

School Counseling in the United States: Implications for the Asia-Pacific Region

John L. Romano

Michael Goh

Kay Herting Wahl

University of Minnesota
U.S.A

The impetus for this paper came about after an international conference in Asia which focused on school counseling in the Asia-Pacific region. Representatives from several Asian and non-Asian countries attended the conference and presented their scholarly work. The importance of international exchange about school counseling was emphasized at the conference. In this paper the history of school counseling in the United States (US) is summarized, including descriptions of newer models of school counselor practice and training and suggestions on how these models might strengthen the impact of school counselors. In addition, a brief overview of school counseling in the Asia-Pacific region is presented with attention to cultural issues that need to be considered. Finally, the implications of the US models are discussed and some questions presented that are potentially relevant for countries in the Asia-Pacific region, as well as those outside the region

Key Words: school counseling, international counseling

In 2004, the 5th International Conference on Education Research was held at Seoul National University with the theme of school counseling and guidance in the Asia-Pacific region. Scholars from across the region (e. g. China, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Philippines as well as other parts of the globe (e. g. Australia, Pakistan, United States) discussed research and programmatic initiatives surrounding the field of school counseling in their respective countries (Kim, 2004). The importance of international dialogue about the field of school counseling and the profession's potential to enhance the educational and personal development of children and

adolescents were strongly demonstrated at the conference. Therefore, the authors of this paper desire to further the international exchange of information by examining the role of school counseling in the United States (US), with suggestions of implications for the Asia-Pacific region. The exchange of scientific knowledge and practices across countries is critically important as counseling and applied psychology are gaining increasing relevance across the globe (Leong & Ponterotto, 2003; Leong & Blustein, 2000; Marsella, 1998).

Specifically, this paper has several objectives. First, it will present a history of school counseling in the US and discuss problems that have limited the impact of school counselors during this history. Second, the paper will describe newer models of school counselor training and practice that have been developed in the US in recent years to strengthen the role and impact of the school counselor. Third, the paper will discuss school counseling in the Asia-Pacific region and cultural issues that are important to consider when implementing models of school counseling practice. Finally, the US school counseling experience may be informative to countries that are in the process of developing or refining

John L. Romano is Professor of Educational Psychology and Chair of the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota. **Michael Goh** is an Assistant Professor and **Kay Herting Wahl** is an Associate Professor in the same department, also at the University of Minnesota. An earlier version of this paper was presented at the 5th International Conference on Educational Research, Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea. October 21, 2004. Correspondence concerning this paper can be sent to Dr. John L. Romano, 178 Pillsbury Dr. SE., Minneapolis, MN 55455, USA. Email: roman001@umn.edu

their school counselor programs and, therefore, implications of the US model for other countries is presented with some questions to consider.

History of School Counseling in the United States

School counseling in the US had its inception in the late 19th century. Most historians recognize the early beginnings of school counseling as vocational guidance, initiated by far sighted people who recognized the need to help students prepare for life after high school (Baker & Gerler, 2004; Sciarra, 2004; Gysbers & Henderson, 2000).

As the age of industrialization began, new immigrants and people from rural areas migrated to cities in search of new careers and status for themselves and their children. This migration brought tremendous challenges to educational and economic establishments (Thompson, 2002). These challenges gave rise to progressive movements that initiated steps to keep children from being overworked, dropping out of school, and obtain better jobs (Sciarra, 2004). Industrialization, immigration, and urbanization were contributing factors in educational reforms of the time (Erford, 2003). Although school guidance programs were established for a variety of reasons, including to stop the exploitation of children and to give children direction and knowledge of work, guidance programs were not based on empirical theory. The first theoretical basis for work in the schools with children would come later, through the advancement of psychometrics after World War I (Sciarra, 2004).

The Great Depression in the 1930s added to the need for assessment of worker abilities and aptitudes, along with helping young people cope with personal issues (Myrick, 1997). In the 1930s, trait and factor theory was developed by E. G. Williamson (Schmidt, 2003), and psychological testing became common during World War II. However, the influence of Carl Rogers and humanistic theory made the biggest impact on school counseling in the years after WWII.

During the 1950s the professional population of school counselors remained relatively small and struggled for professional recognition. In 1952, the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) was formed, which gave the profession credibility, and advanced the standards for training and ethical behavior (Myrick, 1997). In 1959, James Conant wrote the book, *The American High School Today*, calling for schools to implement a ratio of 1 school counselor for every 250 students, a ratio still cited today as ideal for schools, but rarely achieved.

In conjunction with the professional growth of school counselors in the 1950s, the launching of the Sputnik capsule by Russia in 1957 had a major impact on school counseling. One US reaction to the event, the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1958, had the greatest direct impact on the school counseling profession in the history of the profession (American Association for Counseling and Development, 1989). NDEA provided federal funds to school systems to develop counseling services, and to universities to train school counselors (Sciarra, 2004). Although the NDEA created an influx of school counselors in schools and training programs in universities, training programs and the role of the counselor in schools were very undefined and given little direction (Baker & Gerler, 2004). Also, initially, the profession was open only to teachers who, with short and inadequate school counselor training, had neither adequate counseling skills nor a counselor perspective on student problems and goals. As a result, the confusion over the identified work of the school counselor intensified (Myrick, 1997). Within this era of a fairly undefined school counselor role, many school counselors were given quasi-administrative functions to perform. Thus the perception and confusion of school counselor role began.

In the 1960s, school counseling began to turn to the potential of the individual, influenced by social experimentation and challenges to institutions prevalent during the decade (Rye & Sparks, 1999). Many new program materials were developed, such as decision-making and problem-solving methods, drug abuse education, career exploration, and self-development information (Erford, 2003). Group counseling and counseling youth-at-risk became primary goals of the profession in secondary schools. However, as secondary counselors struggled with their identity, another event added to the confusion over school counselor roles. In 1964, an NDEA amendment provided funding for elementary school counselors, beginning a debate over the role and function of elementary school guidance programs (Baker & Gerler, 2004). As the 1960s turned into the 1970s, increasing complexities entered the school's responsibilities. The civil rights and women's liberation movements, and legislated mainstreaming of special education students called for school counselors to place attention on student diversity and special needs students (Erford, 2003). However, the profession and stakeholders struggled with the lack of a consistent and comprehensive school counselor model (Schmidt, 2003). Neither the model of individual counseling used in the high schools nor the model in the elementary schools of the counselor moving

from classroom to classroom with group guidance lessons seemed to deliver a program of services that answered the needs of students and the public.

In the 1970s, the developmental guidance movement dominated the profession as a needed reply to the challenge of an ever-growing profession without a clear role identity. The developmental model was integral to elementary school counselors who served as consultants and collaborators to teachers and parents, roles that were part of the developmental model (Baker & Gerler, 2004). Another component of the model was renewed emphasis on career education, a demand also being voiced by the federal government to help students prepare for careers (Sciarra, 2004). These factors, along with new accountability demands by school administrators, created the need for programs that reached the majority of students and showed evidence of being effective.

The 1984 publication, *A Nation at Risk*, had a major impact on education and school counselors. The publication created a school reform movement with school accountability as a major goal (Schmidt, 2003). During this decade federal legislation provided funding for vocational guidance and counseling, and school counselors developed career programs for students. To safeguard the standards of school counselor training programs, the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) was established in 1981. Today, over 100 school counselor training programs are accredited by CACREP.

School counseling began to have a central unifying focus as the comprehensive developmental programs became better publicized, organized, and implemented in the 1990s. Publications such as *Developing and Managing Your School Guidance Program* (Gysbers & Henderson, 1988), and *Developmental Guidance and Counseling: A Practical Approach* (Myrick, 1987) were instrumental in developing a common focus. School counselors were directed to develop K-12 (Kindergarten to Grade 12) comprehensive individual and group programs in the areas of career, educational, and personal/social development.

As the 1990s progressed, the required teacher background for school counselors was disappearing. Federal legislation, known as the school-to-work program, provided funds to assist schools with their career planning activities. However, school counselors were again finding a lack of central themes in the school counselor's role (Baker & Gerler, 2004), and the ambiguity in school counseling/guidance services resulted in a lack of cohesiveness and universal focus (Dahir, 2004). There was also minimal empirical data to support the impact

of school counselors on student academic achievement. In a period of change, schools have been asked to cope with numerous student needs such as providing breakfast and after school programs. The influx of immigrant children into US schools demanded that school counselors learn about different cultures and develop multicultural counseling competencies. In the 1990's, another school counselor reform effort was underway, and ASCA adopted National Standards for School Counseling Programs (Campbell & Dahir, 1997).

Recent Initiatives in School Counseling in the US

The school counselor reform effort provided impetus for two major initiatives to strengthen the impact of school counseling. Schools were asked by stakeholders to document and be accountable for the academic achievement of children and adolescents, and especially to reduce the achievement gap between students from lower socio-economic groups and those from affluent sectors of society. The models are complementary as one model focuses on the roles and activities of practicing school counselors (ASCA) and the other on the training of school counselors, known as the Transforming School Counseling Initiative (TSCI). While these models have been endorsed by professional associations and some university school counselor training programs, it is important to acknowledge that they are not universally endorsed across the US (Galassi & Akos, 2004; Coleman, 2004). Therefore, there is continued dialogue about how best to serve youth in schools in the US and other countries.

ASCA Model

The ASCA National Model for school counselors includes four major components: foundation, delivery system, management system, and accountability (ASCA, 2003; Hatch & Bowers, 2002). Foundation refers to the underlying philosophy, mission, and structure of a school's counseling and guidance program. Delivery system is based on a school counseling program's foundation, and describes the activities, interactions, and methods to deliver the program. The delivery system includes four components:

- (a) Guidance curriculum based on structured developmental classroom lessons that are infused throughout the school's curriculum.
- (b) Individual student planning to help students meet their individual goals, including academic and career counseling.

- (c) Response services refer to addressing student crisis or life events that impede student learning and development.
- (d) Systems support is the administrative and management support systems within the school and district that are necessary for school counselors to carry out the delivery of services.

The third major component of the ASCA model is the overall management system, which facilitates the implementation of the school counseling program's delivery system within the context of the school and district. An effective management system might include agreements between school counselors and school administrators about the school counseling program's goals and activities; an advisory council of parents, teachers, and students; school-based data to make school counseling program decisions; efficient use of school counselor time by reassigning non-counseling responsibilities (e.g. administration of testing programs and clerical duties) to other school personnel. School counselor-to-student ratios in the US are very high. ASCA reports the national average to be 1 counselor to 477 students (www.schoolcounselor.org, retrieved December 28, 2004), and counselors must use classroom guidance and group methods to serve as many students as possible. ASCA (1999) recommends that school counselors spend 80% of their time in direct services to students.

The fourth major component of the ASCA model is accountability. Accountability may include evaluations to determine effectiveness of school counseling programs, performance evaluations of school counselors, and dissemination of accountability and evaluation results to major stakeholders and funding agencies. In order to maintain a viable school counseling program, school counselors must give stakeholders evaluative data which address the importance of and need for school counselors. At a time of diminishing educational resources, if accountability systems are not part of the school counseling program, school counselors risk becoming marginalized or even eliminated as a necessary professional position within schools.

TSCI Training Model

While the ASCA model focused on school counselor activities and programs within schools, the TSCI model focuses on the graduate-level training of school counselors in US colleges and universities (Seashore, Jones, & Seppanen, 2001). TSCI was especially focused on training school counselors to help close the academic achievement gap

between high and low performing students. Several faculty members from the University of Minnesota, including the first author of this paper, were members of the TSCI evaluation team.

In the US, school counselors are trained at the post-baccalaureate level, and are licensed or certified by the department of education in the state where the school counselor practices. Most school counselors practice with a minimum of a Master's degree. TSCI views the school counselor as a critically important professional within the school to advance the school's student academic achievement goals. As a prelude to launching the TSCI initiative, educational leaders concluded that, as presently offered in the US: (a) school counselor training is too heavily focused on preparing school counselors to be individual counselors or psychological therapists; (b) school counselors are educated by professors who have little experience in schools and school counseling; (c) school counselors too often function in clerical and administrative roles and these roles when combined with exceedingly high student caseloads, reduce the impact of school counseling; and (d) technology and data-driven decision-making is not commonly a part of school counselor preparation (Seashore et al., 2001). To correct these limitations (as reported by the group of educators), the TSCI model proposed to improve the training of school counselors by graduating school counselors who were: (a) knowledgeable about schools and school systems; (b) able to help students meet educational, career, and personal goals, and focus on student strengths rather than deficits; and (c) trained as advocates to bring about systemic school change, especially to remove educational barriers that impede student academic achievement.

TSCI trains and educates school counselors to become an important member of the educational school team. In order to carry out this function, school counselors must be trained to be school leaders and able to impact systemic change initiatives. The universities that are part of the TSCI initiative revised their school counselor training curricula (Hayes & Paisley, 2002) and made important changes in the process of recruiting and admitting students (Hanson & Stone, 2002). For example, the universities added or modified existing courses to incorporate knowledge and skills related to educational and social advocacy. They instructed students on the use of technology in decision-making. The school counselor training programs partnered with schools that were supportive of TSCI goals to give students relevant and quality supervised practice experience prior to graduation. In recruiting new students to the profession, the institutions

requested nominations from school leaders and reached-out to ethnic communities for prospective students who were supportive of TSCI goals.

School Counseling in the Asia Pacific Region

When compared to the history of school counseling in the US, the development of school counseling in the Asia-Pacific region is relatively young but vibrant and growing (Shen & Herr, 2003; Hui, 2002; Takano & Uruta; 2002). Country-specific articles dominated the Asia-Pacific school counseling literature. Recent examples include countries such as Taiwan (e.g., Chang, 2002), China (e.g., Fu, Nie, Li, Jin, & Cui, 2002), Hong Kong (e.g., Yuen, 2002), Singapore (e.g., Tan, 2004), Japan (e.g., Kawabata; 2001), Korea (e.g., Gong 2003), Malaysia (e.g., Littrell, Hashim, & Scheiding, 1989), Thailand (e.g., Boonruangrutana, 1987), Philippines (e.g., Salazar-Clemeña, 2002) and India (e.g., Nastasi, Varjas, Sarkar, & Jayasena, 1998).

Othman and Awang (1993), as editors of the book *Counseling in the Asia-Pacific Region*, offer the best attempt to overview the region, although they provide a much broader picture of counseling in general versus the school counseling specifically. Their work is instructive in generalizing that most cultures in the Asia-Pacific region have had to adapt counseling from Western models for their country. They also notice the trend of modifying informal helping systems (e. g., family, relatives, community social support systems) to what they describe as a modernizing and industrializing lifestyle that comes with economic development. Stickel and Yang (1993) similarly juxtapose the development of counseling and guidance in the US and Taiwan and conclude that, despite many parallels, profound differences exist in educational philosophies and cultural values that impact the role and context of school counseling.

We are mindful of the development and context of school counseling in the Asia-Pacific region as well as the cultural complexities in trying to transfer ideas from the US. Even though this article is intended to address school counseling issues in the Asia-Pacific region, especially in avoiding the pitfalls confronted in the US experience, we are not intending that our considerations be universally applied across countries. We acknowledge that our comments in this section may need to be filtered for country-specific situations and other socio-cultural idiosyncrasies. The following are some cultural considerations.

Importance of cultural context

To manage the potential diversity between and within countries, Leong (2002) recommends that a three-step cultural accommodation approach be considered when transferring Western models to Asian countries. He suggests: “(a) identifying the cultural biases, cultural gaps, or cultural blind spots in an existing theory that restricts the cultural validity of the theory; (b) selecting current culturally specific concepts and models from the target culture to fill in the cultural gaps and accommodate the theory to racial and ethnic minorities; and (c) testing the culturally accommodated theory to determine if it has incremental validity above and beyond the culturally unaccommodated theory” (p. 283). We highly recommend that the considerations we make be viewed through this framework.

Socio-Political Influence

In many Asia-Pacific countries, school counseling and the purpose it serves are often secondary to the larger goals of education in building the economy and socio-political climate. School counseling programs that fail to fit into larger national goals can be deemed as impractical or idealistic at best and luxurious at worst. What this implies for school counselors is threefold: (a) the importance of understanding the school counselor’s role in the larger scheme of nation building and economic stability; (b) the need for school counselors to advocate and educate about their role within national departments or ministries of education; and (c) to inform the legislative body and general public about the critical work that school counselors do.

The Nature of Educational Systems

In many countries in the Asia-Pacific region, education is seldom viewed as an end in itself but as a means to an end. Pressure, stress, and highly competitive national exams characterize the educational experience of students in many Asian countries. School counseling is often justified based on how it proposes to help students attain the highest educational achievement and how it can promote a school’s reputation and standing as a result. The effectiveness and utility of school counseling programs are consequently evaluated by their ability to show that they make a difference in national development. Career guidance programs within a comprehensive school guidance program often fulfill a country’s labor and infrastructure needs (Tan & Goh, 2002) and, therefore, a

country's labor needs may sometimes take priority over individual student career interests. Helping students to navigate such compromises and the tensions between personal, academic, and societal goals can thus become a focus of school counselors.

Definitions, Roles, Training, and Activities of School Counselors

With the myriad of social, cultural, political, and educational systems represented in Asia, there are likewise multiple ways in which school counseling is defined. From the Asia-Pacific literature cited earlier, the form that school counseling takes varies in terms of what it is called, who does it, and what activities are involved. School counselors are sometimes teachers, heads of departments, school discipline masters, education ministry officials, religious workers, volunteers, retirees, retired military leaders, parents, outsourced from private counseling agencies, or, more rarely, full-time trained school counseling personnel. Counseling activities range from unstructured, informal, and ad hoc activities to more organized multi-year ready-to-use curricula suggested in a thick binder sanctioned by a government ministry. This heterogeneity is refreshing as countries are creatively tailoring the definition and role of school counseling to each country's needs. This diversity within Asia will also likely see a variety of ways in which school counselors are trained. Because of the variations in educational access and opportunities between countries, school counselors within Asia-Pacific possess educational qualifications that range from certificates and diplomas to bachelors' and masters' degrees. It would be beneficial for countries in this region to implement minimal educational requirements as well as consider the importance of licensure.

An Ecological and Systems View of Care

Recognizing indigenous and other sources of help acknowledges research that suggests that, in many Asian cultures, care is provided multimodally and systemically (Lee & Wong, 2004; Casas, Pavelski, Furlong, & Zanglis, 2001). In addition to working well with a student's ecological world and their systems, it is important for school counselors to develop a team approach (e.g. working with school psychologists, teachers, social workers, psychiatrists) for addressing students' needs as well as educating students about this network of resources. In addition, the intimate role that parents play in the educational, career, and sometimes life decisions for many Asians (Leong & Serafica, 1995),

suggests that it is important for school counselors to educate as well as work with parents.

Implications

While educational systems and cultures are quite different across the globe, the implications from school counseling in the US, may be instructive and useful to educational systems and countries outside of the US. Even though the US history of school counseling can be traced back to the beginning of the 20th century, school counseling in the US is still evolving, and school counseling leaders have much to learn from others both within and outside the US. Therefore, we wish to share the following perspectives and questions about school counseling which we believe have implications for the profession in the Asia-Pacific region as well as other countries outside the region.

1. *School counselors must receive adequate training to function as professionals within the school.*

At one time school counselors were required to be certified or licensed as classroom teachers. In most US states this requirement has been dropped as most state jurisdictions recognize that classroom teaching experience is not a necessary prerequisite for effective school counselors. Also, as the training for school counselors has expanded to a two-year post-baccalaureate degree, requiring school counselors to receive training as a classroom teacher delays entry into the profession, and limits the pool of potential people interested in becoming school counselors. However, adequate training about school systems is necessary as well as the foundations of counseling theory and practice, youth development, research and evaluation. It is also important that school counselors understand the range of cross-cultural issues that impact their students and the schools and communities in which counselors work. Some questions to consider are:

1. Who decides minimum school counselor training requirements (e.g. ministry of education, professional organizations, training institutions) and what level of training is needed (e.g. undergraduate degree, certificate/diploma program, graduate degree)?
2. Is there an adequate number of training institutions within a given country or region to train school counselors?
3. Should school counselors be licensed and by whom?
4. How might professional organizations provide leadership to articulate training requirements as well

as codes of ethics?

2. The work and activities of school counselors must be commensurate with their level of training and skills.

School counselors are professionals and specialists in their schools who can assist students with academic, career, and personal/social development issues. School counselors must not be used for administrative and clerical tasks (e.g. monitoring recess, filing) that reduce their efficacy and efficiency at assisting students. While models of school counseling differ in different countries (e.g., some countries may use a classroom teacher/counselor model), regardless of the model, school counselors must spend their time engaged in activities appropriate to their training. To do otherwise is inefficient and expensive. Two questions to consider are:

1. If the role or position of school counselor does not currently exist in a country, are the various levels of governance in that country (federal/state/region/city) willing to support the school counselor position both conceptually and financially?
2. If the role already exists, are school counselors given the support and recognition in terms of appropriate work responsibilities, career advancement, and salary?

3. School administrators must understand the roles and functions of school counselors.

The training of school administrators (e.g. school principals) should include units or modules about the role of the school counselor. In the TSCI model, school administrators partnered with school counselor university training programs and students were placed in schools where administrators were supportive of the TSCI goals. Inservice training of school administrators and ministry officials is important to understand the role and function of the school counseling professional. Questions to consider are:

1. Do school administrators and teachers understand the role of the school counselor within the local context?
2. What can be done to educate school administrators and teachers about the role of school counselors?
3. Should the training of school administrators and teachers include coursework about school counseling and guidance?

4. School counselors must engage in program evaluation and research studies to support the efficacy of their work.

During periods of reduced funding for education and schooling, school counselors may be at-risk for elimination if their value to the school cannot be demonstrated (Ballard &

Murgatroyd, 1999). Whiston (2004) believes that school counseling is at-risk because of the lack of empirical evidence showing the benefits of school counseling to students and the educational enterprise. Since school counselors usually receive limited training in research and evaluation, Romano and Kachgal (2004a) as well as others (Gysbers, 2004; Coleman, 2004), argue that collaboration between schools and universities can facilitate research and evaluation studies with benefits to schools and universities. The evaluation of school counseling programs is especially necessary as programs are developed or refined. Questions to consider:

1. Should school counselor training programs train counselors to be competent in research and program evaluation?
2. How might school counselor programs develop accountability systems for their programs?

5. School counselors must work for systemic changes that strengthen student academic, career, and personal development.

Advocating for necessary school reforms requires that school counselors view their professional role as one that not only helps individual students in crisis, but works for systemic reforms that will benefit all students (Keys & Lockhart, 1999). The foci of systemic change may include school curriculum reform, strengthening family and school collaborations, addressing issues of multiculturalism in the school and community, and advocating for legislative changes that benefit students and schools. Depending on the community, school, and school counseling model employed in a given context, the role of the school counselor as system change agents will vary. However, the school counselor will have a greater impact if the counselor can advocate for systemic changes that will benefit all students (e.g., working to reduce school bullying). Questions to consider are:

1. Will school counselors be trained to conceptualize their role and practice in systemic terms?
2. Are there cultural value systems (e.g. more hierarchical systems) where it may be inappropriate for school counselors to serve as social change agents?

6. School counselors will maximize their effectiveness if they are integral to schools' major goal of advancing students' educational achievement.

In reality the educational, career, and personal concerns of students are often intertwined and cannot be separated, and school counselors will be most effective by adopting a holistic approach that considers the educational, career, and

personal development of students as an integrated whole rather than as separate parts. Questions to consider are:

1. How can school counselors strategically position themselves, given the social, cultural, and political objectives of the educational system within their country, to play a critical role in advancing the country's education agenda?
2. How can a professional school counseling association or license board advocate for school counselors in the political and legislative arenas?

7. School counselors are needed throughout the educational levels, elementary through secondary school.

In the US, many communities have eliminated school counselors at the elementary school level for budgetary reasons. While the work of the school counselor is different at the elementary level compared to high school, elementary school counselors are important. In the elementary school, the counselor will consult with classroom teachers, parents, and other professionals to assist students, and work less directly with individual students. The counselor will also deliver classroom guidance lessons to enhance the personal and social development of students. An example of a classroom curriculum to help elementary school students reduce stress and enhance health is reported by Romano, Miller, and Nordness (1996). These types of elementary school interventions can prevent problems from developing or becoming more serious at higher-grade levels. A model that uses a classroom teacher/counselor model, as is found in some countries, lends itself more naturally to implementing guidance lessons into the curriculum compared to the US model which usually employs counselors who do not have teaching responsibilities. Questions to consider are:

1. Is it feasible to train enough school counselors to be employed at both primary and secondary school levels?
2. Given country contexts where school counseling is just emerging, what is the order of priority for the level of placement (primary/secondary) of counselors?

8. School counselors will increase their effectiveness by working to prevent student problems from occurring, as well as focusing on student assets and strengths compared to emphasizing student deficits.

School counselors are in a unique position to positively affect the life-course of students. Therefore, it behooves counselors to reach out to students proactively and offer school programs designed to prevent major educational,

career, and personal problems. Examples of programs include those to prevent drug and alcohol use, develop healthy interpersonal relationships, and make good post-secondary school or employment decisions. Two questions to consider are:

1. Should school counselor training programs be required to emphasize a prevention curriculum?
2. Does the prevention curriculum reflect the needs of the country's social reality?

9. It is important that counselors develop multicultural competencies to effectively serve students from diverse ethnic groups.

Given the racial and ethnic diversity in the Asia-Pacific countries and in other parts of the globe, school counselors with adequate training are well positioned to promote cross-cultural understanding among students and in the community (Lee, 1995; 2001). Increasingly, schools are enrolling students from different ethnic minority groups. School counselors must become knowledgeable about different cultural groups and how best to serve them (American Psychological Association, 2003; Arredondo, 1999). Also, since female teachers, counselors, and staff are overly represented in most schools, school counselors and other school personnel may want to assess the extent to which the educational needs of male students are being met. Questions to consider are:

1. Does the school counselor training curriculum as well as licensing requirements reflect an emphasis on developing cultural competence skills to meet the cultural needs of the country?
2. How can the school counseling profession identify and develop research and training resources that are relevant to the cultural diversity reflected in a country?

10. The school counseling profession will be strengthened, as will other professions, if the various professions that work for the betterment of youth collaborate and work as partners.

Romano and Kachgal (2004a, 2004b) argue that interdisciplinary collaborations between school counselors, school psychologists, school social workers, and other professionals in the school and community will enhance the lives of children. Utilizing, in partnership, the expertise and perspective of different disciplines and resources will result in stronger systems of care for school-aged youth. In addition, the importance of spiritual leaders and elders in the lives of children and youth must be acknowledged and their expertise utilized to develop a blanket of extended care and assistance

that reaches beyond the school. Questions to consider are:

1. Does a professional association exist that represents the school counseling profession in your country?
2. If one exists, does the professional school counseling association interact and collaborate with other organizations that serve the educational and psychological needs of youth in your country?
3. Is there effective leadership within the professional school counseling community to advance the professional image of school counselors and goals of the profession for the betterment of youth and their education?

Conclusion

Countries across the globe are addressing the best ways to serve their youth both within and outside the school context. This paper examines the development of school counseling in the US, and, in the spirit of international scholarly exchange, offers ideas that may be applicable as countries develop and refine their school counseling programs. This type of exchange is also occurring in the US, as educational entities decide how best to serve their youth. It is understood that countries and regions of the world may have adopted or plan to adopt school counseling models that differ from those in the US, and it is important to engage in international dialogue about the models. The importance of serving youth within schools to maximize their potential is essential across geographical regions and cultures. This paper focused attention on school counseling in order to further the dialogue internationally.

References

- American Association for Counseling and Development. (1989). *School counseling: A profession at risk*. [Final Report]. Alexandria, VA: American Association for Counseling and Development.
- American Psychological Association (2003). Guidelines on multicultural education, training, research, practice, and organizational change for psychologists. *American Psychologist*, 58, 377-402.
- American School Counseling Association (2003). *The ASCA national model: A framework for school counseling programs*. Herndon, VA: Author. Retrieved March 2003 from www.schoolcounselor.org.
- Arredondo, P. (1999). Multicultural counseling competencies as tools to address oppression and racism. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 77, 102-108.
- Ballard, M. B., & Murgatroyd, W. (1999). Defending a vital program: School counselors define their roles. *NASSP Bulletin*, 83, 19-26.
- Baker, S. B., & Gerler, E. R. (2004). *School counseling in the twenty-first century* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Boonruangrutana, S. (1987). School psychology in Thailand. *Journal of School Psychology*, 25(3), 277-280.
- Campbell, C., & Dahir, C. A. (1997). *The national standards for school counseling programs*. Alexandria, VA: American School counselor Association.
- Casas, J. M., Pavelski, R., Furlong, M. J., & Zanglis, I. (2001). Advent of systems of care: Practice and research perspectives and policy implications. In J. G. Ponterotto, J. M. Casas, L. A. Suzuki, & C. M. Alexander (Eds.), *Handbook of multicultural counseling* (2nd ed., pp. 189-221). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Chang, D. H. F. (2002). The past, present, and future of career counseling in Taiwan. *Career Development Quarterly*, 50, 218-225.
- Coleman, H. L. K. (2004). Toward a well-utilized partnership. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 32, 216-224.
- Dahir, C. A. (2004). Supporting a nation of learners: The role of school counseling in educational reform. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 82, 344-353.
- Erford, B. T. (2003). *Transforming the school counseling profession*. N J: Merrill Prentice-Hall.
- Fu, A., Nie, J., Li, Y., Jin, B., Cui, J. (2002). A correlative research on intervention in middle school students' hatred of schooling and learning efficacy. *Psychological Science*, 25, 22-23.
- Galassi, J. P. & Akos, P. (2004). Developmental advocacy: Twenty-first century school counseling. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 82, 146-157.
- Gong, Y. (2003). Counselor competence and the ethical practice of counseling in Korea. *Asian Journal of Counselling*, 10(1), 51-70.
- Gysbers, N., & Henderson, P. (1988). *Developing and managing your school guidance program*. Alexandria, VA: American Association for Counseling and Development.
- Gybers, N. C. (2004). Counseling psychology and school counseling partnership: Overlooked? Underutilized? But Needed! *The Counseling Psychologist*, 32, 245-252.
- Gysbers, N. C., & Henderson, P. (2000). *Developing and managing your school counseling program* (3rd ed.).

- Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.
- Hanson, C. & Stone, C. (2002). Recruiting leaders to transform school counseling. *Theory Into Practice, 41*, 163-168.
- Hatch, T., & Bowers, J. (2002). The block to build on. *ASCA School Counselor, 39*, 12-19.
- Hayes, R. L. & Paisley, P. O. (2002). Transforming school counselor preparation programs. *Theory Into Practice, 41*, 169-176.
- Hui, E. K. P. (2002). A whole-school approach to guidance: Hong Kong teacher' perceptions. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 30*, 63-80.
- Kawabata, N. (2001). Adolescent trauma in Japanese schools: Two cases of Ijime (bullying) and school refusal. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychoanalysis & Dynamic Psychiatry, 29*, 85-103.
- Keys, S. G., & Lockhart, E. J. (1999). The school counselor's role in facilitating multisystemic change. *Professional School Counselor, 3*, 101-107.
- Kim, Kay-Hyon (2004). The 5th International Conference on Education Research. School counseling and guidance in the Asia-Pacific region: Current issues and prospects. Education Research Institute, Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea.
- Lee, B. O., & Wong, S. S. (2004). An ecological multimodal approach to counseling. In E.Tan (Ed.). *Counselling in schools: Theories, processes and techniques* (pp. 187-214). Singapore: McGraw-Hill.
- Lee, C. C. (2001). Culturally responsive school counselors and programs: Addressing the needs of all students. *Professional School Counseling, 4*, 257-261
- Lee, C. C. (1995). School counseling and cultural diversity: A framework for effective practice. In C. C. Lee (Ed.), *Counseling for diversity: A guide for school counselors and related professionals* (pp. 3-17). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Leong, F. T. L., (2002). Challenges for career counseling in Asia: Variations in cultural accommodation. *Career Development Quarterly, 50*, 277-284.
- Leong, F. T. L. & Ponterotto, J. G. (2003). A proposal for internationalizing counseling psychology in the United States: Rationale, recommendation, and challenges. *The Counseling Psychologist, 31*, 381-395.
- Leong, F. T. L., & Blustein, D. L. (2000). Toward a global vision of counseling psychology. *The Counseling Psychologist, 28*, 5-9.
- Leong, F. T. L., & Serafica, F. C. (1995). Career development of Asian Americans: A research area in need of a good theory. In F. T. L., Leong (Ed.), *Career development and vocational behavior of racial and ethnic minorities* (pp. 78-99). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Littrell, J. M., Hashim, A.H., & Scheiding, S.K. (1989). Malaysian students' preferences for counselors: Effects of the sex and ethnic group of counselors and students. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 12*, 181-190.
- Marsella, A. (1998). Toward a "global-community psychology": Meeting the needs of a changing world. *American Psychologist, 53*, 1282-1291.
- Myricks, R. D. (1987). *Developmental Guidance and Counseling: A Practical Approach*. Minneapolis, MN: Educational Media Corporation.
- Myrick, R. D. (1997). *Developmental guidance and counseling* (3rd ed.). Minneapolis, MN: Educational Media Corporation.
- Natasi, B.K., Varjas, K., Sarkar, S., & Jayasena, A. (1998). Participatory model of mental health programming: Lessons learned from work in a developing country. *School Psychology Review, 27*, 260-276.
- Othman, A. H., & Awang, A. (Eds.). (1993) *Counseling in the Asia-Pacific Region*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Rye, D. R., & Sparks, R. (1999). *Strengthening K-12 school counseling programs: A support system approach* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis Group. (ERIC Documet Reproduction Service No. 431 146).
- Romano, J. L., & Kachgal, M. M. (2004a). Counseling psychology and school counseling: An underutilized partnership. *The Counseling Psychologist, 32*, 184-215.
- Romano, J. L., & Kachgal, M. M. (2004b). Expanding the dialogue to improve schools and develop healthy kids. *The Counseling Psychologist, 32*, 292-300.
- Romano, J. L., Miller, J. P., & Nordness, A. (1996). Stress and well-being in the elementary school: A classroom curriculum. *The School Counselor, 43*, 268-276.
- Salazar-Clemeña, R.M. (2002). Family ties and peso signs: Challenges for career counseling in the Philippines. *Career Development Quarterly, 50*, 246-256.
- Schmidt, J. J. (2003). *Counseling in schools: Essential services and comprehensive Programs* (4th Ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sciarra, D. T. (2004). *School counseling: Foundations and contemporary issues*. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Seashore, K. R., Jones, L. M., & Seppanen, P. (2001). *Transforming school counseling: A report on early evaluation findings*. Minneapolis: Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, University of

- Minnesota.
- Shen, Y., & Herr, E.L. (2003). Perceptions of play therapy in Taiwan: The voices of school counselors and counselor educators. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 25*, 27-41.
- Stickel, S. A., & Yang, J. (1993). School guidance and counseling in the United States and Taiwan: Parallels and beyond. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 16*, 229-244.
- Tan, E. (Ed.). (2004). *Counselling in Schools: Theories, Processes and Techniques*. Singapore: McGraw Hill.
- Tan, E., & Goh, M. (2002). Vocational psychology and career counseling in Singapore: Research and development. In A.G. Tan and M. Goh (Eds.). *Psychology in Singapore: Issues of an emerging discipline* (pp. 191-202). Singapore: McGraw-Hill.
- Takano, A., & Uruta, U. (2002). Student counseling as a service: From the point of view of help-seeking behavior. *Japanese Journal of Educational Psychology, 50*, 113-125.
- Thompson, R. A. (2002). *School counseling: Best practices for working in the schools*. (2nd ed.) New York: Brunner/Routledge.
- Whiston, S. C. (2004). Counseling psychology and school counseling: Can a stronger partnership be forged? *The Counseling Psychologist, 32*, 270-277.
- Yuen, M. (2002). Exploring Hong Kong Chinese guidance teachers' positive beliefs: A focus group study. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 24*, 169-182.

Received February 14, 2005

Revision received November 22, 2005

Accepted December 5, 2005