

Guidance Handbook

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Cole Davis

CareerSteer – career test for career choice
www.careersteer.org

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Dedicated to the memory of my mother
Irene Deborah Davis



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1 Guidance Handbook - INTRODUCTION

Who is this for?

This publication was originally designed to assist careers and educational guidance practitioners studying for the NVQ4 in Guidance by distance learning at Bournville College, Birmingham. The text was widened to some extent to become more meaningful to other guidance workers (counselling, advice, rehabilitation, etc), but reading of specialist texts is still recommended for technical content.

What does it do?

Firstly, this provides a foundation of knowledge relating to human, especially adult, development, models of guidance and issues surrounding interviewing and group working. It should be emphasised that this should not exclude other forms of learning, including in-house training or supervision; interview and group work skills are unlikely to be developed from a book, independently of direct practice. It is also recommended that discussions should take place with tutors relating to how theory is applied to practice.

Secondly, it discusses some technical areas relating to jobsearch, e.g. cv's and supporting statements.

Thirdly, the exercises after most chapters suggest ways of drawing from the content to provide knowledge evidence for courses. (N.b. careers workers wishing to enable transferability to the Careers Service should include optional units relating to group work and 'liaising with opportunity providers', which is why these areas have had some input in the text). These may be used as tutors and students see fit or used for stimulating discussion.

In all cases, this is intended as a quick accessible read, but not a replacement for more in-depth study. In order to avoid the length and weight of some tomes, this is neither comprehensive nor value-free. The theories and techniques described, however, have proved useful when practising and imparting skills to others. *This edition has been edited, January 2008, for SEO purposes.*

What doesn't it cover?

In particular, specialist legislation and localised data. Also, content about welfare and other specialist areas. It is still the responsibility of the candidate to ensure that evidence is covered, and that of the assessor to examine its validity, reliability and sufficiency.

Who is the author?

A careers adviser, psychometrician and guidance assessor. Other activities include developing a computerized career test, CareerSteer, for assisting people with career choice, as well as technical writing.

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2 EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES

Legislation against discrimination.

Laws have been passed in Parliament attempting to prevent discrimination on the basis of race, gender and disability. Bodies such as the Equal Opportunities Commission and the Commission for Racial Equality have been set up to make the laws more effective.

The **Race Relations Act**, 1976, makes it illegal to discriminate against any individual on the ground of race in employment, access to goods and services, education and other areas. The Act defines THREE WAYS in which discrimination can take place.

(1) Direct discrimination - treating a person less favourably than others would be treated in the same circumstances. This includes refusing employment, or services, or deliberately giving a poorer standard of service on the grounds of race.

(2) Indirect discrimination - where conditions in a job application exclude certain groups of people and cannot be justified. An example would be advertising for a good standard of English for a labouring job: this would exclude some people from some racial groups whilst not really being necessary for the job itself.

(3) Victimisation - it is unlawful to victimise people who have made a complaint of discrimination or who have supported such a complaint or who may be about to make a complaint. Supports people intending to make complaints under the Act or be witnesses.

The Race Relations Act is intended to *prevent* discrimination and to help people to report it. The Commission for Racial Equality was set up to help make the Act work; it offers help and support to people who wish to report a complaint of discrimination on racial grounds, and has offices in several major cities.

The **Sex Discrimination Act**, 1986, makes it illegal to discriminate against people on the grounds of their gender. This Act has similarities to the Race Relations Act. **Direct Discrimination** also relates to less favourable treatment. E.g. refusal of a job on the basis of gender, or poorer service provision. **Indirect discrimination** can be seen in the following example: if an upper age limit of 32 has been put on an advertised job, this makes it difficult for women to apply as many women under this age will have stopped work temporarily to raise children. **Victimisation** against complainants is also illegal under the Act. The Equal Opportunities Commission was set up to help and advise people who feel that they have been discriminated against. It functions similarly to the Commission for Racial Equality.

The **Disabilities Discrimination Act**, 1995, provides rights pertaining to access to services, recruitment, etc. Employers must examine the scope for adapting the working environment to allow disabled people to have an equal chance of being considered for jobs. Such alterations must be reasonable, however. This law replaces the **Disabled Persons Act**, 1986, which stipulated that businesses employing more than 20 people had to have at least a quota of three per cent of their workforce registered disabled.

Rehabilitation of offenders

Broadly speaking, the Rehabilitation of Offenders Act 1974 provides that persons convicted of offences who incur no further convictions during a specified period (the 'rehabilitation period') become 'rehabilitated' persons and their convictions become 'spent'. The length of the rehabilitation period depends on the sentence the offender received. Convictions resulting in a prison sentence exceeding 30 months can never become spent.

Individuals with 'spent' convictions do not have to declare their records, even when and where these are asked about. Under the Act, a spent conviction, or failure to disclose a spent conviction or any circumstances connected with it, cannot be a proper ground for dismissing or excluding a person from any office, profession, occupation or employment or for prejudicing a person in any way in any occupation or employment.

A number of occupations or professions, however, are excluded from the provisions of the Act. An Exception Act relates, for example, to people such as residential care workers with children, who are required to declare any offences on application forms, regardless of whether or not they would normally be spent.

The organisation which advises ex-offenders on issues such as employment and represents their interests on a national basis is NACRO, the National Association for the Care and Rehabilitation of Offenders.

Discrimination outside of legal provision.

Unfair treatment may extend to people who are not covered by legislation. There is, for example, no law against discriminating against people on grounds of their age. Similar problems relate to sexual orientation (usually homosexuality), political viewpoints and employment status. In the latter case, this often means that unemployed people are unlikely to be shortlisted for employment, although it may also constitute a reluctance to promote a person from a lowly position (regardless of their merit). Class is currently unfashionable but is worthy of consideration.

Although these types of discrimination are not covered by British law, your organisation may well have an equal opportunities policy pertaining to these matters; this should be read (if none exists, you should be recommending that such a policy be created). Similarly, your professional body - for most readers, this will be the Institute of Careers Guidance - will have clear guidelines.

Equal Opportunities.

This has a variety of interpretations.

In its most literal sense, the term Equal Opportunities refers to all individuals having the same right of access to jobs, services and education. These three areas in themselves open up a variety of questions:

Equal opportunities at **work** applies to recruitment, to the promotion of individuals within employment and to how they are treated in the workplace.

There are many examples of unfair discrimination in recruitment. More than one survey in Britain in the 1990s, for example, found widespread discrimination against people from ethnic minorities: individuals making two identical applications to a workplace, one with a common British name and one with an Asian name, were invited to interview under the 'white' application and in the latter case told that the position was already taken. Women have often been discouraged from entering some types of work because of expectations of physical work; are all women weaker and less physically able than all men? Many individuals also tend to think that people with one disability (e.g. physical disability or deafness) may also have others (e.g. learning disabilities); the majority of blind adults, for example, are currently unemployed.

Within the area of promotion, the 'glass ceiling' for female employees is notorious. Women are notoriously under-represented in senior positions. At the time of writing (March, 2000), only one Chief Executive of a British 'FTSE 100' company is a woman. In industry and in higher education, women are paid less than men for the same jobs on a widespread basis. People from ethnic minorities are also under-represented amongst senior management (compared to their presence within the population as a whole).

Mistreatment at work is another contentious issue. Lest it be thought that equal opportunities only applies to ethnic minorities, women and people with disabilities, a recent court case applied to the mistreatment of men at work. Two men, the only males in their office, left their jobs after persistent harassment; they had been subject to unpleasant jokes at their expense, were always asked to do the manual jobs and were passed over for promotion. This constituted 'constructive dismissal'; the individuals left their job apparently of their own accord, but leaving through unreasonable coercion or mistreatment, they are still treated as if they had been dismissed unfairly.

The area of mistreatment is difficult to pin down to a precise code of conduct. At what point does friendly teasing become harassment? When are sexual approaches acceptable and when do they constitute unwanted advances? Different organisations are trying to make their own definitions; again, a reading of your organisation's codes of conduct is strongly recommended.

Services may include counselling and careers guidance, but may also mean access to more clearly commercial products: theatre, restaurants, fun parks, shops, etc. Note the point about indirect discrimination, as described in the legislation section: denial of access does not have to be consciously aimed at a group of people. Part of the point about accusations of 'institutional racism' within the police forces of Britain is that the whole culture of a service may be inclined to a particular way of thinking or acting, so that individual workers may treat people unfairly without

realising it or may be unwilling to see this as the case even when confronted with the evidence.

It should also be noted that equal opportunities extends to the *promotion* as well as the provision of services. A notorious example was the 'airbrushing' of black faces from the cast of employees advertising an automobile company. More common is the under-representation of minorities in advertising or making fun of certain types of individual. At the moment, some companies feel that fat people are fair game for this sort of thing. Although legislation may not apply here, unfair treatment and victimisation are surely the case here.

Although **education** may be seen as a service, it is one which should be examined further. It has a huge influence on access to employment, levels of pay and social inclusion. It is surely crucial, therefore, that equal opportunities are available here. This may mean access to courses, treatment within courses, progression routes and the nature of advice given about them.

Within personal counselling, careers advice or careers education, consideration needs to be paid to equal opportunities issues.

Stereotyping is an important issue. Are you or colleagues consciously or unconsciously classifying a whole group of people in an unnecessary or misleading way? An old-fashioned example of this was a tutor selecting individuals for a play and giving both black participants the parts of manual workers. Black people have also been portrayed as 'musical', 'athletic', etc.; however complimentary this may appear, it is not the case for all and, more crucially, tends to obscure other attributes and contributions that each individual is in fact likely to have or make. Similarly, are all women 'weak', 'little', passive, uninterested in technology?

This point is important. One potential student came for an interview with me about health and social care courses; noticing her rather uninspired comments, I asked her a little about how she came to be applying for this area and found that she had really wanted to be an aeronautical engineer. She had been deterred by comments about airports being 'no place for women'.

Food for thought.

Is there any straightforward way of ensuring equal treatment when relationships are formed in a highly personal way?

One possible rule of thumb is to consider it as a right for every individual to have the opportunity to reach his or her full potential; any unfair or irrelevant barrier to this is likely to be a breach of equal opportunities.

It is important to know the Equal Opportunities guidelines of your employer and professional body. This must of course be shown as evidence for your NVQ.

As a matter of personal and professional effectiveness, it is also important to consider your own personal stance to equal opportunities as a practitioner. It is necessary to reflect on your own prejudices, in order to counter them, if you intend to behave fairly towards others. It may help to think about the following questions:

- Are there cycles of deprivation or do all individuals have the same choices?
- Is there such a thing as fair discrimination? (n.b. how do employers decide on who is to be offered a job? how do you allocate services when they are scarce?)
- Do you believe that everybody should be treated equally?
- Should one be considering differences (cultural, gender related, etc.)?
- Are there certain types of people who do not deserve services?

The following exercises apply these concerns to careers guidance contexts.

3 EXERCISES RELATING TO EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES

Case study 1.

Allan is working well at A levels in computing, physics and mathematics. He has cerebral palsy and is confined to a wheelchair. He is able to speak, although his voice seems rather slurred. Apart from the use of his fingers, he is capable of little movement; he can input into a keyboard.

Preparing to choose a higher education course, he is considering the following career routes:

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Software engineering | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| Actuarial work in the civil service | | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Teaching in primary schools | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| Teaching in further education | <input type="checkbox"/> | |

Tick the careers which are likely to lead to realistic jobs?

For each of the careers you have ticked, suggest necessary adaptations:

If you consider any of the careers to demand unreasonable adaptation at work, please give your reasons.

Case study 2

Geraldine, 45, has been working as a member of bar staff in public houses and clubs for some years. She is considering applying for the post of bar manager at a members' club, which would put her in charge of several colleagues, male and female.

When she telephoned a member of the club committee, she found that traditionally, there has never been a female bar manager at the club, but the committee is aware of being subject as an employer to the Sex Discrimination Act. One consideration, however, is whether or not Geraldine is able to lift beer barrels onto stalls in the cellar.

Uncertain about whether or not to apply for the job, Geraldine has come for guidance. What are the issues here and what are Geraldine's possible courses of action? Which is the best and why?

Case study 3.

Mohammed is a refugee, originally from Afghanistan. One of his sisters is also in Britain and is currently at home. The other close members of his family were killed when a shell exploded in a market in the centre of Kabul.

He is still studying English, taught at a college on the other side of the city. The inner city housing estate on which he lives has a reputation for crimes and high unemployment.

He has approached you for educational guidance, having told you that he had heard that Oxford and Cambridge were good places to study. (N.b. In Further Education colleges, this sort of enquiry is not unheard of.)

Discuss firstly how you might approach his educational question.

Bearing in mind the notion of barriers to opportunities, what do you see as the wider issues here?

Supplementary questions.

Understanding of equal opportunities legislation.

1. If leaflets relating to careers in farming are only being distributed to male clients, which law is being contravened?
2. If one of the opportunity providers you have contact with says that he has 'no room for women at my plant', which organisation would be able to advise you?
3. Under the Disabilities Discrimination Act, would it be reasonable to assist a new careers adviser with the following alterations? (put a tick or cross in each box)

- Speech synthesiser to assist a blind person to type
action plans onto the computer
- Adaptations of furniture for the user of a wheelchair
- Building a new room to house additional equipment

Good practice in dealing with individual clients.

4. When entering into an agreement at the start of a guidance interview, what would be the most sensible course of action if you recognised that the past behaviour of the client was one which you did not approve of? tick one box.

- Withdraw from the interview; you couldn't do your best
in these circumstance
- Remind yourself that you have these feelings and do
your best to counteract such feelings in the meeting.
- Don't think about it, act the way you feel.

5. If a client is from a needy background, should you, during the interview (**tick one**)

- limit the range of career possibilities you introduce?
- always suggest that the best should be aspired to?

provide a wide range of options and examine the realism of the options?

6. When ending an interaction with a client, your offers of further assistance should not be influenced by your own preferences. Which of the following reasons would be the **best** for referring a client with special needs to another adviser? (tick one box)

Your colleague knows more about opportunities which may assist a person with those particular needs

Your colleague gets on better with people with special needs.

It's really not a situation you feel most happy with.

7. If a colleague mutters racial abuse about a client who is leaving the building, which of the following is **not** appropriate? Just mark the box of the **wrong** statement.

Tell the person concerned that this is inappropriate.

Report the abuse to your supervisor.

Say nothing and hope for no further embarrassment.

Exchanging information.

8. When passing (non-confidential) information to members of your network, which of these should be the main criteria:

The professionals you feel most confident about

Those individuals most able to use it properly

Officials in the career service/college/D.o.E.

Referral

9. Which of the following people would be *inappropriate* to refer to other professionals (or to have referred to you)?

Tick the relevant category as appropriate; people with:

physical disabilities

sensory impairment

learning disabilities

mental health problems

elderly people

children

If you have ticked any of these, please state the relevant reason(s) for not referring.

10. If an outside agency were to refer a client to me with a disability of which I know little, should I: (tick a sentence)

- ask the person about the disability to assess its significance to careers?
refer to a specialist immediately?
ask first and then, if necessary, then refer?

11. The following categories are barriers to access. Please give brief suggestions of ways of overcoming these barriers:

(a) The client is wheelchair-bound; the interviewing room is on the second floor with no lift or ramp.

(b) Your client comes from another country (there are no careers advisers available who speak the language). What sources of support would you consider?

(c) Name two options for working with a profoundly deaf person:

(d) If a totally blind person came to see me for careers guidance, I would:

Refer to a specialist. Discuss careers. Both.

Action planning.

12. Given that best practice is for the client to write the action plan or for client and professional to write it together, which of the following would be **unacceptable?**

Writing down suggestions and choices with a deaf person and comparing it with the ideas which he writes.

Not agreeing with a client about a course of action, writing it down as part of the plan and expressing your own reservations in writing.

Writing down unrealistic courses of action but not mentioning your reservations, as an individual in this particular position is unlikely to achieve the specified goal.

Learning opportunities and outcomes.

13. Which of the following would be **acceptable** when preparing learning materials? Tick any which count.

- Unvarying stereotypes of gender or ethnic minorities.
- Written work assuming that 'everybody knows that'.
- Highlighting cultural differences when relevant.
- Levels of language which favour only college graduates.

14. In a group session, which would be an **unacceptable** way of dealing with a person referring to 'gay queers'? (tick one)

- Telling the person that this was unacceptable.
- Asking other people in the group why this should not be accepted.
- Ignoring the comment.

15. Which of these ways would **not** be used, if some members of a group session were not participating? (tick any)

- Occasionally looking at the individuals concerned.
- Referring reasonably answerable questions to them.
- Indicating which individuals were not participating.
- Carrying on and speaking to those who did participate.

16. How would you **measure** the following outcomes?

- (a) That delivery of services is representative of the local population.
- (b) That the service is seen as useful by the clients it is supposed to serve.
- (c) That the service provides advice is well geared to the current labour market.

Please note that not all of these questions have a 'right and wrong' answer. They are designed to get you thinking in a situational way. It is quite acceptable to discuss any of these issues with your tutor before submission.

Notes for further discussion:

4 THE GUIDANCE INTERVIEW - TECHNIQUES

The Skilled Helper, by Gerard Egan (1998) has probably had the most influence on modern guidance techniques. This recommends ways of helping people to manage their own problems and to develop opportunities fully. (A useful alternative, if you do not find this helpful, is Nelson-Jones, 1993).

Egan describes a problem-solving approach, but one which includes a focus on results, outcomes and achievements. This should incorporate a working knowledge of applied theories of developmental psychology, personality and other relevant factors; see the Models of Guidance section for a brief survey.

This section, however, is devoted to the technical side of conducting interviews. Although discussions of particular techniques are imbedded within each section, such techniques may generally be used in any stage of the interview.

Egan proposes three stages for an interview. For our purposes, we shall refer to these as *agreement*, *exploration* and *strategy*.

Stage 1: Agreement. The interview should find out about the person and their circumstances (the current situation if a follow-up interview) and should lead to agreement of the agenda, the issue or issues which will be tackled in the interview.

This vital stage should not be hurried. There are various dangers of skimping this stage, presumably with the intention of using valuable time to get at the 'meat' of the interview. In vocational guidance, for example, the client may enter an interview with a casually considered career topic or one which has been suggested by a peer or relative; seizing on this without other preliminary discussion may lead down a blind alley, wasting time. Similarly, the initial pretext for a counselling session may be a trigger but not the main issue. In the writer's experience, many interviews which fail to achieve their objectives are one's with insufficient work in the initial phase of the interview.

Apart from deciding the content of the interview, this stage is also a time for establishing empathy. Trust should be engendered here: the client, for example, should have a clarification of mutual roles and confidentiality within the interview.

This is a time for warming up the client. An interest in what the person has to say and an imaginative flexible approach to that individual is important. Of the techniques to be used, **summarising** is particularly important here. Summing up the discussions on a regular basis allows both parties to ascertain if the content has been heard correctly, demonstrates your interest, helps to clarify in the client's mind what is being discussed and provides an effective standpoint for further discussion.

As a practical hint, it should be noted that summarising is a useful way of coping with a stalled or halting interview *at any stage of the interview*. Examples of summaries include: “so you think that”; “from what you’ve been saying,”, “would I be right in saying?”, etc.

Questioning is a clearly relevant technique at this stage. In general, *open-ended questions* are recommended. These tend to start with “why do you feel ...”, “tell me (more) about ...”, “what can you tell me about ...”, “why do you think that ...”, etc. Such questions tend to lead to an opening out of responses from the other person; intelligently used and with variation, they can effectively develop discussion.

When, for example, the person mentions computing as an area of interest, a useful question may be “what do you mean by computing”; you may then find out their level of understanding (do they really mean information technology, computer science, programming?), if this is viewed as a potentially core vocation or a tool on the periphery of some other as yet unknown sphere of interest (travel, administration?) and likely level of interest. Less than an enthusiastic gleam in the eye should lead to further questioning at this stage, perhaps asking if they have considered other career paths.

Close-ended questions, not usually the tools of choice in interviews, tend to lead to ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answers. Such questions start with “is this”, “do you agree with”, “do you think/feel ...”, etc. As these tend to limit responses, they should be used sparingly. In training, interviewers may use them without realising it; the best way to reduce their frequency is to consciously practise using open ended questions regularly.

Close-ended questions may sometimes be used with effect, however, very early on in an interview. Working with someone who appears particularly reticent or ill at ease, you may try the ‘easy ones first’ approach. “So you’re in your last year of school?”, “I gather you’re not feeling at your best” or “so you decided to come in again” may just elicit “yes or no”, but this may then be followed up by an open question. The point here is to get the person into the mode of speaking to you.

You may also need to ask tightly devised questions when assessing a person’s attainments or abilities. Particularly with younger clients in careers interviews, a knowledge of educational qualifications may be vital as a starting point.

Do not use close-ended questions persistently, however.

This stage should be concluded by agreement, or ‘contracting’, of an agenda for the rest of the interview. This does not usually need to be formal, but should be clear about what is needed from the interview, where necessary prioritising in terms of time restraints, importance and practicalities.

It should be noted that the goals contracted at the end of Stage 1 do not have to be adhered to slavishly. The needs of the client must come first. New goals may emerge later as more appropriate; or the client has a greater (or lesser) understanding of the issue than you had previously thought.

Listen to the client, paying attention to the content of what is said and the way in which it is said. Try to go along at a rate and level appropriate to the individual.

Stage 2: Exploration.

This stage, the body of the interview, may include - depending on the agreed agenda - a discussion of future possibilities (with likely implications and consequences), in-depth discussion of an issue or subject, and a choice of goals. Egan (1998) suggests that commitment is an issue at this stage. Important matters to be considered include a client's willingness to face particular issues, how motivated they are to achieve particular goals and how realistic are their viewpoints.

People often have 'blind spots' (see Johari's Window in the Models of Guidance section for one way of looking at these) or distorted perceptions (see also Berne, 1964, 1974). Although you are unlikely to deal formally with these in an interview (possibly excepting psychotherapy candidates), consideration is necessary in gaining an insight into blockages and to progress towards positive goals.

Such progression may include **challenging**. This does not have to mean confrontation. There have been periods in the history of social work and psychotherapy when the term 'honesty' was used to justify unpleasant and irresponsible confrontations. Confrontation may not lead to constructive goals, often leading to alienation between the parties and a subsequent failure to achieve the desired targets; it may even lead to a fresh state of trauma or aggression.

Challenging may, however, constitute a questioning of assumptions. Gentle versions of such challenges may include "I wonder if that's always the case", "how did you get that information?" and "how do you think you could follow that up?"

Another problem may be too much talking. One way of slowing someone down is to respond with less prompts or use close-ended questions to limit the scope of a discussion and refocus. You do not have to constrict yourself to questions which leading to yes or no. Content-driven questions such as "which approach do you like best?", "what do you think is the best way?" may narrow the focus.

Beware of talking too much yourself. A common shortcoming of many advisers, including the author, this may prevent adequate exploration and may also stop the client from viewing an idea or action as truly their own and relevant, making it less likely that they will do something after the interview. Do not, however, ignore the importance of passing on information; try, however, to wait until you are sure it is appropriate.

As mentioned previously, those who tend not to say much may be more encouraged by open-ended questions. Another way to encourage someone is to build on what they already know. **Prompts** - nods, "yes", "mm" and paraphrasing of what the person has already said - may all be useful. Do try to vary prompts, as too much of one technique will be seen by the client as comic or worse.

Do not always assume that your client is wrong in his or her emphasis, however, or that a deviation is a problem within the personal interaction. Changes within the exploration stage this may reflect *motivation*. As motivational factors are crucial to both likely future success and attention at the interview, you ignore changes of focus at your peril. As mentioned before, Stage 1 agreements can be scrapped if a more appropriate target presents itself.

Although this section has devoted itself to techniques, do not underestimate the importance of **silences**. Where this is clearly a matter of a person thinking, or being loaded with emotional tension or indecision, give time.

Stage 3: Strategy.

It is not sufficient merely to seek insight, an understanding of an issue. Insight should be linked to action. Such actions should be achievable, relevant to the clients' needs, with clear times for execution; if other people are to do something, their roles should also be clear. Avoid the temptation to think up all the actions yourself, as people are less likely to take to heart ideas which they have spent little time considering; the more varied the activities based around an idea, the more effective the learning is likely to be.

Agreed strategies should be written. Individuals do not tend to remember very much of a set of complex ideas, however vivid they may appear at the time. **Action plans** tend to vary with different organisations and according to function. It should be remembered that the client should have a copy of this as soon as possible, to reinforce any learning which has taken place, and your copy should be kept safely for the purposes of confidentiality.

General points.

There is no formula to ensure a seamless mixture of listening and techniques. Variation of techniques is important, as is a concentration on *listening*. This will seem more 'natural' after practice.

Adult clients may tend to leap in with their preoccupation without allowing you to proceed in the way you expect. Interruption to take them through your chosen process may inhibit the client and thus the dynamics of relationship: go with the flow, as you can return to agreeing an agenda when you both have a clear idea of where you are going.

Lack of a clear divide between stages is not too big a problem, so long as agreeing an agenda, exploration and strategising all take place and are in the client's interests. Seamless integration between stages may indeed indicate an effective interview.

5 EXERCISES RELATING TO INTERVIEWS

Monitoring and evaluation of individual client outcomes and satisfaction.

1. If you used the recommendations within your action plan as the yardstick by which to measure success, what real-life client events would you be looking for? (Try to choose clearly measurable outcomes).

2. How would you find out about such outcomes, bearing in mind your client's right to confidentiality.

3. What aspects of an interview do you think would be most likely to stick in the mind of a client? (Include negative and positive points).

4. Suggest three questions which you would put onto a client satisfaction feedback sheet.
 - (a)

 - (b)

 - (c)

5. What would be, in your opinion, the best way of distributing a satisfaction form? Explain why this would be superior to other methods of distribution.

Communication.

6. If office space is limited and private conversations can only be conducted by negotiation with colleagues, what sort of information would be reasonable to discuss in a public place in your particular organisation?

7. If a client became upset during an interview, which of the following responses would be *least* appropriate? Why?

(a) can you tell me what is upsetting you?

(b) are you annoyed with something I've said?

(c) silence.

Why have you chosen this option? (N.b. there is no definitely correct answer to this).

Confidentiality.

8. Clients' personal information should not be divulged to other parties without their knowledge and express agreement. Regular exceptions, such as routine referrals to a superior or other agencies, or statistical recording, should be discussed early in an interview.

Can you see any (extreme) situations in which you would breach confidentiality?

9. Comment briefly on appropriate storage of written information on clients.

10. Assuming client agreement, which other professionals would be appropriate people for you to contact for advice or information or to refer your client to?

Please note that not all of these questions have a 'right and wrong' answer. They are designed to get you thinking in a situational way. It is quite acceptable to discuss any of these issues with your tutor before submission.

6 THE PSYCHOLOGY OF GUIDANCE

Overview - psychology may be considered as a vital source of theories related to vocational choice, human development and models of guidance. It may offer explanations as to why people select certain jobs or life choices, which career choice selections are likely to be sources of happiness to them and what models of guidance are likely to prove effective. It should be noted - and this will be considered - that psychology is not without its rivals in other disciplines.

Psychology has been described as - among other things - as the science of mental life, how people think and behave and the interactions between one individual and others. This variation of definitions (by no means exhaustive) is at least in part a reflection of the different theories in psychology, to be described shortly.

Psychology itself is a broad discipline. Cognitive psychology, for example, covers areas such as memory and perception, with impacts on everyday life in areas as diverse as the credibility of eyewitness testimony and the effects of advertising. Other areas include occupational psychology (pertaining to the world of work and including careers counselling), educational psychology, social psychology (the behaviour of people in groups) and developmental psychology (the progress of adults as well as children). At various points, these domains of psychology have a bearing on careers guidance: they investigate - amongst other things - the efficacy of careers interventions, effectiveness of different types of teaching, how social influences affect individuals and the likely predictive ability of different models of guidance.

Before discussing models of guidance, it may be helpful to look briefly at different assumptions of the nature of human beings. Each of the theories, it should be noted, is a different way of looking at the human condition; reality, of course, tends to resemble a blend of these.

Mainstream theories within psychology - there are three main traditions within psychology.

The *psychodynamic tradition* is most famously represented by Sigmund Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis. Freud represented the human mind as in perpetual conflict between three internal if figurative entities. These are the id (essentially, the biological being with its uncontrolled needs and desires), the superego (moral conscience) and the ego (the more calculating side of the mind, trying to reconcile the other two contenders). Such a way of interpreting thoughts and, more characteristically feelings, particularly concentrates upon factors such as guilt and the repression and rechanneling of uncomfortable desires. Freud sees early relationships between an infant and its parents as crucial to future

development; love and hostility lead to stages through which a child may pass successfully or become 'fixated'. These preoccupations become those which may become repressed (apparently pushed beneath consciousness) or rechannelled into other 'drives' such as competitiveness. This way of thinking - which has been very briefly described here - led to attempts at psychoanalysis, where the patient is encouraged to bring to consciousness those factors which have become buried. Psychotherapy and the interpretation of dreams were methods developed for this purpose. Other psychodynamic thinkers include Jung, Adler, Bern (see bibliography) and Erikson (see developmental section).

Behaviourism - as with psychodynamic theory, this tradition has more than one major thinker. Perhaps the most influential, however, B. F. Skinner, suggested that theory should be ignored. Essentially, behaviourism is a scientific perspective of psychology, relying on experimental results for its body of knowledge. Although defining human behaviour as the combination of the biological organism and the environment, behaviourism takes the environment as the factor to concentrate on.

One behaviourist, J. B. Watson, specified *association* as the most influential environment. People's attitudes to things and other individuals are coloured by their past experiences; if, for example, a child is fond of its father and his father displays racist attitudes, such attitudes are likely to be viewed in a positive way. Such ideas are supported by the findings of the Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov, who discovered that dogs would automatically salivate when hearing a bell which was normally accompanied by food; they learned by association. The findings of Watson and Pavlov led to theories of *conditioning*.

Skinner, famous for his work with rats and other animals, developed a theory of reinforcement. Essentially, behaviour becomes more frequent when *reinforced* by positive consequences. It may also be reduced by unpleasant consequences or even a lack of consequences or attention.

Watson agrees with Freud about the importance of early childhood on development, although concentrates on environmental stimuli (e.g. parenting) rather than conflicts within relationships. Skinner also suggests that external factors continue to influence people both in the immediate present and over accumulated experience ('the history of reinforcement').

Therapies arising from behaviourism include flooding, systematic desensitisation, behaviour modification and other means of tackling people by coping with behaviour. A gradual melding with *cognitive* theories have led to a various highly effective therapies used - often in combination with drugs - to cope with depression, anxiety and other psychological problems (the work of Aaron Beck is of great relevance here).

Humanism, instead of focusing on biological or environmental influences on individuals, stresses the ability of human beings to make their own choices and to take responsibility for their own lives.

George Kelly (1955) for example, suggests that each of us has our own set of theories about the world, *constructs*. Each human learns different lessons from

life and *construes* the world in a particular way. Individuals are encouraged to discover their way of thinking about the world as a way to challenge less effective ways of coping (Bern, 1974, brings a similar approach to bear in his consideration of people's adoption of *scripts*).

The more famous Carl Rogers, proponent of client-centred counselling, also stresses the ability of a person both to construct reality and to make conscious and responsible decisions. His approach centres on the emotional and the immediate; embodied within the approach are practical skills which are widely applied in guidance and in counselling.

Rogerian techniques emphasise listening to the client with empathy, transparency/congruence (Rogers, 1961), and 'unconditional positive regard'. Essentially, the therapist tries to understand the other person's viewpoint, act clearly and honestly and also behave acceptingly and warmly to the client in all circumstances. (Masson, 1992, considers these to be irreconcilable attitudes.) As with psychotherapeutic models, Rogers' approach, the origin of mainstream counselling, attempts to raise self-consciousness, using questioning and challenging techniques. Such techniques have been developed in such 'process' models as Egan's 'skilled helper' (1998).

Human development - the awkward question.

Although the three primary perspectives have direct influences on types of counselling and psychotherapy, the division may owe more to the history of psychology than to any fundamental, comprehensive or systematic coverage of the subject. Although one may view psychoanalysis as primarily a study (albeit unscientific) of the biological human entity, behaviourism as an environmental focus and humanism as the pre-eminence of the human will, none of the proponents exclude the existence of the other factors. George Kelly, for example, while concentrating on free will, remembers the poverty of the Oklahoma dustbowl in the Great Depression of the 1930s, which truly did blight lives and prevent progress.

Similarly, various factors are omitted and questions concealed by a study of psychology split into such fragments. Studies of personality types, for example, do not always make assumptions about the origin of traits or types. Studies of human development are similarly not always preoccupied by the question of from whence but when and in what way. Recent discoveries relating to the human genome have also informed us in different ways about the effects of heredity (nature as opposed to nurture).

One such theory, best known by teachers, is Piaget's theory of development. Putting it very tersely, Piaget suggests that children *grow*, almost like plants, in stages and spurts. His studies of children's learning suggested that they would only be able to learn certain things when they at a stage of mental readiness for it. A young child, for example, is unlikely to understand very abstract concepts.

While Piaget is preoccupied by *intellectual* development, Erikson (an inheritor of the psychodynamic tradition) studies development in terms of *emotional stages*. Although Piaget and Freud also describe stages of development, Erikson considers

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adulthood with as much gravity as child development. His analysis of life development provides food for thought for both counsellors and careers workers.

Erikson (1959) describes eight stages of life, each providing a challenge (or *crisis*) to individuals, with positive and negative events each time leading to a range of consequences with implications for later stages.

1. *Sensory stage*. The infant is dependent in its first few months; this particular 'crisis' involves the learning of trust or suspicion. In particular, the attitude of the mother may lead to a person mistrusting other people throughout life.

2. *Muscular development*. During toilet training, the crisis, based on successful or unsuccessful learning, leads to the development of confidence and independence, or shame and self-doubt.

3. *Locomotor control stage*. The child learns to move about the world, developing initiative and self-expression or becoming guilt-ridden. It is suggested that this leads to the adult finding socially acceptable ways of expressing sexual needs or becoming guilt-obsessed.

4. *Latency stage*, in the early school years. Self-discovery of competency or failure compared to peers lead to adult industriousness or a pervading sense of inferiority.

5. *Puberty stage*. Sexuality but also self identity. The individual finds identity relating to sex, social interactions and plans for the future. The individual must accept his or her identity or will become confused about who he/she is and about the nature of his/her role in life.

6. *Young adulthood*. The establishment of intimacy with another person, or failure leading to isolation. (Marriage does not in itself mean an intimacy outcome - partners may remain psychologically isolated.)

7. *Adulthood*. The 'growth crisis' in the middle years determines the development of a productive useful human being or settling into a pattern of complacency and stagnation.

8. *Maturity* is reached only by those who have successfully resolved the previous crises. The person comes to terms with death: the person may face it with a feeling of self-worth or with despair, feeling that life has been a foolish waste.

Erikson recommended 'triple book-keeping', regarding biology (determined), psychology (largely free will) and social context. His model of development, less deterministic than Freud or behaviourists, who saw human development as largely dominated by biological and environmental control rather than free will, but little research has been undertaken to prove or disprove Erikson's ideas, which were based on his clinical work.

As well as some similarities to Freud and Piaget, Erikson also bears a resemblance to a humanist theorist, Abraham Maslow. Maslow suggests a Hierarchy of Needs in the progress of psychological growth.

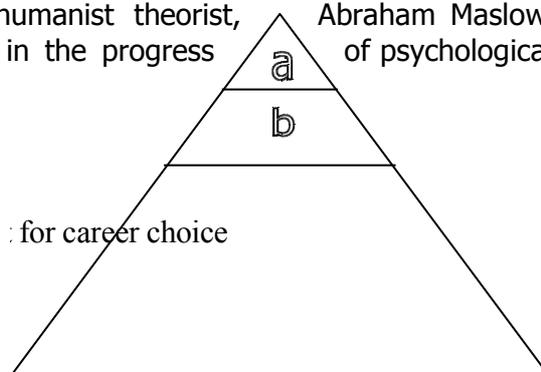
a= *self actualisation*

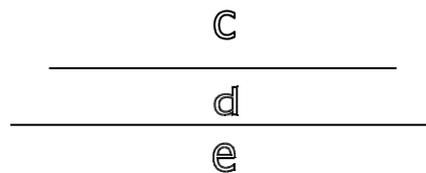
b= *esteem*

c= *belongingness* : for career choice

d= *safety*

e= *physiological*





Each level needs to be satisfied before the next need can be assuaged. First come *physiological* needs (food, drink, sex; the most primitive and obviously biological needs). Then *safety* (shelter and security generally). *Belongingness*; a sense of attachment to others. *Esteem*: being valued and respected. *Self-actualisation*: fulfilling one's potential. This is a very popular way of analysing the self and also motivation at work.

Objectivity is difficult because of Maslow's popularity at training sessions, in spite of very little research backing. The writer suggests to the reader, however, that some of these stages make little sense in their current order. Belongingness to a group, for example, can manifest itself and indeed become strengthened by lack of safety. Some individuals have fulfilled their potential in spite (or because) of immense deprivation; in any case, some of the biographies of great people studied by Maslow as examples of self-actualised people suggested people who were often neither likable nor personally very admirable.

Perhaps a more meaningful study of human development, at least in terms of research backing, was conducted by Levinson in 1978, who called it The Seasons of a Man's Life. (N.b. a section on women's lives will be found later. Levinson studied 40 men between 35 and 45. Four occupational groups were studied - biologists, industrial workers, executives and novelists - 10 from each group. He and his colleagues interviewed them biographically, aiming to elicit life stories and then to generalise from them. Analysing the biographies led to the researchers tending to support Levinson's views. At the end of each era (containing the rough five year periods) comes a transition period in which the person tends to review what has gone before and to explore future possibilities.

early adulthood	EARLY ADULT TRANSITION 17-22 years	following a dream; forming mentor relationships
	Entering the adult world	developing and forming love relationships
	Age 30 Transition 28-33 years	
	Settling down 33-40 years	
middle adulthood	MIDLIFE TRANSITION 40-45 years	review; revise; individuation

	<p>Entering middle adulthood 45-50 years</p> <p>Age 50 Transition 50-55 years</p> <p>Culmination of middle adulthood 55-60 years</p>	
late adulthood	LATE ADULT TRANSITION 60-65 YEARS	coming to terms with being old

The Dream

An imagined possibility that provides inspiration and energy. In Levinson's sample, the biologists' and novelists' 'dream' tended to be connected with work. The executives' dreams tended to be more concerned with their families and social lives. A number of the industrial workers had fantasies about exciting types of work and achievements, but depressingly, these had usually faded with the passage of time.

The Mentor

The mentoring relationship is regarded by Levinson as one the most important in the early adulthood stage. It is most frequently based in the work setting, where mentoring functions may be taken by a boss or senior colleague. Formal or informal, with or without a position of power, the mentoring function may be as a teacher, a sponsor, a host and guide, or an exemplar for the person to emulate, or simply may offer advice and support. The mentor is more often seen as an older brother or sister than as a parent figure; an important part of the relationship is that as the young person's skills increase, the relationship gradually becomes more equal.

Edgar Schein, an American careers theorist, distinguishes between seven different types of mentoring role, giving different types of satisfaction:

1. Teacher, coach or trainer; teaches 'what goes on around here'
2. Positive role model; 'I learned a lot from watching them'; a good example
3. Developer of talent; 'gave me challenging work and stretched me'
4. Opener of doors; ensures opportunities and growth-producing assignments; fights 'upstairs' for the younger person, whether or not the younger person is aware of it.
5. Protector (mother hen); 'watched over me and protected me while I learned; I could make mistakes and learn without risking my job!)
6. Sponsor; makes their protege 'visible', makes sure they have a 'good press' and are given exposure to higher-level people so that they will be remembered when new opportunities come along, with or without the awareness of the younger person.
7. Successful leader; this means that his or her supporters may 'ride along on his or her coat-tails', bringing them along.

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The leading researcher in the area of mentoring is Kathy Kram, who considers the above roles as being divided between **career functions** - sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure, challenging work - and **psychosocial functions** - role modeling, counselling, acceptance, confirmation, friendship. Research suggests that a combination of the instrumental *and* the intimate relationship (not *that* intimate!) is most effective.

Reviewing: the develop of more appropriate aspirations and expectations; Levinson calls this process *disillusionment*.

Modifying life structure: may involve external factors such as job change, change in pattern of leisure activities, separation or divorce; or solely internal, such as a gradual change in attitudes to work or to relationships.

Individuation: this follows on from one of Freud's other disciples, Jung, and is about 'confronting and integrating' 'polarities or oppositional tendencies within our being'. This is a wonderful thing, psychodynamic psychology! Essentially, there are said to be polarities, feelings with opposing pulls, between being young and old, masculine and feminine, destructive and creative, and attachment and separateness. Individuals come to terms with the paradox [apparently contradictory statement] of feeling both of each set of impulses or sensations.

It has been suggested in recent career development literature that one major function of the later stages of a person's working life could be devoted to the mentoring of others in the workplace.

Donald Super also adopts a stage theory, derived from the work of Erikson. Individuals match their self-concepts against their pictures of known occupations within stages of Growth (0-14 years), Exploration (15-24), Establishment (25-44), Maintenance (45-64) and Decline (65+). In his 'Life-Career Rainbow', Super attempts to bring in the variety of roles assumed by individuals in their lifetimes, as well as a variety of personal and situational determinants. Such complexity is unlikely to be of practical use (Yost & Corbishley, 1987). Super's self-concept theory also appears to be of greater applicability to able young people than to others less fortunate.

PUBLIC HEALTH WARNING: STAGE THEORIES MAY BE BAD FOR YOUR HEALTH.

Whilst there may be a 'social clock' telling you that you are behind time, ahead, or about right in your career, you should not take these stages too seriously. Otherwise, you will **make** these theories correct just by paying too much attention to them.

Having criticised stage theories, there are some interesting 'stage' analyses of phases *within* careers which remain independent of chronological stages.

One example of *career patterns* is that of Driver (1988).

One type is the '*steady state*' career, where a person selects an occupation early in life and follows it consistently; typical of professional and skilled workers.

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Another is the '*linear*' pattern, where a person progresses upwards in a chosen field; corporate managers are typical here.

'*Transitory*': frequent changes of employment, without stability; the pattern is found most commonly in semi-skilled and clerical occupations.

The '*spiral*' career pattern is followed where a career moves from one field to another, related or otherwise. Consultants and writers fit this pattern in particular.

Another distinction is between '*orderly*' and '*disorderly*' careers (Wilensky, 1961).

Watts (1981) gives a more specific typology of job changing.

Sequential: previous experience or training leads to more responsible positions (e.g. worker to junior manager).

Lateral: sideways moves, for example teaching in a similar position but in a school in another area.

Regressive: returning to a less responsible job in the same profession.

Augmenting: experience and skills from previous work are used in a different occupation.

Recycling: previous experience and training are more or less abandoned when starting a new occupation.

Nicholson (1987) describes a '**transition cycle**' within career tasks.

The first phase is *preparation* for a particular position. An anticipatory socialisation takes place, where a person becomes psychologically acclimatised to the idea of the new job. Expectations, desires and resources may be unrealistic.

The next phase is *encounter*, where the individual copes and makes sense of a new situation.

Adjustment may mean the person changing to fit the role (or, with some individuals, a moulding of the job to fit the individual), reducing lack of fit between the person and the environment (an important concept, to be discussed later).

Stabilisation involves increasing commitment to the organisation, development of a role and influence. This then leads back (*recursion*) to the *preparation* phase.

Cycles may be interrupted by each other; and experience within one stage may have a profound effect on other stages. Each stage may have very distinctive features.

Schein (1978) sees the adjustment stage as one of '*mutual discovery*' between organisation and employee. The '*occupational concept*' may become more focused (people, for example, who see themselves as careers advisers or counsellors may start to identify themselves with the Careers Service or a college or another specific organisation or sub-profession).

The person develops a psychological self-concept, a **career anchor**. This is based on self-perceived talents and abilities based on work experiences; self-perceived motives and needs based on feedback, tests and reflection; self-perceived attitudes and values from the norms and values developed within organisations.

Schein studied business graduates and suggested the existence of 5 **career anchors:**

technical-functional competence: individuals organising their careers around this career anchor make moves by making the most of challenging opportunities. They may often resist going into general management, preferring the acquisition of particular skills.

managerial competence: Schein's professional subjects of study saw this within three sub-competences: analytical competence, interpersonal competence and emotional competence. They felt most successful when taking a lot of responsibility.

security and stability: preoccupation with stability tended to lead to regular employment in an organisation or geographical area. They tended to allow the organisation to define how they could contribute most effectively.

creativity: career decisions were made around the need to create a particular product, company or service. Such individuals would like to leave their mark on whatever they did. Leading edge, they would move on to a new task, rather than perform 'maintenance' functions.

autonomy and independence: finding through experience that they could not work for large organisations, people would become autonomous as university teachers or freelance workers. They would choose and maintain specific lifestyles and the manner in which they worked.

A brief discussion of women's career development.

Levinson's 'The Seasons of a Man's Life' only covered men. To be fair, he is intending to publish an account of studies into women's development; the joke around the ivory towers is that he is going to give it the imaginative title of 'The Seasons of a Woman's Life'.

In contrasting women with men in this area, we need to make an important distinction about what we are looking at: between your **biological life**, your **working life**, and your **career**. The middle of your life is obviously not the same as the middle of your working life; you may also change direction in your working life and have more than one career.

As an example, my own age (as of December, 1999) is 42. I'm between a third and half way through my working life (assuming working from late teens to a bit under 70). I've finished my career as a residential worker, have also had a brief career as a lecturer, and am in an early stage of a third career as an occupational psychologist, careers adviser and guidance tutor. (*PS: 2008: researcher and software developer of a career test for career choice.*)

In this case, we can see some complexities emerging already. The lecturing position was based upon my previous career and also had a 'knock-on' effect on my third career. (Is this the 'spiral pattern' career?)

You may be asking, well, *what's that got to do with women?* Well, there may well be different patterns of development for men and women, and the distinction between biological life, working life, and career may allow us to analyse the difference.

As a background, I should just point out that in all but a few areas (e.g. nursing and social work), women only entered the labour market in traditionally male jobs during the world wars; this was particularly pronounced in 1939-45 because of the demands of what became a 'total war' between the Allies and the forces of the Axis (Hitler's Nazi Germany, Japan, and Fascist Italy). On the return to peacetime, there was still pressure - even if not overt - to give way to the men returning from the war.

Towards the 1970s and 1980s, there was an apparent change of climate. The rise of feminism meant at least lip-service to equal opportunities for women; although there may have been general concern about equality, concern may also have arisen out of politicians' desire to placate 50% of the electorate! An increase in the proportion of women in the British workforce was accompanied by the Equal Pay Act of 1970 and the Sex Discrimination Act of 1975. Recent studies have even suggested that employers may now prefer female employees; this may be because of the current trend towards part-timers as more flexible and cheaper to employ.

Why is there this correlation between part-time work and gender? Clearly, many women find this a way of combining work/career with domestic commitments. This difference, both in terms of full- and part-time work, and related to a continued child care expectation, may lead to a different career pattern for many women.

The fact of pregnancy is crucial for many women, with a profound effect on career development. Being a part-timer in itself may mean that a person is not considered seriously as someone with a career. In order to achieve the straightforward 'linear' career path, many women have to give up the possibility of childbearing.

The other alternative is the break in career, which seems more acceptable in women than in men (in the view of some employers). Current research suggests that either women stop to raise children in their mid 20s and resume their careers in their mid 30s; others typically build up their careers in their 20s and take their career breaks in their mid 30s.

It can thus be seen that men and women may have rather different career patterns. One researcher, Super sees career stages, periods of **growth (0-14)**, **exploration (15-24)**, **establishment (25-44)**, **maintenance (45-64)**, and **decline (65+)**. This may be the case for men, but women may have to explore more than once (i.e. a second career, or the beginning of a 'new work-life'), establish themselves all over again. The good news, according to one survey, is that while senior female executives may rise more slowly, they tend to 'burn slowly', i.e. stay at the top for longer (the number of very senior female managers is very low, however). The bad news is unequal pay.

Ornstein and Isabella in 1990 produced a survey of women's attitudes to their careers which was supportive of Levinson's stage-based approach but not Super's stages (*exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline*). They suggested that Super's model was not representative of women's non-linear careers (not travelling in a straight line).

One researcher into women's careers is Joan Gallos. Gallos considers that women may tend to have a different set of values. Attachments are more significant to women than to men. Men are more likely to lack close working relationships or may consider it more reasonable to have a linear single-minded approach to careers.

The settling down period of the second adult phase (age 30 to 40) is a time for investing more heavily in work by men. 'Becoming one's own woman requires more than this, as the biological clock ticks loudly. Careers may go on hold.

Middle adulthood (age 40 to 50) is a traditional time of increased assertiveness for women, who now have social permission to work. They may also have the edge over their male counterparts in terms of physical health, well-being and prospects for the future.

Age 50 and over: acknowledging mortality, enjoying the time left, and preparing for death. For women, it may also be a time for significant career accomplishment, being less likely to feel obliged to foster a spouse's career (who may have suffered a heart attack, retired or died).

Sekaran and Hall in 1989 discussed 'asynchronism' in career and lifestyle 'timetables'. Superimposing the different male and female development patterns, as discussed by Gallos (above), they noted sequential and simultaneous types of family adjustment. The sequential pattern may mean motherhood-follows-employment, or employment follows motherhood. The simultaneous model includes four stages:

The pre-launching stage: women may here feel greatest mastery.

The young parenthood stage: children under six and the parents feel the greatest strain. The parent curtailing (cutting short) their career may do so because of the organisation frowning on males 'not taking their career seriously', or other gender issues; or which employer is most flexible, or which person is less psychologically involved in their job, or who earns less money. The slower career gets out of sync with the organisation's timetable and the partner's career.

Mature parenthood: roles may start to reverse, as the home-keeper gets more career-oriented, whilst careerist starts to value domesticity more. May feel out of sync with each other.

The empty nest stage: the old home-keeper may feel more energetic, as freed from old obligations; the career may be late but not slow. The other may be in a period of career maintenance or decline. "Women become more independent, more aggressive, less sentimental, and more career-oriented at this life stage."

Sekaran and Hall suggest that the couple should be the unit of study rather than the career of the individual, and that we should view 'success' more widely than merely in terms of hierarchical advancement (the 'career ladder')

The Industrial Relations Unit of Warwick University in the early 1990s produced the following observations.

1. About 2.2 million of the 3 million rise in employment between March 1983 and June 1990 was accounted for by the growth of the female workforce.
2. This development was bound up with the shift from full-time to part-time employment. In 1981, 42% of female workers were part-timers, whereas only 6% of male employees worked part time. By 1992 the figures were 46% and 11% respectively.
3. The rise in the proportion of employment provided by part-time jobs raises several issues. What are the consequences for career structures, systems and expectations? And are the consequences of part-time employment likely to prove economically dysfunctional for society as a whole? (Many part time jobs will be below the threshold for national insurance and tax.)
4. The 1993 Labour Force Survey showed that occupational differences between men and women persist. Women constituted the bulk of employees in clerical occupations, personal services and sales, but men dominated all other occupations.
5. By 2001, women are expected to comprise 45% of the labour force (Employment Gazette, 1992).
6. Between 1991 and 2000, 1.7 million extra managerial, professional and associate professional and technical jobs are expected to be created. Of these, more than a million are expected to be taken up by women (Institute of Employment Research, Warwick).

Do we need separate careers theories for women? Joan Gallos comments that 'theories provide the lenses that focus our perceptions and understandings of the world around us and frame the things we see and choose not to see'. A theory originally developed with mainly one gender in mind is bound to blinker our view.

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7 MODELS OF GUIDANCE

The psychological theories mentioned above lead to differing guidance models. It should be noted that sociology and economics challenge the role of psychology in the form of Ken Roberts (in Dryden and Watts, 1993, in the main bibliography). Roberts cites research indicating the importance of economic factors and also the influence of children's peer groups and their family's social class in career choice; he therefore considers careers advisers (at least in schools) as merely lubricants in the process of adjusting young people to jobs.

Roberts' adherents stress the importance of *opportunity structures*. The careers adviser informs clients, the parents of schoolchildren and other agencies of the latest trends in economic figures in order to make transition to work as painless as possible. Examples of modern trends in Britain are for the expansion of service industries and the decline of manufacturing industries, small companies as employers (as against large corporations), the prevalence of information technology and an increase of temporary and part-time jobs compared to the days of full-time 'jobs for life'.

Developmental models draw on the human development theories and studies cited above. Different careers and other counsellors will decide on the most appropriate theories to apply to practice. Those active within organisational development may, for example, use a within-job model such as Nicholson's transition cycle. Active considerations within interviews may include a client's career maturity and developmental tasks. One developmental application is the DOTS model (Law and Watts, 1977; see Watts *et al* in main bibliography): this concentrates on Self-awareness ('who am I?'), Opportunity awareness ('where am I?'), Decision learning ('what will I do?') and Transition learning ('how will I cope?').

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Person-centred approaches, drawing from Rogers, tend to focus on warm accepting techniques for developing individuals through self-awareness. (e.g. Egan's approach).

Goal-directed orientations draw from behaviourism, with its emphasis on measurable goals and on invoking the importance of short- and long-term consequences in motivating individuals. These approaches have led to the idea of contracting after early screening (see Nathan and Hill, 1992, in the main bibliography) and may have a bearing on realistic decision-making and becoming aware of the process of how decisions are made.

Trait-factor covers the importance of individuals fitting into suitable work. Although this assumes that personality is stable over long-term, it may be seen to draw from learning theories such as behaviourism or psychodynamic theories of development. Usually the result of extensive empirical research, trait-factor theories have not been unduly concerned with the origins of personalities.

Alec Rodger's 7-point plan (1952; see main bibliography) provided a formula for careers interviews, with a checklist covering variables such as the person's attainments and circumstances before looking at careers suited to that individual.

Trait-factor assumes that there are measurable and practical significant differences between people suited to different occupations; that well-adapted individuals within an occupation would be seen to share psychological characteristics; that individual differences would interact significantly with occupational differences, and that job and person characteristics would be consistent enough to predict long term outcomes (see Rounds and Tracey, 1990, in Walsh and Osipow in main bibliography). This developed into a congruence model within a theory of 'person-environment fit': individuals would seek out and create environments that allowed for their idiosyncrasies within a reciprocal process (Holland, J.L., 1973, *Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall).

Types of personality, essentially, fit with different types of jobs. Obvious practical extensions within careers guidance are computer assisted guidance (a career test such as *Adult Directions*) and psychometric tests. Psychometric tests include ability tests (measures of potential or optimal performance, usually covering verbal, numerical and spatial capability), aptitudes (more specific ability tests indicating potential to do well in particular work areas, e.g. secretarial, computer programming, sales).

Interest inventories (similar to a career test) ask for preferences before matching the personality to possible areas of work; a direct extension of Holland's theory, these are also the foundations of computer-aided guidance. Holland's wide research indicates 6 types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional (RIASEC). (The author of CareerSteer prefers 'Practical' to 'Realistic', as respondents often view low scores under the former title to mean being 'unrealistic'.)

Criticisms of the models.

Opportunity structures, beyond a certain post-modernist cynicism, does not offer the careers adviser positive directions. Even the notion of information dissemination is flawed. The trends mentioned above are just that; historians admit that the past is not a guide to the future. More to the point, the pursuance of trends may encourage individuals to follow occupations to which they are unsuited. Given widespread competition, an individual without motivation or ability is likely to fail; a better suited individual at least has a chance of gaining an edge. Moreover, there are dangers in the application of opportunity structures as mere disseminations of trends.

Careless application of this method ignore, for example, the following significant paradox: whilst the manufacturing industry is indeed declining in Britain, the ensuing lack of popularity means that there is a shortfall in engineers, particularly electronic engineers, and also scientists. Trends are also taken to extremes: are permanent full-time jobs a thing of the past, for example, or have their deaths been highly exaggerated?

Developmental models are either inapplicable in isolation or too ridden by complexities for practical use in isolation from other considerations. Although they have had some influence on practice, *goal-directed* models are not generally applied within practical guidance.

The widespread Rogerian techniques of *person-centred* or *process* models may carry with them a largely irrelevant therapeutic underpinning when applied to careers guidance. Without other clearly defined theories in play, process may become the theoretical basis for career interventions, thereby tending to ignore realistic considerations of personal ability, opportunity structures.

Trait-factor has often suffered a critical press, partly because of the prescriptiveness of the early Seven-point Plan and, probably more influential, because of controversies during the early development of psychometric testing. The latter are very much associated with the perceived weaknesses of this scientifically supported model: it is perceived to be mechanistic and divorced from clients' individuality.

Integrative or eclectic?

Lazarus (Lazarus, A.A., 1989, Why I am an Eclectic [Not an Integrationist] *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 17, 3, 248-258) recommends a 'toolkit' approach, largely driven by social and cognitive learning. He condemns unsystematic eclecticism, rightly suggesting (from the author's experience) that practitioners will adopt personal preferences and subjective judgements rather than best practitioner practice. He also suggests that integrationism (of theories and methods) will lead to a similar result, with the added disadvantage of trying to fuse irreconcilable approaches.

The author does not see how Lazarus' appeal to consensus about good practice will avoid the dangers he outlines above. The author's integrative model follows:

Person-centred or process models may retain their usage as sets of techniques or parameters for the conducting of interviews. These encourage active participation and may even pursue the model's ideal of raising self-awareness.

Within interviews, however, assessment - via discussion or diagnostic tools as appropriate - should be a clear and recognised priority for gauging levels and direction. Abilities, aptitudes, personality and preferences, according to research, are vital in looking for longterm job satisfaction and success.

Developmentalism and opportunity structures would inform practice and should come to the fore when this suits clients' individual needs. It may, however, be misleading to introduce them as central theories for potential application to *interviews*; their value is in training practitioners in the context and complexities of practice. Advisers will have an *insight* into clients' circumstances and can adapt practice as appropriate.

To summarise, the writer believes that trait-factor theory, an assessment of suitability within work, should be central to careers/educational guidance, concentrating on the nature of attributes; tests and computer aided guidance should not be seen as disparate elements of guidance, but tools to be used when interview assessments by themselves lack acuity. Process models form the vehicle for effective interviewing, generating the necessary warm background for effective interactions. Economic, social and developmental considerations inform the process.

8 EXERCISES RELATING TO PSYCHOLOGY/MODELS OF GUIDANCE

Differences between practitioners and clients, their implications and ways of dealing with them.

1. It is very likely that at least some of the time you will be working with clients who are older or younger than yourself. Remembering the distinction between the concepts of **biological life**, **working life**, and **career** (people may have more than one career), how might your situation be different from those you meet?

2. What sort of effects would such differences have on possible progressions for your clients?

3. How might such differences affect your working relationship with clients?

Clients' background and cultural context.

4. Case study: you are interviewing a woman, 41 years of age, who has been outside of the labour market for child care reasons for the last 5 years. In her twenties, she had worked as a secretary. She took a degree with the Open University and then attended a teacher training course, going on to working as a primary school teacher until she stopped work to have children. She is now ready to go back to work but is not sure if teaching children is really for her. She feels anxious when thinking about returning to the classroom.

(a) Developmentally, how would you describe your client's situation? (b) Are there other factors, positive or negative, which are likely to affect her situation? (c) What variables may be useful to know about before taking any action (within careers or general counselling)?

5. Your client, aged 20, has recently come from a state within the former Yugoslavia. She has no formal qualifications (from Britain or elsewhere), although her standard of spoken and written English is very good. She has declared an interest in becoming a lawyer, perhaps also combining this with European studies or languages. What do you think may be the relevant issues here?

Potential and/or real impact of own attitudes, values and behaviour on work with clients.

6. Are there issues in your own life which you reminded about in the recent reading materials? Do you feel that you are able to decide your own course in life, or are you mainly driven by circumstances? How about your clients? How might this translate into the way you approach work with clients?

Please note that these questions do not have a 'right and wrong' answer. They are designed to stimulate thought about how you practise.

9 EVALUATING AND DEVELOPING YOUR OWN WORK

Different assessment methods

One method of self-assessment is by using a **SWOT analysis**, which examines *strengths, weaknesses, opportunities* and *threats*. This is generally a management tool, examining organisational abilities and shortcomings, new markets and competition, but may easily be amended to personal development.

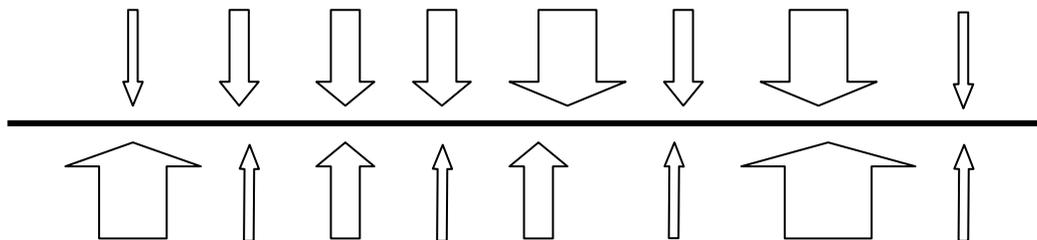
Strengths may include any knowledge, skills and abilities. If you look at your experience, personal and professional, you should be able to compile a list of such strengths.

Weaknesses (or points for development) could refer to elements of your personality, vulnerability derived from experiences or disabilities, skills/training deficits or other relevant factors.

Opportunities may include chances for further training and new skills, fresh work experiences, etc.

Threats may be within your organisation, problem clients, economic downturn, attitudes of others, other organisations, etc.

Another form of assessment which could be adapted to personal development is **force-field analysis**, as pioneered by Kurt Lewin. This is a method of identifying and weighing up the forces of momentum and resistance to necessary changes. Conventionally, the negative forces are represented graphically by arrows pointing down to a horizontal line (representing you or your chosen course of action), arrows pointing up from underneath being forces in your favour. The arrows are thickened as appropriate, representing their weight or importance.

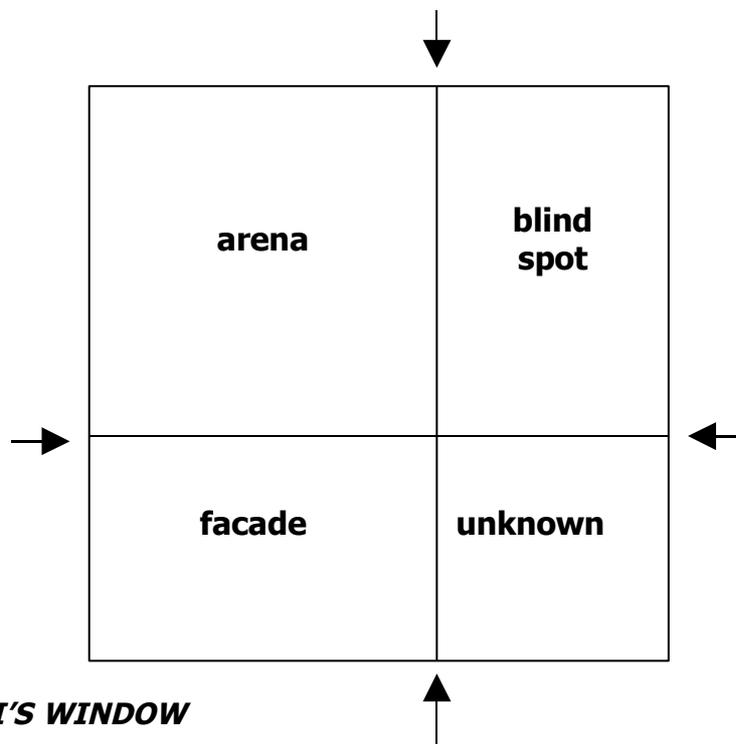


LEWIN'S FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

(In actual usage, arrows would be identified by title labels).

Johari's Window, the work of Rom Harre, is a graphical way of examining the relationships between the known and the unknown, within one's public and private domains. A window is divided into 4 smaller windows:

1. The **arena** represents that which is known to both you and to others in a given situation.
2. The **façade** represents things that are known to you but not to others.
3. The **blind spot** covers things about you that are known to others but not to you. This is important, as it may represent areas of your professional practice of which you are unaware.
4. The **unknown** area represents that which is unknown to you and to others. Talking psychologically, this could be the unconscious. In more arcane terms, this may be an area of knowledge which your clients need to know and you have not yet acquired or updated yet.



JOHARI'S WINDOW

Transactional Analysis may be used in applying psychodynamic principles to professional life. Transference and countertransference (clients unconsciously perceiving parental qualities in the practitioner, or similar problems in the other direction) are seen as 'ego-states'. People may adopt a child-like dependence, or an authoritarian 'parent' role, or other distortions of rational behaviour. These may be the effects of parental injunctions (Berne, 1964) and even the existence of life 'scripts' (Berne, 1974).

How far these issues come into play may partly depend upon your belief in Freudian psychology, but is also a matter of relevance: how far does the irrational affect you? It should also be noted that although considered a method of self-assessment within guidance - and thus mentioned here - T.A. is a therapeutic technique, for people with personal problems.

It should also be noted that some authorities consider the use of T.A. and other psychotherapeutic techniques as intrusive and damaging even in therapy, let alone in the workplace. The late Hans Eysenck evaluated psychotherapy as inferior to therapies such as behaviour therapy and positively injurious to clients. Masson (1992), a former psychoanalyst, goes so far as to consider therapy of all kinds to be an imposition of a therapist's version of reality onto others.

These are not the only methods of self-assessment, but are examples which might help to identify development needs.

Self-development plans

As with assessment, these may take different forms (and names, such as '*action plans*'). One recommendation, however, is that such plans should be

SMART.

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| Specific | - avoid 'fuzzy' targets |
| Measurable | - if not, how can success be judged? |
| Achievable | - be fair to yourself and the Assessor |
| Realistic | - most should be guidance-related |
| Time-scaled | - target dates make goal-setting effective |

There is no set format for such plans (unless your Assessor says there is on your particular course). It may be possible to continue from plans from previous courses. If starting afresh, however, you may find it helpful to consider the following factors when writing: Objectives, Actions, Time and environments (target dates and contexts) and Evaluations.

To conclude, **use a self-assessment method, then use it to formulate a development plan, followed by later reviews.**

10 GROUP WORK - INTRODUCTION

An Introduction to Social Psychology.

Although psychology is usually associated with qualities of the individual - emotions, intelligence, personality, development, etc. - social psychology concerns itself with such themes as the interactions between individuals, group behaviour and popular perception. The studies below give a flavour of how individuals' judgements, attitudes and behaviour may be affected by other people.

Experiments showed people making blatant errors of judgement when others in group tasks - who were really actors - appeared to be doing the same thing. In

other experiments, without the intervention of actors, different individual judgements within working groups often became increasingly similar over time.

In the famous Stanford Prison experiment, students, all selected as relatively balanced individuals, were divided randomly into guards and prisoners in a prison situation. Over a short time, they started to live their roles, with profound effects on their attitudes. Amongst other things, guards started to refer to individual prisoners in terms of character weaknesses or pathological defects; 'prisoners' adopted a cowed submissive posture. To emphasise how this situation was realistic for its participants, it should be noted that some prisoners begged to be let out, offering to forfeit their payments for taking part.

In a famous (but ethically unrepeatable) attempt to explain Nazi atrocities (i.e. sadists or obedient citizens?), members of the public were invited to take part in what appeared to be an educational experiment. 'Students', really actors, had to answer various questions. The members of the public, the real experimental subjects, were told by a man in a white coat to administer electric shocks when the 'students' gave wrong answers to questions. The real experiment was to see how far people would continue the punishments if an apparent authority urged them to do so. In spite of the 'students' writhing in pain and begging for the experiment to stop, the vast majority of these ordinary people were fully obedient and many continued to apply the electrical punishments to the highest possible levels of intensity. This experiment was replicated, with similar results.

Somewhat closer to everyday experience, experimenters set up mock confrontations between individuals, and other 'situations', in public places, to see how passers-by would intervene. It was noted that interventions were much more frequent when one person had already started to act than when no-one had done so.

Observations at a workplace examined how the interactions between two administrative offices, originally next to each other, changed when one office was relocated, moving upstairs. Relationships deteriorated, with people in one office being increasingly viewed as 'different' by the other.

Most of these studies can be read in more detail in any introduction to social psychology. How relevant are they, however, to guidance?

In general, they lend considerable support to Ken Roberts' *'opportunity structures'* theory, which considers peer groups and social class as most influential on career choice by young people. Socially transmitted prejudices against different types of people are likely to influence attitude formation among clients. Perceptions of other groups of students or colleagues are likely to influence working and student relationships. Other findings suggest ways of dealing with situations and how some of them are generated.

Small group experiments

Perhaps more relevant to careers education and group sessions for counsellors and other practitioners are studies pertaining to small groups, another area of social psychology.

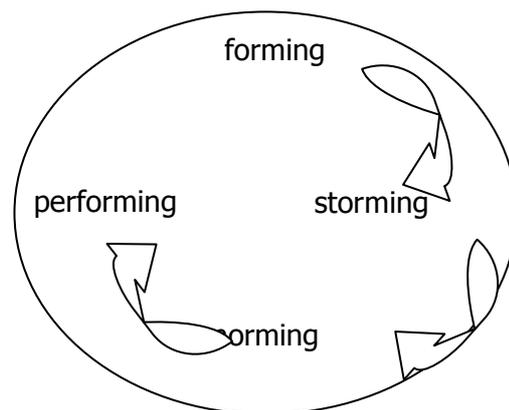
These studies particularly focus on group dynamics. While providing conditions for human growth, groups are full of potential pitfalls; this volatility is illustrated by one model of group formation - 'forming, storming, norming and performing' - which is particularly about working groups.

Forming: people are unsure and inclined to find out what is going on, sizing up others without necessarily giving away much of themselves. A period of quiet politeness is likely.

Storming: clashes of opinion appear, often at the expense of the task at least initially. Potential leaders appear.

Norming: people get to consider each other, in terms of strengths and weaknesses as well as personal qualities. Group norms - commonly accepted behaviour for the particular group - become established.

Performing: at the end of this process, group members should now be able to concentrate on the task in hand.



Beliefs, attitudes and personalities can make a group's work rewarding, but can also cause frustration. When working with these factors, both as the raw material of the educator and as potential barriers, it is important for practitioners to consider the *process* as well as the content of sessions.

Group workers need to observe, interpret and then to act. A model that may be adapted to both long-term relationships with groups and to single sessions is that of the ground-breaking social psychologist Kurt Lewin. Changes in attitude may occur in three phases: the unfreezing of previous attitudes, changing attitudes and refreezing of new attitudes.

Unfreezing an 'unskilled group', where participants are unused to group work, requires the group to determine its own needs. More specifically for our current purposes, interventions may be needed to help members learn social skills, with an

intention to achieve aims, immediate or longer-term. Such work may challenge or quietly undermine attitudes which hamper or cloud aspirations. Questioning, perhaps in the Socratic style of guiding students to an answer, may be used in the unfreezing process.

Attitudes may change, often unconsciously, during work on the task. Conscious challenging may also occur.

Summarising may be used to consolidate on learning, refreezing new attitudes at the end of a session and allowing reflection to reinforce learning (Kolb, 1984). A review of concluded work may mean some of the group themselves recognising changes in attitude.

Models of Guidance applied to groups

'Client-centred' (Rogerian) models are commonly used in group-work, stressing the ability of people to make conscious and responsible decisions, and to construct reality. This approach centres on the emotional and the immediate; embodied within the approach are practical skills which are widely applied in guidance and in counselling, often as part of an eclectic process model.

One such process model is Egan's 'skilled helper' (1998), with the 3 stages discussed in the chapter on interviews. Rogerian techniques emphasise listening to the client with empathy, transparency/congruence (Rogers, 1961), and 'unconditional positive regard' (Masson, 1992, considers these to be irreconcilable attitudes). While these may be preconditions for effective guidance, they need to be applied at the level of technique. In particular, methods of promoting group processes include questions, challenging and summarising.

Questioning may be used for a variety of purposes: starting conversation, expanding on points, obtaining illustrations, checking perceptions and obtaining information. These should be used sparingly and carefully, using open and closed questions as appropriate.

Helpful questioning means not merely 'probing' (Egan, 1998), but encouraging individuals to participate. This may free up group members who are resistant to sharing their perceptions of issues, as well as helping the reluctant to feel included. Questions starting with 'what do you think ...?' and 'can you tell me about ...?' are typical.

Questioning may also stimulate self-awareness and interactions beneath the threshold of challenging. 'Why' and 'how' questions may be used, however, both to focus content and to challenge unsupported (or insupportable) assertions.

It was common in the 1970s to make a point of **challenging** attitudes and behaviour in terms of confrontation experiences. Egan (1998) now adopts the term 'challenging' as a more responsible approach to changing dysfunctional attitudes, thoughts and behaviours - 'blind spots' - which clients have not seen fit to alter themselves. This may include information sharing, disclosure of the practitioner's attitudes, immediacy, suggestions and recommendations, as well as confrontations when necessary.

Challenging may be appropriate in counteracting unrealistic expectations, which may be based on distorted perceptions of the world. Often emerging from community influences, these attitudes may relate to equal opportunities.

Immediacy, direct mutual talk, focuses on particular events in a session, maybe including direct praise or criticism of a comment or behaviour (Egan, 1998). This may be appropriate in periods of tension and other episodes within group dynamics.

Although clearly a part of Rogerian client-centred therapy, this may also be considered in terms of behavioural and social learning perspectives; comments will reinforce or provide cues for alternative ways of thinking and behaving.

Psychodynamic theories also suggest such dynamics as the transference and countertransference. Transference would mean members of the group unconsciously seeing the practitioner in a parental role (the 'child' state of transactional analysis). Countertransference means similar complications for the practitioner, viewing the clients in terms of significant other people.

Whichever model is involved, these interactions need to **take into account the general ability and developmental stage** of the group: this includes the previous experiences of the participants. Some form of assessment must be made 'on the hoof'.

Summarising has been mentioned hitherto in relation to the end of a session. In practice, however, summarising may be used at various points in the progress of a session. It may clarify content already covered, place different ideas in perspective, demonstrate mutual understanding and herald new directions (Brammer and MacDonald, 1996; Nelson-Jones, 1993). Egan (1998) also recommends summarising early on, when interactions seem to be going nowhere or clients get 'stuck'.

As well as the practitioner summarising to check that the group has the same understanding of concepts, participants themselves can be asked to summarise issues. Active learning is likely to strengthen the memory of what has been learned.

Group roles and power

The best known study of team roles are **Belbin's teams**. Belbin's study of successful team characteristics led him to describe 8 roles; it should be noted that these roles may be shared by persons in groups of less than 8.

The Chairman. Presides over the team, is well-disciplined, able to understand others and may delegate tasks.

The Shaper. A dominant person who is passionate about the task, whose drive is a spur to action.

The Plant. The source of ideas and proposals.

The Monitor-Evaluator. Analyses situations, sees flaws in arguments and acts as a checker of quality.

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The Resource-Investigator. A popular person who develops new contacts and can act as the diplomat.

The Company Worker. A practical organiser, who turns ideas into practicable schemes. Trustworthy and efficient.

The Team Worker. Holds the team together by being supportive and encouraging the efforts of others.

The Finisher. Interested in details, ensuring jobs finish.

Each of these may have some weaknesses implicit in the area of strength. Training sessions often work on enabling team members to recognise each other's strengths and create strategies for dealing with perceived team deficits.

Within groups, formal or informal, people have different types of power.

One formulation suggests 6 **power bases**, some of which are important in all contexts, others in few.

Physical power. This is more likely to dominate in informal groups, for example within cohorts of students, or within particularly traditional or macho environments.

Resource power. This may mean the ability to allocate money or grant status. Managers usually have this.

Position power. Often referred to as legitimate or legal power, this comes with a role in an organisation. Particularly in bureaucratic environments, control may cover access to information, facilities or communications.

Expert power. Although this is most likely to come to the fore in collegiate or small professional teams, this pre-eminence may occur anywhere. In guidance terms, the practitioner is likely to have this in a group session. Informally, one or more group members may also have this.

Personal power. Charisma or popularity may occur anywhere. It is hard to develop or examine, and may disintegrate.

Negative power. All sorts of power can be used to disrupt. Within all organisations, this may also be totally independent of other power bases; someone determined enough can sabotage the efforts of others.

For more details of team roles and bases of power, see Charles Handy's *Understanding Organizations* (1985), available in most libraries on Management shelves.

Group working, why do it?

In the case of group counselling, the rationale should be obvious. It should related to people who either share a need or problem; often, the latter may be an inability to get on with each other. A rationale should be available, as well as a plan with aims and expected results. This comment may seem obvious, but there was a time when group work was particularly fashionable and was often inappropriately favoured at the expense of individual guidance methods.

Welfare/advice and careers groups should be used to achieve specific learning outcomes. Plans for sessions should include activities - with times allocated - and objectives which may be measured to evaluate the success of the session.

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Group sessions may provide information, saving time in sessions with individuals to meet specific needs. They may be used to challenge common perceptions or to discover levels of knowledge and needs.

They may also promote necessary services and appropriate usage of facilities. Individuals do not always know what they need or how to meet their needs.

There may be a flow circuit between group and individual work. Individual sessions may lead to an awareness of collective needs. Group sessions may lead individuals to become aware of needs and to seek individual work. Individual progress may lead to progress within further groups.

11 GROUP WORK - PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS

Some points about conducting group sessions.

Exercises will not follow this section. Your knowledge of this area will almost certainly be demonstrated within your assessed sessions.

Have a start, middle and an end. As with Egan's 3 stage model of guidance interviewing, this means an introduction, exploration and conclusion.

Introduction

Do not skimp on this part of your session.

Ensure that participants know and agree with the aims of the session. Failing to understand the point of it, or considering the aims irrelevant or at the wrong level, are major de-motivators. When necessary, agree ground rules; this would be particularly important, for example, in a session relating to personal problems, where the confidentiality of other participants should be paramount as an issue.

Try to pitch the session at the right level. This should be according to levels of education, experience of the topic being dealt with and, where relevant, age and other factors. If possible, gear to the particular group when you prepare for the session. Fine-tune your session by discussing participants' current knowledge in your introduction; if you knew nothing of the make-up of the group, this may be a crucial stage of the session.

Exploration

Pacing and sequencing information. However effervescent and informative you are, it is possible to 'lose' members of the group. Apart from irrelevance, monotony or sameness is a problem. Just listening to you talking, for example, or conducting just one group activity for the whole session, would have this effect.

Break up 'talking to' with discussion of the points made. You then know if participants understand what has been discussed. You are also changing the pace; rapid flow of information by itself often means transfer from you to the students' notebooks - if you're lucky - without any time spent in their heads!

You may vary the activities. Maybe follow 'talking to' with group or individual exercises. Apart from keeping people interested, this improves learning. Participants are then being exercised rather than just passively learning; the rehearsal of skills or knowledge, along with variation in learning methods, are proven ways of deepening learning.

If the session really does require a didactic approach, i.e. you have a lot of information to impart quickly and must merely impose it on your group, then at least think how you can pace it effectively for maximum effect. Consider varying the media: speech, handouts (especially for vital information), overhead projector slides. If some of it is humorous, this may help to sugar the pill (make sure it *is* funny and also inoffensive). Where possible, try to ascertain understanding to some extent as you go.

Conclusion

Sometimes, the middle part of your session - usually the longest - may cover a lot of issues. Use the conclusion to sum up; without this, your people may go away with the wrong idea of what the discussion was all about. Prioritise rather than mention everything all over again.

Deal with questions. If there are none, ask questions of the participants; this should impress on their minds any lessons to be drawn from the session and may uncover issues to be discussed in future sessions.

Apart from *reviewing* the session, you may also use this time to *evaluate* the usefulness of the session. If the session is not seen as relevant or pitched at the right level, use the criticism to do better next time.

Where appropriate, *refer* to further and/or alternative sources of information. E.g. written resources, relevant counselling, guidance or advice services, etc.

Preparation

This varies according to organisations and individuals. A basic lesson plan should include, however, objectives (which should be 'SMART'; see self-development section for details); ordered activities (preferably with estimates of duration) and the facilities which you intend to use.

If a series of sessions is planned, a scheme of work is also recommended. If new to this sort of thing, you may find any book on teaching methods helpful.

12 EXERCISES RELATING TO GROUP WORK

Case Studies

Case Study 1.

Most of the group you are working with are active, having taken up your invitation to participate and question me. Two people still need to be included in what is going on. One person merely seems quiet, whilst the other seems actively resistant to participating, slouching and avoiding eye contact.

What technique or techniques would you use in this situation, and why?

Case Study 2.

At the start of one of your sessions, one of the people in the group starts to read a newspaper during your introduction.

What would you do in this situation, and why? What factors need to be considered when deciding what to do?

13 CVs – GENERAL POINTS

This section states some general principles. Different texts on the subjects offer differing styles, which will not be covered here.

1. **There is no 'model CV'**. Although it has to be true, it can be shaped to both reflect the person's strengths and to fit well with the desired target position. Content usually includes name, address, contact details, employment and qualifications.
2. **A CV is an advertisement for the applicant, not a full 'warts and all account'**. It may include general skills, interests, references, gender, age, marital status, resident status and possibly 'curriculum vitae' itself. All of these could be seen to be optional. Interests may be uninteresting, references may be 'available on request', personal details may not be considered acceptable to divulge and one's **name** may make a better heading than boring old **Curriculum Vitae**.
3. **The main presentation task is to slow down the rate at which the CV heads for the waste paper basket**. Again, ignore 'textbook' models in favour of two points: personal strengths and what the employee is looking for. Remember that an employer is not necessarily going to be interested in the welfare of any worthy stranger if they have dozens of cvs to look at; they may go on impressions. If the person has a stronger employment history than qualifications, then put employment first; or *vice-versa*. (The only general rule is that employers expect to see jobs covered from present or most recent first, going chronologically backwards). If all things are equal, then put first whichever the employer is more likely to be looking for.
4. **Don't bore the CV sifter**. Unless the employer has specifically asked for a full cv, 1 or 2 pages should suffice. Try to produce cvs which cover full pages, rather than a page with a 6 line hang-over. There are various things which may be left out. Full descriptions may not be necessary for all of a client's jobs; the most recent or particularly relevant positions, perhaps. As the person ages, certain other things may be omitted; early swimming certificates and primary school do not appear, and other achievements are eventually phased out as an individual ages. These things are always a matter of judgement: e.g. how much of a school's address should be included?

5. **Balance content, length and aesthetic looks.** Some books on the subject give subjects studied in long single columns; what is wrong with two (maybe three) columns across the page? On the other hand, don't avoid white spaces altogether. 'Tombstone' paragraphs, with blocks of text stretching from margin to margin, may be less than readable. With the possible exception of the name at the head of the cv, avoid having more than 2 fonts; garishness does not impress. In calculating size and style, consider questions such as: are titles such as 'name', 'address', 'phone number', strictly necessary?
6. **Preparation.** You may find sessions most effective if you can get the client to come in having written (preferably typed) all their details of employment and qualifications, skills and activities. They and you will find it easier to recall and tease out more details.
7. **Different types of cv.** Examples of these can be found in various books about CVs. (Perhaps the best is produced at quite a moderate price by the University of London's careers service.) Experience in creating CVs, however, will lead to your individualising these rather than concerning yourself too much with such a taxonomy.

Chronological: strictly by date order. Especially good with a history of steady progression, particularly if continuing in the same career direction. If the client's experience is limited, this is at least clear and to the point. It is less useful if there are gaps in employment, frequent career changes or factors to possibly play down.

Functional: main achievements organised in ability groupings (e.g. IT, communication, leadership, specialist skills). For career changers, periods of absence, etc. Not useful for the inexperienced.

Targeted: for those who are clear about their goal and what is needed. May be divided into skills and experience, citing examples of paid and unpaid experience. Useful for showing an employer a good fit with their particular requirements. Not for the inexperienced or for a wide range of jobs.

Hybrid: this is a variable document for the experienced and confident. An organised display is given of a particular range of skills and qualities. Not for when you need to show a progression of jobs. It is probably best only to venture into the unusual after experimenting with other types of cv, if they don't meet particular needs.

8. Encourage clients to keep a log of different CVs sent (on different computer files) and where sent. A pattern of success (or failure) to reach interviews may reflect upon the different styles used.

14 Applications, supporting statements and personal statements

Applications – the basics

(Givens: to really take seriously, work on a photocopy/sheet of paper first, keep a copy of what has been sent, complete in black biro)

1. Do not scatter-gun. Decide on a direction and stick at it.
1. Put in your best effort – they WILL notice if you don't.
1. 'Full' or 'complete' details means what it says. Where it doesn't, you may have licence to pick and choose.
1. Personal/supporting statements on application forms: these are *not* optional - they are important:

Writing supporting statements on application forms

Pay attention to the introductory sentence:

If you are told that the statement should address 'why you want to work for the company' and 'how you will be able to contribute', it wants answers to both.

In the latter case, you are helped by the Person Specification, which your application should be written around. The Person Specification is the document by which you will usually be measured in the shortlist decision.

The difference between Job Description/Specification and Person Specification.

The *job description* is a list of the tasks and responsibilities which you would be expected to undertake within the advertised position. You use this to decide if you want the job and it may well become the material for much of the interview.

The *person specification* lists the personal qualities and/or experience required of the candidate. The shortlisting process looks at which candidates match this (or come close). The statement should, therefore, run in the order of the person specification and should cite examples of how the criteria are met. This assists the sifting process.

The statement needs to address the specifications, also keeping in mind the introductory sentence. An *abbreviated* fictional example follows.

Marketing Researcher for *Carpets R Us*

Job Description

Designing questionnaires
Supervising telephone interviewers
Collating and interpreting data
Written reports
Presentations to Senior Management
Keeping up to date in research methods
Using SPSS statistics package

Person Specification

Essential

Experience

Previous employment in a commercial setting
Research work at least at higher education level
Preparation of written reports

Knowledge/Qualifications

Research design and methods, including quantitative methods
Numeracy and literacy to good GCSE level

Skills

Good telephone manner
Good oral communications
Use of information technology

Desirable

Experience

Management positions
Group presentations

Knowledge/Qualifications

Degree in statistics or marketing
Membership of an appropriate professional body

Skills

Use of teaching aids
Computer statistics packages, preferably SPSS or MiniStat
An example.

Supporting Statement: using only one page, tell us why you wish to work for CarpetsRUs and anything which you believe would support your application.

I wish to pursue a career in Market Research and believe that the position at CarpetsRUs will prove both a challenge and an opportunity to develop. As a market leader, CarpetsRUs demonstrate an innovative approach to marketing; I believe that I can be an asset in maintaining a leading edge, by high quality research combined with commercial awareness.

I am able to offer the following qualities:

Experience:

My work experience placement at Crabbs Keys gave me an understanding of stock control as well as customer attitudes. Part-time work at Burger King has given me experience of customer service, often under pressure. The latter job also included some supervisory work.

Project work on the HND included quantitative and qualitative research, particularly pertaining to customer behaviour in retail settings. The HND included a module devoted to Marketing, including analysis of market segmentation. All areas of the course included written work, including model reports. The placement at Crabbs was followed by an evaluation report. This was presented to the student group; other presentations for which I was responsible included a talk on the relevance of international economic trends for the citizens of Hammersmith. This included use of an overhead projector.

Knowledge/Qualifications:

Research design and methods were taught as part of the marketing module of HND Business Studies. I designed a questionnaire as part of my practical project and analysed the results of a fellow student's survey using correlations (Spearman). Other methods taught on the course were in-depth qualitative interviewing and tests of significant difference (Mann-Whitney; 59Wilcoxon), as well as the theory of econometrics. As well as the

statistical learning, I studied English and Mathematics in the final year of my Baccalaureate. I also hold GCSE English at grade C. I am a Student Member of the British Institute of [.....]

Skills:

In both of the above-mentioned work positions, I regularly dealt with customer enquiries over the telephone and formed part of a team. It was often necessary to discuss stock needs and areas of the workplace where additional attention was needed.

I am computer literate, using Word, Excel and Database. Although I have not used a statistics package before, I am confident of being able to quickly learn how to use one; as well as the above-mentioned packages, I taught myself how to use the stock control software at Crabbs and am generally keen on learning how to use different IT applications.

[The applicant has used the person specification, but puts 'essentials' and 'desirables' together to give a natural look and to diminish weak areas somewhat. Use student experiences where necessary. Use examples: "I can" is not enough.

Writing personal statements for higher education These should be written by the prospective students. The practitioner's role, in addition to general education about these, may be to suggest possible additions, challenge unwise entries and comment generally on style. Help which raises the application well above the general capability of the student, however, is likely to reflect badly upon the service within which you serve and may well lead to personal disaster for your client, gaining entry to a course for which he or she is not ready. **Main points:** **Think tutor:** when the student feels the need to make the statement fill the whole statement space (usually with waffle), try explaining the utter tedium of trying to read fifty of such statements. **The main points are required, and they are personal:** students should avoid introductory textbook discussions of their subject ('... ever expanding changing dynamic [subject] changing the world'). These say nothing about the person, who should be trying to distinguish him/herself from other people. Advice about possible entries are suggested in UCAS literature and elsewhere. The most important points are, and will probably remain, why the course is sought and what the student has to offer. Why do you want to study

French/IT/Zoology/Sociology/etc.?
□ The student may describe how they became interested in the subject
□ what they have read/studied in this field
□ any interests in specific sub-sections of the subject
□ particular parts of current studies which interest the student
□ and considerations of future study/career (not necessarily certain, but should have been thought about)
What can you offer? - give examples
□ Experience – performance within projects, at work, voluntary positions, etc
□ Personal qualities – students could discuss these with each other, as individuals usually find it difficult to address this unaided
□ Skills – other languages spoken, etc
□ Specific knowledge, especially where this is relevant to the course applied for (generally, not a rehash of the further education course)

When preparatory work has been completed, the applicant should attempt to order and adjust paragraphs in such a way that each follows the other as 'naturally' as possible. Where possible, the final sentence of one paragraph should to some extent 'flag up' the likely content of the next paragraph.

Where possible, emphasise the individual and the difference from other candidates, at least a taste of what the person is like.

15 A suggestion for dealing with career choice.

Guidance workers often encounter individuals with little idea of what may suit them. Although difficult, dealing with career direction is quite common and clearly within the remit of the guidance worker.

Sometimes, sufficient time devoted to the early stages of an interview, finding out about the individual and what they have been thinking about, may elicit ideas or indicators. Sometimes not.

One method of dealing with this is by using computer-aided guidance (e.g. *Adult Directions* career test, an instrument of great precision, or CareerSteer career test). Sometimes, however, an individual will not find that the results strike a chord; there are also times when the practitioner does not have such an instrument to hand.

One method, used by the author, is to 'float balloons' to be shot down by the client.

Returning briefly to the latter stages of the section on *The Psychology of Guidance*, the reader is reminded of Holland's trait-factor theory. Essentially, you are going to perform a form of computer-aided guidance, from the depths of your own brain!

Remember that Holland's research indicates 6 personality types – Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional - RIASEC. I draw here from Dr. Jenny Kidd, 1994, *Life Career Development guide*, Birkbeck College, University of London, adapted from Holland, J., 1985, *The Self-Directed Search: Professional Manual*, Odessa, Florida, Psychological Assessment Resources).

Realistic. (R) Likes realistic jobs such as mechanic, surveyor, farmer, electrician. Has mechanical abilities, but may lack social skills. May be described as:

Asocial	Inflexible	Practical
Conforming	Materialistic	Self-effacing
Frank	Natural	Thrifty
Genuine	Normal	Uninsightful
Hardheaded	Persistent	Uninvolved

Investigative. (I) Likes investigative jobs such as biologist, chemist, physicist, anthropologist, medical technologist. Has mathematic and scientific ability, but often lacks leadership ability. May be described as:

Analytical	Independent	Rational
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Cautious	Intellectual	Reserved
Critical	Introspective	Retiring
Complex	Pessimistic	Unassuming
Curious	Precise	Unpopular

Artistic. (A) Likes artistic jobs, such as composer, musician, stage director, writer, interior decorator, actor. Has writing, musical or artistic abilities but often lacks clerical skills. May be described as:

Complicated	Imaginative	Intuitive
Disorderly	Impractical	Nonconforming
Emotional	Impulsive	Open
Expressive	Independent	Original
Idealistic	Introspective	Sensitive

Social. (S) Likes social jobs such as teacher, religious worker, counsellor, clinical psychologist, speech therapist. Has social skills and talents, but often lacks mechanical and scientific ability. May be described as:

Ascendent	Helpful	Responsible
Cooperative	Idealistic	Sociable
Empathic	Kind	Tactful
Friendly	Patient	Understanding
Generous	Persuasive	Warm

Enterprising. (E) Likes enterprising jobs such as salesperson, manager, business executive, television producer, buyer. Has leadership and speaking abilities but often lacks scientific ability. May be described as:

Acquisitive	Energetic	Flirtatious
Adventurous	Excitement-seeking	Optimistic
Agreeable	Exhibitionist	Self-confident
Ambitious	Extroverted	Sociable

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Conventional. (C) Likes conventional jobs such as bookkeeper, financial analyst, banker, tax expert. Has clerical and arithmetic ability, but often lacks artistic abilities. May be described as:

Careful	Inflexible	Persistent
Conforming	Inhibited	Practical
Conscientious	Methodical	Prudish
Defensive	Obedient	Thrifty
Efficient	Orderly	Unimaginative

This taxonomy may be used in different ways. The author's balloon-float method is to explain the theory briefly to the client and suggest different categories, accompanied by a sample of the types of pertinent job. Where I already have some sort of 'taste' of the client, I try the least likely traits first, so that longer discussion can wait until later.

As with other methods of careers guidance, facial expression, especially glints in the eyes, can be used to gauge levels of interest in particular types of work. Often, the client will be interested in more than one. Individual judgement is required to look at likely interactions between traits, as opposed to picking one trait or the other, but that is a matter for experience. The practitioner should, however, find some interesting career choice discussions emerging from such an approach.

16 LABOUR MARKET TRENDS

Essential trends within Britain from the late 1990s, projected until at least 2006. (*2008 editing.*)

The service sector is expanding, manufacturing in decline. The service sector ranges from catering to financial services, leisure to health and social care.

There is a paradox here, however: while the better jobs within the service sector are still subject to fierce competition, with an increasing need for higher qualifications, there are many manufacturing-related vacancies, particularly in engineering. It may well be that the skills shortages in engineering and science are partly caused by the perception of British manufacturing as in its death throes: young people have seen no future there and failed to train or apply for jobs. As a result in the longer term, there are considerable opportunities within these apparently failing sectors for those with an interest.

Rapid increase in computing, information and other forms of new technology. Although this may go without saying, some points should be noted. Applicants still need to be suited these career routes to make a success of them. Computing, where people are likely to design and create hardware and software, requires people with a good grasp of mathematics and, in particular, an ability to work logically. Demand is likely to endure in this area. Information technology, much more related to the use of computer applications that have already been built (databases, spreadsheets, networks, integrated business systems), is less demanding in terms of scientific aptitude, but still requires a disciplined mind and a liking for computers. The communications industry should not be overlooked for possible career routes. *Jobs in computing are less easy to find than they were.*

It should also be noted that more than a narrow core of knowledge is required in computing. Recent research by the author into the needs of employers in the sector reveal that a good general level of education is also needed, as well as communication and team skills. Those without any computer knowledge or general education who are tempted by the opportunity to train quickly (e.g. taking MCSE examinations) are likely to either fail at interview or soon into their new job.

Smaller companies employ more people than the conglomerates. People may be attracted to the idea of entering 'big name' firms. Depending on the person's preferences and aptitudes, they may find more varied experiences and interpersonal relations within a smaller organisation, where disciplines may overlap all the time, rather than in one department of a larger one. A person with less of a liking for unclear boundaries, however, may prefer the corporate approach.

Qualifications proliferate. Although this is more of an academic issue (literally), this is an important factor in career progression. GNVQ Intermediate, BTEC First Certificate and some City & Guilds qualifications, along with NVQ2, work alongside GCSE ('O' Levels). GNVQ Advanced, BTEC National Diploma and other C&G qualifications, run in parallel with GCE 'A' levels. The new 'Curriculum 2000' modularises and mixes and matches GNVQ Advanced and 'A'/AS levels; these are becoming vocational A levels.

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Within higher education, beneath full degree level, the traditional HND/HNC (Higher National Diploma/Certificate) - a vocational course - may become confounded with new 'foundation degrees' as a way of progressing towards a degree.

Many other qualifications (e.g. specialist diplomas) have been introduced.

17 SUGGESTED READING

Argenti, J. (1993) *Your Organization: What is it for?* Maidenhead, Berkshire: McGraw-Hill. (not an introductory book on management, but an eye-opening scathing criticism of modern management practice with some positive suggestions - if planning to manage anything, read this)

Arnold, J., Robertson, I.T. and Cooper, C. L. (1991) *Work Psychology: Understanding human behaviour in the workplace*, London: Pitman. (Good readable overall view)

Arthur, M.B., Hall, D.T. and Lawrence, B.S. (eds.) (1989) *Handbook of Career Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (comprehensive, but very 'academic')

Ashton, D. and Lowe, G. (1991) *Making Their Way - Education, Training and the Labour Market in Canada and Britain*. Buckingham: Open University Press. (comparative studies)

Barrow, R. R. R. and Woods, R. (1975) *An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*. London: Methuen. (useful in disentangling issues of what is education and what should it do)

Bartol, K.M. and Martin, D.C. (1994) *Management*. London: McGraw-Hill. (useful introductory survey - comprehensive)

Bates, I., Clarke, J., Cohen, P., Finn, D., Moore, R. and Willis, P. (1984) *Schooling for the Dole? The New Vocationalism*. London: Macmillan.

Berne, E. (1964) *Games People Play*. London: Penguin. (transactional analysis approach to thinking about others and yourself - one way of looking at self-development)

Berne, E. (1974) *What Do You Say After You Say Hello?* London: Corgi. (see above)

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Brammer, L. M. and MacDonald, G. (1996) *The Helping Relationship: Process and Skills*. London: Allyn & Bacon.

DES (1981) *Schools and Working Life: Some Initiatives*. London: HMSO.

Douglas, T. (1978) *Basic Groupwork*. London: Tavistock.

Dryden, W. & Watts, A.G. (1993) *Guidance & Counselling in Britain: a 20-year perspective*. Cambridge: CRAC.

(contains many useful articles, including Roberts' caustic analysis of influences on young people's lives - recommended)

Egan, G. (1998) *The Skilled Helper* (6th. edn.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole. (any edition of this book would do: note in particular his 3 stages of intervention - various professionals have different versions of contracting, exploring and concluding; also examine Egan's use of counselling skills - recommended).

Frost, D., Edwards, A. and Reynolds, H. (eds) (1995) *Careers Education and Guidance*. London: Kogan Page.

Hall, D. T. and Associates (1986) *Career Development in Organizations*. London: Jossey-Bass. (primarily for the organisational or outplacement consultant)

Handy, C. (1985) *Understanding Organizations*. London: Penguin. (perhaps oversimplified, but probably the widest used introductions to management - readable)

Hannagan, T.J. (1992) *Marketing for the Non-profit sector*. London: Macmillan.

Hargreaves, D.H. and Hopkins, D. (1991) *The Empowered School*. London: Cassell Educational.

Hutton, W. (1995) *The State We're In*. London: Vintage. (classic attack on Thatcherite political economy)

Jones, K. (1983) *Beyond Progressive Education*. London: MacMillan. (examines the swings in educational trends)

Klein, J. (1963) *Working with Groups*. London: Hutchinson.

Kolb, D.A. (1984) *Experiential Learning Experience as a Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall. (influential training theorist)

Masson, J. (1992) *Against Therapy*. London: Harper-Collins. (the antidote to that helping feeling: an at times frightening attack on the practice of psychotherapy - readable)

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Morris, M. and Stoney, S. (1996) *An Evaluation of the Performance of Pathfinder Careers Services*. NFER.

Murdock, A. and Scutt, C. (1993) *Personal Effectiveness*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. (useful for self-analysis and development methods)

Nathan, R. and Hill, L. (1992) *Career Counselling*. London: SAGE. (probably the best overall specialist book on practising adult guidance - see also Yost and Corbishley)

Nelson-Jones, R. (1993) *Practical Counselling and Helping Skills: How to Use the Lifeskills Helping Model*. London: Cassell.

Osipow, S.H. (1973) *Theories of Career Development*. East Norwalk, Conn.: Appleton-Century-Crofts. (quite comprehensive)

Rees, T. (1992) *Women and the Labour Market*. London: Routledge.

Reynolds, M. (1994) *Groupwork in Education and Training: ideas in practice*. London: Kogan Page.

Rodger, A. (1952) *The Seven Point Plan*. London: National Institute of Industrial Psychology. (traditional approach)

Rogers, C. (1961) *On Becoming a Person*. London: Constable.
(famous humanist theorist; inspired use of counselling skills, although extension to a theory of personality is controversial)

Schein, E.H. (1978) *Career Dynamics: Matching Individual And Organizational Needs*. London: Addison-Wesley. (important theorist, particularly for adult vocational development)

Seligman, L. (1994) *Developmental Career Counselling & Assessment*. London: Sage.

Walsh, W.B. and Osipow, S.H. (eds.) (1983) *Handbook of Vocational Psychology*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Walsh, W.B. & Osipow, S.H. (eds.) (1990) *Career Counselling: Contemporary Topics in Vocational Psychology*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Erlbaum. (contains many useful articles)

Warr, P.B. (ed.) (1987) *Psychology at Work* (3rd. edition). Harmondsworth: Penguin. (useful articles about such subjects as the efficacy of interviews, the effects of unemployment, etc.)

Watson, A., Stuart, N. and Lucas, D. (1995) *Impact of New Management Arrangements in Pathfinder Careers Services*. Department of Education and Employment.

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Watts, A.G., Law, B., Killeen, J, Kidd, J.M. and Hawthorn, R. (1996) *Rethinking careers education and guidance*. London: Routledge. (comprehensive; recommended)

Whittington, R. (1993) *What is Strategy and does it matter?* London: International Thomson Business Press.

Yost, E.B. & Corbishley, M.A. (1987) *Career Counseling: A Psychological Approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (alternative to Nathan and Hill for adult guidance)

A selective read is suggested, particularly aimed at your particular gaps in knowledge, current work environment and other individual needs. Consult with your tutor/assessor and consider borrowing from college or public libraries, as most of these books are expensive.

Postscript

CareerSteer is now offered as a free career test for assisting the public in career choice. See www.careersteer.org to help find career direction.

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