 teachers have since completed all the eight modules. Table 1 gives the details of our sample.

The Questionnaire

There are two parts to our questionnaire. First, teachers were asked to rank from 1 to 10, in order of amount of actual time spent in different counselling roles, and in order of the ideal amount of time they would like to spend in these different counselling roles. Rankings above 7 were grouped as 'Low', rankings between 4 and 6 as 'Moderate' and rankings 3 and below as 'High'.

Next, teachers were asked to describe what they think are the advantages of having a teacher perform the role of a counsellor, and the difficulties of a teacher-counsellor in the school.

Table 1: Sex, Age, Educational level, Years of Teaching, Type of School and Level of Inservice Training

		NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
SEX	Male	7	14
	Female	43	86
	Total	50	100
AGE	Below 30	11	22
	Above 30	39	78
	Total	50	100
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	Non-graduates	29	58
	Graduates	21	42
	Total	50	100
YEARS OF EXPERIENCE	less than 10	16	32
	more than 10	34	68
	Total	50	100
TYPE OF SCHOOL	Primary	17	34
	Secondary	33	66
	Total	50	100
LEVEL OF NIE IN-SERVICE COURSE	Level 1: Modules 1-4	24	48
	Level 2: Modules 5-8	26	26
	Total	50	100

Findings

Ranking in Terms of Actual Amount of Time Spent

Personal counselling and giving remedial help were ranked highest in terms of actual amount of time spent. These were followed by giving academic guidance, staff consultation and parent contact. The percentages are given in Table 2.

Ranking in Terms of Ideal Time to be Spent

When asked to rank what they feel they should be spending more time on (i.e. ideal ranking) in their role as teacher-counsellors, the teachers ranked giving academic help (such as time management and learning skills), personal counselling, career counselling, group counselling and giving remedial help higher than the other roles of staff consultation, parent contact, referrals, conducting needs assessment and organizing guidance programmes. These percentages are given in Table 3.

Table 2: Ranking in terms of actual time spent in counselling

ROLES OF COUNSELLING (actual time spent)	Number ranked High	Percentage ranked High
1. Personal Counselling	20	66.7
2. Group Counselling	5	16.7
3. Parent Contact	10	30.0
4. Staff Consultation	12	40.0
5. Referrals	3	10.0
6. Conducting Needs Assessment	2	6.6
7. Organising Guidance Programmes	5	16.7
8. Career Counselling	2	6.6
9. Giving Remedial Help	20	66.7
10. Giving Academic Guidance	13	43.3

Table 3: Ranking in terms of ideal time spent in counselling

ROLES OF COUNSELLING (ideal time spent)	Number ranked High	Percentage ranked High
1. Personal Counselling	12	40.0
2. Group Counselling	11	36.7
3. Parent Contact	7	23.3
4. Staff Consultation	1	3.3
5. Referrals	5	16.7
6. Conducting Needs Assessment	6	20.1
7. Organising Guidance Programmes	3	10.0
8. Career Counselling	12	40.0
9. Giving Remedial Help	10	33.3
10. Giving Academic Guidance	16	53.3

Difference between the Actual and the Ideal

Is there a discrepancy between the actual and the ideal?

Although in terms of the ideal amount of time spent, a lower percentage (40% compared with 66.7%, a percentage drop of 26.7%) of teachers ranked personal counselling as high, teachers still felt that personal counselling is an important aspect of their role. However, ideally, it appears that they would like to spend less time on it. With regard to staff consultation and giving of remedial help, teachers indicated that they would like to spend much less time on these (percentage drop of 36.7% and 33.4% respectively). Instead, they seem to want more career counselling (a percentage increase of 33.4%). With regard to group counselling, teachers reported that they would like to have more of this, (there is a percentage difference of 20%) but this difference is not significant. The difference in mean rankings between the actual and the ideal amounts of time spent and the levels of significant differences is tabulated in Table 4.

Table 4. Difference in Ranking between the Actual and the Ideal Amount of Time Spent in Counselling

ROLES OF COUNSELLING	Mean Actual+	Mean Ideal+	Difference	PR>T
1. Personal Counselling	2.17	3.57	-1.40	0.020*
4. Staff Consultation	3.17	6.20	-3.03	0.0001**
8. Career Counselling	6.87	4.40	+2.47	0.004**
9. Giving Remedial Help	3.30	4.23	-1.80	0.016*

+ A smaller mean is indicative of higher ranking.

Possible Explanations

It can be expected that teachers would prefer to see a lesser need for personal counselling and the need to give remedial help as this would mean fewer personal as well as academic problems. However, they still see these roles as important, hence the high ideal ratings. Regarding staff consultation, less time spent on this could mean less ambiguity in the nature of problems presented, hence ideally, teachers did not rank this role high. The greater need for career counselling can be expected as schools become increasingly aware of the need for career guidance, especially after the introduction of the Pastoral Care and Career Guidance.

Differences in Ranking of Actual Amount of Time Spent between Educational level, Type of School and Level of In-service Course Attended.

The rankings were also analyzed for differences regarding educational level of the teachers (graduates and nongraduates), the level of in-service training attained (levels 1 and 2), type of school (primary and secondary) and years of teaching experience (more and less than 10 years). Other variables of age and sex were not considered because of the small size of the sample.

The educational level of teachers seemed to make a difference with regard to the amount of time spent on needs assessment -- graduate teachers seemed to spend less time on this than nongraduate teachers. Primary school teachers spent less time on career counselling compared to secondary school teachers. Teachers who have had level one in-service training in Pastoral Care seemed to spend less time in giving of academic guidance. The results of this analysis is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Differences in Educational Level of Teachers, Type of School and Level of In-service Course attended for Ranking of Actual amount of time spent in Counselling.

Roles of Counselling (Actual Amount of Time Spent)			Mean	Difference	PR > F
Needs Assessment	Educational level	Graduate	7.18	1.61	0.038*
		Nongraduate	5.57		
Career Counselling	School	Primary	8.44	2.25	0.022*
		Secondary	6.19		
Giving Academic Guidance	Course	Level 1	4.63	2.86	0.009**
		Level 2	1.77		

Possible Explanations

Graduate teachers teach in secondary schools and it is in these school that there is a greater emphasis on academic work, compared to that in the primary schools. This could account for the fact that these teachers do not see the need to spend time conducting needs assessments in order to ascertain what the pupils' other needs are. Also, in the secondary school setup, needs assessments are usually conducted by the heads of levels or Pastoral Care coordinators. In the primary school, behaviours tend to be more easily observable, and pupils are more ready to talk about their problems to their teachers.

Primary school teachers spend less time in career counselling. This can be expected as many teachers feel that pupils have many years of education to go before deciding on a career. However, careers education is being introduced even at the primary level.

Teachers who have undergone Level 2 in-service training spend more time on giving academic guidance than teachers who have undergone Level 1 in-service training. The giving of academic guidance involves the teaching of study skills, time management and decision-making skills, and these teachers are seen as more competent. The moderate and high ranking is again indicative of the emphasis placed on academic achievement.

Differences in Ranking of Ideal Amount of Time to be Spent between Educational level, Type of School and Level of Inservice Course Attended.

With regard to how teachers feel about the ideal time they should be spending in these different roles of counselling, graduate teachers placed a lower emphasis on parent contact. Teachers who have had Level 2 in-service training ranked group counselling lower than teachers with Level 1 training. These teachers also placed less importance to staff consultation. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 6.

Possible Explanations

Nongraduate teachers are in the primary schools and can therefore be expected to see more parents than teachers in the secondary schools. Hence, they indicated that they would like to have

more contact with parents. Teachers who have undergone Level 2 seem to prefer less group counselling. One possible explanation could be that they are more aware of the difficulties involved and the level of skills needed for this. They also preferred less staff consultation. This could because they are more confident of themselves and also more aware of the issue of confidentiality.

Table 6: Differences in Educational Level of Teachers, Type of School and Level of In-service Course attended for Ranking of Ideal amount of time spent in Counselling.

Roles of Counselling (Ideal Amount of Time Spent)			Mean	Difference	PR>F
Parent Contact	Educational Level	Graduate	4.93	1.57	0.04*
		Nongraduate	3.36		
Group Counselling	Course	Level 2	5.24	2.68	0.0007**
		Level 1	2.56		
Staff Consultation	Course	Level 2	6.93	1.37	0.04*
		Level 1	5.56		

Advantages of the Teacher as a Counsellor

Teachers report that from the constant contact with students, they are in an advantageous position to build good rapport with them. With trust and confidence in the teacher the student respects, he/she would feel more at ease during the less formal counselling contacts between them than would be the case with a school counsellor. Moreover, with the regular contact, the teacher-counsellor is able to obtain first hand knowledge of how the student is behaving. The teacher-counsellor is then able to observe the student's behaviour more accurately in different situations. This enables the teacher-counsellor to identify students with problems. Besides, with direct feedback from these daily class interactions, it is easier for the teacher-counsellor to monitor the student's performance too. Information of how the student is relating to others can be gathered from direct observations.

In summary, teacher-counsellors have background knowledge of their students, their family background, self-concept, strengths and weaknesses and academic achievement within easy reach, and this augurs well with their work as counsellors.

As part of the school setup, the teacher- counsellor is there all the time which speaks well of his/her availability, especially to give immediate help if the student's problem requires prompt action. In addition, if the teacher-counsellor needs to gather data from other sources like other students, or he/she needs to consult other teachers, they are readily available. One teacher-counsellor comments that 'the teacher is a constant source of reminder and an inspiration to students', that there is someone there who is available to help them through their difficult times.

Being so much part of the school, the teacher- counsellor would know the climate of the school better than a school counsellor. Together with the support of the school and its provision of resources, teacher-counsellors can thrive in a conducive environment providing counselling services to the students. As opposed to a formal counselling set-up, teachers doing counselling need not subscribe to fixed times; in fact, counselling can be incorporated into the pastoral care programme

or integrated into class lessons.

With regard to parental expectations, some teacher-counsellors highlight a positive relationship as parents trust teachers and would entrust their children's situations and problems into the hands of a caring and skilled teacher-counsellor who knows their children well.

Difficulties Faced by the Teacher-Counsellor

From the perspective of their students, teacher-counsellors think that students may not open up to them because they are part of the school system. A related difficulty cited is that students may perceive the teacher-counsellor role as conflicting - being understanding and empathic on the one hand and a disciplinarian on the other. There is also the fear that teacher- counsellors will expose their weaknesses in class. When students do go to teachers for counselling, they may become over-friendly and over-familiar when good rapport has been established with the teacher-counsellor, and this may be detrimental to the counselling process. Teacher-counsellors also fear that students may revert to their old ways after counselling, thus injecting a sense of guilt and disappointment in the teacher-counsellors.

With regard to time constraints, teacher-counsellors feel that some students may not turn up, or that it is difficult to arrange a time for counselling as students have a myriad of activities to attend to after school. These may range from ECAs to remedial/tuition classes. Students may also perceive a stigma attached to going to a teacher for counselling, that they are 'problem cases' if they see a teacher-counsellor.

Recognising that their first role is that of teaching, teacher-counsellors find that beyond their teaching demands and other responsibilities, counselling is indeed time-consuming. Teacher-counsellors express that they have to do a lot of background work, especially if the student is not in their class. Follow-up work also entails a lot of the teacher-counsellor's time. Stress levels would mount even greater when the teacher-counsellor encounters 'difficult' cases. Thus, coupled with too much administrative work, one teacher-counsellor laments that she is 'too bogged down with work and not people'. Having to wear two or more hats, some teacher-counsellors feel that there is no total dedication and commitment in performing the counsellor's role. Besides a lack of time, teacher-counsellors also express a lack of training and preparation and experience in dealing with certain problems.

When involved in counselling, teacher-counsellors also find that it is difficult to switch mode as they feel that the relationship between teachers and students is largely a directive one. With pre-conceived ideas gathered from their previous interactions with students, one teacher-counsellor's concern is that he/she may be subjective and prejudiced in the counselling relationship. Another issue cited is that the teacher-counsellor may become emotionally involved with the student which may retard the growth of the counselling relationship. Teacher-counsellors are also aware that other students may perceive that they are showing favouritism to the students being counselled as they are spending more time with those students.

As to the role of parents in counselling, teacher-counsellors state their indifference and non-support as a source of difficulty they have to encounter in their counselling efforts with their students. At the school level, the large enrolment is identified as one of the difficulties teacher-counsellors face. In addition, the impersonal nature of large schools hinder the development of a 'counselling environment' conducive to caring and sharing. Besides the lack of proper facilities, especially a counselling room to ensure privacy, teacher-counsellors also note that there is also a lack of support from the administration to take on counselling work with the students. This is sometimes seen in the way that counselling is being superseded by the principal's disciplinary intervention. Moreover, some

principals have the myopic view that counselling is only for students who present disciplinary problems. The administration's lack of support can also be surmised by the lack of recognition given to the teacher-counsellor's status. Besides the lack of recognition, there is also no time slot allocated to counselling. As the amount of time spent in counselling is great, teacher-counsellors vouch for off-loading by way of using the time devoted for ECAs for counselling.

Teacher-counsellors also encounter the difficulty of colleagues who find the concept of teacher-counsellor too new an idea to accept, and thus have passed unfavourable remarks about the role of the teacher-counsellor. Teacher-counsellors also face the difficult situation where they conflict with colleagues as to what is the best method to handle students. When colleagues have to be consulted, teacher-counsellors have to grapple with the problem of lack of confidentiality among their colleagues. Other colleagues also tend to take advantage of the existence of teacher-counsellors and refer their students to them unhesitatingly without first trying to handle their students' problems themselves. One teacher-counsellor summed up the difficulties faced by the teacher-counsellor so aptly, ' I feel awful - like a harassed teacher trying to do good and feeling horribly stretched'.

Conclusion

Counselling in the schools is no easy option, but teacher-counsellors are not unwilling to take on this role. However, a lot can be done to help them to become more effective and less stressed. Administration should give recognition to the importance of their role. This can be translated into such actions as giving them less administrative work and providing them with more opportunities for training.

FAMILY THEME

The Future Of Family Counseling

Jon Carlson

Family structure and composition have been changing for years, as has the psychological treatment population. Counselors have been trained and prefer to work with the YAVIS clients: young, attractive, verbal, intelligent, and successful. This population characteristically and without external intervention is able to form a positive therapeutic relationship and often improves with minimal or no intervention. The YAVIS population is in contrast to the new breed of psychotherapy client, that being the HOUND: homely, old, unattractive, non-verbal, and dumb. This is a population that counselors have not been trained nor compelled to treat (Garfield & Bergin, 1986).

Marriage and family counselors have not adequately responded with changed paradigms or interventions. Treatment continues to be based on the concept of the traditional high-functioning nuclear family. However, this is an institution which is declining. The following are some of the changes in the new reality of family life.

1. The status of women has been changed. Women have entered the workforce because the family needs additional income.

2. The status of children is changing. Today's children are living a childhood as the first daycare, multicultural, electronic, and post-sexual revolution generation.

3. Violence within the American family has increased.

4. Drug usage and addiction have become a part of American life.

5. The number of blended and stepfamilies is increasing.

6. Families today are more diverse. Families include nuclear families, singlehood, non-marital heterosexual and homosexual cohabitation, single parent families, remarried and stepfamilies, foster and adoptive families, childlessness, non-secretive extramarital relationships, and multiadult households. This expanding diversity of family forms implies that moreindividuals will experience family change during their life cycle than in previous generations.

7. The number of people who grow up in a non-biological family is increasing.

8. Family size continues to decline.

9. Both partners are now career-driven.

10. Clients are less educated and lower-functioning.

11. Mandated mental health treatment (court-ordered and non-voluntary) is increasing.

12. Americans are aging and many of the stereotypes of older adults must be abandoned.

13. The workplace will become an extension of the family. Employers can no longer expect workers to give priority to the job and will need to provide further support to help people with their families including parental leave, dependent care support, counselling and education, relocation assistance, and flexible work hours.

14. Divorce rates are not improving. Most marriages do not last a lifetime. We live in a society where most marriages end in divorce rather than death by either spouse. According to recent researchers, about two-thirds of all new marriages will end in some form of dissolution.

These are only a few of the changes that are occurring. Marriage and family life have become so complex that it is difficult to create generalities that apply. Earlier family analyses used only first marriages with children and acted as if these changes did not exist. This was what was normal and preferred. The time to define a normal or typical family is long past if it ever really did exist. This scenario now is only useful for minority of people. Today's families are most notable in terms of their variety and diversity. No single structure or set of interactional patterns can be identified as right or healthy for all families. If there is any one generalization that can be made about a healthy family, it is that such a family can accomplish its own goals and those of its members. Family counseling then must focus on helping each client's system to be successful in its own terms.

Treatment

These changes create a complex situation that requires new methods to handle information and to develop assessment and treatment formulation. Traditional tools such as genograms will need to be modified to accommodate blended and non-biological families. Computers will be needed to handle the volume of data and to place it into a useful form.

Treatment in the future will tend to be brief, of a biopsychosocial nature, and tailored specifically to each family. It is very likely that employer-sponsored health benefits will be increased to include the coverage of marriage and family as changes in the DSM-IV necessitate. However, many of the funded interventions will be at the primary and secondary level and ***not*** tertiary. Primary intervention involves prevention, secondary involves education and training, and territory interventions involve primarily counseling and treatment of dysfunction.

These changes in the family structure have also resulted in greater difficulty in decision-making as family decisions must be made jointly, which will require cooperation among all family members. This shift will therefore require a cooperative counseling

environment and the modeling and teaching of cooperation. Many traditional counseling approaches will not be appropriate.

Counselors will need to adopt assumptions such as the following in order to provide meaningful treatment:

1. Assess family ***functioning*** in terms of systemic qualities of relationships, communication, and exchanges rather than form or typology. Attempting to identify or label clinical typologies of symptomatic families (such as the schizophrenogenic family) yields little useful information. Instead, functional and behavioral qualities of the unique system must be assessed (Beavers, 1990).

2. Family functioning and competence should be viewed along a progressive ***continuum*** rather than in categorical typologies. This provides direction for growth and adaptation in all families.

3. Competent families are able to balance and shift their functioning styles as developmental changes occur. However, each family's style of relating and interacting is unique (Carlson, 1992).

4. Counselors match treatment strategy and style to each family. This requires altering factors such as therapeutic orientation, power differential, and operating style to join the family and catalyze its growth.

5. Counselors are aware of and appreciate the hierarchical structure of interacting systems within and surrounding the family, ranging from the biological/cellular through the individual to higher order systems including extended family and larger social network. Although direct intervention with any one specific level or all levels may not be necessary in any given case, ignoring potentially important biochemical, neurological, or larger system influences may lead to failure (Beavers, 1990).

6. Research continues to support the hypothesis that individual treatment for relationship difficulties including but not limited to marital or parent/child relationships is often an ineffective and complicating procedure.

By utilizing these guidelines, counselors can provide effective treatment to all families, HOUND and YAVIS. Because no two families are alike and our population is changing dramatically, successful counselors need to have principles and guidelines such as these to underlie their idiographic interventions.

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The Family Providing Training in Violence: A Counseling Challenge

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Violence in many forms is rapidly increasing in this world of the 1990's. On the international scene there is violence between nations; on the national scene there is violence between persons; on the domestic scene there is violence between family members--husband and wife, parent and child. Consequently, law enforcement agencies, the courts, the schools and the social agencies are looking at this political, criminal and social behavior in an attempt to understand and reduce the incidence of violence. It is my contention that family violence must be addressed from a sociological point of view and will require the attention of all these forces as well as the work of individual therapists to incur significant change.

The incidence of family violence reaches enormous proportions and occurs in all racial, educational, economic and religious backgrounds. In the American culture it is estimated that 1 in 4 families experience violence among its members (Straus, 1977). Great Britain expressed concern with domestic violence with the establishment of Chiswick House, the first battered women shelter, and with subsequent studies by Pizzy and Gaylord (Stark & Flitcraft, 1983). But it is not only a problem of the western world. In working with an international clientele in the Washington, D.C. area, it has become apparent that the problem exists in many other cultures as well.

Our American social values have promoted the dominant male model as "head of household" and thereby giving him permission to control. Frequently the media and the literature depict violence as an appropriate problem solving technique and thereby reward aggression and physical force. As in most male dominated societies where men control other family members, anger is the one feeling that is acceptable. At the root of their "anger" may be the stress placed upon the family by such things as lack of financial resources, lack of education, inability to meet expectations of the social norms, unemployment or under-employment. But to show insecurity or fear would appear to relinquish that preordained control.

These same social values are seen in other cultures and sometimes are even more imbedded into the societal norms. For

instance, in Asian-Pacific cultures female roles are usually determined in terms of their husbands or their family responsibilities and therefore a pattern of deference to authority evolves. In addition, a deep-rooted sense of family and honor may interfere with women becoming assertive enough to openly object to controlling behavior. Although Asian culture promotes strength through family cohesiveness it also promotes a tolerance or sometimes approval of domestic violence or child abuse by allowing the man to exert his power and control on the women and children (Lum, 1988).

Other cultures also are bound by family pride and patriarchal societal norms which perpetuate family violence. In Latino communities the male role is one of strength and power while the female role is tied closely to the values of the Christian church which reinforces passivity and responsiveness to the needs of others (Ginorio & Reno, 1986). The same dominence and control issues are seen in African and Middle Eastern cultures. This is a natural combination of values which promotes the use of force.

Today's world is one of movement. Families are moving away from natural support systems often to different cultures. Many of the emerging third world nations are being exposed to much different life styles. Consequently, there is much ambiguity surrounding acceptable behavior. When families are placed under stress, often resulting from relocation and lack of societal support, violence emerges as a method of tension release for the stabilization of family roles.

Whatever the cultural background, it is obvious that family violence is not unique to any one background or culture and unfortunately, the long-range consequences of this behavior can be seen in the continuation of violence as a way of life.

CONSEQUENCES OF VIOLENCE

It is widely accepted that violence is a learned behavior and this learning often begins in the family of origin. Behavioral theory suggests several ways that learning is acquired but the predominant mode of learning is by observation and modeling behavior of those in authority is an important component in the formation of lifetime patterns. Children in violent homes learn violence much as they learn any other behavior. They see violence as a normal way to treat others and to solve problems. They learn that this behavior is approved by their role models and that violence is an effective way to influence others. Repeated observation of violent behavior occurring without punishment and getting desired results is sufficient reinforcement for adding such behavior to one's repertoire.

In violent homes, the caretaker role model utilizes violent behavior to enforce his position and to gain control over other

members of the family. Very often the sense of loss of control is precipitated by outside stress placed upon the caretaker and that produces a sense of loss in control of self, resulting in anxiety expressed by anger. The violent behavior is reinforced by the compliance of others in order to avoid further abuse. In addition, it is recognized that often violent activity is followed by a reduction in tension giving immediate reinforcement to the use of force and the repetition of such behavior under similar circumstances is likely to occur (Steinmetz & Straus, 1973).

If a child observes this continuum of events,it is not difficult to understand that he will quickly learn to express his own anger and frustration in a violent manner. The child learns that violence is an effective form of control and will carry these ideas into adulthood and into marriage (Bowker, Arbitell & McFerron, 1988). Thus, the perpetuation of a generational effect of violence within the family structure. Research has shown that as many as 89% of those who abuse their children were victims of abuse or witnessed abuse in their families of origin. It can be concluded that experiencing violence as a child will show up in elevated rates of family abuse a generation later (Straus, 1983). When violence is used as a means of problem solving, indeed, the family home becomes a training ground for abusive behavior.

It is important to note that while male dominance in the family structure may be a relevant precipitating factor, it is not only the male component who will utilize violence as a method of control. Studies show that very often women who find themselves in abusive relationships will resort to the same behaviors toward their children as a result of their own frustration. A leader in studies of battered women, Lenore Walker, states that women are eight times more likely to hurt children if they are themselves battered (Walker, 1984) and it has been estimated that in homes where spousal abuse exists, the rate of child abuse or neglect is fifteen times greater than the average home.

Since stress is a precipitating factor in the cycle of violence and since it is impossible to live in a stress-free environment, the learned reactions can be far reaching and affect not only the family unit but a larger segment of society. Violence can become a norm for problem solving, not only within the family, but in other arenas of life. A recent experience I have had while providing counseling within a County prison system for female prisoners revealed that a large percentage of these women who gravitated to criminal behavior were products of homes in which violence was the norm. In fact, approximately 42% of the women in this institution admitted to being victims of spousal abuse in their adult life. Several early studies on violent behavior substantiate the fact that physical brutality during childhood and adolescence is a common theme among those who commit violent crimes (Gelles, 1972).

Criminal behavior is not the only effect of abusive treatment that is recorded in the literature. Many studies show that children from abusive homes suffer serious academic problems and difficulty with socioemotional adjustment and the adjustment becomes more problematic with age (Wodarski, Kurtz, Gaudin & Howing, 1990).

In recognition of this effect, a project with which I am associated was designed to educate and assist school counselors to identify symptoms of domestic violence. The result of this intervention was a large request by school counselors for additional resources to work with the problems created by this behavior. Most of the teachers contacted were aware of the existence of family violence with their students but were frustrated in their attempts to intervene. The schools offer an ideal setting for outreach to individual families. But, more importantly, they can provide education to a larger segment of the population by addressing civic and parenting groups.

COUNSELING CHALLENGE WITH FAMILY VIOLENCE

Family violence presents a challenge to mental health professionals throughout the world. Considering the extent of the consequences of these actions, not only for family unity but for societal values,that challenge must be met by counselors in family therapy, in school settings and in individual therapy but perhaps, even more importantly, through community education.

It is important that mental health professionals first identify the presence of violent behavior. This has been a problem in individual and family counseling because clients are often reluctant to reveal this information. It is the violence between husband and wife or parent and child that has become the family secret. In addition, the therapist must deal with their own value system about the existence of violence within the family.

It takes a skilled clinician to recognize symptoms and confront clients in a way that the client can view as helpful rather than intrusive. Violence should be suspected if clients, particularly women and children, take on the victim role by becoming passive, anxious or withdrawing from peers or from figures of authority. On the other hand, because clients learn that violence is a way to settle disagreements they may engage in hostile aggressive behavior which is much more identifiable. Counseling goals can include teaching appropriate problem solving skills and building self-esteem which will empower the client to take control of their life without the use or acceptance of violence.

Given the far reaching effects of violent behavior, community education becomes a necessary component to making substantial social change. This approach may be the challenge of the future, but is not without problems. The family has long been

held as a sanctified unit; one that is exempt from outside interference and many agencies and school systems are reluctant to enter into any action that would violate this institution. In addition, an attempt to disrupt such a well established norm may cause additional stress which could produce further violence. It is not unusual for an unwanted behavior to increase in volume during the process of extinction. The process of providing community education to facilitate change has been used in the treatment of other social problems but the efficacy of the approach is unclear. Further study is indicated to assess the effectiveness. (Finkelhor, Hotaling and Yllo,1988) However, awareness of the problem appears to be the first step to change and a review of some of the work being done in the field and that of other social problems indicates that when the behavior is the object of public condemnation and resources are available for programs of change the unwanted behavior is likely to be reduced (Straus and Gelles, 1986).

CONCLUSION

There is no question that family violence is a major social problem and that the practice of using violence as a means of control exists in many cultures throughout the world. Because of the migration from nation to nation and the economic and political instability in the world today, stress and anxiety are on the increase. These stressors, as well as those usually observed in family circles, may precipitate further violent behavior.

Unacceptable cultural and societal norms are often maintained by the generational effect of family violence. This cycle of violence must be interrupted and more acceptable behavior for problem solving introduced if change is to take place.

While individual counseling interventions may ameliorate existing violence within the family, it is important to begin looking at long range preventive techniques. There has been some attempt to approach the problem through outreach programs to the general community and the success of these programs need to be more clearly evaluated. Community Education programs should be designed not only to provide education, but to present alternative problem solving skills.

The challenge for counseling is first to identify the existence of family violence and, secondly, to confront, educate and introduce substitute behavior to individual clients, to parents and to the general public. Further research may indicate which directions future programs should pursue to work toward the reduction of violence within the family and break the training cycle for future generations.

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Blended Families: Counseling Interventions for Complex Systems

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It is expected in the United States that over one half of the children born in the 1980's will experience divorce of their parents and then for most, their eventual remarriage. These children will spend an average of five years in a single parent home before the parent remarries (Hetherington, Stanley-Hogan and Anderson, 1989). Thus, we see that a sequence of family transition and reorganization is becoming the norm for most of our society. The experience of marital rearrangement is stressful for all family members. However, researchers are beginning to see a diversity of responses to these transitions with a potential for positive as well as negative outcomes (Hetherington, et al., 1989). Instead of viewing the nuclear family as the desired norm, consideration is now being given that single-parent households as well as blended or reconstituted families may also have many benefits for all members.

When a couple remarries, there is hope and expectation that the new family will become an instant family, with everyone loving each other and being happy (Visher & Visher, 1980). This myth of instant love and happiness is the first barrier to successful blending and reorganization of the new family. Simply because the couple love each other and are happy, this does not mean everyone else will be.

Blending families takes time. The work of James Bray and Associates at Baylor University indicates it takes anywhere from two to four years to stabilize a blended family. According to Stuart and Jacobson in their book Second Marriage (1985), the new family may find itself constantly in crisis. Adults and children come to the new family with past histories which may preclude instant bonding. All blended families are born out of loss and perhaps a sense of failure. Members have experienced some type of loss, be it through death or divorce, and as such, bring the fear of another. This factor must be recognized and everyone must be allowed to mourn what is gone at the same time when they are asked to rebuild.

The blended family must give up the nuclear family myth and create a new image of what is a family. For example, the new family may have four sets of grandparents, not two. And each one of these may have a different response to the break-up and reformulation of the family. This contributes to the stress the blended family may experience. In the traditional nuclear family norms of behavior, roles rituals and values evolve slowly over time. However, with remarried families, these must be established instantly. Problems must be resolved immediately, frequently before people know each other's needs. The potential for failure is enormous. It is estimated that over one third of remarriages end in divorce, with the break-up usually attributed to problems

with children and finances.

Thus, early intervention with remarried and blended families is important. Family counseling, groups, parenting information, and suggestions for problem solving along with handouts and reading can be used for this purpose. In order to intervene constructively, counselors need to be familiar with issues facing the blended family. Additionally, they need to be aware that new research is beginning to indicate that while the couple certainly needs to work on strengthening their relationship, in the early stages most attention must be on parenting and the needs of the children (Albert and Einstein, 1985). In the beginning, discipline should be handled by the biological parent, removing the step-parent from the "wicked step-parent" role until relationships are established (Bray, 1988). The step-parent must concentrate on friendship and act more like a "camp counselor" (Bray, 1988). Couples need to work out parenting issues apart from the children.

Issues with non-custodial parents may intrude heavily into the new family. Every effort should be made to remove children from the conflict if it exists. This may require reorganizing visitations and financial arrangements or involving a third party to improve communication. Positive relations and continued contact with non-custodial parents are important for children's adjustment to family transitions (Hetherington et al., 1985).

The child's age, developmental level, temperament and personality all effect adjustment to the blended family (Hetherington et al., 1985). Younger children are likely to be anxious and concerned about issues of abandonment and guilt. Adolescents seem to have more problems with the transition. Since this is normally a time of conflict and individuation, opposition to the new marriage and resulting blended family may preclude successful integration. It is important for the parents to recognize the difficulty of adolescent adjustment and not personalize or overburden themselves with guilt if they fail.

It is important for the children of blended families, regardless of their age, to be given an opportunity to mourn and grieve their losses, to reminisce, to accept the fact that the old family structure is gone for good and say good-bye. This takes time and requires repeated emotional reworking. A possible intervention would be to use family photos to express thoughts and feelings. For example, a bulletin board or album could be used for photos representing happy memories of the old family while another one may show photos representing beginnings or "firsts" for the new one. A family crest or symbol could be created to represent integrating the old and the new. Family members could be encouraged to exchange lists of things they like to do, things they miss and things they hope to do in the future. A family "gripe pot" could be placed on the dinner table and once a week, these could be discussed. Addressing concerns directly about discipline, sharing, chores, money, etc. can facilitate positive adjustment to the new family structure. Thus, teaching families how to listen and communicate in order to solve problems is an important task.

In closing, blended families are complex systems and as such, present counselors with many new challenges. Information, research and counseling services for these families are just beginning to be

offered in the United States. Many remarried couples are reluctant to seek help, feeling that to do so is a statement of failure. Counselors, teachers and other professionals need to work to normalize the anxieties, concerns and problems of the blended family and to encourage them to seek help and support with the transitions as a means to increase long-term positive adjustment for all members.

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ISSUES CONCERNING THE SUPPORT SYSTEM AND ADAPTATION OF ADOLESCENTS FROM SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES

Sue-Ching Chou

INTRODUCTION

The family reflects the transition of the social system. As long as the social constitution changes, the family will inevitably be influenced. For example,the divorce rate usually rises at an economic boom and vise versa. Therefore, family study is a comprehensive field of knowledge.

During the process of industrialization all around the world, some of the conventional family structures are under disorganization. The disorganization might be categorized into the following types: (a) the uncompleted family unit, (b) marriage annulment, separation, divorce and desertion, (c) the changes of roles, (d) empty shell, (e) family crisis caused by outside events, and (f) family crisis caused by inside factors (Goode, 1981).

Recently, owing to the death of the spouse, divorce, separation, military service, criminal offense, job desertion, being born to an unwed parent, etc., there have been more and more single-parent families in Taiwan, R.O.C. Issues concerning single parenting and its impact on adolescents become noteworthy ones.

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Singer (1979) studied the self-concept of children from single-parent families and from families with both parents and found that the self-concept of the former was more negative thanthat of the latter. Shinn (1979) reviewed literature and indicated that some researchers found children from single-parent families had lower academic achievement. Levitin (1979) pointed out that children from single parent family than those from two parents family had more behaviour disorders, academic failures,improper sex-role attitudes and behaviours as well as psychosomatic symptoms. Findings of clinical researches showed that children with divorced parents frequently had behaviours of denial, feeling of sorrow, depression, anger, low self respect, guilt and shame, and fear of being deserted. Besides, they were timid, immature or premature and had difficulty in the development of sex role.

IMPACT OF SINGLE PARENTING

As mentioned before,all those antecedents of single parenting cause the disorganization of family structures. Murphy (1961) defined the term "crisis" as events that are beyond individuals' ability to

manipulate. From this point of view, the family disorganization must be a time of crisis to the children who experience it. Some researchers regarded the family disorganization as a kind of family crisis (Hammond, 1979, 1981; Munsinger, 1975; Woody, 1978).

According to Caplan (1964), a crisis may disturb the homeostasis between the individual and the environment. While Rapoport (1962) proposed that the crisis state could be considered as fear or a threat of loss, or as a challenge.

A crisis event might eventually turn to be a productive growth experience as long as the individual reacts with proper coping mechanism. On the other hand, it might be a turning point for the emotion and mental health to deteriorate. It's critical for the adolescents from single parent family to be able to cope with the crisis event effectively since danger and chance are the two components of the crisis.

SUPPORT SYSTEM AND ADAPTATION OF ADOLESCENTS FROM SINGLE PARENT FAMILY

Caplan's (1976) writing about support systems depicts the idealized version of the family as fulfilling several functions for its members:

1. The family collects and disseminates information about the world.
2. The family serves as a feedback and guidance system to help its members understand their reactions to others and the reactions of others to them.
3. The family group is the major source for developing "the belief systems, value systems, and codes of behaviour that determine an individual's understanding of the nature and meaning of the universe, of his place in it, and of the paths he should strive to travel in his life" (p. 23).
4. The family serves as a guide and mediator in problem solving.
5. Family members provide material aid and concrete services to each other.
6. The family is a haven for rest and recuperation.
7. The family serves as a reference and control group.
8. The family provides the foundation for personal identity.
9. Family members assist each other with the task of emotional mastery.

Caplan's model may lead us to a more sophisticated and complex understanding of the support that adolescents who experience the crisis of family disorganization may require.

Crisis theory assumes that a person enters a crisis state because attachments are threatened and he/she lacks the immediate resources to respond adaptively (Levine and Perkins, 1987). In this sense, evidently, adolescents from single parent family call on members of social networks to find the psychological, social, or material resources useful in achieving a new state of adaptation.

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The Use of Genogram in Family Counseling

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The Use of A Genogram in Family Counseling

Introduction

In the era of 1990's, family therapy has been widely practiced in the West; and social workers in Hong Kong have started to adopt it as an intervention approach to work with problem families and individuals. Family therapy refers to "any psychotherapeutic endeavor which explicitly focuses on altering the interactions between or among family members, and seeks to improve the functioning of the family as a unit, its subsystems, and/or the functioning of the individual members of the family" (Gurman, Kniskern, and Pinsof, 1986).

Family therapy is not a unitary entity but consists of several schools. L'Abate, Frey and Wagner (1982) classified family therapy into three schools: psychodynamic, communication and structural. Madanes (1982) added in the experiential, the behavioral and the extended family system. He further subdivided the communication school into the structural and strategic approaches. Johnson (1986) included psychoeducational approach into his classification. While it is important for family counselors to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of each approach, the author believes that there are multi-perspectives to view the "reality" of the family. Practitioners with reasonable degree of competence should shift their own paradigm from time to time to match with the "reality" of the client's family, for being tied down by one particular approach will inevitably lock oneself in a deadlock and destroy the creativity of practice.

A genogram, as a clinical tool, is predominantly employed by family counselors trained after the extended family system school. However, it has become popular among family counselors of other orientations as well, simply because it enables the counselors to engage the family effectively, and to help the family reframe, detoxify and normalize emotional-laden issues (McGoldrick and Gerson, 1985).

The purpose of this article is to demonstrate the potential contribution of genograms to family counseling in Hong Kong. The two case examples selected serve more as illustrations to generate discussions rather than as prescriptions for practitioners to follow.

Conceptual Framework

According to McGoldrick and Gerson (1985), a genogram is a format for drawing a family tree that records information about family members and their relationships over at least three generations. It appeals to family counselors as it is the quickest means for the counselor to map out the complex family patterns and to relate the present issue within the evolutional context of the family.

The use of genogram is built on the assumption that a problem can be carried over from one generation to another generation especially when the family of origin fails to provide an environment for their members to become a "differentiated" self, that is, to be autonomous and self-directed, to be capable to differentiate one's thinkings from feelings, to respond to the environmental demand rationally and to be responsible for the consequences of these actions (Williamson and Bray, 1988).

Not every family encourages the mature growth of their family members. It is not uncommon that parents transmit their immaturity and lack of differentiation to their children which results to the development of marital conflicts, emotional distance or reciprocal over- and under-functioning in their own families. The tension of the spouse subsystem will sometimes detour to the child subsystem and will manifest in the form of school problem or behavioral difficulties. In light of this, the symptomatic child is the most triangled child in the family and thereby, the one most emotionally

caught up in the tension between the parents.

Hence, the goals of managing a child's problem should be: (1) placing the presenting problem in the context of the multigenerational system; (2) connecting with key family members and working with them to calm their anxiety and level of emotional arousal and, thereby, lower anxiety throughout the system; and (3) defining the parameters of the central symptomatic triangle, as well as important interlocking triangles (Nichols and Schwartz, 1991). In contrast to the belief of strategic and structural family counselors on behavioral change, Bowen (1976) thinks that understanding, not behavior, is the critical vehicle for change especially when the anxiety of the family is low. The construction of a genogram can help the family have an intellectual understanding of their problem, rethink their present family relationship and motivate them to have possible change.

An intergenerational family perspective provides a rich and powerful way of understanding the family problem and effecting change across the generations. An extended system approach to family therapy has been criticized as being too expensive as the duration of therapy usually was very long. Experience told us that it was possible for the counselor to integrate the "technology" of the brief strategic school (Watzlawick, Weakland and Fisch, 1972) into the intergenerational family perspective to accomplish the goal of family counseling.

An intergenerational perspective is acceptable to Hong Kong families and is highly compatible to the Chinese culture. For instance, the Chinese often emphasized the importance of tracing three generations of the future partner's family to ensure that the marriage is a good match; and they always believed that the sins or wrong-doings of our ancestors would pass to the descendants and could be overcome by the latter only if they practiced moral conduct (ji yin de).

The case selected for presentation here, as illustrations of the potential contribution of the genogram in the assessment and treatment of the client's family, should contribute to the dissemination of practice knowledge for local use in Hong Kong.

Clinical Use of Genogram in Hong Kong

Illustration One

The setting

The author is one of the consultation team members of The Hong Kong Association for the Promotion of Family Therapy. It provides consultation service to social workers currently using family therapy to help their clients' family, with the aim to enhance their professional competence on family therapy and to achieve the goal of helping. Upon the referral, the consultation team will take over the case and will work on the family for a short period of time, usually lasting from six to ten sessions. Thereafter the referring agent would follow up the family.

Format of consultation

Upon the referral of the case, a consultation team composed of three to four members was formed. Members of the team were either senior practitioners in the field or social work educators well-trained in family therapy. Each member would take turn to be the counselor while the rest of the team members would sit behind the mirror to watch for the interactional process among the family members as well as the counselor. The counselor would take a break forty-five minutes after the counseling to solicit advice from the consultation team on the direction of work with the family. The counselor would round up the case according to the advice of the consultation team.

Background information

This case was referred by a school social worker requesting help for a thirteen years old adolescent with study problem, who would be kicked out from the school if he repeated again at the end of the school term. The client was a single child of a middle-class family. His father was a businessman and his mother worked in health care service. The family of three was living in a decent flat in a middle class region in Hong Kong; and their standard of living was high in comparison with the general public.

The school social worker worked with the client and the family for a year without any progress. According to the school social worker, the client was extremely passive, withdrawn and unmotivated for change. An intelligent test had been administered by the Special Education Department which showed that the son had an average intelligence. He often avoided seeing the social worker. The parents were anxious about their son's problem and had tried every means to help but in vain. Because of this, the school social worker solicited help and advice from our consultation team.

The problem

An assessment revealed that the attempted solution of the parents constituted the problem (Watzlawick, Weakland and Fisch, 1974). The interactional pattern of the family was as followed: (a) the client was inattentive and distractive when doing his homework; (b) the parents felt extremely worried and kept lecturing and nagging after him; (c) the client became more passive and withdrawn which further enraged the parents. In order to ensure the son could hand in his homework, the parents had taken over their son's responsibility of study. This interactional pattern repeated every evening. At the time of the referral, the family had already been overwhelmed by the client's problem. The parents were forced to spend all their leisure time supervising the son, to the extent of jeopardizing their work and upsetting their social life.

The intervention process

The family counselor helped the family clarify their expectations toward the counseling; and an agreement was made that the focus of the intervention would be on helping the client to take up the responsibility of study. Compliments were given to the parents on their persistent efforts of helping their son; and appreciation was given to the son on his participation in the counseling session although he did not want to come at all. The parents became much relieved after hearing the compliments. The counselor went further to reframe the problem by using the metaphor "different keys for different types of locks". The son's problem could be understood as the use of a common key for a special lock. Home work assignment was given, requesting the son to identify a piece of school work and to do it according to his own pace while his parents would restrain themselves from interfering.

After four counseling sessions, no progress was observed. The interactional pattern between the parents and the son prepetuated. The parents pressed the son even harder as he broke his promise. At this stage, the counselor decided to use a genogram to work with the family, on the assumption that the parents had carried the unfinished business from their families of origin and projected it onto the son.

The counselor invited the son to draw a family tree and put down all the essential information. Figure one was the genogram of the family. Being the eldest son of the family, the father's

family held a great expectation toward him. However, to the disappointment of his parents, he failed to study well. After he went out to work, he realized the importance of education to his career. Because of this, he resumed his study in the evening school and finished his secondary education there. As he worked hard on his job, he became quite successful in his present career. He felt that if he had obtained a higher educational qualification, life to him would be much easier. The mother was the least educated member of her family although she finally graduated from a professional school. The educational qualifications of all her siblings were higher than her. They were Ph.d holders and worked as university professors either locally or abroad. She described herself as rebellious and lazy, often going against the will of her parents. The more nagging her parents were, the more apathetic she would be toward her study.

With the aid of the genogram, the counselor helped the parents connect their unfulfilled personal needs with their son's problem; and they started to realize why they had pressed their son so hard.

From that session onwards, the parents became more let go in relating with the son. They also tried to stay back and to encourage the son to take charge of his own study.

Illustration Two

Background information

The case was referred by the medical social worker working in one of the big hospitals in Hong Kong. The family was composed of four members, with 40's year old parents and two sons aged 8 and 3. The mother and the eldest son have been attending the Adult Psychiatric Unit and the Child Psychiatric Unit of the hospital for ten years and two years respectively. The mother was diagnosed as suffering from personality disorder while the son was having acting-out behavior beyond the control of his parents. Financially the family was quite well-off as the father ran a small store. The mother was a housewife looking after the two sons.

Our consultation team took over the case; and ten sessions of family therapy were conducted, plus two individual interviews and several telephone contacts.

The problem

There were two problems bothering this family: (1) the poor father-son relationship and (2) the long-standing marital discord. A thorough assessment of the family situation was made. It consisted of office interviews with the family to obtain a comprehensive history and their own appraisal of the problem situation, direct behavioral observation of their interaction and professional exchange with the medical social worker. It was found that the couple were actually having difficulties not only in their sexual relation, but also in many other areas of their marital life, ranging from household management, child rearing practice, budgeting and sharing of leisure activities. The poor father-son relationship was only a tip of an iceberg, signifying the successful attempt of the mother to gang up the two beloved sons to go against their father.

The intervention process

In the first session, the couple's expectation toward the consultation service was vague. They just kept on complaining each other. Taking into consideration of the fact that their marital discord was chronic in nature and the couple's preference to work on the parent-child relationship rather than on their marital difficulties, the family counselor and the consultation team decided to improve the parent-child relationship first. Compliments were given to the couple on their persistent efforts of improving the family relationship; and homework assignments were given,

requesting the father to come home 30 minutes earlier than usual to play with his two sons while the mother could do whatever she liked to relax herself after the father coming home.

As a matter of fact, the team had helped the couple achieve the goals pertaining to building up the father-son relationship and decreasing opportunities for quarrels between the spouse. A mid-term evaluation was made by the fifth session. The couple felt satisfied with what they had achieved.

After the mid-term evaluation, the couple expressed their desire to work on their marital relationship, which was accepted by the team and the counselor. In the sixth session, the counselor made use of the genogram (Figure two) to help the couple appreciate their strengths and accept their weaknesses more. From the genogram, it was learned that the mother's family of origin was too poor to look after her; and she was adopted by her aunt who passed away when she was nine years old. The grandmother of the adopted family looked after her till twelve and with her sudden death, the poor little child was finally taken care by the adopted father, an alcoholic. The mother felt extremely insecure and often felt that she was a "nobody's" child in the world. In light of Bowen's theory, she had never learned to be a differentiated person, to grow up as an autonomous person with a sense of adequacy to master her own life. In contrary, the father grew up in a traditional family with intact family life. Striking most was the fact that he has no sister and all the family members, with the exception of his mother, were males. Together with the fact that he was studying in a boy's school, he had not much chance to interact with females. To round up the session, the counselor led the husband to understand why his wife was so insecure and demanding and facilitated the wife to accept her husband's emotional handicap of not reciprocating to her emotional needs.

The couple blowed up in the coming two sessions after the genogram. A lot of pent up hurt and frustrations were explosed. The wife felt that her husband looked down upon her more after learning her traumatic childhood experience. She claimed that she could no longer tolerate the marriage and planned to divorce. At this point, the team felt that individual work with the wife was vital, as she was in desperate need of individual counseling to clarify her own position and to make up her mind whether to stay with the marriage or to go ahead with the divorce. Finally, the couple decided to divorce. Family therapy was no longer useful to the couple. With the agreement of the couple, an arrangement was made with the medical social worker; and the family was referred to a family service agency for divorce mediation.

Discussion and Conclusion

As pointed out by McGoldrick (1981), a genogram is not a tool to elicit affects although it frequently does. It increases the client's intellectual understanding on the linkage of the present problem with his or her past experience in the family of origin. Yet the factual questions about the family and on the occurrence of the family events can open up many emotional issues which had to be dealt with at once. The strong reactions of the mother in case two reminded a family counselor the need to be sensitive to the emotional needs of the family members, and if necessary, to provide individual counseling to the member in need after the genogram.

The counselor can increase the clinical value of a genogram if he or she develops the genogram with a theme in mind relevant to the family. For example, in case one the questions asked by the counselor were related with personal achievement; whereas in the second case, the counselor focused on intimacy.

Moreover, in gathering the family history and compiling the genogram, it is important for the counselor to assess the current life cycle stage for the individual and the family. By doing so, the counselor can understand better the context for the problems and can formulate the intervention

strategy geared toward the developmental needs of the family and individuals. When evaluating the life cycle stage of the family, the counselor should take into account three issues: (1) the current problems and symptoms associated with this stage, (2) how the family has coped with previous life cycle transitions, and (3) how the adult's family of origin coped with similar life cycle stage (Williamson and Bray, 1988).

If the counselor wishes to make the best use of genograms in family counseling, he or she should have a full understanding of Bowen's theoretical postulations on family and family therapy. A genogram would not have any meaning to the family unless the counselor develops it from this theoretical framework, with the purpose to verify his or her hypothetical formulation/s and to work through the family blockage being carried over from the past generation to the present.

An intergenerational perspective has widened the scope of the counselor in understanding the client's problem and has opened up more options for intervention while the "technology" provided by the brief strategic school (Watzlawick, Weakland and Fisch, 1972) is a powerful means to engage the family, to reframe the problem addressed and to motivate the family for change. Theoretically these two schools seem to be at odd with each other, with the former focussing on the past while the latter on the here-and-now interactional sequence and family exchange. The marriage of two poses a challenge to the counselor but it is practically possible especially when the counselor has transcended their theoretical differences and integrates them well in practice. That is the art of counseling and the beauty of ingenious practice.

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The Effects of Values on the Self-Sufficiency of Single-Parent Families.

Vera S. Maass, Ph.D., is a clinical psychologist in private practice in Indianapolis, Indiana. She is also a mediator in divorce and child custody cases. Much of her work deals with marriage, divorce and adjustment to single-parent life. Dr. Maass was born and raised in Berlin, Germany, and naturally incorporates elements of ethnic pluralism into her work. She has expressed her ideas and the results of her work in worldwide presentations.

The structure of family life in many parts of the world is changing drastically and rapidly. In the United States single-parent households increased by 14.8 percent from 1985 to 1989. In 1989 there were nearly 8.6 million of households with children younger than age 18 that were headed by a single parent. This means that one out of four families is missing either a father or a mother in the home. Due to high rates of divorce and increasing numbers of births by unwed mothers almost half of the children born in the past ten to twenty years in America will be living in single-mother households, at least during part of their childhood. In the past much attention was focused on the difficulties inherent in single-parent families, especially female-headed families (Garfinkel and McLanahan, 1986; McLanahan and Bumpuss, 1988). It seems that children from female-headed homes marry and have children early themselves and are more likely to face dissolution of their marriages. Thus these trends are passed on from one generation to the next.

Children in single-parent families are exposed to a variety of risk factors, such as loneliness for the absent parent, lower financial resources, and potential dangers that arise from reduced supervision due to the single parent's outside employment. However, single-parent families are not automatically more problematic than a two-parent family system. In single-parent families there is a possibility for reduced ambiguity regarding rules and consequences as well as reduced tension and conflict that had been present prior to a divorce or separation. In fact, there is a significant potential for strength in one-parent families.

Children who live with their single mothers often do suffer economic disadvantages, partly because their fathers pay little or no child support (Garfinkel and McLanahan, 1986). Between 1967 and 1985 families headed by single women were the poorest of three major demographic groups. According to Duncan and Hoffman (1985), the income of single-mother families one year after divorce was only 67 percent of their pre-divorce income. Yet the income of divorced men is about 90 percent of their income prior to the divorce (Weitzman, 1985).

It is widely accepted among theoretical sociologists and clinical psychologists that divorce and remarriage have long lasting negative effects on the children's emotional well-being and that the living arrangements after a divorce are less healthy than they had been prior to separation or divorce (Baydar, 1988). As suggested by some (Smith, 1990), impairment in the children's adjustment process can stem from pre-separation marital conflict between parents, from the emotional stress caused by the actual separation, or from a combination of both. But the expectations of traumatic effects on children in single-parent households may turn into self-fulfilling prophecies.

If teachers, social workers, psychologists, and parents expect these children to have more difficulties, they may treat them in such a way that it will exacerbate or generate these "expected" difficulties (Amato, 1991).

Studies of the social and psychological development of children in single-parent homes in relation to parental sex have not shown significant differences (Santrock and Washock, 1979; Rosen, 1979). Risman and Park (1988) did not find an association between parental sex and parenting behaviors and concluded the skills necessary for functioning as a primary care-taker can be developed by female or male single parents. Instead they found that employment of the single parents made a difference in problems encountered by their children. Parents who work either full- or part-time reported that their children disclosed more to them and displayed fewer problems than was reported by unemployed single parents.

This is true especially for women. As pointed out by Menachan and Parcel (1991), the occupational complexity of mother's work has a positive effect on the home environments that these mothers provide for their children. Other research has shown that mothers often feel more self-competent after the divorce than they had experienced during their marriages. As divorced women assume full responsibility for themselves and their children, they also feel more competent about themselves (Brown, Feldberg, Fox, and Kohen, 1976; Mitchell, 1983). As working conditions greatly affect individuals' cognitive functioning, their attitudes and values, they, in turn, influence the home environments.

As diverse as single-parent families may be, if they are headed by single mothers, the great majority of them have one thing in common: their economic situation is unstable. Federal and State government agencies have initiated programs to help single mothers improve their economic situation by providing opportunities for training and education. However, these programs have not been as successful as had been expected. Indeed, some argue that projects such as the JOBS program may succeed only in converting the welfare poor into the working poor. Although the average educational attainment of welfare mothers is higher than generally believed, scores on tests are distressingly low. And about one third of welfare mothers have negative views about mothers working outside the home. In fact, both poor mothers who do not receive public assistance and welfare mothers seemed to have relatively low levels of self-esteem and fairly traditional attitudes about women with young children working outside the home.

To the superficial observer, the relatively high number of women in the work force and on the nation's college and university campuses may indicate that women finally are actively involved in shaping their own destiny. However, for many women the changes in roles are only skin deep. As the general culture supported by the socializing institutions may undergo relatively rapid change, we forget that the culture of individuals may change at a much slower rate. As explained by role theory, individuals conform to a given role as the result of approval expressed by other individuals. Thus mothers socialize their daughters to display subordinate behaviors by approving of thee "role-appropriate" behaviors in their daughters. This is not necessarily because

they fear that their daughters will be punished by the male-dominated society for any subordination but because they themselves have been socialized (Connel, 1985).

Thus the beliefs and attitudes of this generation's women are still being shaped through the influences of traditional sex role models of past generations as long-established attitudes and values are passed on - even though social institutions may already have made substantial changes.

Values, beliefs and attitudes are among the most powerful behavioral determinants. Any policies or strategies developed to help strengthen single-parent families need to consider the significant role values play in people's adjustments to changes in their life styles. Value considerations are prominent across a broad spectrum of disciplines. All the more surprising that most theorists practically ignore modifying values as part of the psychotherapy process (Maass and Featherstonaugh, 1981). The goal of most therapeutic relationships is the improvement of the client's quality of life and in the search for criteria to measure the achievement of this goal, we tend to focus on readily observable entities, such as overt behaviors. Values usually do not appear very prominently among the many elements of behavior change.

According to Rokeach (1968), values "may be consciously conceived or unconsciously held, and must be inferred from what a person says or does". Although operating values can be a source of distress, they can be quite obscure and unrecognized by the individual. People are sincerely committed to their values, they become stable, sacred entities that are not subject to investigation or change even though they may be quite self-defeating and unrealistic. Although individual values remain quite stable over the person's lifetime, the order of priority of individual values may change at different stages of a person's life. For instance, in younger years the value of freedom may have great importance to an individual, but as he grows older, security may replace freedom in the hierarchy of values with freedom being of lesser significance now. Thus the place that an individual value occupies within the hierarchy or constellation of values may change as a function of the person's stage in his life cycle.

In noting the difference between actions that lead to individual and those that lead to social goals, Adkins (1960) distinguished between activities in which success is of paramount importance and those that are characteristic in a partnership or a social contract. Courage, forcefulness, or aggressiveness are often commended when success is achieved in a hotly contested situation. Fairness, or a similar measure, is the basis for estimating cooperative behavior. Adkins proposed the dimensions "competitive" and "cooperative" to distinguish between individual excellences and relationship oriented values.

In a therapeutic setting it is useful to describe values as having most of the characteristics of beliefs and attitudes. They are broad conceptualizations about how a person ought to behave in attaining individual and social goals. While beliefs may be relatively neutral, values include strongly held positive or negative emotional components. In contrast to attitudes, which are usually situation specific, Rokeach (1968) defined values as abstract modes of conduct and terminal goals not tied to a specific object or situation.

Distorted value conceptualization, unrealistic hierarchies in the value system, and imbalance in the cooperative - competitive continua may result in self-loathing, pervasive guild, and crippling avoidance which, in turn, may lead to lowered motivation to achieve one's goal and missed opportunities. Individuals who submerge a balancing competitive value, such as personal freedom, while overtly demonstrating a dominating cooperative value, are likely to react as if they were deprived of the submerged value. In the stereotype homemaker we would expect behaviors indicating that their responsibility to the family (cooperative value) dominates any personal achievement or freedom (competitive value). This would seem like a poor foundation for a female household-head.

The significance of values in counseling was emphasized by Rokeach (1973) in the statement that "values, attitudes, and behavior can undergo lasting change when people become aware of certain contradictions within themselves" (p. 330). In counseling we need to teach that values are guidelines which are supposed to aid us in leading an efficient and rewarding life. Values are guidelines for our own well-being and for our interactions with others. If we don't make them work for us, they would be valueless.

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SINGLE PARENTS AND FAMILY DYNAMICS

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A report from the U.S. Department of Education begins:

"The research is overwhelmingly clear: When parents play a positive role in their children's education, their children do better in schools. This is true whether parents are college-educated or grade school graduates and regardless of family income, race, or ethnic background" (Berla, 1992, p. 26). The major recommendation from the report is that schools must project a welcome, an invitation, to parents to become involved. Such an invitation is often not provided to—or not heard by—families with single parents.

Researchers are, according to an article in the 1989 special issue on children, in The American Psychologist (Hetherington, Hagan, & Anderson, 1989), no longer considering single-parent families to be atypical or pathological. They finally recognize what has been obvious for several decades in the United States: families with single parents are here to stay.

In this presentation I want first to mention briefly the interpersonal dynamics in families with single parents from the parent's perspective; second, discuss the stereotypes of such families; and, third, suggest ways that school counselors can help and involve the families with the school.

Dynamics

Two parents have a baby. The baby cries, babbles, cries, talks, cries, and talks and along comes another baby. Now we have two babies looking vertically to parents for stability and affection and horizontally to a sibling. The two siblings have the power to demand attention to their daily needs from one parent or two parents or by setting one parent against the other or by one sibling against the other appealing to one parent or two parents. The third child arrives. More permutations!

The children's needs and developmental tasks are constantly changing. Changing needs and tasks are a shock to parents who believe everything is orderly and understood, only to have new issues to deal with. The parents deal with the children 24 hours a day for at least 18 years. The interaction does not cease.

Society has set responsibilities on parents. These responsibilities are to pass on tradition, socialize the young, and turn them into responsible members of a democratic society.

Suddenly, there is one parent, perhaps because the marriage broke down (the family did not break down: the family is still there, just as a family headed by a widow or widower is still there). The single parent is beset with the emotions of losing a partner and fearing for the very survival of the children. This single parent is typically the mother. The fear of providing for the food, clothing, medicine, schooling, emotional support, education, housing, and worst of all, childcare, means that the woman must succeed at her job and must succeed in

meeting the pressures at home as well. The fear and pressures are exhausting (Haines & Neely, 1989). No one compliments the woman for shouldering the responsibility for the survival of the children and the family. Instead, strong stereotypes and assumptions exist. Female heads of households in Canada, for example, were found to experience social discrimination and endure more stress than women living with a spouse or companion without receiving the moral support—or any other kind of support—that is commensurate with their responsibilities. Yet they do not create psychosocial handicaps for their children (Gauthier, 1985). Children's adjustment is pretty much the same in any family.

Stereotypes of Families with Single Parents

Certain stereotypes shape how children from families with single parents are treated in the schools. Parents deeply resent these stereotypes. Five of these stereotypes were identified in a needs assessment, or survey, of single parents (Henderson, 1981). The parents were the most rankled by the following five false images:

1. "The structure of the family unit has more effect on the child's well-being than the emotional climate of the home."
2. "Having divorced parents means the child has only one parent."
3. "The single parent's life-style is detrimental to the development of a child's morality."
4. "You can always identify a child from a broken home."
5. "To grow up properly, a child must have both male and female role models present in the home." (p. 126)

The school system conducted this particular needs assessment of the single parents to aid in development of a special school guidance program (Henderson, 1981). This Massachusetts school system had eight elementary schools (kindergarten through eighth grade) and one high school.* Four of the schools invited single parents to run workshops for the teaching faculty entitled "Assumptions about the Single-Parent Family." Eighty-nine percent of the 160 teachers and support staff rated the workshops as "useful to their classroom teaching."

Thus, school counselors have to consider two issues in forging the linkage demanded between home and school: how to help single parents cope with the changing developmental tasks of children and how to help them cope with the responsibilities and myths that society has set for parents. The "role strain" (Morrison, Page, Sehl, & Smith, 1986) can be eased by supportive education.

Counselors' Assistance

New York City's Teacher of the Year, John Gatto, in 1990 urged schools to "promote during school time confluences of parent and child that will strengthen family bonds" (Gatto, 1990, p. 100). As Henderson reported from her needs assessment of single parents, the stereotypes about single parent families that generate certain verbal and behavioral practices in the schools must be eliminated if family bonds are to be strengthened.

* (Note: Each of the 15,700 school districts in the United States has its own governing board and levies its own taxes.)

Parent education to aid single parents was undertaken by three community institutions in Fargo, North Dakota. The State University, a childcare agency, and a foundation offered monthly meetings, providing childcare and transportation, and followed with frequent contacts with staff and other parents (Mullis & Mullis, 1985-86). In Delaware, a research-based newsletter called "Solo Parenting" was mailed through the extension service and evaluated by a survey. The results showed that behavior changes were reported by parents in their parenting skills without face-to-face contact with an expert (Nelson, 1986). Communities without these agencies depend upon the local child development specialists, that is, the school counselors.

Not only parents and educators feel the need to forge stronger ties. A recent report in Guidepost, the newsletter of the American Counselor Association, provided student data from a study conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and Sylvan Learning Center (McGowan, 1992). The 11th and 12th grade student sample from across the nation rated teachers very high but parents much lower in helping them succeed in schools. Forty-two percent said parents rarely (including never, or not sure) were involved in their education, 44 percent said somewhat involved, and 14 percent said heavily involved. The students said they wanted their parents to help more with homework, provide outside help from sources such as tutors, provide rules for at-home study, and meet with educators.

Counselors can provide assistance to parents in several ways:

1. Provide parents with a set of rules of etiquette and decorum that will be reinforced at school. They can develop consistency in similar rules set for the household. They will not feel so all alone when the child whines, "But Jennifer gets to...(whatever)." Children can always find something to be in conflict with the parent about, but what single parents do not have is constant support from another adult for maintaining certain rules.

Support and help parents recognize that generational boundaries must be maintained between adults and children. The stability of adults in home and school creates the environment children need for emotional security.

2. Devise many ways to provide parent training in developmental tasks. Counselors have a vast amount of knowledge of pressures and needs of children at each stage. If parents can anticipate changing demands of children, they can better handle shifts in stage-related emotions.

3. Teach parents to ask daily about what is happening in school, and if there are any messages from school. In middle and high school, have one educator know the child well and communicate frequently with the parent. Help parents structure time, environment, and rules for homework.

4. Find ways that single parents, who have little discretionary time, can contribute some volunteer time with brief or one-time commitment.

5. Teach parents listening skills and negotiation skills: give counseling away.

Conclusion

Recognizing that family dynamics differ when only one adult is orchestrating the family helps counselors develop assistance. Involving single parents with the educational system first requires elimination of unexamined

assumptions held by educators. Second, assisting parents in dealing with changing developmental tasks is recommended. Third, the assistance that the trained counselor can provide in furthering parenting skills is essential.

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A STRUCTURAL-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE OF WIFE ABUSE IN HONG KONG: IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING

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A STRUCTURAL-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE OF WIFE ABUSE IN HONG KONG: IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING

INTRODUCTION

Wife battering is a complex, multi-dimensional social problem. It is now recognized as a universal problem with high social cost. In this paper, wife abuse includes physical abuse, psychological abuse, sexual violence, social abuse and financial abuse by a husband against his wife causing physical and/or emotional harm. The nature of abuse can be of various intensity and severity (Rowan, 1986, p.27)

The literature on family violence research indicates that structural inequality is a fundamental cause of wife abuse in many societies (Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Straus, 1980; Straus, 1991). Increasingly, there is greater emphasis on the cultural components to account for the variation in the rate and forms of wife abuse among different cultures and societies (Conklin, 1979; Kalmuss & Straus, 1982; Yllo & Straus, 1990).

This paper aims to describe the nature of wife abuse in Hong Kong from a structural-cultural perspective, based on studies on family and marriage and battered women in particular. The most fundamental assumption of the structural-cultural perspective is that wife abuse is produced by both structural (family type and structural organization; conjugal roles and power, and family resources) and cultural factors (norms defining conjugal roles and power, attitudes towards conflict and violence). The first part of this paper will describe the socio-historical heritage of marriage and wife abuse in traditional China. Part two will focus on the changing social and normative dimension of marriage in contemporary Hong Kong. Finally, the major issues in counselling will be discussed.

MARRIAGE AND WIFE ABUSE IN TRADITIONAL CHINA

In traditional China (before 1911), the family was the cornerstone of society, which performed encompassing functions. The traditional Chinese family was essentially patrilineal, patriarchal, primogeniture and patrilocal. It had a strong authoritarian character and was stratified according to gender and age. As in most peasant societies, marriage was a family affair for the main purposes of ancestral worship, perpetuation of the family lineage, service to parents-in-law and confering adult identity.

Husband and wife had clearly differentiated roles and status, each with separate spheres of influence. While husband assumed the roles of provider, educator, disciplinarian and decision-maker; Chinese wife was chiefly responsible for domestic duties related to homemaking, childrearing and kinship. Within the patriarchal family structure, husband-wife relationship was one of domination and subordination. As head of the family, man had supreme power and authority, and was in control of all family resources (including women and children).

Conversely, woman occupied a subordinate and dependent

position in the family and society as prescribed by cultural norms (such as the "three cardinal guidance principles", "three obedience and four virutes"). They were deprived from social, economic, legal and political rights and barred from educational opportunities. Through socialization, they were mainly prepared to be good wife-mother and obedient daughter-in-law. In general, woman tried to accommodate to existing realities and performed their culturally-defined roles. Since divorce was strongly discouraged, women were forced to endure distressed marriages for the welfare of children and the family reputation, some might commit suicide in protest. However, the status of women also varied depending on: family type (extended versus nuclear), husband's status and seniority in the family, life cycle stage and social class.

Whether the patriarchal structure and ideology underlying traditional Chinese marriage is conducive to wife battering has been sujected to much debate. Optimists contend that wife abuse was rare in traditional China. Folklores and antedotes depicted sporadic incidents mainly resulting from wives' highly deviant behaviour, such as filial impiety, husband battering, adultery and runaway. Firstly, it is argued that traditional Chinese values governing family life and marriage are heavily influenced by Confucian philosophy and ethics, which underscore harmony and reciprocal obligations in family relationships. The asymmetrical conjugal relationship was considered to be complementary and legitimate as prescribed by cultural norms, and might be characterized by "spontaneous consensus" between couples with regard to role definition and differential power (Fox, 1974, p.85). Secondly, contrary to the stress on "macho" or "strong mauculinity" in the west (which implies strength, aggression and violence) (Rosenbaum, 1986), aggression and conflict were strongly restrained (by condemnation or ostracization) to preserve interpersonal harmony. People were expected to use wits and reasoning to resolve conflicts rather than resort to force (Lee Sung, 1985). Lastly, the extended kins played an active role in conflict mediation. Hostility and aggression were confined within the family, lest the family reputation would be ruined.

On the other hand, pessimists contend that the prevalence of wife abuse might be more prevasive than what we known. Firstly, the patriarchal societal and family structure gave husband and parent-in-law the authority over woman, including the use of violence (such as beating and forced suicide) if they wished. Wives were treated as husbands' property for life and could be repudiated on seven grounds. Secondly, family and married life for woman in the extended household could be very stressful. In arranged marriage, the newly wed were strangers to each other. Besides ordinary problems of living in a nuclear family, woman faced multiple demands and conflicts over authority and loyalty in the extended family, particularly in polygamous marriages. Thirdly, The traditional hierarchial structure and the emphasis on harmony and "face" made the expression and resolution of conflicts within conjugal relationships very difficult. Fourthly, given the dependency of woman and the stigma on divorce, the low divorce rate in traditional China was a poor indicator of distressed marriages and possible wife abuse. However, due to the paucity of data, it

is virtually impossible to have an accurate estimate of the prevalence and nature of wife abuse in traditional China.

MARRIAGE AND WIFE BATTERING IN HONG KONG

Hong Kong is a predominant Chinese migrant society. In the past 25 years, there has been significant structural and normative changes in contemporary families and marriages as a result of rapid social-political-economic changes. Since 1971, marriage is a voluntary, life-long, monogamous union of a man and a woman in Hong Kong. Equal educational opportunities, higher employment of women in the labour force (49.5% according to the 1991 Census statistic), and rising expectations have resulted in a shift in the role and power differential in husband-wife relationship among dual earner families. The marriage type in contemporary Hong Kong can be considered as "modified patriarchy" (Rodman, 1967), wherein the traditional patriarchal norms have been modified by an influx of equalitarian ideals from western culture largely through education. Although equalitarian norms are fairly strong to moderate the cognitive orientation in most married couples, they are not strong enough to affect the actual marriage pattern. The autonomic marriage pattern still predominates irrespective of the educational and economic status of women (Lee, 1990; SJS et al. 1990). This discrepancy between ideal and actual marriage pattern may engender conflicts leading to the use of force (Tellis, Nayak & Donogue, 1982; Lee, 1990).

During the transition period, husbands who subscribe to the patriarchal ideology may perceive the equal or superior status of their wives as a threat to male-domination and prerogatives. They may resort to violence as a means to maintain their head-provider status when other resources are non-existent, particularly among working class men. Even when both couples share the equalitarian norms, power and role differentiation will become a matter of negotiation or bargaining, and the violation of distributive injustice can be an instigator of violence.

The nuclear family continues to be the most common family type (around 60 percent). Due to the housing policy, there is an increased trend of internal migration to new towns. Some studies (Wong, 1975; Harmony House Annual Reports 1989-91) suggested that the social and geographically isolation of families could make it exceedingly difficult for kins to mediate marital conflicts and deter family violence. Other studies (eg. Lee, 1990) stated that the family network in contemporary Hong Kong has remained fairly strong as a mutual aid system that serve to mediate conflicts and to offer resources for its members in need. However the relationship between family type, family stress and wife abuse have not been empirically tested.

Prior to 1980, there was virtually no data on wife abuse in Hong Kong. Until mid-1980s, wife abuse was officially recognized as an emerging social problem. The existing literature on wife abuse is sparse (Phillips, 1982; Mulvey, 1984; Harmony House Annual Reports, 1985-91; Longstaff & Lo, 1985; Sze, 1986). Based largely on clinical samples, it could not provide a comprehensive picture of the extent and nature of wife abuse in contemporary Hong Kong. Nonetheless, traditional culture and structural

factors have been repeatedly cited as major risk factors of wife abuse, alongside with personal/psychological factors (see Yeung 1991, for a summary of the data and studies on wife abuse).

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING

In this paper, the structural-cultural framework provides a conceptual tool for counsellors to understand the meaning of wife abuse in its unique socio-historical context, which is helping to render systematic and effective intervention. On an individual level, it is necessary to bring about cogntive changes to dispel cultural norms that legitimize wife abuse, to educate women about their legal rights and knowledge on available community services so that they could plan realistically for their own welfare. For batterers, simulataneous cognitive changes are necessary to promote them to take responsibility and to regain control over their aggressive behaviours, while stressing the unacceptance of wife abuse and its legal consequences. On the interpersonal level, counsellors should encourage couples to arrive at a more flexible and realistic view towards sex role and power differentiation, with emphasis on the reciprocal rights and obligations in a marital relationship, and to develop nonviolent, constructive interaction patterns. Counsellors need to be aware of the attitudes and responses of the extended family towards wife abuse and attempt to mobilize its resources in mediating marital conflicts and halting violence.

The societal attitudes towards wife abuse, responses from the informal and societal support network all contribute to the occurrence and continuation of wife abuse. There is a need for counsellors to expand their enabler role and include the advocate role to increase public awareness, to help dispel some of the secrecy and blame surrounding the problem, to encourage help-seeking among abused women, and to mobolize the necessary community resources to overcome the debilitating and restrictive conditions of battered women. It is of paramount importance to collect comprehensive information on the nature and extent of the problem, which will be useful for undertaking causal studies on wife abuse and the formulation of sound policies and programs.

Working with wife abuse is often an emotional laden experience. Certainly, a counsellor's personal value and attitudes towards the issue of wife abuse and gender, and the value of preserving marriage integrity, can all influence how such cases are handled. Often, counsellors become frustrated and angry at the passivity and dependency of abused women, and their "reluctance" to leave abusive situations (Lam Wong, 1989; Dickstein & Nadelson, 1989). Over-identification with the helplessness of abused women and attempts to rescue the victims may encourage their dependency on counsellors. By trying to keeping the marriage intact or fear for retaliation, counsellors may support and reinforce the abusive behaviour of batterers. Hence, it is essential for counsellors to conduct an honest apprasial of one's personal value system regarding these salient issues in working with wife abuse cases.

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CHANGES IN MARRIAGE PATTERNS IN HONG KONG:

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING

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INTRODUCTION

In our society, marriage is considered a long-term, voluntary two person relationship. It may be defined as "a socially legitimate sexual union, begun with a public announcement and undertaken with some idea of permanence...(it) spells out reciprocal rights and obligations between spouses..." (Stephens, 1963, p.5). Since 1970, marriage in Hong Kong has been based on free choice of partners, monogamy and equal rights of both sexes.

Over the last twenty years, marriage and family life have been undergoing rapid and drastic changes, partly as the result of a wide and complex array of social changes, and partly as the result of changing values and attitudes towards human sexuality, marriage and family life.

Local studies have noted that there are insidious but significant structural and normative changes in the Chinese families. The nuclear family continues to be the prevalent family type in Hong Kong. Marital separations and divorces are increasing steadily over the last decade. The number of divorce decrees have increased from 2,060 in 1981 to 5,507 in 1989. The number of separated or divorced persons have risen from 24,300 in 1981 to 42,700 in 1986. In 1981 about 10 out of every 1,000 ever-married people were divorced or separated. In 1986, the figure was 16. There were about 36,500 single parent families in Hong Kong in 1986 (Social Welfare into the 1990s and Beyond, 1991). Official statistics from the caseload of the Hong Kong Catholic Marriage Advisory Council have shown that the incidence of extra-marital affairs (EMA) are increasing. The number of cases with EMA have increased from 57 in 1989/90 to 140 cases in 1990/91 (i.e from 11.2% to 30.8% of the total caseload) (HKCMAC Annual Reports, 1990 & 1991). These trends and the growing phenomena of late marriage, cohabitation, voluntary singlehood, voluntary childlessness among married couples all testify to the changes in attitudes and behaviours towards marriage.

THE TRADITIONAL-MODERN PARADIGM

The changing nature of marriage from the traditional to the modern type in the west has been well documented. Since the 1960's, an increasing number of people have been experimenting with various forms of alternative life styles in their intimate relationships, particularly among young people (Robinson & Jedlicka, 1985; Huston & Ashmore, 1986; Bunk & Van Driel, 1989). At present, marriages in Hong Kong appear to be an interesting mixture between traditional and modern types.

In this artical, the traditional-modern paradigm will be adopted as the theoretical perspective to depict the current marriage patterns in Hong Kong. The framework is based on the works of a number of authors (Dominian, 1985; Yim, 1988 & Kiernan, 1991). They are described here as the ideal types. Yet in actual practice, they are found to be along a continuum, and

not necessary homogenous along all dimensions.

In traditional or institutional marriages, the functions of marriage are mainly for procreation, heritage, economic production, family alliance, adult identity and legitimate sexually activities for the couples. Arranged marriage is the prevalent marriage form. The family is patriarchal and hierarchially organized, with clear but rigid segregated conjugal roles. The husband-father is expected to carry out the instrumental functions (as provider, decision-maker and disciplinarian), whereas the wife-mother is responsible for the domestic functions (like housekeeping and childrearing). A good marriage is considered to be one wherein each of the couple fulfils his or her roles according to prescribed cultural norms.

Marriage is generally accepted to be a lifelong relationship and divorce is strongly discouraged. Despite marital difficulties, the couple is expected to tolerate with one another for the children and the extended family. Sex is conceived functionally (i.e. mainly for procreation) and fidelity and faithfulness are cherished moral norms. Concequently, the range of permissible sexual practices are much restricted, particularly for women. Premarital sex and extramarital sex are strongly prohibited. Children occupy a central role in marriage; they make the marriage, bind it and facilitate the well being of parents. There is a strong pressure to have children, especially sons, and childless couples are negatively conceived. Traditional Chinese marriage (before 1911) shared many of the characteristics of those in western societies.

In modern or companionship marriage, there is a strong emphasis on personal fulfillment and self development. It is a long-term, voluntary and exclusive relationship. Family structure is equalitarian in nature; couple makes joint decisions in a democratic manner. Correspondingly, conjugal roles are flexibility arranged by negotiation and consensus. A good marriage is based on the presence of love and happiness. The absence of which will be considered as sufficient ground for divorce irrespective of the presence of children and the objection of close kins.

In general, there is greater acceptance of divorce rather than staying in unfulfilling marriages. There is a more permissive attitude towards sexual practices (including premarital sex, cohabitation, childrearing outside marriage, extramarital sex, homosexuality etc.) and legalized marriage. Sex is considered to be an expression of love rather than just confined to procreation in marriage. The spouse relationship is more important than the parent-child relationship. There is a general decline in the number of children and some couple deliberately choose not to have any children. Abortion and adoption are more acceptable and widespread. Lastly, neolocality is common, whereby the newly wed prefers to set up their own home away from their parents, thus they are more autonomous from parental influences.

CHANGING MARRIAGE PATTERNS IN HONG KONG

Since the 1960s, there have been a number of sociological and psychological studies on family in Hong Kong. These studies have focused mainly on the structural and normative changes of Chinese families under the impact of industrialization, urbanization and westernization.

In general, local studies have indicated that though the muclear family is the prevalent family type, families in Hong Kong are not moving towards increasing conjugalism. A form of "modified extended family" appears to be the emergent type, where some elements of the traditional family structure and norms are retained and coexisted alongside structure and relationships characteristic of the western conjugal family (Sussman, 1965; Liu, 1966; Lee, 1967, 1990). This form of family is characterized by economic independence, neolocality, primacy of spouse relationship, multilateral parent-child relationship, and mutual help and contact with close kins.

There is a paucity of research on marriage patterns. What follows is a summary description of some of the pertinent marriage dimensions covered in previous studies (Stoodley, 1967; Chaney & Podmore, 1974; SWD et al. 1981; Lee, 1991; SJS, 1990). They include:

1. **Marital expectation** - Most people consider love to be the appropriate basis of marriage. But it seems that people have different interpretation of "love". In Stoodley's (1967) study, romantic love was generally rejected, rather the basis of love was considered to be similarity in education and social class, mutual respect and compatability.

2. **Mate choice** - People prefer to exercise their own choice in mate selection and reject arranged marriage. However, parental wishes, support and consent are not entirely discounted. The criteria that rank high in mate selection are compatability of personality and social background. They seem to be functional or consistent with the preferred marital relationship that emphasizes companionship and sharing.

3. **Conjugal role** - In general, division of family tasks and responsibilities seem to follow the traditional segregated sex-role differentiation. Husbands are primarily responsible for the provider role; whereas wives are chiefly responsible for child care, child socialization, house keeping and kinship roles, irrespective of their work and educational status. Some of the recent studies (BGCA, 1982; Lit et al., 1990) noted that there was an increasing trend towards more equalitarian role distribution among the higher income and educated families. Given the increase employment of women outside the home and the availability of domestic help, both the provider role and child socialization roles are increasingly shared between couples.

4. **Marital power** - With the gradual decline of the patriarchal ideology, the movement is towards a more equalitarian

conjugal relationship. This emerging equalitarian mode of decision making is largely autonomic in nature, with husbands and wives having different spheres of influence and authority largely prescribed by cultural and traditional norms. In some of the recent studies (SWD, 1981; SJS, 1990; Lee, 1990), the syncratic pattern of decision making in some sphere of family life, such as child socialization and finance, was also noted.

5. **Sex** - The general attitude towards sex (including premarital and extramarital sex, cohabitation, prostitution and homosexuality) remains to be fairly conservative yet pragmatic, as long as sexual practices do not deviate too much from institutionalized norms. Data from voluntary agencies and some of the studies (SWD, 1981; FPA, 1991) had shown that a sizable proportion of people, especially young people, were more permissive towards sex though not necessary promiscuous, Double standard between the sexes still persists. It is more permissible for men to engage in sexual excursion. There is a deep-seated disapprobation and scorn towards homosexuality. With the advance in medical technology and the liberation of sex from procreation, sex is increasingly accepted as an expression of love and a way to enhance couple relationship.

6. **Family and marriage satisfaction** - People are generally satisfied with their family relationships, particularly with marital relationships (Lee, 1990; SJS, 1990). Contrary to the assertion by Wong (1972, 1975) that the families in Hong Kong are structurally isolated, and the spirit of family care are dying out, most families are integrated and solidaristic. There is frequent interaction, as well as mutual concern and support among family members. They identify with one another's achievement and are willing to render support and assistance when necessary.

7. **Relationship with the extended family** - There is a split to norm of extended family living as well as on proposition concerning parental interference in the affairs of married children. Marital role tends to be more equalitarian in nuclear than in stem families. Alternatively stated, the presence of parents or parent-in-laws in the home tend to undermine the power of wives at home. Moreover, the greater dependency of the young couple on the extended family for support of any sort, the greater the interference (Chaney & Podney, 1974; Lee, 1990). This may be attributable to the problem of housing shortage or to the spirit of family living, where there are still lots of close and reciprocal exchanges with the extended family unit.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING

Since marriage attitudes and patterns vary in different cultures, societies and time in history, they must be understood from its unique social-cultural-historical context. There are three major issues that warrant the special attention of counsellors in working with marriage issues.

Although there is a general preference for the companionship and equalitarian ideal of modern marriage, studies (YWCA, 1982; Lee, 1990, Lit et al, 1990) have pointed out the discrepancy betwen ideal normative arrangements, role enactment and marital power in marriage relationships. In dual earner families, working wives often experience acute role strains and role overload. Whereas most men are reluctant to share more responsibilities in homemaking, childrearing and child socialization activities. This sense of distributional injustice can be a source of conflict, often hidden, between marriage couples. Counsellors need to acknowledge such hidden gender conflict inherent in couple relationship, and try to promote a more equalitarian conjugal relationship characterized by flexibility in family roles and shared decision-making.

Sexuality is a sensitive and controversial topic in many societies. In Hong Kong, with increase sexual permissiveness and variations of life styles in intimate relationships, counsellors need to address these issues squarely with clients in premarital and marriage counselling. It is important that they understand their own cultural system that define marriage attitudes and behaviours as well as the wide variation of marriage patterns in contemporary Hong Kong society. This will enable them to discuss the sexual issues with their clients comfortably, with an open and non-judgemental attitude, and help clients reach a healthy balance between cultural expectations and individual needs and wants.

Whatever the problems couple may be facing in their marriage, counsellors have a very important task of helping couples identify the strength and areas of satisfactions in their relationship alongside their frustrations and dissatisfaction, by reviewing the various areas of the couple's functioning. Relationships with the extended families can be an important source of support to cement the marital bond, though extreme commitment and dependence on such relationships would interfere with marriage.

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'Marital Counseling of a Schizophrenic Couple ': a Real Case Study in Hong Kong

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I. INTRODUCTION

The problems of sex, courtship and marriage of psychotic ex-patients have long been ignored by the professionals in Hong Kong. Not to be mentioned are the homosexual psychiatric half way houses and hospital wards, many professionals, including social workers and medical professionals still think that psychotic patients and ex-patients especially the schizophrenic ones should be forbidden for normal heterosexual life such as sex, courtship and marriage. The reason to support their argument is that sex, courtship and marriage may be a source of stress to jeopardize the fragile mental state of the mental patients and ex-patients (Eisentein,1956; Dupont, Ryder & Grunebaum,1971 ; and Vaugan & Leff, 1976). They think that as mental illness may imply incompetence and weaknesses in interpersonal relationship, self care and social skills, sex, courtship and marriage may further intensify such weaknesses and incompetence with a result of more marital and family problems (Bird, Martin and Schuham, 1983; Birtchnell and Kennard,1983; Bothwell and Weissman, 1977). Coupled with the traditional Chinese conservative culture, it is common to see a professional worker who feels reluctant or even refuse to share the patients' sex problems. It is also common for a professional worker in psychiatric half way house or in day hospital, rejects the normal dating and courtship among inmates and patients with a rigid assumption such things will certainly do more harm than good to the psychiatric patients and ex-patients. Nevertheless, according to the concepts of normalization and integration, rehabilitation of the disabled should be done within a normal heterosexual world (Nirje,1976: 31) so that the disabled can have a healthy and normal rehabilitation process within the community. Instead of avoiding sex, courtship and marriage, more effort in terms of sex education, sex counselling, marital therapies and counselling should be done so that the mental ex-patients can enjoy normal healthy sex, courtship and marriage (W.H.O., 1975).

In this paper, the writers are going to describe the sex, courtship and marriage of a pair of couple with schizophrenia records. Both of them were discharged residents from a psychiatric half way house run by Richmond Fellowship of Hong Kong (RFHK). With the mission of therapeutic community, and being the sister agency of the Richmond Fellowship International, RFHK was the first agency in Hong Kong to run heterosexual psychiatric half way house. Under the counseling and guidance of the workers in RFHK, this couple initiated their dating and courtship while they were inmates in the same half way house. Later, they married and lived independently in a rented flat in the same district of the half way house.

II. THE SCHIZOPHRENIC COUPLES

For the sake of confidentiality, the names of the couples will not be disclosed in this essay. Also, some of the personal particulars of them will be changed a little bit so as to disguise their identities.

Mr. A was an adult near thirty with schizophrenia record for many years. He had been hospitalized for several times in mental hospital. He was a discharged patient from a mental hospital as he was admitted to the half way house for psychiatric rehabilitation. He was quiet and inert as most chronic and institutionalized psychiatric patients. He had some problems in expressing his feelings properly. Sometimes, he might show some mild physical aggressive gestures as ways to exhibit his hidden anger, impatience or frustration. His self care skills were satisfactory. His motivation to work is not strong enough to push him for permanent employment.

Miss B was a good looking female around thirty. Similar to Mr A. she had been suffering from schizophrenia for a quite number of years with an on and off record of hospitalization. However, in comparison with Mr. A., Miss B was more expressive and with better social skill in relating others. She was more keen in searching for a stable employment and financial income.

Mr. A and Miss B knew each other while they were inmates in the same heterosexual half way house. As Miss B was quite pretty, she was noticed by some male residents in the half way house. Among them, Mr. A seemed to be the most genuine one with constant support and concern to Miss B. No sooner, they start their dating by going out for movie and shopping. They could get along well. Their courtship developed quickly as they lived within the same the half way house. No doubt, their intimate behaviours were complained by some conservative residents as well as staff. After some discussion with them, they agreed to maintain their intimate behaviours inside the house within certain limits. Mr. A, being inert and passive, seemed to be a good listener to Miss B's frustration in her family and in her job. Miss B, being a little bit pushy and manipulative tended to be an activator for Mr.A's inertness. After about one years' courtship, both of them decided to get married. As their mental state were quite stable and they were mutual supportive to each other, under the advice of the social workers in the house, they were discharged from the house. They lived together in a rented flat in the same district as the house. In the day of their marriage ceremony, the officer in charge of the house was invited as official witness of their marriage. Although, they were discharged, the social worker from the house still visit them regularly to ensure they could adjust well in their marital life.

III. THE NEEDS OF THE SCHIZOPHRENIC COUPLES

The needs of the schizophrenic couples, to a large extent is quite similar to those of normal couples. First, they had to maintain their mental health so as to prevent relapse. In other words, both of them should be sensitive to the pre-relapse signals of his/her partner so as to avoid further provoking of conflicts and deterioration of mental health. Secondly, as chronic schizophrenic patients may be inert and passive as Mr. A., their needs of smooth mutual verbal communication in expression of feelings and opinions should be facilitated. Thirdly, being hospitalized for quite a number of years, their decision making power, particularly in family budgeting was needed to re-trained so as to build up a better financial planning for their family. Furthermore, they needed vocational support so that both Mr. and Mrs. A can maintain a stable job which was crucial for a normal family living and stable family income. Also, as normal couple, sex and family planning had to be induced to ensure that they could have a normal marital life. Finally, housing and accommodation was vital as rent and prize for private house was unreasonable high in Hong Kong. All such needs, if not being properly channelled and met, would become potential problems which jeopardize both their marriage and mental health. In the next section, the writers will mention the marital counselling rendered by the social workers in RFHK in helping them to adjust their marital life.

IV. MARITAL COUNSELING OF THE SCHIZOPHRENIC COUPLES

To render effective marital counseling for this schizophrenic couple, it was very important that the social worker should have a normalized attitude in facing the courtship and marriage of the schizophrenic couples. S/he should realize that it is normal for schizophrenic patients or outpatients to have normal heterosexual interactions in forms of healthy dating, courtship, and marriage. Also, s/he should be relaxed in sharing the sex life of the couples. Furthermore, s/he should know that marriage was both a source of support or conflict to schizophrenic couple. Apart from counseling with schizophrenic couple, s/he should also share such views with the relatives, neighbours and related professionals of the couple so that they could also have a normalized attitude in supporting their courtship and marriage.

Certainly, normal counseling skills and intervention models of marital counseling could be used in helping the schizophrenic couples. Nevertheless, certain crucial elements were stressed in the whole process of counseling. First, as this schizophrenic couple did have communication problems in social interaction, it was very important that the couple can re-established a smooth communication pattern in their marital life. Secondly, as most chronic schizophrenic patients, this couple had poor support system and social network, it was very important that the couple can mutually support themselves in facing any problems in their marital life. Thirdly, multi-disciplinary work was stressed. The worker had close contact with other related professionals. S/he was always ready to transfer the client for further medical care, sex education, family planning, vocational support and accommodation. All these three elements were emphasized in

helping the couples to gratify the above mentioned needs in their marital life.

First, both of them were learnt to support each other during the low ebb of their mental state. Before their marriage, Miss B had been relapsed and hospitalized for a short period. Mr. A had played frequent visit to her and support her in the process of rehabilitation. Both of them were learnt to remind each other to take the medication and visit their psychiatrists regularly so as to maintain stable mental health .

Secondly, as Mr. A was inert and a bit lazy in employment, the worker encouraged Mrs. A to seek suitable employment for him. As she was a civil servant working in the government, she pushed him to apply a job in the government. She helped him to take up an application form and dressed him nicely for interview. She pushed him to maintain the job in a satisfactory level.

Thirdly, both Mr. and Mrs. A were poor in family budgeting. They liked to buy unnecessary or expensive items for their enjoyment and entertainment. Under the advice and guidance of the worker, they learnt to set a budget for each month and learnt how to save for the rainy day.

In the whole counseling process, Mr. A was always quiet and inert. Mrs. A had a tendency to speak for him whenever the worker asked any questions. Mrs. A seemed to be manipulative and dominant in family decision. The worker tried to facilitate the expression of Mr.A.in the process of counseling. Communication exercises were rendered so that they can build up a better communication pattern. Mrs. A was spontaneously reminded by the worker that Mr. A had a tendency to hide his feeling especially anger and frustration to an intolerable extent which may expose to violent and aggressive act. She was learnt how to be sensitive to the feelings and the needs of her husband.

In addition, they were advised by the worker to build up a better relationship with their landlord so that they can be accepted. As the rent for their room is quite expensive, they were reminded by the worker to apply for compassionate rehousing in public estate through their responsible medical social worker in the outpatient clinic.

Mr.A was complained by his wife as impulsive and not considerate enough in sexual intercourse. She was encouraged by the worker to share and discuss such views with Mr.A so that they could have better interaction in this area. Finally, they were reminded by the worker to seek consultation for proper contraceptive measures from Family Planning Association in Hong Kong.

V. CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, this paper was an account of a real case study of the courtship and marriage of schizophrenic couple. The writers have briefly described the process of marital counseling of these couple so that they could adjust their marital life. No doubt, to have constant support and counseling, resources support in terms of manpower is very important. Indeed, it was a pity that the above mentioned marital counseling to these couple had been stopped because of shortage of government finance in supporting aftercare service for the discharged residents from the psychiatric half way houses. All counseling service rendered to this discharged couple was part of the programme of a pioneer aftercare project rendered by the RFHK. Workers in this project had devoted extra-workload and staff time in rendering personal counseling to discharged residents from the half way houses. Certainly, this actual case study strongly proves that with constant support and advice, schizophrenic couple can re-integrate back to the community for a normal rehabilitation. The problems they encountered were actually not much different from those of normal couples. The myth and misconception about the deteriorating effects of marriage among psychiatric patients should be reconsidered under the normalization and integration trend in rehabilitation service. Psychiatric patients and outpatients should have the full right to enjoy normal heterosexual life as other persons in our society.

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The Singapore Family in the 90's Implications for Counselling

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Introduction

In Singapore, the fast-paced social and economic changes of the last decade have put new strains and tensions on the family unit. Educationists and counsellors alike, need to address family issues and their accompanying problems. This paper highlights some changes in the Singapore family and their implications for counselling.

Erosion of the Extended Family Structure

In the past decade, it has become very obvious that gradually but surely, the extended family has been replaced by the nuclear family. Despite Government's efforts to keep extended family units together, young couples setting up homes just do not wish to stay with their own parents under the same roof any more, not even too close for comfort.

In an attempt to help keep extended families together, the government housing authorities experimented with the building of "granny flats" and "multi-generation flats" aimed at encouraging the extended family to live under one roof or at least to live near one another. The former are studio apartments located on the ground floor for grandparents who wish to live near their married children and their families. The "multi-generation flats" are two homes separated by a wall, specially designed for three-tier families to allow privacy for each generation and yet close proximity to make it easier for the two generations to look after each other. In 1987, the Government built 370 multi-generation flats in a pilot scheme. Although all units were eventually sold, the demand was not encouraging at all. In 1991 the Housing authorities built a number of granny flats for booking in another pilot project in one of the new towns but only four of these were taken up. Discouraged by the response, the Government has since stopped building both types of flats.

While extended families are breaking up, Singapore's population is ageing. The problem, in a nutshell, is that one out of four Singaporeans will be above the age of 60 by the year 2030. While there are eight working people supporting one aged person today, this figure will be drastically reduced to only 2.2 working people supporting one aged person in 2030. A the same time. while the life expectancy is now 68, it may be 80 by 2030. This trend has come about, not just as a result of the natural process of ageing of the general population, but also because of the slow birth rate in the past decades.

Table 1

Life Expectancy of Singaporeans

Year	Male	Female
1970	65.9 Yrs	72.1 Yrs
1980	68.8 Yrs	74.1 Yrs
1990	70.3 Yrs	75.6 Yrs
2000	71.1 Yrs	77.0 Yrs

The problem is further compounded by the increased labour force participation of women, the traditional care provider for the elderly. Also the prevalent small family size means that there will be fewer family "caregivers" in the future.

Table 2

Ratio of Aged Dependent to Working Adults

Period	Ratio
1980	1:9.1
1990	1:8.0
2000	1:6.0
2030	1:2.2

Postponement of Marriage

Although the number of marriages in Singapore has risen over the years, couples are tying the knot later. In 1985, the average age of marriage was 27.7 for men and 24.9 for women. By 1990, it was 28.8 for men and 25.9 for women. In the next decade, the groom will most probably be in his mid-30s and the bride in her early 30s - if the present preference of Singaporeans to get married later continues.

Table 3

Mean Age of Grooms and Brides

Year	Groom	Bride	Difference
1961	27.7	23.7	4.0
1971	27.7	24.0	3.7
1981	27.5	24.6	2.9
1991	29.0	26.2	2.8

One interesting observation can be made from the statistics shown in Table 3 is that while the mean age of grooms shows a slow steady climb in the past 30 years, there is a marked increase in the mean age of brides. In other words, women are getting married later and later. It has also been reported that graduates marry at an even later age, with men marrying at 30.7 years and the women at 27.6 years.

Postponement of Parenthood

Couples are not only marrying later, they are also starting their families later. The 1990 population census shows that the number of couples having children at an older age has tripled. In 1985, 23,000 babies were born to women aged 30 and above. Amongst these about 6,500 were born to women above 35 years old. In 1990 women above 30 had 83,000 children, of which 17,500 were born to those above 35. Very often, couples postpone parenthood because they want to first "establish themselves financially". This trend also means that birth rates have declined, especially when couples who have children tend to restrict themselves to one or two.

Issues of the Working Mother

The steadily increasing participation rate of women, particularly married women, in the paid work-force has been observed in may countries and Singapore is no exception. In 1980, 44% of the workforce comprised women, of these only 12% were in professional and technical jobs. By 1990 the overall percentage of women in workforce rose to 50% and of these 16.4% were in professional and technical jobs. The distribution of the female workforce in the various occupations is shown in the next Table.

Table 4

Women in the Work Force

Type of Work	%
Production lines	41.2%
Clerical % sales	38.5%
Administrative/managerial	3.9%
Professional & technical	16.4%

Another interesting observation is that more married females after age 40 years are working. The participation rate for married females peaks at 20-29 years but quite sharply between 30-39 years whereas the participation rate of married females in the age group 40-49 years stabilises. Because women tend to retire earlier, the participation rate drops again after 55 years.

The increasing number of young married female workers (between 20 to 29 years of age) in the work force has profound effects on family functioning, especially in the areas of caring for the aged sick in the home as well as the care and nurture of the young.

Increase in Divorce Rates

While on one hand more couples are getting married, on the other, divorce rates are on the rise. Statistics show that in the past decade, the number of divorces per thousand marriages went up from 0.44 to 6.2 over the past decade.

In general adultery, money problems and desertion are the most common grounds for divorce. The statistics also reveal that the "high risk" couples are those aged between 25 and 34 years. In 1990, the divorce rate for the 25-29 age group was 13 per 1,000 females and 14 per 1,000 males. For the 30-34 age group, it was 9 and 11 per thousand marriages. What is worrying is that these are the couples that are most likely to have children of school-going age. In fact, it is estimated that of the three thousand divorces recorded in 1991, at least 5,000 children were involved.

Table 5

Trends in Divorce

Year	No. of Divorces
1978	927
1980	1,721
1982	2,111
1984	2,311
1986	2,608
1988	2,916
1990	3,350
1991	3,474

Increase of Single Parent Families

The increase in divorce rates means that the number of broken homes is on the rise and more and more children are being raised by single parents - a trend that is causing much concern among educationist and counsellors.

Every year, an additional 3,000 single parent families are created through divorce alone. On top of this, there are thousands of families broken up by parents separating or by either one of the parents dying. Statistics also show that the bulk of single-parent households are headed by women.

A survey done by a local counselling agency HELP (Help Every Lone Parent) in 1989 showed that the most common problems faced by single parents in Singapore are the following :

* coping with their emotions after the trauma of a separation, divorce or death of a spouse
* locating childcare facilities that are affordable
* taking on the full load of parenting
* juggling their limited finances

About 10% of these parents also have legal problems with their ex-spouses and face difficulties getting suitable accommodation.

Family-Related Problems

Stress-Related Problems Among School Children

With divorce on the rise and more family units breaking up, family-related problems are also on the rise. First of all, local counselling agencies report an increasing number of school children seeking help for stress problems. For example, in 1980, about 600 school children were seen at the Child Psychiatric Clinic at the Ministry of Health. By 1991 this number was almost doubled to 1,211 child patients.

The Runaways

The second concern is with the increasing number of youths who run away from home. According to a Strait Times report (26 August, 1991), 74 youths left home in 1989 and the number of runaways increased to 132 in 1991. At the time of the report, 73 of these 132 youths were still missing. Youth counsellors interviewed said that lack of parental supervision, boredom and interpersonal relationships problems are common factors contributing to the increase in runaway cases.

Crime Rates Among Youngsters

According to police records, the number of youngsters involved in crimes is on the rise. In 1988, 1,571 juveniles aged below 16 were arrested for various crimes and juvenile delinquency rate has been on the increase over the years. The most common offenses identified are shoplifting, robbery, vandalism, burglary and other minor thefts.

Suicide Among the Young

Another concern is with the increase of suicide rates which have risen from 8.7 for every 100,000 people in 1970 to 14.6 in 1990. Statistics also reveal that people in the high risk groups are singles, those in their 20s and 30s, teenagers and the aged.

Table 6

Suicide Among the Young

Year	Population (10 -19 Yrs)	No. of Suicides	Rate per 100,000
1987	436,800	13	2.9
1988	427,300	15	3.5
1989	422,100	21	4.9

Table 7

Factors Associated with Suicides (1987 - 1989)

Factor	%
Physical illness	11.8
Mental disorder	39.0
Interpersonal problems	32.0
Financial problems	13.5
Crime	1.6
Others	1.6

Conclusion : Tasks Ahead to Keep the Family Together

The challenge facing Singapore in the 1990s is how to preserve the family as the basic building block of society. The strains on the family are already showing in various ways and educators and counsellors alike are acutely aware of the urgent need for concerted efforts to keep the family together. It is hoped that this can be facilitated by the following :

1. Pro-active Approach in the Provision of Social Services

The days of the fire-fighting approach in the provision of social services are over. What is needed now is a pro-active approach in the provision of social services to enhance every aspect of the family life rather than taking stop-gap remedial measures when crises arise.

In the area of child care the Government has taken the lead in subsidising child care up to $100 per month to help working mothers. The Ministry of Community Development also operates a Day Care Scheme to enable children under three to be cared for in individual homes. Welfare organisations have also organised before school or after school care programmes for school-going children to meet the needs of latch-key children.

Most counselling agencies have shifted their focus in service delivery from providing mainly remedial services to organising developmental programmes such as marriage preparation courses and parent education programmes. Another preventive measure is the introduction of hotline services to enable troubled children and youth share their problems before they are driven to desperation. Currently there are in Singapore about 10 hotlines for young people and more than 20 agencies offering help to young people, most of which were set up in the past five years.

Meanwhile, there have been suggestions to set up a National Family Institute to conduct and coordinate research on family issues and act as a resource centre for family matters. A social action group comprising mainly woman lawyers has also been pushing for the setting up of a Family Court where counsellors can try to save marriages before divorce becomes inevitable for married couples.

Other preventive measures include the organisation of pre-retirement seminars and the setting up of day care centres in the communities for the care of the elderly.

2. Family-Focus in the Delivery of Counselling Services

In recent years there has been a mushrooming of Family Service Centres all over Singapore. Such family service centres are usually neighbourhood-based, multi-service centres aimed at helping individuals and families with their social and emotional difficulties. Programmes at such centres range from developmental programmes such as Parent Education and supervised play for children to family-focused counselling programmes for all members in the family.

In the provision of professional counselling service, there has also been a shift from individual case work to family therapy. More and more, counsellors are aware of the family unit as a system in which direct intervention with one particular member may be futile without treating the whole family as a unit. There is also the realisation that counselling skills need to vary according to the age and needs of the clients. Thus there is an increasing demand for the professional training of family therapists as well as specialised skills associated with different age groups such as youth work and counselling of the elderly.

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HIGHER EDUCATION THEME

Higher Education in the 21st Century

Lawrence M. Brammer

Introduction and Theory Base

I want you to imagine with me three global scenarios of the early 21st century. The first is a world in continuous conflict, increasing shortages and population growth out of control. The result - a declining quality of life. The second possibility is a world in peace with abundant resources optimally distributed in a sustainable environment. Information systems and biotechnology will be controlled for the good of all. The third scenario is an unstable world with a precarious balance of resources and population. This is, basically, an extension of our present situation. Long term future models of higher education would be different in the three scenarios. My view of the future is based on my current experience with the World Futures Society and learnings from my early world history teaching experience. This view is a dialectic type of vision with periods of stability and growth emerging into increasing conflict, greed, ethnocentric hatreds and social chaos, followed by a new consciousness, a transformation of relationships and life styles. Thus, the world would begin to look like the transformed optimistic scenario mentioned earlier. Vaclav Havel, recent president of former Czechslovakia, expressed this view well, "Without a global revolution in the sphere of human consciousness, nothing will change for the better in the sphere of our being" (1992, Institute of Noetic Sciences).

I think we are in the early stages of that gloomy transitional period of conflict, disorganization, and chaos; but we see the beginnings of a trend toward increased global cooperation, a renewed sense of community, and conservation of global resources. In the meantime we will be living with increasing conflict, growing shortages and a lowered standard of living. A premium will be placed on coping, conflict management, and crisis resolution skills. So my discussion of the near future of higher education will be based on the assumptions of this chaotic scenario. I plan to discuss first some of the issues and trends in higher education for the early future. Then I will look at some implications for counseling and counselor education in that future. In slide 1 you will see the outline of my presentation. (Show slide 1 here).

My data base for this presentation grows out of forty-five years in higher education covering roles in teaching, administration, and research. Much of this experience was in other cultural settings - U of Tehran Iran, U of Utrecht and Leiden in the Netherlands, Canterbury U in New Zealand, and most recently at Ljubljana U in former Yugoslavia. In addition, short lecture tours and research projects on student movements covered several university centers in Japan, Korea, Vietnam, Taiwan, China, and some in the Middle East. Many of these visits were in the stormy period of the late 1960's and early 1970's when students were involved heavily in national politics. Since the time is limited I will lean primarily on my United States experience and will rely on our panel to update us on trends and issues in higher education in Asian countries.

Models of Higher Education

Colleges and universities exist for may purposes, but the basic historical patterns in many countries are similar. Terminology varies though. For example, we call the small four-year liberal arts and two-year community programs "colleges" although in some countries a high school level preparatory program of studies is called a college.

In slide 2 we see the basic structure of American higher education. (Show slide 2 here). In the USA three basic patterns exist - Four year colleges, usually privately funded and governed, focus on the traditional liberal arts-science, literature, history, politics, art and music, and philosophy/ religion. Originally, these colleges were designed to enrich leisure time and teach religious values. Other functions were to prepare for responsible citizenship as well as careers in government and the ministry. In the last century professional specialities such as, law, medicine, and teaching were learned on the job from tutors.

Then, late in the nineteenth century many publicly funded multipurpose universities, along with a few privately funded universities appeared on the scene. This type of university is the dominant pattern over most of the world. These giant institutions have many purposes - general education for undergraduates, special major fields, graduate training in broad spectrum of disciplines, numerous professional schools - and the area of greatest growth - research laboratories and institutes. In most of the world these multipurpose universities and their professional emphases were established to carry out public policies relating to manpower needs in that society.

The third type of college, the two-year community college, is the fastest growing higher education program. They usually have a dual focus on preparation for careers in technology and business as well as two years of college preparatory work for those planning to transfer to a university. It has provided services at the community level for those persons who see higher education as a means of social mobility, a higher standard of living, and an opportunity for reentry into the labor market. An example is the person who raised a family, did not go to college as a youth, and now wants to train for a late life career. These colleges also serve the person who must continually upgrade job skills to avoid obsolescence, or who must change their career because their old job disappeared. This type of program will be very visible in the next century because it is: 1. responsive to the local community; 2. it emphasizes practical and work-related skills; 3. it is accessible and low cost compared to residential colleges and universities; and 4. educational programs and counseling are linked.

While the three major types of higher education (four-year liberal arts multipurpose universities, and community colleges) have been relatively stable the past few years, they are undergoing dramatic changes now. I would like to cite some of these changes and the issues they raise for the future in Slide 3. (Show slide 3 here).

Higher Education Issues and the Future

1. Goals and Purposes

Diversification. The trend toward increasing diversification of programs will continue as technology advances and the demand for specialists increases; but the controversies over priorities will become more intense. An example in my university is the dramatic increase

in programs and facilities for the sciences and technology, but a dramatic reduction in programs for human services.

As university goals became more diverse and diffused, faculty experienced increasing conflict about their primary role. The present pressures on faculty for teaching, research, scholarship, and service cannot continue without dire consequences for student and faculty mental health. Several social forces are converging, however, to force a resolution. Dramatically rising tuition costs have resulted in parents and students and politicians demanding a higher return on their educational investment. Research is becoming so complex and costly that individual faculty with a few grad students can no longer compete for grants with large research institutes. So research functions will increasingly center in specialized research institutes on near campus. Independent research programs funded by government agencies and industries will continue to be clustered around the university feeding on one another's special offerings.

One of the increasing controversies in American universities is this trend toward divorcing research from academic control. Recent and widespread reports about carelessness of universities in charging granting agencies for research costs will accellerate this trend. A few well publicized cases of research fraud by university professors who reported false findings from their research also have fueled this trend to transfer major research responsibilities to specialized research faculty.

Certainly, research function will be an important part of the university into the 21st century, but the responsibilities will be reallocated and the publish or perish pressure will diminish as teaching once again regains its original importance as a university goal.

Instruction. Just as the research functions and structures of the university will change as goals are restated, so will the functions and structure of instruction. The day of the small liberal arts college that I mentioned above is about over. They are struggling with declining enrollments because students want a more; pluralistic and diverse instructional program. Students also want more career oriented courses that will help them obtain the good life as defined in materialistic terms rather than cultural enrichment. Lakc of money is crushing these small colleges and they hold on mainly through enrolling more older and part-time students.

Lifelong education. The goals of lifelong education will take over in the 21st century and the colleges will not look like those we see now. They will be satellite-type educational institutions that will offer continuous education for careers, job skills, and personal development throughout the life of the person. The days of going off to college for four years to find one self in leisurely study and travel are about over. This traditional pattern of higher education is regarded by many as overly self indulgent, does not appeal to the majority of minority youth, and is no longer the usual pattern for the white majority. Most students work while at college and often take a year off to work full time. Only 25% of American university students continue four years to graduation without a break. In the future we will see almost all students employed and going to school part time for a lifetime. This is an emerging pattern in much of the world now, and the changing demographics will accellerate the graying of higher education. These data in slide 4 are illustrative of this trend. (Show slide 4 here). In addition we will have a much more diverse student body with many more older adults working towards self development goals.

2. Reform of Teaching

If we agree that in the next century we can change professors' priorities back to teaching we still have the huge task of improving instruction. While there are many excellent University teachers who are loved by their students for their humanity and competence in their discipline the cacophony of criticisms by students and faculty colleagues is too great to ignore. Higher education has been insulated from the waves of criticism that have engulfed public elementary and high schools. Now universities are receiving their share of the mounting criticism of education. Bloom's (1987) scathing critique of American higher education, entitled Closing of the American Mind, emphasized our lack of training in critical thinking skills and our focus on vocational/professional skills.

Putting aside for the moment lack of instructional skills, the misuse of technological aids, and funding problems I would like to focus on a persistent philosophical issue that needs clarification as we proceed into the 21st Century of higher education. This issue is the nature of knowledge and methods of knowing. There appears to be a grounds well in faculty interest led by writers such as Parker Palmer (1973, 1990, 1992) in confronting the conflict between conceptual and holistic ways of knowing in the quest for truth. Many faculty and students are tired of what they see as the sterility and narrowness of conceptual ways of knowing. They continue to play the academic game, though, because academics also are conditioned by the system of rewards and punishment in their environments. This worship of traditional observational science leads to imitation and worship of authority, intense competition among faculty and students, and a focus on reality as "out there somewhere waiting to be discovered". One result is the development of clever manipulators of the world and other people instead of responsible participants in the discovery and creation of knowledge of many types. So, what is missing?

According to scholars like Palmer there is a realm of knowledge that comes from within through reflection and the passionate search for inner wisdom. It emerges when people in community search together for truth. This is a common form of learning in Asian cultures that we in other cultural traditions need to rediscover. The higher education model of traditional science and conceptual knowledge gives faculty a great sense of power, control, and security; whereas, a leaning toward the more holistic inner discovery model is frought with anxiety and conflict. It makes us a bit schizophrenic to espouse objective, dispassionate and individualistic searches on the one hand and passionately hope for inner wisdom to make itself known in the community of scholars on the other hand. Alan Watts, an American scholar of Asian religions and interpreter of Zen Buddhism to the English speaking world put the conflict in this little parody. In educational disputes there are partisans of prickles and partisans of goo. The prickly people are tough-minded, rigorous, and precise. They like to stress differences and divisions among things.... The gooey people are tender-minded romanticists who love wide generalizations and grand syntheses.... Prickly philosophers consider the gooey ones rather disgusting, undisciplined, vague dreamers who slide over hard facts like an intellectual slime which threatens to engulf the whole universe. But gooey philosophers think of their prickly colleagues as animated as dry and dessicated mechanisms bereft of all finer feelings.... There are no prickles without goo, and no goo without prickles" (1966, p. 135-136).

I certainly do not denigrate the objective dispassionate ways of knowing, but I agree with the critics that we have gone too far and need a better balance between discovery

learning that comes from the passionate search for truth within ourselves and our communities and objective science. We in counselor education are committed to this integrated and balanced view of knowing, and one of our great challenges in higher education of the 21st Century is how together we can integrate these two approaches to knowing.

Some of the ways that we as counselors and counselor eudcators could contribute to this integration is to encourage and allow ourselves to be known. As Palmer eloquently pleads, we must allow more love to emerge.

A further task on which we might assist is to find for ourselves that neat balance between the life of action and noise, and the life of contemplation and silence. The university is a good place to find this balance. High tech materialistic societies are especially vulnerable to the espoused values of action, the desire to achieve power and wealth, and the need to master and conquer everything in sight. Admittedly, there are many attractions to the active energetic life. After all we need to make a living and there are so many persistent human problems out there to solve. The higher educational task however, is to find that balance between this active life and the contemplative life of the spirit for ourselves and our students. This is a necessity at all ages; but it becomes especially important for the older adult. We could learn much from Hindu culture about the pilgrim or wanderer stage in life. With the predicted increases in leisure time and the large numbers of continuing unemployed there will be an increased premium on productive use of solitary time and discoving the hidden wholeness and unity undergirding our fractionated lives.

One of my most enlightening educational experiences a few years ago was to spend a short time at Shantineketan in northern India's Bengali state. This is the place of Indian poet and philosopher, Rabindrinath Tagore's educational experiment. It is located in the countryside where youth and adults came together to learn in community. They lived on campus with their professors in small houses, and their classrooms were open platforms under the mango trees. It was an experiential form of learning style and contemplation, coupled with traditional conceptual learning and acquisition of vocational skills.

How can we have much impact on the deeply entrenched behaviors of professors? I have mentioned our modeling these ideas for educational change, so that if it speaks to their needs they will follow. There are also the organizational development procedures that have been developed for promoting change in business settings; but I think we have overlooked the experience and power of social movements. We in counseling supposedly have already started a movement toward more humanistic education. We and other isolated individuals have these visions of human possibilities and change. I do not hold arrogantly that counselors and counselor educators are the only ones who have these ideas for humanizing higher education but we seem to have more clear visions.

The process for developing a movement in education for changing instruction would be as follows. We, as individuals, first must make a commitment to the idea that we will stop leading a split life of comfortable conformity versus welcoming change to match our visions. 2) Then we discover others with like thoughts and feelings. This sense of a community empowers and energizes individuals. Their private problems become organizational issues. 3) Other rewards come into being so that the movement grows and traditional university rewards such as tenure, honors, promotion, and money are attacked and decrease in significance. 4) Thus, the organization changes in response to the groundswell

of community pressure. Other social change movements, such as human rights, and nonviolent political change have a similar change process.

The point I am making here is that if we have a clear theory of knowledge, and an attractive vision we can create the future of higher education, rather than wait for it to disintegrate or develop even less attractive forms. This strategy also will enable faculty to control the ends of knowledge. Thus, values that promote human welfare rather than violence and destructiveness are more likely to prevail. An historical example is the agony experienced by American atomic scientists when they used their knowledge of physics to produce the first atomic bomb.

I have mentioned how we might change the philosophical conflicts and the reward system that puts great conflictful pressure on faculty. Another source of pressure on faculty that will probably be greatly reduced in future decades is the existential crises in the middle years. This culture-biased developmental crisis is in part a disillusionment with the importance of one's teaching, and is rooted in a feeling that one's work is not valued by society. This feeling is reinforced by low pay, compared to most other professions, and the necessity to do additional outsidework to make a decent living. In part this sense of disillusionment is a reaction to aging and the inevitable reduction of energy and stamina. For women and ethnic minority faculty these feelings of worthlessness and failure are compounded through acts of gender bias and harrassment. These reactions to work frustrations and disappointments, sometimes called burnout, reduce faculty efficiency and productivity enormously. I had a thriving part-time counseling practice with this type of person and I have felt this way at times myself so I know first hand their pain and suffering. If these feelings get too strong it tends to result in an itch to move to more satisfying settings, thus making the serious brain drain to other countries even worse.

Well, how will things be different in the next century? In the first place, we must reconcile the differences among the partisans of prickles and goo to develop more sources of knowledge and more varied teaching strategies. We must also change the reward system in favor or teaching, and develop a vision of what higher education can be. We must make students more responsible for their own learning. Krishnamurti said it well, "Learning is the very essence of humility, learning from everything and from everybody. There is no hierarchy in learning. Authority denies learning and a following will never learn" (Krishnamurti's Notebook). Then I think we can reasonably develop our model of the educated citizen-leader and hasten the transformation of consciousness in the broader society.

University faculty must have more influence to change their societies. In most Asian cultures I understand that university faculty have high status which is not so true in Europe and America. But university faculty worldwide will increase in social stature and power as the importance of technology and information systems increases. Those persons in academic and business coalitions who understand and control these vast global information systems will automatically have influence and power. We in counseling must be involved and do our best to see that this power is wielded for the welfare of the world community.

3. Funding

If you asked faculty, students, administrators, and counselors to name the key problem facing universities today they would probably mention money first. What this

funding problem is forcing on us is a stringent budget priority system. The California higher education system is a good example. Programs have been cut drastically and students are paying a larger share of their education through tuition. One effect is to make universities the domain of the financially well off. In slide 5 we see how higher education public funding has decreased and how student fees have increased in the last six years. (Show slide 5 here). Since so much of the supplementary funding comes from the private market place the priority for programs and facilities appears to be favoring technology, science, and business. Programs for training human service people, especially counselors, have been cut drastically. Similarly, student counseling services are one of the first to be cut.

In spite of these shrinking resources and faults of American higher education students from overseas still want to come to American universities. In Chart 6 can be seen the increases in international students in American Universities from 1980 to 1990 and the projections to the year 2000 (1992, p.60). (Show slide 6 here). In Chart 7 we see where these students came from in 1990 (1992, p.60). (Show slide 7 here).

4. Multicultural

To hasten the new world order, part of which is the opportunity for full personal development for all people, we must consider ways to attract and hold minority students. Almost all countries represented at this conference are multiethnic with one ethnic group predominate. America is an extreme example of a multiethnic society, and one of our key tasks is making higher education more attractive to our diverse minority groups. We are making some progress, but we are in deep trouble if we allow our two-track society to continue. This means that half of the people will have access to higher education, the good jobs, and the good life, and the other half will be an underclass of periodic unemployment, low level jobs, and a life of poverty and suffering. My graduate University, Stanford in California, is a good example of strong efforts to change from a traditional university for the privileged to a broad based multicultural student body. Slide B illustrates how these changes have taken place. (Show slide B here). We still have a long way to go in making higher education available and attractive for all segments of our society. I foresee that in the 21st century, higher education will be models of gender, racial, age, and cultural equality, and where these differences will be prized and nurtured rather than continuing as sources of alienation and conflict. Thus, one of the principal goals of the University of the 21st century will be to prepare students to live in a multicultural society.

5. University Student Counseling

Two issues emerge here. One is the obvious one of funding for any kind of student counseling service and how we can play the political game of keeping such services alive. The other is the question of counseling for whom and for what purpose. American University counseling centers are struggling with this age-old issue of how much time can we devote to the seriously disturbed student? We have justified counseling services for students in order to increase their chances for success in the university, help plan their future careers, and aid their overall development. This means we will provide personal counseling on normal developmental problems. But with increasing numbers of students who come with serious psychological problems growing out of childhood violence or current drug abuse, for example, the agonizing choice of where we should spend our counseling time most effectively emerges continuously. Should we spend our counseling time on crisis

interventions, such as suicide sexual identity and drug problems? This becomes a severe ethical question when we see students for a short time and then say, "Sorry, you must be referred to a mental health service" (which often does not exist). So, a little counseling probably does them a disservice. Most counseling services resolve this issue by making a strategic decision to counsel a larger number of students with brief counseling rather than a few with longer term intensive counseling. Where do you stand on this issue and what do you see for the future? I think we will continue to have counseling services for the future for our diverse student populations, but the models will not be primarily interviews in formal office settings. It will be much more informal and focussed on immediate problem solving.

6. Counselor Education

I regret that we do not have more time to talk about the future of counselor education as it relates to the issues discussed above. Counselor education programs were established in most countries that I know to carry out public policy for developing more school counselors or to ease labor shortages in industry, for example. In many other countries, such as America, the marketplace determines the kinds and numbers of counselors to be trained. In other words, if jobs are there the University programs respond. Counselors are trained in many professional disciplines, other than education, and I think this diversity of training models and disciplines will carry into the 21st century. These are social work, psychology, and nursing, for example.

Two issues being debated in American counselor education currently are: 1) How to develop counselors who will service many types of people with many types of concerns, especially children in schools, or should we develop counselors who serve a few people, especially those who can pay for extensive psychological services. 2) The other issue is credentialling the counselling specialist. Is it essential to identify and credential qualified counselors to protect the public, or is the strong trend toward licensing counselors an effort to protect themselves and give them status and a professional identity? This debate continues; but I think in the future credential and status issues will decline in importance. Many people will be involved in one vast helping network, rather that having a credentialled group of specialists.

7. Renewal and Experimentation

The survival of universities of the future will depend on how seriously they develop planned change and renewal programs, how much they listen to the social movements affecting them, and their willingness to experiment with new programs and methods.

Summary

Well, I have ranged widely over issues in higher education and I have indicated some implications for teaching, student counseling, and counselor education. I indicated some future directions that I foresee for higher education. I am basically optimistic that we can muddle our way through this painful time of transition and that we can solve our global human problems satisfactory. I firmly believe that higher education has a key role in our transformation of consciousness and renewed life style.

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Transnational Counseling Psychology: Issues in Applying Overseas Counselor Training to the Homeland

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" 'You can't go home again' said a professor to his class of foreign students, 'because you have become cross-cultural people and 'home' can never be what it was when you left'." (Cajoleas, 1959, p. 191)

The above scenario, quoted in an article more than 30 years ago, attempted to address the concerns of the American-educated foreign student returning home. While concerns of the returning foreign student are no less significant today, there continues to be a paucity in research on foreign student re-entry and the efficacy of programs that seek to help the sojourning student prepare to return home.

Schieffer (1983) notes that for any student, completing an academic education and entering the job market can be a traumatic and demoralizing experience because of the different set of rules, values, and behavioral patterns that exist in the worlds of students and professionals. For the foreign student, this passage is further complicated by having to make the adjustment of crossing cultural boundaries where social, physical, and educational nuances in the homeland further challenge the direct application of what is learnt overseas.

According to the International Institute of Education (IIE, personal communication, August 4, 1992), a non-exhaustive survey of U.S. institutions showed that there were about 300 international students indicating counseling psychology as their field of study. Researchers at IIE state that this figure does not include students studying clinical psychology, Masters-level counseling students, and represents only a sampling of such students (Great Britain also being host to many of these students) traveling abroad to be trained as counselors in order to return home to contribute to the development of counseling or, for some, to introduce it to the homeland. While there appears to be an increasing attempt in counselor education programs to incorporate multicultural training, it is unclear how effective or relevant such training is in preparing the foreign student for practice in the homeland. Although there is increasing research addressing multicultural issues in counseling, there are far fewer studies on the transnational application of counseling psychology.

Recognizing the variability across cultures and across nations, the study of counseling psychology in a world context can indeed become a massive project. That is not within the scope of this paper. Rather, this paper hopes to re-emphasize the need for counseling educators and students to critically consider the issues in applying overseas counselor training to their homeland. To do this, this paper will:

1) survey the literature on counseling across cultures and nations, 2) highlight the process of re-entry and professional integration and, 3) consider the implications for counselor training and how foreign counseling students should prepare for their return to and practice in their home countries. This introductory paper, while taking a broad and non-exhaustive look at the issue, hopes to encourage more in-depth research on the impications for specific transnational situations.

Counseling Across Cultures and Nations

The concept of "counseling" is not unique to Western countries. The idea of helping other human beings has long existed in the social fabric of many cultures. The form in which helping takes place is what varies. Saeki and Borow (1985) highlight the fact that differences in the way counseling is practiced in the East and West stem from basic differences in the historical and philosophical perspectives of cultures and their beliefs which, in turn, influence the different ends in counseling objectives. Page and Berkow (1991) state that the different ways the self is conceptualized in various cultures also determine how the self is perceived by counselors and hence how treatment strategies are constructed. Different ideological, political, religious, and cultural philosophies also naturally lend themselves to different forms in which helping takes place. In introducing counseling psychology from Western cultures, it is important to note and understand informal helping systems (Brammer, 1978), natural support systems (Pearson, 1985), and indigenous models of therapy (Das, 1987; Lee, Oh, & Mountcastle, 1992) that already exist within various societies. Counselors should also become familiar with studies on culture-specific applications of mental health services in different countries (e.g., Marsella & Higginbotham, 1984; Maretzki, 1984; Bourguignon, 1984; Doi, 1984; D'Rozario & Chia, 1989; Yip, 1990; Yue, 1992).

Having discussed the diverse ways counseling may be practiced in different countries, it is nonetheless evident, from the consistent flow of foreign students coming to the USA and Great Britain for counselor education, that a good portion of Western counseling and psychotherapy is being transplanted to students' homeland. What is unclear is whether such transplants have been successful in all countries. The potential cost of time and financial resources of longitudinal studies of counseling psychologists returning to their homeland probably accounts for the fact that research on counseling across cultures has focussed mainly on minority cultures or the counseling of foreign students. In the available research literature, it has been shown that differences exist in the values and worldviews of clients from different countries (Thomas, 1985), that ethnicity

appears to play an undefined role in the counseling process (Goh, 1990), that clients from different cultures and countries may have different preferred sources of help (Leong & Sedlacek, 1986), may prefer different counseling styles (Exum & Lau, 1988; Yau, Sue & Hayden, 1992; Merta, Ponterotto, & Brown, 1992; Goh, 1992), may harbor different attitudes toward counseling (Dadfar & Friedlander, 1982; Mau & Jepsen, 1988), and may perceive the counseling process differently (Mau & Jepsen, 1990). More comprehensive articles on counseling foreign students (e.g., Thomas & Althen, 1989; Pedersen, 1991) further highlight the complexities of counseling clients from different countries and cultures and the importance of actively seeking to learn more about a client's value orientation, perception of the problem, factors surrounding the problem situation, in order to avoid cultural stereotyping or assuming the appropriateness of conventional Western approaches to counseling.

Professional Integration and Re-entry

With such a complicated mosaic of possibilities and variables in the counseling process, it is easy for counseling psychology students receiving overseas training to become overwhelmed and concerned about the applicability of their training to the homeland. Westwood, Lawrence, and Paul (1986) define this phenomena as "re-entry" and describe it as a "continuum of experience and behaviors which are encountered when an individual returns to a place of origin after having been immersed in another context for a period of time sufficient to cause some degree of mental and emotional adjustment prior to optimal functioning in the 'new' environment" (p. 223). Church (1982) noted that the re-entry process is not seen as an isolated phenomenon but a continuous process which begins with the individual's initial departure from the homeland. Since the degree of reorganization of cognitive, affective, and behavioral patterns upon re-entry is similar to that experienced at the initial departure and the duration of the sojourn, early sensitization to potential re-entry shock (commonly called reverse culture shock) has the desirable effect of alerting students to be concerned, from the outset, about the need to professionally integrate what is learnt in their overseas training to their home context.

In a study by Cajoleas (1959) of 156 foreign doctoral alumni from 30 countries who studied at an American university, subjects reported facing the following problems upon their return to the homeland. In descending order of frequency they are:

1. Reconstruction of personal values upon return home.
2. Difficulty bringing about changes in the homeland.
3. Meeting criticism of American degrees and training.
4. Accepting living standards back home.
5. Meeting anti-American attitudes.

6. Low salaries and lack of public or institutional funds for education.
7. Limited job opportunities and excessive work load. (p. 192)

In general, 'change' appears to be what most foreign students have to cope with upon their return home. Changes in their own personality, values, career interests, changes in their families and familiar environment, changes in the home culture, changes in the expectations of home culture individuals, and changes in the individual's knowledge of the sojourn culture (Sussman, 1986).

Applying Overseas Counselor Training To The Homeland

Foreign students in counseling psychology experience re-entry no differently. If nothing else, their experience tends to be more pronounced because of the direct contact with the home culture and the constant interaction with people of their homeland that is so much a part of their helping profession. In adapting the guidelines on re-entry proposed by Sussman (1986), Westwood, Lawrence, and Paul (1986), and Hood and Schieffer (1983), the following components should be included in activities preparing the foreign student in counseling psychology for their return home. The foreign student should:

1. Bear in mind that he/she will return home at some point, and to consciously plan for that return.
2. Maintain contact, while overseas, with peers and professional colleagues who can provide updated information on developments in counseling and other relevant matters in the homeland.
3. Focus his/her education (as far as possible without becoming narrow-minded) on the applicability and utility of models and methods of counseling psychology for the homeland.
4. Attempt to gain more in-depth knowledge of the values, cultures, and the social and cultural foundations of the homeland to add to knowledge gained in the overseas training.
5. Compare available research in the homeland with overseas data and critically evaluate similarities and differences.
6. Be aware of changes in his/her personality and his/her own development as a counselor.
7. Seek opportunities to receive first hand information about re-entry especially to be able to have dialogue with others who have been through a similar experience (if possible, in the same field).
8. Be aware of the adaptation process, reverse culture shock, and general coping strategies.
9. In the duration of the overseas sojourn, if time and finances permit, make brief visits to the homeland to experience and understand the cultural adaptation process.
10. Upon re-entering the homeland, take time to learn about the

changes in self and culture and slowly make personal adjustments to the home/work environment.
11. Maintain contact with faculty and supervisors from his/her overseas sojourn. This is especially critical if counseling supervision is absent in the homeland.
12. Seek out and establish/re-establish contact with professional peers in the homeland.
13. Practice the transfer of skills, ideas, theory, and methods and be able to critically adapt, not blindly adopt, what was learnt overseas.
14. Seek ways to continue professional development (e.g., attending local and international conferences, etc.).

As noted earlier in the paper, the process of preparing for re-entry begins at the commencement of the overseas sojourn. In this regard, successful re-entry and professional integration is not the foreign student's task alone. Institituions surely bear the responsibility of facilitating smooth entry and exit from the country in the quality of foreign student advising and orientation (arrival and departure) activities. More importantly, counselor educators should constantly evaluate the relevance of their curriculum in the international context. (Understandably, this is not easy in having to reconcile the varied requirements of the institution, accreditation, state, nation, student interests, and now foreign student and international interests). Additional guidance should be offered to foreign students in optimizing the relevance of their course selection to future work contexts and the classroom environment offer a forum for the exchange of cross-cultural and international ideas. International education activities for faculty and students (e.g., the biennial International Counseling Institute at the University of Minnesota) should also be encouraged.

This paper has suggested ways individuals and institutions can facilitate the transnational application of counseling psychology. Naturally, this paper will speak to some readers more than others, depending on the degree of similarity or difference between the culture of the homeland and the culture of the country of sojourn. Whatever the case may be, Wrenn's (1962) challenge to counselors to "persist in the regime of unlearning something each day" (p. 448) so that we do not become culturally encapsulated counselors through our overseas training and in our practice in the homeland, is an appropriate summary for individuals. For institutions, Cooper (1983) admonished that simply teaching foreign students methodologies ("how to") is insufficient and needs to be coupled with a striving for relevance ("what for"). For as we approach counseling in the 21st century global context, where intercultural and international cooperation is so desirable, and where counselors play key roles as facilitators of human development and relationships, both interculturally and internationally, we can do no less.

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CREATING A COMMUNITY FOR DIVERSITY: A RISK WORTH TAKING

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One of the major issues facing higher education in the 21st Century is the challenge of cultural diversity on our college campuses. According to a WICHE report, From Minority to Majority, minorities in the Southwest will become the majority population by the beginning of the 21st Century. Nationwide minorities will comprise one-third of the population. Despite this growth, minorities continue to be under represented in education. Hispanics and African-Americans are less likely to complete high school or to enroll in college.

And, once enrolled in college, there is cause for alarm about the seemingly insurmountable barriers facing minority students. It is our responsibility in higher education to strike down those barriers until minority students can achieve what other students seem naturally destined to achieve. The task for post-secondary education seems clear--we must collectively improve our ability to educate and serve the minority student to insure greater success.

Only one of five minority students enroll in historically black universities and colleges, yet one third of this nation's minority college graduates were educated at these black institutions. All of us who represent predominantly white colleges know that the dismal minority graduation rates at our institutions are cause for concern. The Colorado Commission for Higher Education has established minority graduation rates for colleges and universities in the state. We have been challenged to achieve an 18.5% graduation rate of minority students by the year 2000. This is the same rate which was achieved by minority students at the high school level in 1990, and it is expected that colleges can achieve this same rate a decade later.

Another challenge facing higher education is the role that counselors can play. This applies to both the counselors employed at the college level and to counselors who are being trained in preparation programs who will then work in the community or elementary/secondary schools. Many counselors in training come from predominantly white institutions and attend graduate school in predominantly white institutions. Their experiences with

minority students and minority issues is usually limited and often comes from only one course, if any, on multicultural issues in counseling. In addition, these same counselors become practicing professionals in predominantly white institutions, and despite firm commitments to serving minorities, efforts have not always been successful.

The literature suggests that our failure to retain minorities may stem from our failure to provide effective mentoring, role models, developmental course work, and a nurturing campus climate.

What then should be done to change the situation for our minority students? How can we as counselors, counselor educators, and student affairs practitioners design programs and experiences for our campuses which will break the barriers identified above?

Pedersen (1988) discusses three stages of development that will create a multicultural awareness among educators. These three stages include 1) Awareness Stage which emphasizes assumptions of differences and similarities of behavior, attitudes, and values; 2) Knowledge Stage which expands the amount of information about culturally learned assumptions; and 3) Skills Stage which adapts effective and efficient action with people of different cultures to participants; clarified assumptions and accurate knowledge.

Halcon (1989) identified four characteristics of exemplary programs in a WICHE publication, A Crucial Agenda: Making Colleges and Universities Work Better for Minority Students. First, all identified exemplary programs were developed and implemented specifically to increase the numbers of minority students on their respective campuses. With this goal in mind, each program targeted the needs of a particular constituency: some addressed junior high or high school students, while others addressed community college students, and still others limited their focus to undergraduates or graduate students.

Second, these programs did not leave their goals and objectives to chance. Each program established specific goals and offered a variety of services congruent with its established goals, and selected strategies designed to meet these goals.

Third, although funding strategies used to support these programs varied, all programs were supported in part by their institutions and most had successfully solicited external funding.

Fourth, maintaining strong lines of communication between the program and the community, secondary schools, and community colleges from which they drew their students was an important component of the programs.

To respond to these challenges, the University of Northern Colorado formally declared its commitment to diversity through the

University's Mission, Goals and Values statement which was adopted by the UNC Board of Trustees in March, 1982. This declaration was further enhanced by a "Commitment to Diversity" document which was approved by the Board in March, 1984, and a graduation requirement was initiated for every student to complete a multicultural course as a general education requirement. Beginning Spring semester, 1993, every freshman students will also be required to participate in a two-hour experiential workshop related to cultural diversity. This workshop will create the awareness stage advocated by Pedersen for all new freshmen students.

In addition, many initiatives have been developed at the institution. These initiatives have been related to recruitment and admission of prospective minority students, financial assistance, and retention programs both institutional-wide and specifically related to a particular program or function. The cultural centers on campus sponsor the majority of retention programs but other areas on campus which have minority specific programs include the areas of Student Activities, Career Services, the College of Education, the Learning Assistance Center, and the Counseling Center.

All in all, there have been approximately 60 activities and programs developed which are on-going at the University to help us achieve our goal of eliminating destructive barriers facing minority students so that we can be more effective in attracting, and more importantly retaining, minorities in our institution.

One initiative has been selected to be highlighted. That initiative is a videotape entitled "The Minority Student Experience at UNC". The video is a compilation of specific, personal examples of observable behaviors, described by the student who experienced the incident.

Students were asked the question, "What is it like to be a minority student at the University of Northern Colorado?" In their response they were asked to "Tell Us what you would like us to know and what you would like other students, faculty and administrators to know about our campus." The main purpose was to provide a stimulus for discussion and to provoke an audience response.

We hoped that the audience who saw this tape, and this was particularly intended for people on campus who really believed that we did not have any racism on our campus, that they would re-examine that premise and to agree that maybe we do have some areas on campus that we needed to work on improving.

Finally, we hoped that the audience would question their own personal contribution to an atmosphere which is perceived by some students to be hostile and to ask, "Have I done anything to provoke that atmosphere in our community or on our campus?" "If I

have, what can I do differently or if I haven't, but I have seen racism on campus, what can I do to create a climate that is more facilitative to our students' learning?"

The video clearly demonstrates how one institution has addressed a commitment to diversity by taking a proactive approach in highlighting the experiences and concerns of minority students. This innovative project has enabled viewers on campus and in the community to "feel" the experience of minority students at the institution, not merely "think" about that experience. Our expected outcome is that viewers will increase their awareness of minority students' needs which will result in positive changes and an increased appreciation of the value of diversity. It truly was a "risk worth taking".

We are firm in our belief that these various programs, services, and activities will create a supportive environment for our minority students and will place the University in a position where solutions are being generated to address this important issue.

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CHANGE AND CONTINUITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN SINGAPORE

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Today, all pre-service teacher education including a good part of in-service training is provided at the National Institute of Education (NIE), which was established in July 1991 as a component of the new Nanyang Technological University (NTU). This is an important development in a series of institutional changes over the years, although university involvement in teacher education can be traced back to the early days of university education in Singapore. That involvement ended in 1971, however.

In Retrospect

The growth of teacher education in Singapore is best seen against a backdrop of developments in education, the economy and society. However, discussion of these developments will take up too much space and is also outside the scope of this paper. Instead, in this paper we will focus on change and continuity in teacher education. For this purpose, a brief historical recapitulation of changes in teacher education should provide a needed perspective here.

Gestures towards formalising teacher training were made as early as the 1920s in the colonial period in Singapore, but institutionalised teacher training only began in 1950 with the setting up of the Teachers Training College (TTC) for the preparation of primary school teachers. The local university (University of Singapore), until 1971, had its own teacher training programme for its graduates. By 1973, the training of all levels of teachers for the formal school system came under the purview of the former Institute of Education (IE), which grew out of the amalgamation of the TTC, the School of Education in the University of Singapore, and the Research Unit of the Ministry of Education.

Institutional changes have been accompanied by a number of revisions of the training curriculum. In retrospect, there were broadly *three* phases in the development of a teacher education curriculum in Singapore: (a) the early period right up to 1972, dominated by a model of training that stemmed very much from the normal training curriculum, (b) the period from 1973 to 1981, characterised by change and qualitative improvements in the training curriculum, and (c) the phase from 1982 to 1991, marked by a concerted effort to integrate the programmes designed for different languages of instruction and specialisation, and the introduction in 1986 of the practicum curriculum. The present provision of a concurrent 4-year degree programme for the training of school teachers in NIE represents an important step towards upgrading teacher education in Singapore. This recommendation to integrate teacher education with the rest of higher education, among other recommendations and changes, documented in the report "*Teacher Training in the 1990s: Issues and Strategies*" (Seet et al., 1990) clearly reflects wider demographic, social and economic changes.

Curriculum Changes

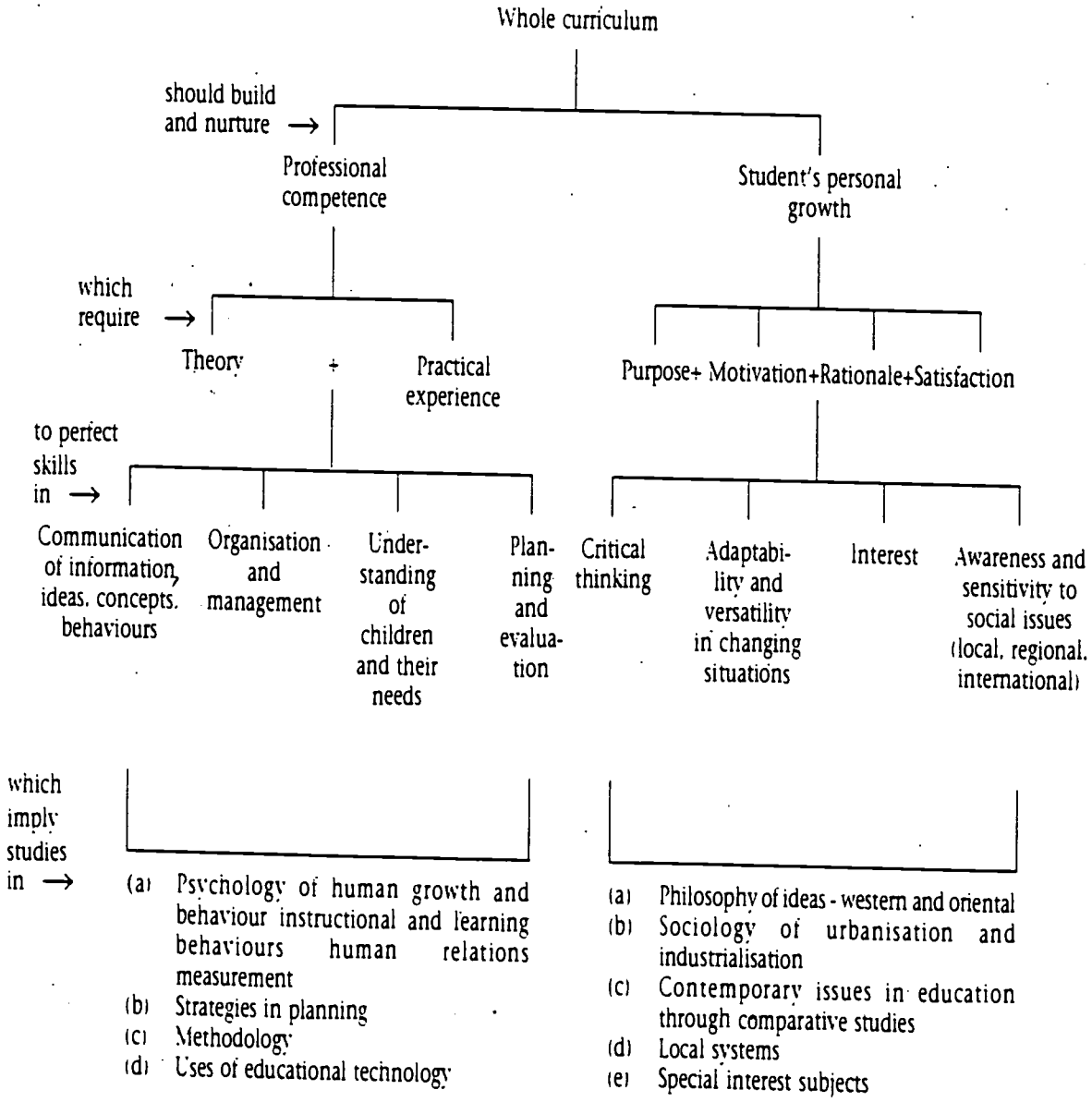
In Singapore, teacher education has always sought to respond to changes in the local education system and often to trends in the mainstream of teacher education in the West. This is especially so in the curriculum areas in both pre-service and in-service programmes. Curriculum changes and thrusts over the years are summarised below.

- ***Towards an integrated curriculum in teacher education in the late 1960s.*** At that time "integration" was regarded as a strategy "to promote growth, learning and teaching, seen as a whole and its various components woven into a whole." It was the first attempt to provide a holistic view of the curriculum that was fragmented into its three education disciplines (history of education, psychology of education and philosophy of education), subject content and subject methodologies. By the late 1960s, the demand for teachers appeared to have stabilised, particularly in the case of primary school teachers, and the focus was on quality. A statement from the then Minister of Education (1968) called for "stock-taking and drawing up blueprints for quality teacher education". The Minister added that "The greatest challenge in teacher education [in 1968] is to make our teachers understand and play their new role in education, which, besides their commitment to knowledge, has a great deal to do with the all-round development of the individual including his responsibility in citizenship and leadership".

- ***Towards a developmental model in teacher education.*** By the early 1970s, solutions more fundamental than "integration" were explored. The period 1972/1973, during the run-up to the point of institutional change in April 1973 from

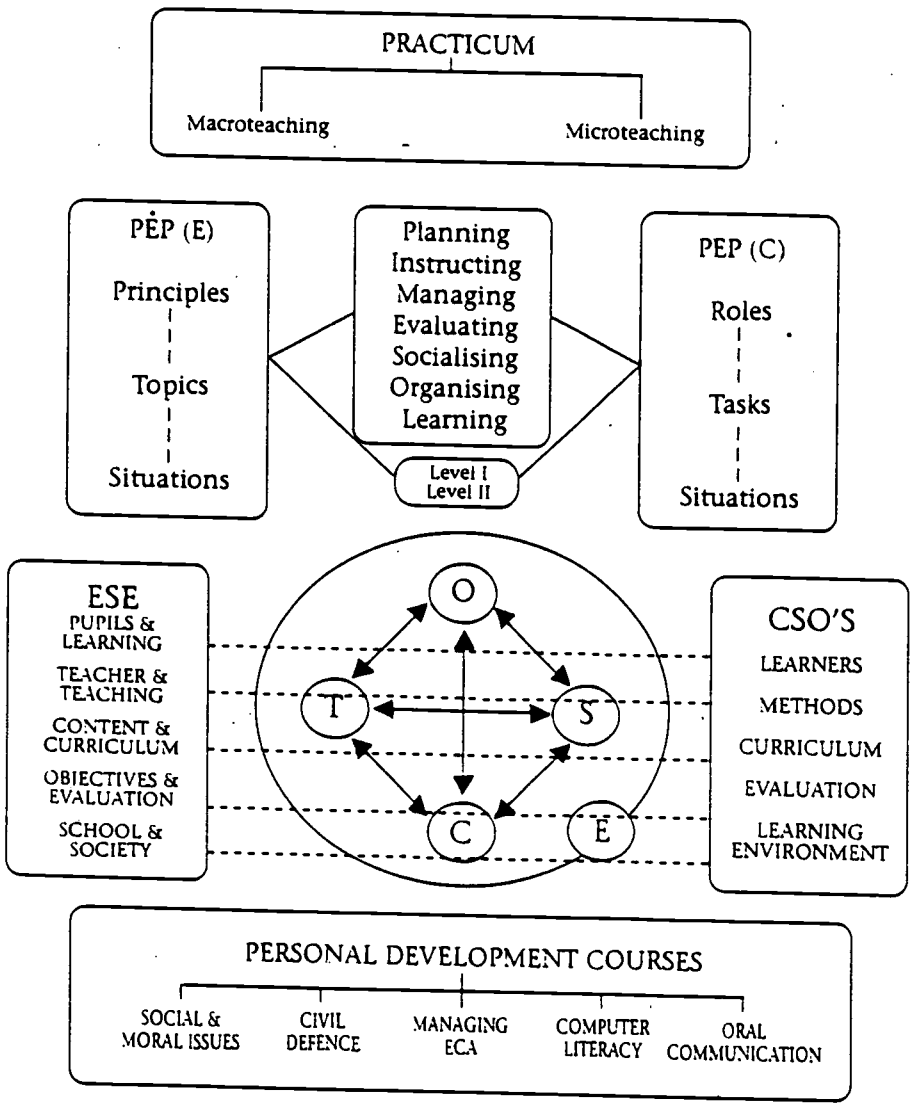
Teachers Training College to Institute of Education, saw the introduction of a model of training that recognised the centrality of the trainee teacher and the pupil-learner in the school curriculum. The developmentalist tradition was tempered by a humanism and pragmatism that completely transformed the nature of teacher education (see Fig 1 below). It was a move away from the narrow, craft focus on teaching. As a result, emphasis in the training curriculum was placed on (a) improving trainees' insights into the teaching process through disciplined inquiry, (b) increasing their awareness of national, regional and international issues, and (c) improving trainees' competence in classroom management and communication, and in the meaningful use of educational technology. The growth of education studies into an interdisciplinary course was one of the main curriculum themes in the period 1972-1975. Changes decided on resulted in the implementation of a completely new model of teacher education, which prevailed until the mid-1980s.

Fig. 1: Structure and Content of the TTC Curriculum



• ***Towards a practicum curriculum***. No major structural change in the teacher education curriculum took place until 1986, when it was felt that the curriculum needed to be evaluated. The period after 1986 is best seen in terms of adopting a more conceptually enhanced model of teacher education directed towards strengthening the linkages between theory and practice, pre-service and in-service, and training and research. In this phase, what was now called the "practicum" emerged as the growth point. The practicum was defined as that part of a training programme that involves trainees in teaching activities which are either simulated (as in micro-teaching) or in the school classroom (as in teaching practice). As a result, curriculum changes and strategies in training were reconceptualised under what was called a "practicum curriculum", a shorthand term for a functional curriculum that grew out of Sim's (1970) pedagogical model. A conceptual map depicting the main components and how the components are interrelated was developed (see Fig 2 below).

Fig. 2. The Practicum Curriculum



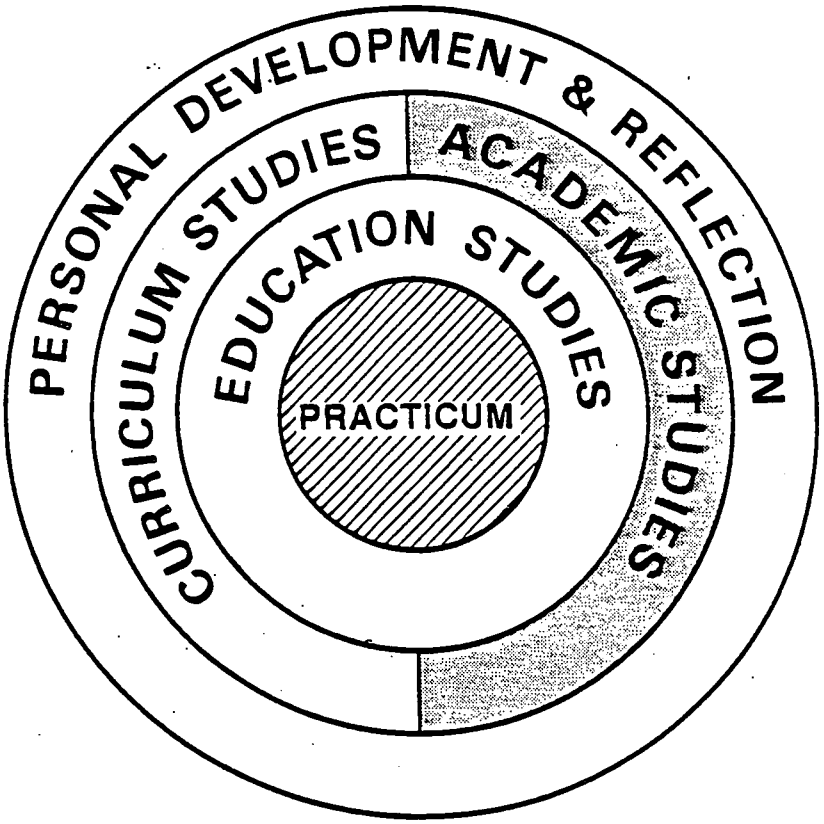
Legend: PEP(E) = Principles of Educational Practice
PEP(C) = Practice of Educational Principles
ESE = Educational Studies Electives
CSU = Curriculum Studies Options
C = Content, O = Objectives, S = Students,
T = Teacher, E = Environment.

The focus of the practicum curriculum was on education as a process, perceived through experience. An extended debate concerned the relationship between ***principles*** and ***practice***. As a result, the Principles of Educational Practice (PEP/E) and the Practice of Educational Principles (PEP/C) courses were conceived as the two sides of a single coin (as shown in Fig 2); they were concerned with more generic principles and practices respectively, while the more specific skills and competencies, viz curriculum-based skills and educational understanding, were developed in the Curriculum Studies Options (CSOs) and Educational Electives (ESEs) respectively. The CSOs focus on specific aspects which are unique to school subjects, and which are to develop understanding of the relevant concepts, competencies and attitudes for effective teaching. At the periphery of the practicum curriculum are a number of courses ranging from those that develop skills (eg. Oral Communication) to those that develop understanding of social issues (eg. Social and Moral Issues).

- ***Towards programme modularisation***. The new academic year starting in July 1992 saw the results of a major effort to modularise the curriculum. Modularity was seen as a structural device to streamline the provision within course components and to achieve some degree of flexibility in choosing subjects across disciplines. The ***underlying philosophy*** of the training programmes as a whole remains basic in the modularisation process - that is, trainee teachers should come to grips early in the programme with the practicalities of learning and teaching in the primary/secondary school and maintain a reflective attitude to the experience of teaching. The ***core*** of the programme remains the practicum [as Fig 3 on the next page shows], which draws upon the knowledge and skills taught in the areas of both education and curriculum studies. The ability to explain, instruct and generally communicate with pupils is developed in particular contexts, as in classrooms teaching subjects of the curriculum. Good theory in teaching should address actual experience. As Shulman (1992) has suggested, "Individuals who have studied teaching and learning over the past decade have become increasingly convinced that most human learning and teaching is highly ***specific*** and ***situated***" (my italics). The emphasis given to the need to achieve an interrelationship and a coherence among the various components of the programme was one of the major concerns of the team planning the modularization of the programmes.

Qualitatively, then, different perspectives (eg. integrationist, developmental and practicum-based) have been brought to bear on curriculum matters, each in its own way to link theory (education and curriculum studies) and practice (school experience). The evolution has been gradual. The overriding trend in the developments described in the preceding paragraphs has been towards a unified concept of professional education, which is intended to be more indigenous and grounded in the analysis of classroom practice than was the case some 25 years ago.

Fig. 3. Components of the Diploma in Education Programme



Present Programmes

Currently the NIE offers the following pre-service training programmes, which provide different routes into teaching:

- BA/BSc with Diploma in Education or with Diploma in Education (PE)

This is a new undergraduate route through a four-year concurrent programme, designed for students who have chosen teaching as their career. The programme provides training in two major academic subjects (spread over four years) and in pedagogy (curriculum studies) and education studies. Some students specialise in physical education for a career as specialist PE teachers. They graduate with a BA/BSc with Diploma in Education (PE).

- Postgraduate Diploma in Education

For a long time this has been the main (consecutive) route into secondary school teaching for university graduates - it is a one-year full-time programme. There is provision for specialisation in second language teaching, and more recently in teaching in primary schools. This programme now embodies within it what used to be two (mutually exclusive) traditions in initial training provision - ie. university graduates for secondary teaching and non-university-graduates for primary teaching. The model of training for primary teaching within the PGDE required a structural modification, acknowledging the complex character of the primary classroom and its more integrative curriculum, which demands from its teachers cross-disciplinary expertise.

- Diploma in Education or Diploma in Physical Education.

This has been a major route into primary teaching - a two-year full-time programme for students with 'A' Level qualifications. Within the Diploma programme, there is provision for specialisation in Art, Music and Home Economics teaching. Those specialising in physical education work towards a Diploma in Physical Education.

In-Service and Postgraduate Programmes

NIE regards the two stages in the training and education of teachers (initial teacher training and in-service education) as part of a ***continuum*** covering the different stages of a teacher's career. This view reaffirms the point that teachers and school personnel, to be effective and up-to-date, should be actively and continually learning.

The present provision of in-service education for serving, experienced teachers is in two modes: (a) formal courses leading to advanced professional qualifications, for example, the Further Professional Diploma in Education (FPDE), Diploma in Educational Administration (DEA), MEd, PhD, and (b) ***ad hoc*** training to meet specific needs. The extent of ***ad hoc*** in-service training is now being reduced through the provision of clusters of modules which allow teachers to work towards the award of an in-service diploma on successfully completing the required number of the modules in an area of specialisation. A structural reappraisal of in-service provision has focused on the relationship between pre-service and in-service training, and between in-service and the career path of teachers.

The full-time programmes for school executives (school principals, vice-principals and heads of departments) at different stages of their career development reflect NIE's commitment to the continuing learning of professionals in education. Designed to develop and enhance skills in effective instructional leadership and management, the two programmes are the FPDE (Primary and Secondary) for heads of departments in schools and the DEA (Primary and Secondary) for vice-principals and principals. The training curriculum includes curriculum management, organisational strategy, management skills, leadership and basic research skills.

The MEd programme was re-structured and expanded in 1983, and it was regarded as part of the professional education continuum associated with the career paths of teachers and senior personnel of the education service. A professionally challenging programme and academically rigorous, it has been designed for graduate teachers aspiring for leadership positions in the school system, who would benefit from training in disciplined inquiry and research.

Linking Theory to Practice

While looking back on the development of teacher education in Singapore, we note that a significant change in the curriculum of teacher education took place in 1973 under the leadership of the then IE Director, the late Dr Ruth Wong. In her own inimitable way, she set out to demolish what she regarded as the "sacred cows" in education and teacher training. Among the changes she introduced was a new teacher training curriculum to meet the needs of a rapidly changing education environment and to forge a strong link between theory and practice. An ambitious scheme in the early 1970s draws in a number of primary and secondary schools, located in public housing estates, to serve as what were then called "experimental and demonstration schools" for the demonstration and dissemination of innovative ideas in teaching. This was a significant attempt to relate the work of the training institute to actual classroom practice.

Since the mid-1980s the practicum curriculum has provided areas for theory and practice to be conceptually linked. Today, attention is also being paid, through action research, to the ***nature*** of the practicum (or the ***curriculum*** of the practicum) - that is, the learning process involved in the practicum experience for trainees, what is learnt, and how trainees apply their curriculum knowledge and develop professional skills in teaching.

Research in Teacher Education

Teacher education research has an important contribution to make to our understanding of what goes on in classrooms, how pupils learn and how trainees learn to teach. There have been ***three*** staging posts in the development of teacher education research in Singapore, namely, (a) the setting up of a cooperative research strategy leading to the Conference on Research and Teacher Education in 1983, (b) the formation in 1987 of a teacher education research agenda, coordinated by the former Educational Research Unit, and (c) the establishment of a Centre for Applied Research in Education (CARE) in 1991 following the formation of the NIE. In NIE, research continues to be actively encouraged under the aegis of CARE and in the different Schools. A greater interest in teacher education research has paralleled an increase in educational research, and one feeds into the other.

The conduct and promotion of research has been stepped up with encouragement and financial support given to the implementation of large-scale and team-based projects. In the area of educational research, in particular, collaborative research with external agencies has been vigorously pursued. There is now a mix of externally-funded and NIE-funded projects.

Conclusion

The different levels in the teacher education system at which change has been identified were discussed. Structural change in the training programmes has sharpened the focus on the content of pre-service training. However, the inter-connectedness of decisions to improve the various aspects of teacher education provided at NIE is obvious only if the professional development of teachers is seen in terms of a continuing education strategy taking teachers from pre-service preparation through to various stages of in-service training. This ***continuum*** in professional education is now fully recognised.

Teacher education in Singapore takes a special position between ***change*** and ***continuity***. On the one hand, ***change*** in terms of both programmes and institutions is inevitable in a system that is responsive to rising expectations and new demands. On the other, ***continuity*** can be a virtue if the fundamentals are right. We hope our fundamentals in teacher education have been right.

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Developments and Issues in Higher Education in Singapore in the 1990s.

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Origins and Character of the System of Higher Education in Singapore

Higher education development has had a relatively short history in Singapore with rapid and major developments taking place only in the post World-War II period. The earliest successful effort was the establishment of the King Edward VII Medical College in 1905 which was accorded licentiate status in 1916. A liberal arts college, Raffles College, was established in 1929. With rapid de-colonisation expected with the end of the War there was renewed interest in providing for higher education. In 1948 the Carr-Saunders Committee advocated the merger of the medical and arts colleges to form the University of Malaya in Singapore, which was subsequently established in 1949. In 1957 the University was split into two campus, one in Singapore and one in Kuala Lumpur to cater for the growing needs of the newly independent Federation of Malaya in 1957. It was soon realised that separate universities were required to cater for different and emergent political and social realities and the University of Malaya and the University of Singapore were established in 1962 in Malaya and Singapore respectively.

While English-medium higher education was thus being developed the situation was considerably different with Chinese-medium education. British colonial education policy, especially before 1920, was to let those Chinese who wished for Chinese-language education to provide it for themselves. The result was that large segments of the community felt themselves discriminated against. The situation worsened in the early decades of the twentieth century when the Chinese school system became politicised, agitational and anti-British. In spite of British efforts at control community leaders were able to establish the Chinese-medium Nanyang University, "a university of the Chinese type" which enroled its first students in 1956. The university was originally registered as a limited company but in 1959 it was accorded public institution status. However, the university continued to be bedevilled by problems of a politicised administration and poor quality academic staff, among others. Full government recognition of its degrees came only in 1968. In 1978 the government introduced a Joint Campus scheme to halt the erosion of academic standards and a steady decline in enrolment at Nanyang, and in 1980, following the recommendations in the Sir Frederick Dainton Report on University Education in Singapore, the two institutions were merged to form the National University of Singapore (NUS). In the academic year

1990-91 the student enrolment stood at 17,137, of whom 1,944 were reading for post-graduate diplomas and higher degrees.

The planners soon realised that Singapore's specialised manpower needs were not likely to be met by a single university. Following the recommendations of the Council on Professional and Technical Education (CPTE), the Nanyang Technological Institute (NTI) was established in 1981 to train practice-oriented engineers. In the Minister of Education's words, the Institute was intended to produce the "highly skilled manpower needed for the sophisticated, capital-intensive, high value added industries that will figure prominently in our economy in the 1990s." The Institute was initially linked to NUS's faculty of engineering and students received NUS degrees. The School of Accountancy of NUS was transferred to NTI in the academic year 1987-8. Over a period of ten years the NTI produced 7,200 graduates in accountancy and engineering. The Institute was reconstituted and renamed the Nanyang Technological University (NTU) in 1991 with the aim of developing it into Singapore's second comprehensive university.

The Institute of Education was established in 1974 and is the sole teacher education institution in Singapore. Between 1974 and 1991 the Institute trained graduates for teaching in secondary schools whose diplomas were awarded first by the University of Singapore, and later, the National University of Singapore. Its upgrading in 1991 to a National Institute of Education and its incorporation into the NTU coincides with the establishment of two degree programmes, the BA with Diploma in Education and the BSc with Diploma in Education.

The Open University

In August 1991 the government announced that it intended to establish a Singapore Open University in 1992 and if need be, to allow foreign universities to run courses in Singapore. In early 1992 the government decided that it would be preferable for a private sector institution to run the Open University programmes. The Singapore Institute of Management announced in June 1992 that it would manage the university in collaboration with the Open University of the United Kingdom. The government had agreed to give a one-time grant of S$38 million to help SIM set up the Open University while the Public Service Commission had also agreed to accept the Open University's degrees. The UK Open University would help develop SIM courses and award degrees, and the programmes would be run on a part-time basis.

It was also announced that classes would begin in January 1994 and that three degree programmes, a B.A (Eng. Language and Lit.) B.Sc. (Maths) and B. Sc. (Comp. Science) would be offered in 1994. For the first year 500 students would be admitted, with subsequent intakes to increase by 500. The Open University is expected to have eventually a total enrolment of about 6,000 students. Admission criteria has been set at two A-levels or a recognised diploma qualification, an age criterion requiring students to be 23 plus, and a minimum of 2 yrs. working experience. A student would be required to earn six credits to complete a basic degree and eight credits for an honours degree, with each credit worth 90 hrs. It has also been announced that the general degree programme would take 6 yrs.

Polytechnic Education

Increasingly, government manpower planners are beginning to talk of post-secondary provision as involving not just the universities but also the polytechnics and private sector provision. It is now expected that by the end of the decade 20% of each cohort would have access to a university education while 40% would go to the polytechnics. At present only 20% of each cohort that enters Primary 1 goes on to the polytechnics. Some 600 places have been set aside in the two universities for deserving polytechnic graduates. The Singapore Polytechnic, Singapore's first polytechnic was established in 1959 with departments in Engineering, Architecture & Building, Accountancy and Nautical Studies with diplomas awarded at professional, technician and craft levels. It had an enrolment of 16,500 students in 1991. Ngee Ann College was established in 1963 and faced problems similar to Nanyang University since the college was a non-government initiative. Government involvement led to internal reforms and in 1982 the college was renamed Ngee Ann Polytechnic. A third polytechnic, Temasek Polytechnic was established in 1990, and the fourth Nanyang Polytechnic was established in 1992. Total enrolment in the three polytechnics stood at 27,106 in 1991.

Private Sector Institutions

Singapore has a modest private sector in higher education. The Singapore Institute of Management (SIM) is the most reputed of institutions within this sector. SIM is an independent, self-financing organization founded in 1964 to provide management courses; the founding aim was to establish a management institute to develop managerial skills and talent which could contribute to the expansion and strengthening of the economy. In 1991, SIM offered four Masters and two Bachelors Degrees both in full-time and part-time modes and 11 Diploma and Certificate programmes. The total enrolment in these programmes was about 8,000; the enrolment in the diploma and certificate programmes was about 5,500. The Masters programmes are conducted jointly with Brunei University and Henley Management College in the UK, George Washington University in the USA, Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology in Australia and Rutgers University in the USA. In 1992 a Master of Finance programme will be launched with the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology.

The Bachelors degree programmes which were organised with the University of London and the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology had a total enrolment of 805 students in both the full and part-time modes. A new programme leading to a Diploma in Economics awarded by the University of London was launched in 1989. Offered in full-time and part-time modes, it provides 'A' level students who successfully complete the one-year programme in Singapore direct second year admission to the University of London's BSc programme.

In addition to the above a number of overseas universities offer post-graduate programmes. The University of Hull, for instance, offers a Graduate Diploma in Management Studies with entry qualifications set at the Diploma level and promising that the graduate diploma would offer access to its MBA programmes. The University of Sheffield offers an M. Ed. programme. In 1992 SIM launched a Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA) programme with the degree to be offered by Brunei - The University of West London.

Yet another example of private provision of tertiary education in Singapore is the six or so private education centres which offer between them almost 1,000 places to students who wish to read for a Bachelor of Law degree from the University of London (External). The duration is 3 years and those who wish to practise must then go the UK to prepare and sit for the Bar examinations set by the Council of Legal Education. The basic entry qualification is either two 'A' level passes or 3 'O' levels plus a pass in the Associated Examining Board examination. The cost of tuition is comparable to fees charged at NUS but costs go up when Bar preparation is included.

Some Aspects of the Contemporary Higher Education System.

Key Policy Decisions

Singapore's higher education system, as befits a dynamic and evolving economy and society has changed rapidly in the last two decades. The change has been much more rapid in the last decade and a half than in the first one and a half decades. As Singapore prepares to globalize its economy and commit itself to increased research and development as a way of staying ahead the pace of change has increased; the growth of the economy continues to fuel the demand for high level and well trained manpower. The major changes will be discussed under the following headings: financing higher education, easing access, and changing admission procedures.

Financing Higher Education

A key decision was to reduce the level of public subsidy for higher education by increasing tuition fees. The decision to reduce the subsidy reflects the concern of the government to reduce its share of total recurrent costs in higher education. The issue was first raised in 1986 and substantive proposals were made in March 1987. The former Education Minister, Dr Tony Tan, announced that the idea was to link fees to the recurrent cost per student for the various courses. The long-term goal was to have students meet 30-40% of operating costs in the university sector. It was estimated that in 1991, 21.5% of costs were being met by tuition fees. The message, he said, was "to impress upon our university students that they are a very privileged lot and that their very expensive education has been very heavily subsidised by the government at the expense of other taxpayers." He calculated that 3% of the student population accounted for 20 per cent of government expenditure on education. He promised that a one hundred million dollar revolving fund would be established to provide loans. This was an apt move because as the Straits Times reported, NUS gave out five million Singapore dollars in scholarships and bursaries and had to turn down a sizeable number seeking loans. In March 1988 the government announced a relaxation of Central Provident Fund rules to allow monies to be used for payment of university tuition fees at the NUS and NTU; this provision will not be available to students in the Open University programmes. Dr Tony Tan has now returned to the private sector and in a personal capacity has suggested the use of CPF funds for payment of fees in tertiary institutions abroad.

Easing Access

As with other rapidly developing countries, the Singapore authorities faced continuing pressure to ease access to post-secondary, and especially higher education. The government for its part maintained through much of the eighties that it was important not to overproduce graduates, that Singapore needed more technical and middle management personnel, and that in any case, there was a place available in the university for every student who qualified for university entrance. In 1988, the government was still thinking of converting NTI into a technological university. It stated its preference that the vast majority of post-secondary students should be in polytechnics and that since 14-15% of each cohort went on the university there was no need to further expand university education. However, it was forced to acknowledge that increasing numbers of students were frustrated at their inability to win university places, and were seeking higher education abroad. The Dainton Report noted a figure of 9,000 students studying abroad in 1990. This pressure soon had its effect on the government which in 1990 announced the establishment of Nanyang Technological University as Singapore's second comprehensive university in 1991. Soon after it also announced the setting up Temasek Polytechnic.

Admission Procedures

Related to the issue of establishing more post-secondary places is the issue of admission requirements. A Straits Times Report (2.9.1991) noted that the consultant to the Open University had recommended that those without qualifications should be allowed to enrol if they underwent a preparatory course and passed an examination to qualify for admission; the government has however opted for more stringent admission requirements. We noted earlier that a decision had been taken to allow well qualified polytechnic graduates to be admitted to the university. Some 500 places are likely to be available in the future; in 1991 NTU admitted 382 and NUS 30 students. Recent accounts indicate that such students do creditably in their university courses.

Changes in admission procedures are also likely to have some impact on access. Lord Dainton in his report Higher Education in Singapore had seemed to question the predictive value of 'A' level results for university studies and recommended a wider range of criteria and flexibility. He noted that interviews, aptitude tests and school assessments could be useful criteria in deciding on suitability for university studies. The Vice-Chancellor of NUS in response pointed out that NUS had indeed exercised some discretion but agreed that NUS would review admission criteria for the Arts and Social Sciences Faculty in 1991 and that students whose results are close to the faculty's entry cut-off point will be given a chance to gain admission. He said that there would also be greater flexibility in admitting mature students. The response from NTU's President was that 'A' level results had served it well and thus NTU had no plans to change. It is, however, too soon to judge if the use of the new criteria will be extensive enough to make a major impact on access. There has been some recent discussion in Singapore as to whether the 2 'A' levels requirements for Open University admission was a contradiction of the concept of the openness. The government has argued that 'A' levels are relatively easy to obtain and that it ensured some measure of quality control, and an assurance of better completion rates.

Future Policy Options

A constant concern of policy makers in Singapore has been to ensure that the development of education, especially post secondary education, is relevant to Singapore's economic and technological needs. A second preoccupation is the concern with rising costs of higher education in Singapore. The expansion and diversification noted earlier has led to a steep rise in expenditure on tertiary education; this is likely to rise further in the 1990s with the expansion of NTU. Though Singapore has ample reserves, prudent management requires hard decisions as to the distribution of the burden for expenditure.

While the government struggles to manage growth, public demand for increased and diversified educational opportunities continues to grow. In the 1991 General Elections educational opportunity became a major issue with some government policies seen as being elitist, while others saw the steep increases in tuition fees as unfair to the vast majority of undergraduates. The government is also aware that a large number of students plan to study abroad if they are denied a place at the two universities. How is the government likely to respond? Once again it is likely that economic imperatives will force changes; the language of waste and inefficiency is likely to be replaced by the acceptance that future economic growth and innovation in post-industrial Singapore is likely to come largely from a better-educated workforce and more investment in R & D.

One major planning decision the government will have to take will be how to reach and maintain the proportions it wants in post secondary institutions, between the polytechnics and the universities; the preferred ratio seems to be 70:20. Enrolment in the two universities will probably stabilize around 30,000 at the end of the decade. In 1991, prior to the establishment of Nanyang Polytechnic the polytechnic enrolment stood at 27,106. It is clear from the above figures that the planners ratio will take some time to be realised.

There is another area of concern relevant to both universities and that is the promotion of post-graduate research. Singapore's economic growth, its ability to stay ahead of competing economies and to benefit from technological advances will depend on its research and development capacity. The universities will have a large part to play in this, both in terms of their contribution to the economy and to their own quest to be centres of excellence. While NUS had started accelerating its post-graduate programmes in the late eighties, Lord Dainton found that NTI had an "unduly or inappropriately low" level of research activity. Both NUS and NTU plan to boost post-graduate studies though their plans to raise post-graduate students from 43 to 1,000 by 1995 for NTU and from 2,000 to 4,000 by 1994 for NUS seems overly ambitious. Faculty and post-graduate research is likely to be boosted at NUS by the establishment of specialised research institutes such as the Institute of Micro-electronics, a clinical research Centre and a Centre for Advanced Legal Studies. NTU hopes that its research and post-graduate work will be given a boost with tie-ups with such overseas institutions as MIT's Sloan School of Management and the Loughborough University of Technology.

An area that the government should more positively explore is the possibility of greater privitization of the post-secondary sector in Singapore education. Precedents are amply available in the economic sector but a heritage of centralised decision-making and fears about quality have prevented much action on this score. In this respect too, Singapore lags behind its Asean neighbours, all of whom allow for considerable private sector initiative

in the education industry. Given the demand that obviously exists, the capacity to pay and the benefits of a better and more broadly educated workforce, the argument for increased privitization should be given a serious hearing. There will, of course, be need for some oversight and quality control but international experience is full of examples of how Singapore can manage the risks of privitization. As one commentator has noted "the eagerness with which local students compete for higher education facilities outside the local tertiary system should be a catalyst for the effective development of educational services, even on a paying basis." Given the perspective advanced here, that costs of providing education and maintaining standards will go up in the nineties and beyond, an acceptance of the privitization strategy could result in dampening cost rises.

Another aspect of the privitization debate has to do with promoting Singapore-based educational services to the region, to use educational services as an export industry. Though the government has talked about this concept, little positive action is forthcoming. It is true that foreign students, notably Malaysians and Indonesians study in Singapore's secondary schools (estimated at around 8,000), about 15 per cent of places are taken up by foreigners, notably Malaysians at NUS. It is also true that British and Australian universities are active in offering courses in both the Singapore and regional market; in this sense the Singapore educational market is open. These measures are, however, inadequate given the potential.

Singapore's reputation for high standards in education, orderliness and relevance of education institutions, excellent library and informational services, excellent communication facilities and extensive use of English - indeed the best use of English in East Asia - make it an attractive centre for educational activities aimed at tapping regional markets. Singapore should consider more actively twinning arrangements with overseas universities as one mechanism; beyond that, Singapore should be exploring a much wider range of educational facilities to tap the nation's expertise in specialised areas like computer studies, robotics etc.

A Concluding Note

Higher education development in Singapore has moved in tandem with socio-economic and political change and is now poised for major change. Policy in the early decades had to take account of political realities and cultural politics but it is economics that now influences policy. Policy on non-sensitive issues has always been grounded on realistic and pragmatic considerations. The result is a system that is highly regarded in terms of standards and general efficiency. Public demand for tertiary opportunity continues to escalate as does costs; a major response to this is the decision to establish the SOU and to expand polytechnic education. It is likely that research and industry collaboration will become major concerns of the nineties.

OTHER PAPERS

NAIKAN: A BUDDHIST APPROACH TO PSYCHOTHERAPY

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Counselling practices have long been dominated by Western counselling procedures, yet many Asian psychotherapies offer creative and sophisticated strategies that are easily adapted to a variety of theoretical approaches. Naikan is one of the most simplistic, yet elegant modalities that helpers can embrace. Naikan is a Japanese psychotherapy with philosophical roots in Buddhist spiritual practices and emphasizes reflection on past relationships. Like many Asian psychotherapies, Naikan focuses "...primarily on existential and transpersonal levels and little on the pathological" (Walsh, 1989, p. 547). The essence of Naikan is revealed in the meaning from the Japanese words "nai" meaning inner and "kan" meaning observation or introspection. Personal problems and dissatisfactions are often the result of the discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal self or what is and what should be. Buddhism teaches that experience of living is far more valuable than metaphysical speculations. To philosophize to much about existence is a waste of energy, just as preoccupation with one's condition. Even to focus to much on a problem can lead to attachment. Yet Buddha taught that life should not be seen as a mystery to be figured out. No, life should be lived, simply and practically, accepting events and circumstances as they occur. To emphasize these ideas consider the wisdom in the words of the poet Chao-chou: "I have come empty-handed," said the student. "Lay it down then!" said the teacher. "But I have brought nothing with me: what can I lay down?" "Then keep on carrying it." Thus what is natural is lost as people use artificial means to deal with their anxieties and fears. If people will allow themselves to be like "water" then they can regain their naturalness and live a more constructive life. Essentially, there is no pretending for "...water reflects whatever reality brings it" (Reynolds, 1989, p. 181). When people deny reality, whether it is joy or sadness, they fight against the truth of their feelings. "Shoulds" block them and prevent them from making changes to co-exit with the changing context in the environment. Like water, which always flows around objects and doesn't try to fight rocks or other obstacles, people can learn to be more flexible and move at a pace that is keeping to the circumstances of existence. The lesson is quite simple: that by just being ordinary, like water, people can live a life that is more dynamic.

Historical Background of Naikan Therapy

Naikan began as a form of spiritual training for priests of the Jodo Shinshu sect of Buddhism. Jodo Shinshu emphasized the love and self sacrifice of Buddha and how this was used to help others achieve enlightenment. Through acceptance of life the way it is and the giving joyously to others, followers were promised relief from the cycle of birth and death. The early spiritual training consisted of introspective meditation and fasting. In some circumstances these priests would go without food, water, sleep and engage in other forms of self-deprivation. The modern practice of Naikan was modified fifty years ago for lay people by Yoshimoto Ishin. "Nowadays the goal need not be a religious one of an existential confrontation with death; the aim of self-understanding is acceptable" (Reynolds, 1982, p. 50). As the practice of Naikan has become more popularized it has become more of a rational and scientific method of therapy, yet it has also retain many of the spiritual constructs of Buddhism. Interestingly,

it is in the prisons of Japan where Naikan has had its greatest impact. In fact, 60% of the prison facilities in Japan have used Naikan at one time or another. Prison officials reported reduced rates of recidivism among naikansha prisoners compared to those who are not following the Naikan approach (Reynolds, 1982). Naikan's popularity is increasing, particularly with those working with juvenile delinquents and alcoholics, in part because Naikan can be combined with a short prison sentence and training during probationary periods.

Theoretical Basis of Naikan

In order to enhance well-being, Buddhism emphasizes self discipline or self control, particularly the power to control or modify physical aspects of the body. : "Meditation, the principal psychotherapeutic tool of Buddhism, also can enrich traditional Western psychotherapy in several ways: 1) by offer insight into self-defeating behaviours by focusing on them and exaggerating them; 2) by severing the tight grip of thinking on behaviour by retraining attention; and 3) by producing an integrated hypothalamic response that decreases sympathetic activity" (Ramaswami & Sheikh, 1989, p. 109). Through exploring early experiences and present actions clients using the Naikan approach are helped to let go of selfish attachments and guilt associated with living a self absorbed life. While the introspection is carefully guided by the therapist, clients share their recollections on: 1. what was received from significant others in terms of services, kindness, objects and other important gifts; 2) what has been returned to significant others in life; 3) what troubles, inconveniences, deceits, pettiness and the other selfish acts occurred with these people. The rationale is to focus clients on personal actions, past and present, that influenced their present situation. An important goal of Naikan therapy is to assist clients in accepting responsibility for "...their selfish and irrational behaviour" (Ramaswami & Sheikh, 1989, p. 108). Responsibility extends not only to significant others in clients' lives, but also to the objects in the environment around the clients. Clients not only have to consider how they have polluted their bodies and relationships, but also how they have polluted their environment.

The Naikan Therapeutic Process

Traditional Naikan therapy consists of two parts: immersion and counselling. The immersion will take place, either in a temple or place where the client can be isolated. Clients are isolated, sleeping and taking meals alone, and required to undergo meditation training. Meditation, as the primary helping strategy, may last from 4:30 am. until 7 pm. Therapists visit clients, at intervals of one to two hours during the day, to instruct them on meditation and engage them in dialogue. In addition, therapists will also guide clients in introspection and dialogue by focusing on reoccurring life themes. For example, clients may explore desires that block constructive living, such as dishonesty, negativity, or blaming. In a sense, therapists are "fellow travelers," but with some experience in life. Despite being guides, therapists must show honour to clients and continually reinforce their ability to solve personal problems. To empower the client, the therapist will bow his or her "...head to the floor, open the folding screen, bow again, and ask clients the topic of [the] current meditation. This ritualized format symbolizes the therapist's humility as he [or she] prepares to listen to the client's confession. The client's response is similarity in ritual form. He [or she] reports the person and time period of his [or her] recollections (Reynolds, 1982, p. 47)."

About 20 percent of clients' meditation is spend on significant people who have given and what they have returned to them. Sixty percent of clients' meditation is spent on the trouble or inconveniences that clients have caused significant others. Interestingly, one of the common themes during meditation are clients' relationship with their parents. Since relationships are strongly influenced by parents, this topic is often a discussed on early in therapy. One of the assumptions is that people develop a distorted self or destructive patterns in the process of growing up. While the traumas or failures of the past cannot be undone, clients' attitudes can be changed. The Naikan therapy process attempts to restructure clients' thinking and provide a moral structure for living life based on the Buddha's ideal of "giving." Clients share their idea of past events working from the past to the present. In the first week of reflection, clients share their remembrances about the themes in their relationships, while therapists listen without interpretation or comment. Besides instruction in meditation, the therapeutic process involves rephrasing, recasting, and reflecting clients' statements. Once therapists have a solid understanding of clients' issues, they will engage in interpreting and then guiding clients actions. According to Reynolds (1982) the therapist "...directs the client away from abstract or vague descriptions of past events and personal suffering. The goal is [for clients to use] concrete statements about specific personal experiences" (p. 48).

In the second phase, counselling consists of weekly or monthly visits to therapists in which clients report on their activities and the progress of their meditation. A journal is often used as a means for structuring client-therapist interactions. Homework assignments are also given to clients, which can consist of summaries of "good works" (helping others) and saying things that show appreciation to others (i.e. "saying thank you at least ten times during the day"). Reynolds (1989) describes how a client must also consider how he or she is served not only by people, but also by the energy of objects. A client can be asked to remove object from a place that they keep personal items such as a drawer: "as the items are returned to the drawer one by one, each item is thanked for some specific service it performed for the [client]...conservation of the resources in our world becomes a natural consequence of the grateful recognition of their services they perform for us" (p. 191). Since obtaining a higher state of consciousness and becoming more aware are important goals in living constructively, clients must practice daily meditation at a certain place and time. As an active strategy meditation is invaluable. The research in meditation has solidly demonstrated benefits in increasing perceptual and empathic sensitivity (Walsh, 1989). Usually, clients are instructed to meditation on how someone has given to them, visualizing him or her, letting whatever feelings and thoughts develop. However, in the dialoguing with therapists, clients share how they can live life by giving back. Clients must develop strategies that do not see others as tools for satisfying personal desires, but develop relationships that are open and giving.

An Example of Using Naikan in a Western Context

To illustrate how Naikan therapy is used in a Western context, the following case of a 35 year old man trying to come to grips with a relationship breakup is discussed. "M" came to therapy with the desire to reduce stress and overcome a generally "blue" feeling. "M" reported that he felt a great deal of anger, yet even after expressing his anger, he felt "stuck." After explaining the Naikan form of therapeutic intervention, "M" was invited by the therapist to share

his feelings. He talked for over an hour about his state of mind and how he thought he had been coping. The therapist listen and asked only clarifying questions. The therapist's sense of "M's" condition is personified in "M's" imagery of how he saw his life. "M" described his existence as: "Going down the road of life, minding my own business, and being attacked by colleagues who disagreed with me. The viciousness of their attacks was a real surprise and I felt myself being knocked down in the mud. The sorrow of their attacks seems to have somehow paralyzed me...I don't feel that I can get up, yet I see the uselessness of staying and wallowing in the mud."

After mastering the skill of meditation and practicing it for some time, the therapist focused on significant relationships, positive and negative, in his life. Of the many people he felt were significant in his life, he chose to "work" on a relationship involving a colleague who he felt had treated him in a unfair way. Rather than focus on the negative aspects of his relationship with the person, he was asked to focus on what he had learned in the encounter with that person. While finding it difficult to explore the positive parts, he did list of number of things he had learned about himself and how the experience had changed his life. After considerable time exploring this experience (two sessions consisting of one-hour each), he was surprised at what he had learned. Of these, what predominated was the "little kindnesses" of acquaintances and how much "closer" he had been drawn to his family. The method used to explore these themes followed the follow format: instruction from the therapist on the topic to focus on; meditation for one hour on the topic; dialoguing the messages in the meditation in a journal; and sharing of the messages with the therapist. Generally, the therapist focused on actions and meaning. In every case "M" was asked to make sense of what was given and what he did to repay to others. While the emphasis was on the positive, "M" feelings were honoured. However, rather than staying with those feelings, the therapist refocused him towards the positive. Over the next two sessions, "M" explored a number of other relationships from the past, including the relationship with his parents, siblings and ex-spouse. In each case, he was asked to meditate on how these people had influenced and given "something" to his. This was followed by an exploration of how he had given back to others. After tying all these themes together, "M" was asked to write out how, when, where and with who he would return the "gifts" that he had been given. In addition, to the dialoguing, meditation and journaling, "M" was asked to consider how he treated pets (cats), plants and objects in his daily life. A clear theme was his pleasure at "taking care" of his pets and house plants. In fact, he learned that he was happier in "nurturing" than in controlling in his relationships with.

The basic Naikan approach was followed by the therapist in counselling "M," with the philosophy and basic strategies remaining constant. However, in adapting the approach to "M's" cultural milieu, the therapist structured the intervention by teaching meditation skills and encouraging him to focussed on the meaning in his actions. The therapist did not engage in interpreting his actions, but encouraging him to arrive at his own meanings. Finally, the therapist focussed on moving "M" towards active and positive strategies for living in harmony with himself and his environment. Specific living strategies that gave back were discussed and clarified so "M" had a clearer idea of what he could do. The two follow- up sessions evaluated how well the strategies were working for him. It was not surprising that a motto he developed and promised

to repeat everyday consisted of this thought: "the best way to receive is to give."

Conclusion

The "spiritual" aspects of Buddhism are reflected in the human condition, moreover Naikan reinforces a positive method for living life in a practical manner. As "M" discovered, there are some things that occur in life that cannot be changed or explained. What "M" learned to do was "let go" of his anger and hopelessness about regaining what he had before. However, it was not just a "letting go," but a development of a more constructive way of living in the world. "M" learned that he had been given a great deal in life, in fact he said many times he had been fortunate, but he also discovered that he had given very little back. In fact, he discovered that in "giving" he had a great sense of satisfaction and an outlet for his sadness about the breakup of his marriage. In the process, he learned how to use meditation and "good works" to gain more control over his anxieties and fears. The most difficult strategy was learning how to "let go" of his anger and disappointments, but he realized that survival depended on being more flexible (just like water). While much can be made of how different Naikan is to many Western forms of therapy, in fact, the differences are not as great as first seen. Take for example, Behavioralism, a very Western approach, and one can see many similarities. Both emphasize self-control and both avow the intention of helping to modify bodily process to enhance well-being. Both have the same objective of teaching clients new bahaviours and reducing the gap between the real self and the ideal self. However, they differ in that behaviorism stresses the value of counter-conditioning in undoing neurotic behaviour, while Naikan stresses insight. Naikan, views insight and training as the best means for developing a constructive life style. My experience with "M" and other clients who opt for the Naikan approach reinforces my belief that Naikan is easily adapted into a Western cultural mode. I continue to believe that meditation is one of the best coping strategies to empower clients and provide them with the ability to be more positive. Naikan has a simplicity about it that I can only describe as eloquent and expressive. It is easily adapted to Western culture and the Gestalt therapeutic approach that I normally practice. Naikan respects the dignity of all things. In fact, the Buddhist ideal may not be all that different from Christianity ideal or any other spiritual approach that seeks harmony. I have found that the premises of Naikan which emphasizes the connectedness of all things, the impermanent of existence, the acceptance of suffering, and the giving to others has a seductive quality about it that is empowering.

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BEYOND SELF-ESTEEM

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In his book, The Social Importance of Self Esteem, California State Assemblyman John Vasconcellos argues forcefully that "...low self esteem is at the root of many social problems, such as crime and violence, drug and alcohol abuse, academic failure, chronic welfare dependency, child abuse and teenage pregnancy." I agree that self esteem is extremely important in the development of a healthy personality in each of us. This "self," of course, has been the foundation of counseling and psychotherapy where the main focus is the functioning of self. Programs such as Human Potentials, Assertiveness Training, etc. are but a few examples of self-enhancing trainings.

Where I do not concur with Assemblyman Vasconcellos is in blaming all of our social ills on the lack of self esteem in our society. Such an argument is over-simplified and does not take into account the cultural, social and economic factors that cause low self-esteem. Low self esteem alone can not be the cause of all of our problems. On the contrary, many crimes of violence are committed by people who possess an unrealistic degree of self importance and absolute disregard and respect for other people. Children in U.S. schools possess the highest self-esteem in the world, and yet they have attained one of the lowest averages in achievement and have committed some of the most violent crimes.

American history and culture are full of stories about the accomplishment of individuals. We live by the code of stoic individualism, preciously guarding our individuality, determined to do things our own way. There is a subtle social stigma attached to those who frequently ask for help and are often dependent on others. Thus, there is an emphasis on self: self-esteem, self-sufficiency, self-medicating,etc. Self-esteem and preserving a sense of individuality is not a negative trait; in fact, a certain degree of these traits are not only desirable but necessary in all of us. But since we are social creatures, there is a clear and manifest need for us to interact with others. We need to recognize that we are not perfect and cannot always be completely by ourselves. Thus, we need to know when we need help, and we should be willing to ask others for assistance when it is genuinely needed.

Self-esteem is generally defined as the valuing of self, and the degree to which one perceives he or she is valued by others. The primary focus is definitely on the "self," and is inward looking. However, an individual's self esteem is derived from social values and expectations that are transmitted through the individual's various relationships. Since each individual is connected to his/her society through the various relationships with others, it is crucial that we now look at a new term that describes our relationship with society - ***other-esteem***.

Other-esteem is the caring and respect one possesses for all human beings, not just a select few. Other-esteem means having a high degree of understanding,tolerance and acceptance of other people's idiosyncratic behavior, different lifestyles and cultural differences. It is the degree of other-valuing and the degree of our social-interest. This is all based on a realization that we live in an interdependent world, and that interaction with and dependency on other human beings are not signs of weakness or inferiority but a human necessity. If we want others to value us, and if we want to possess a high degree of self-esteem, we must first start to value others before ourselves, and learn how to show respect for others. Second, we must be generous and sincere in giving positive feedback to others. Third, we must accept authentic favorable feedback, and learn from valid negative feedback from others.

Every healthy individual should possess a good balance of both self esteem and other-esteem. I do not believe that the two are diametrically opposed; in fact, I consider them to complement each other, like two sides of the same coin. Other-esteem makes us more humble than proud, and more cooperative that competitive because we recognize that our lives are made up of a series of complex and intricate relationships. Our relationship and interactions with others spin out around us like a spider's web; our individual actions and words may have far reaching effects on others. The more we go out of our way to help, accept, understand and be more considerate of others, the better we will feel about ourselves. This mutual sharing and assistance, this other-esteem is the best way I know to increase and enhance our self-esteem.

The American focus on the self and individual is in direct contrast to the focus on the family and group in Asian cultures. For example, American society is lauded as informal and laid back. We tend to communicate on a first name basis. When we are introduced, we usually refer to ourselves by our first names. However, in Asian cultures when introductions are made, the surname or family name is always given first. Another example is the way we sign our names/signatures. Americans always begin with their first name and end up with their last name. The Chinese always put their family name before their first name. What is the significance of these differences? Americans tend to focus on the individual self, whereas the Chinese tend to focus of the family that the individual comes from. The Chinese are more interested in the group that the individual belongs to because they know that each individual's self identity is derived in part from the family's identity.

A few years ago, I led a group of psychiatrists, psychologists, and educators from the United States to China, where we visited Shanghai Psychiatric Hospital. In a round table discussion with some members of the hospital staff, many in our group were impressed with the release procedures the hospital used. When a patient is determined to be "safe" to return to society, and while continuing treatment as an outpatient, he or she is routinely assigned to a select committee. This group is responsible for finding the person a job, making sure the individual continues to take the prescribed medication, and helping the individual integrate back into society. However, should there be any sign of deviancy, the committee notifies and consults with the hospital doctors immediately, and may even make the ultimate decision of returning the individual to the hospital for further diagnosis, treatment or therapy. This is a positive example of positive social support.

Why do Americans have a high degree of self-esteem and a low degree of other-esteem? It is because the ideals and values that every American holds dear encourage competition and prevents the development of other-esteem. Other-esteem means mutual dependence, cooperation, sharing and teamwork. However, the values we live by are utilitarian; free competition, everyone look out for himself, independence and self sufficiency. In this society, we are judged and rated by our personal possession and individual success. We are expected to be the best in everything we do. We have a fetish for constantly ranking our leaders, heroes, products, services and even academic institutions by popularity polls. Our headlong rush to

be Number 1, to be first, biggest or best will most likely result in frustration, disappointment, and unhappiness. Why? Because our expectations are too high and unrealistic. Not everyone can always be the best, so such expectations can only end in disappointment and frustration.

To counteract these distorted expectations, we all need a healthy dose of other-esteem. First, we must realize that life is not always a zero sum game; through cooperation and sharing, everyone can succeed. Second, we all need to understand and accept that life is much more than just a competition to see who is better, richer, stronger, smarter and more successful. Life is about caring, sharing, relationships and happiness. An important point to remember is that self-esteem cannot be achieved at the expense of others. Third and last, because our lives are interwoven with the lives of numerous other people through a complex network of relationships, our success or failure can affect many others. Thus, our choices and decisions should be made only after we have considered the implications and potential consequences to others around us and to our community.

The gap between individual goals and social objectives can be bridged by encouraging and fostering the growth of other-esteem in American society. As the concept of other-esteem takes root and spreads throughout society, people will begin to see more clearly that, in the long run, most social objectives and individual goals do converge. Through an increased awareness of our interdependence with others, our horizons will expand to include not just ourselves but those around us as well. It is easy for us to see many situations in our society where other-esteem is needed to bridge the gap between individual goals and social objectives.

A pattern of mutuality permeates through all aspects of our lives. Regardless of where we are: at home, or school or work, we must realize that human beings are social creatures. As social creatures, we have a mutual need for each other. It is through mutual sharing and caring that we can achieve happiness and overcome the difficulties we encounter in our daily lives. Our emotional, psychological and general well-being is largely dependent on our willingness to give and receive esteem, to love and be loved, and to need and be needed. Thus, it is imperative that we look beyond the self to ***other-esteem.***

WORKSHOPS

Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) and the Therapeutic Model: Integrating MLE into the Formulation of Responses and Interventions

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The Israeli psychologist Reuven Feuerstein has developed a theory to describe how the process of learning and thinking develops, and how by translating the theory into applied interventions, people can be helped to improve their functioning and change behavior in meaningful and lasting ways. The theory is called Structural Cognitive Modifiability (SCM) (Feuerstein, 1979). An important component of SCM is the concept of mediated learning experience (MLE), which describes a dynamic process between an active and involved human who is in the position of needing or wanting to change (in the context of counseling, the client) and another human (in this context, the counselor) who is experienced, intentioned, and who interposes himself or herself between the client and external sources of stimulation or experience. Feuerstein describes this as *mediating* to the extent that the counselor is "framing, selecting, focusing, and feeding back environmental experiences in such a way as to produce...appropriate learning sets and habits (1979, p. 71).

It has been proposed (Falik and Feuerstein, 1990) that the theory of structural cognitive modifiability, and the principles and process of MLE can serve as a useful foundation for the counselor to conceptualize the dynamics of the counseling process and develop responses and interventions which are clearly related to client change objectives.

To carry this work further, a model has been developed which identifies the major behavioral MLE criteria, and integrates other relevant dimensions of the counseling process--the developmental phase of the counseling relationship, the level of immediate interaction (content or process), and the quality of the formulated response (whether it is explicit and overt or implicit and covert in

nature). The model enables the counselor to consider the process dimensions of MLE, as a primary focus of counselor/client interaction, and then review already elicited responses--by reviewing an audio or video tape, or written transcript of a session--or to plan prospectively for the kinds of interactions which can be anticipated in a future session.

The proposed model is based on the premise that if the counselor has an understanding of the behavioral elements of MLE interactions, and can integrate them with developmental phase and stage elements of the counseling process, the counselor will be able to act in a planful, systematic, and highly focused manner. Framing interventions within the perspective of the criteria of MLE can serve well to focus and crystalize the interactional process in counseling. Ten criterion components have been identified and described--in educational and behavioral change contexts (see Feuerstein and Feuerstein, 1991; Feuerstein, Rand, and Rynders, 1988; Skuy and Mentis 1991). According to these authors, MLE consists of the following dimensions:

(1) Guiding and focusing the interaction in a purposeful manner, clearly communicating this to the client and structuring for the client's responses (intentionality and reciprocity).

(2) Generating interest and emotional involvement in the interaction, communicating feeling and significance and encouraging the client to make a similar investment (meaning)

(3) Focusing the interaction beyond the immediate and direct needs, enlarging and diversifying the client's need system (transcendence).

(4) Developing a positive belief in the client's abilities to overcome difficulties and appreciate already available skills and abilities (competence).

(5) Making the client conscious of the need to self-monitor behavior and structuring experiences to

experience inner controls and regulation (self-regulation and control of behavior).

(6) Building cooperation and empathic interactions which socially reinforce emotional and behavioral interpersonal connections (sharing behavior).

(7) Fosters a sense of uniqueness and difference and structures experiences which elicit and reinforce positive manifestations of these qualities (individuation).

(8) Guides and directs the client in setting, planning, and achieving goals (goal planning).

(9) Encourages the client to feel the excitment and determination in confronting new, difficult, or previously overwhelming tasks (challenge).

(10) Emphasizes the potential and importance of changes that the client can make (self-change).

The integrative model, and several supporting elements have been developed: they include (1) an expanded and illustratrated process description of MLE criteria, (2) an elaborated discussion of the specific bridges available from MLE to the phases and stages of counseling and psychotherapeutic processes, and (3) a structure for practicing experiences with the use of the model. They are being subjected to experimental usage in initial interviewing skill training.

These components, and the preliminary results of initial experimental usage, will be presented in a workshop format, enabling participants to familiarize themselves with the theoretical and practical aspects of the approach, the training materials which have been developed, and to experience some of the process of using the model to formulate and analyze counseling responses. Participants will also be encouraged to consider wider applications for this approach in counseling and psychotherapeutic practice.

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REALITY THERAPY: THE "WDEP" SYSTEM

Robert E. Wubbolding, EdD

Underlying the practice of Reality Therapy is a theory of brain functioning called "Control Theory" or "Control System Theory". It is a theory that is widely discussed in the computer and engineering tradition and less in psychology, education, counseling, or social work.

Wm. Glasser, M.D., the founder of Reality Therapy (1986b) has applied this theory to therapy and uses it as a basis for many applications. Thus, it has also been applied in school by (Glasser, 1988, 1990) and integrated into the principles of cooperative learning. Wubbolding (1988) has described the principles of Control Theory as they apply to all human interactions:

1. Human beings are motivated to fulfill needs and wants. Human needs are common to all people. Wants are unique to each individual.

2. The difference (frustration) between what human beings want and what they perceive they are getting from their environment produces specific behaviors.

3. Human behavior - composed of doing, thinking, feeling, and physiologic behaviors - is purposeful; that is, it is designed to close the gap between what the person wants and what the person perceives he or she is getting.

4. Doing, thinking, and feeling are inseparable aspects of behavior and are generated from within. Most of them are choices.

5. Human beings see the world through perceptions. There are two general levels of perceptions: low and high. The low level of perception implies knowledge of events or situations. A high level of perception gives values to those events or situations.

In summary, the human motivational system is made of several elements which serve as the basis for the inner evaluations of the client/student/employee/child.

1. Specific WANTS related to needs.

2. BEHAVIORS designed to fulfill wants.

3. PERCEPTIONS or viewpoints of the world around us.

Principles Underlying Reality Therapy

Based on Control Theory the practice of Reality Therapy incorporates the following operational principles:

1. People are responsible for their own behavior. Therefore, it is not accurate to say that our behavior is determined or coerced by outside forces. While our respective environments might be important and influential these external stimuli do not remove our choices.

2. People have gotten to whatever point they are in their lives through past history. Nevertheless, current behavior is not an attempt to resolve past problems or unconscious conflicts.

3. People have choices and all behavior is an attempt to fulfill inner needs.

Practice of Reality Therapy

The delivery of Reality Therapy is composed of two general components: Establishing an environment conducive to change and utilizing procedures in a direct manner (Glasser, 1986a). Wubbolding (1986) has described this delivery of Reality Therapy as a "Cycle of Counseling" that can be entered at any point depending on the appropriateness of the situation. The procedural components are known as the "WDEP" system (Wubbolding, 1991). In order to understand the importance of the EVALUATION component it is necessary to have an overview of the procedures:

W = Wants

The practitioner of Reality Therapy helps clients explore their wants; what they want from parents, from children, from school, from the job, from the counselor, from the family, from the co-workers, and even what they want from themselves. They also are asked to explore what they want that they are getting and not getting.

Part of the **"W"** is also a discussion of how the client perceives the world around them; what specifically they put a high value and a low value on regarding the categories above. e.g., parents, children, school, etc. Crucial at this point is to determine the client's perceived locus of control.

Their level of commitment to improve is also explored. How seriously and how hard the person wants to work is discussed as part of the **"W"**. Does the client say "I won't change", "I'll try

to change", or "I will change".

D = Direction and Doing

The Reality Therapist asks clients about the overall **"DIRECTION"** in which they are headed; "where is your current life-style taking you?" This is a prelude to a specific elaboration of specific action. The counselor acts as a TV camera which records an exact picture of what happened in the client's life at a given moment in a specific place. The crucial element in this component is precision.

E = Evaluation

The types of evaluation are discussed in detail below. But I wish to point out most emphatically that because of the importance of helping clients conduct inner evaluations, Reality Therapy is more appropriately placed in the cognitive school of counseling theories. For through the relentless effort of the counselor to assist clients to conduct the searching inner evaluation, they restructure their thinking. This is not done through disputation or confrontation but by means of helping them to look in a "mirror" and examine how they think about their behavior, their wants, their commitment, etc.

Consequently, Reality Therapy should be seen as not merely emphasizing action, doing, and planning. For if effectively practiced it allows for a detailed discussion of cognition (evaluation), perceptions and the accompanying feelings. No component of the human psyche is ignored.

P = Planning

The culmination and goal of the session is to help clients make plans which are "SAMIC" plans; simple, attainable (realistic), measurable (precise), immediate (not carried out "later"), and controlled by the planner (not dependent on what others do).

The above summary appears to be a simple method to follow. Actually it is **"deceptively"** simple. For it is easy to understand in its outline, but much more intricate in its detail, and like a skill requires practice before it is mastered.

EVALUATION

The component Evaluation has been called the keystone in the arch of procedures (Wubbolding, 1992) because it holds the others in place and without it the other components cannot be held together. No one changes behavior unless a judgement is first made that current behaviors are not helpful.

Thus, in Reality Therapy clients are asked to do more than merely describe their behavior, their wants, their perceptions, their levels of commitment or their plans. They are asked to make **judgements** about them. It is as if they are asked to look in mirror and to determine, with the help of another person, whether their lives are the way they want them to be, whether what they want is realistic and is helpful to them, whether their behaviors are working for them or getting them what they want, and many other forms of evaluation delineated below.

The reason that this procedure is so important is that many people repeat behaviors that are not helpful and sometimes even harmful. Most people have had the experience of misplacing a set of keys or important papers. They then look for them in the same places dozens of times with the futile hope that they will find them eventually. It is far more helpful to stop the fruitless search, to sit down, and to reflect, "Is this really helping me?" If the answer is **"NO"**, then an alternative choice should be made and the ineffective behavior relinquished. Described below are several kinds of evaluations that clients can make as well as questions illustrating each kind.

A. Evaluation of Behavioral Directions:

Is your overall life-style direction in your best interest? Is your direction taking you to a desirable or undesirable destination? How? Describe in detail.

B. Evaluation of Specific Behaviors:

Is your present specific behavior helping or hurting you? Is it helping or hurting the people around you? How is it helping you get what you want? Does each behavior help you or help them **enough**? How specifically? Does each action help you in the short run and in the long run?

C. Evaluation of Acceptability of Behavior:

Is your present behavior tolerable or acceptable in your home, school, job? Is it congruent with the written or unwritten rules?

D. Evaluation of Wants (attainability):

Questions relevant to this evaluation include: Is what you want realistic and attainable? Is there a reasonable chance that you can get it?

E. Evaluation of Desirability of Wants (are your wants truly in your best interest?)

F. Evaluation of Perception (helpfulness of viewpoints).

In evaluating perceptions it is useful to ask clients how they perceive the world, how they view family, school, job, etc. This differs from asking what they **want** from these elements and from what they are **doing** about them. They are asked if the way they see the world and what they choose to see in their world is helping them and helping their situation.

G. Evaluation of Level of Commitment

Wubbolding (1988) has identified five levels of commitment. When exploring the **"W"** of the **"WDEP"** system it is quite beneficial to help clients identify how serious they are about making changes, i.e., how hard they want to work at the task of improving their life and fulfilling their needs in more satisfying ways. The five levels of commitment from the least to the highest are:

1. "I don't want to be here. You can't help me".

2. "I want the outcome. But I don't want to exert any effort".

3. "I'll try. I might. I could".

4. "I'll do my best".

5. "I will do whatever it takes".

There is no need to be overly precise and exacting when helping clients identify the level of commitment. But it is quite helpful to have them evaluate if their current level of commitment is the highest they are capable of choosing.

H. Evaluation of Plan (Does it fulfill the characteristics of an effective plan?) Is it a SAMIC plan?

S = Simple, not overly complicated.
A = Attainable, not impossible to carry out.
M = Measurable, answers the questions when? How many times?
I = Immediate, done soon, not put off.
C = Controlled by the planner, not a plan dependent on what others do.
C = Consistent, done repetitively.

Not every session can realistically have all eight kinds of EVALUATION. The practitioner selects whatever is relevant to the situation. But, each part of the control system's functioning is subject to evaluation by the client with the help of a counselor's skillful questioning.

It is important to note that in many cases counselors, therapists or supervisors appear to make the judgement for the

client in that they describe their own perception of what will work, what is realistic, etc. This is necessary because many clients do not have easily accessible experiences required to make independent evaluations. Eventually, clients "buy into" and accept this evaluation as their own when they see the ineffectiveness of their past evaluations and when they perceive the helper as a need fulfilling person.

In summary, the delivery system of Reality Therapy, summarized with the letters, "WDEP", (Wants, Doing, Evaluation, Planning) is held together by the component known as EVALUATION. It is comprised of two parts; the inner evaluations conducted by clients with the aid of a therapist and the fearless ethical evaluations conducted by practitioners as they view their own performance. This component of Reality Therapy is seen as the cornerstone of the arch. For, change, improvement, and more effective living occurs only when thorough evaluations are performed.

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