DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 367 925 CG 025 297

TITLE	CACD Journal, Volume 11, 1990-91.
INSTITUTION	California Association for Counseling and Development, Fullerton.
PUB DATE	91
NOTE	71p.; Published annually, for 1991-92 and 1992-93, see CG 025 298-299.
AVAILABLE FROM	CACD, 2555 East Chapman Ave., Fullerton, CA 92631 ($4 members, $8 non-members).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT	CACD Journal; v11 1991
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Career Counseling; College Environment; Counseling Services; *Counselor Role; *Counselors; Educational Change; Employee Assistance Programs; Guidance Programs; *Pupil Personnel Services; Stress Management; Student College Relationship; Student Volunteers
IDENTIFIERS	Computer Assisted Career Guidance; Kuder Occupational Interest Survey; Myers Briggs Type Indicator

ABSTRACT

Along with messages from the editor and CACD's president, this issue offers: (1) "The New Guidance: A Systems Approach to Pupil Personnel Programs" (Johnson and Johnson); (2) "Public Sector Employee Assistance Programs" (Kemp and Verlinde); (3) "An Update on Stress Management" (Weiner); (4) "Campus-based Volunteerism: Moving Into a 'You-and-Me' College Student Generation" (Beeler); (5) "Counselor and Client Uses of Computer-assisted Career Information Delivery Systems" (Olson); (6) "Reviews of Career Guidance Instruments" (Bauernfeind). The "Features" section includes: (1) "1968-69 CPGA President's Message" (Hoover); (2) "As a Glowworm Giveth: The Investiture of Counseling" (Jones); (3) "Academic Advisors, Computers, and CAN: The Future of Academic Counseling" (Emerling); (4) "White, Male and Human" (Baker). Bibliographies are also included. (BF)

Volume 11 1990-91

CACD JOURNAL

PAT NELLOR WICKWIRE
Editor

An Official Publication of the California Association for Counseling and Development

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An Official Publication
of the
California Association for Counseling and Development
654 East Commonwealth Avenue
Fullerton, CA 92631
(714) 871-6460

The CACD Journal (ISSN 1052-3103) is the official journal of the California Association for Counseling and Development. CACD members receive the **CACD Journal** as a benefit of CACD membership. Single copies are available at $4.00 each to members, and at $8.00 each to nonmembers. Address correspondence about membership to CACD, Attention: CACD Membership.

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California Association for Counseling and Development

CACD Journal

Volume 11 1990-91

Table of Contents

THE EDITOR'S MESSAGE

Pat Nellor Wickwire

In this issue of the CACD JOURNAL, the authors reinforce the 1990-91 CACD theme, "Counseling: The Leading Edge for Maximizing Human Potential." Counseling is presented as both responsible for change and responsive to change — for leading in supporting the best for clients and the profession. The articles reflect advocacy for common goals and inquiry toward alternative approaches.

CACD President John M. Hall introduces this issue with an emphasis on the valuable opportunities for the members of CACD and the profession to benefit from the CACD JOURNAL and other CACD offerings. He invites members to contribute and to share.

Calling for proactive change in school guidance, Sharon K. Johnson and Clarence D. Johnson propose a program that targets accountability for student results. Donna R. Kemp and Beverly Verlinde review the growth of public employee assistance programs, and outline the development of a state program.

Richard S. Weiner offers an overview of stress management, and recommends prevention and early intervention by multidisciplinary teams. Kent D. Beeler describes an increase in volunteerism among college students, and suggests opportunities for professional contributions.

Gerald T. Olson, reporting on a survey of 19 computer-assisted career information delivery systems, identifies features with potential for clients and counselors. Robert H. Bauernfeind and his committee present reviews of three instruments used in assessment in career guidance.

Two new features appear in this issue. "Building the Counseling Profession" features significant events and offerings in the history and development of the counseling profession in California. Richard Hoover offers a vision of goal-directed commitment to the profession.

"The Personal Side of Counseling" features feelings, opinions, and attitudes within and about the counseling and human development profession. In this issue Wendell H. Jones presents inspirational reflections on counseling and counselees. Fred Emerling writes of the dissonance of policy decisions, program delivery, and client needs, and calls for action. John Baker declares personal commitment to human rights for all.

The CACD commitment to personal and professional benefit is clear. The CACD JOURNAL is part of this. CACD JOURNAL readers are cordially invited to enjoy this issue, and to submit manuscripts about interests and achievements in the counseling and human development profession.

CACD PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

John Hall

The California Association for Counseling and Development provides professional and personal growth opportunities for all of its members through the diversified activities and services it offers. The *CACD Journal* is an excellent vehicle for members to contribute to others' professional development, as well as to be recognized for making a contribution to the counseling profession.

The *CACD Journal* is a joint effort that takes a great deal of coordination and cooperation on the part of the editorial board and the individual contributors who have submitted articles. The efforts have been under the direction of Pat Nellor Wickwire, who is the editor for the *CACD Journal.* She has been extremely instrumental in the development of the *CACD Journal* and continues to insure that we have an excellent publication for the 1990-91 Volume 11.

The *CACD Journal* provides a well-rounded collection of articles with value for all of us. The expertise in the counseling field rests in the hands of our membership. It is fortunate that we have the opportunity to share an idea, experience, theory, or practice in the *CACD Journal* with other members. After reading this issue, please give consideration to being a contributor to our future volumes.

The *CACD Journal* will be an extension of the 1990-91 CACD theme of "Counseling—The Leading Edge for Maximizing Human Potential."

John M. Hall is Coordinator of Counseling Services for the Los Angeles Unified School District.

The New Guidance: A Systems Approach to Pupil Personnel Programs

Sharon K. Johnson and Clarence D. Johnson

Abstract

A systems approach to pupil personnel programs is presented as an effective contribution to the education reform movement. The new guidance program is proactive, developmental, and preventive, with emphasis on counselor accountability for student results.

"What do counselors do?" This perennial question continues to drive the actions and communications of counselors in many schools across the nation. Education has undergone extensive examination and revision in a variety of areas in the past few years. Yet, school counseling is an area which has gone largely untouched. Although new paradigms have been suggested, they are essentially old models with elements added to adjust to new teaching and administration models.

The time for change in guidance programs is imminent. Calls for educational reform started in the 1970s and became a national concern in the 1980s with numerous reports being published by the U. S. Government, university and college personnel, educational organizations and foundations, and individuals. Some results from the reform movement include changing to year-round schools, developing strategies for creating more effective schools, school-site management, magnet schools, business-school partnerships, and home schooling. Other changes include involving non-educators in decision-making at both the district and school-building levels. The Copernican Plan (Carroll, 1989) offers a different time structure for delivery of curriculum, and cooperative learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1986) provides an alternative classroom teaching strategy. The use of learning and teaching styles is now part of classroom instructional methods (ASCD, 1990). With all the changes in the educational structure, however, there has been little, if any, difference in the way guidance and counseling is provided to students.

Although education has undergone suggested definitional changes (Finn, 1990), most guidance programs remain the same. This remains true despite the fact that many of the educational reform studies addressed guidance. In analyzing 29 reform reports, Hoyt (1989) found the following:

1. In 8 studies that addressed K-12 reforms, 3 criticized guidance and only one called for more counselors.
2. In 13 studies that viewed education as preparation for work, only 6 called for an increase in guidance.
3. In 8 studies that looked at specific subgroups, 5 criticized guidance as being ineffective, while 3 did not mention guidance or counseling.

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Hoyt (1989) made the point that counselors must begin to operate as a part of a comprehensive support services team. A recently released (August, 1990) initial rough draft of a philosophy statement by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing Pupil Personnel Services Advisory Panel stated, "These professionals (Pupil Personnel Services specialists) are partners with other educators, parents, and the community, working to maintain high expectations for all pupils, facilitate pupils reaching their highest potential, foster optimum teaching and learning conditions, and prevent school failure . . . The needs of pupils demand that pupil personnel services specialists work together by uniting their skills as a team to provide comprehensive, coordinated programs and services on behalf of all pupils and their families" (p. 1).

The idea of teaming with other professionals, as well as non-educators in the community at large, has been adopted by many schools and school district leaders in setting priorities and in getting financial support. Yet, teaming by counselors has been slow to develop. With the financial constraints caused by years of political rhetoric and budget cuts, schools have large classroom teacher-pupil ratios, as well as large counselor-student ratios. The concept of "downsizing," that is, doing more with less, has led to more "add-on" responsibilities for already overloaded guidance personnel.

The Add-on Guidance Model

The "add-on model" is the result of reactive guidance programs and the result of leadership or lack of leadership in pupil personnel programs. In the beginning, guidance was established to help students to match their skills with available job options. This period was followed by the add-on of mental health counseling. Next was a move to emphasize college and university placement and assistance in helping students find financial aids. The mission of NDEA-V was to educate counselors to advise more students to take science and math. The result of these trends was the development of programs to prepare counselors to do primarily individual and group counseling. In the 1960s counselors were admonished to lower student drop-out rates, in the 1970s they were career development and educational specialists, and in the 1980s they were called upon to be drug and child abuse prevention specialists. During the 1970s and 1980s, the add-ons (Aubrey, 1985), included helping children cope with broken families and alienation from adult society, economic downsizing, and AIDS. One major add-on was to help students and their parents to cope with the rapidly changing society. The added responsibilities continue to grow, yet few, if any, assigned responsibilities have been deleted.

These add-ons are indicative that many populations regard school-based counselors as the professionals with answers to the many problems brought to schools by the students and their parents. These answers include how to get into a university or college, how to access financial aid, how to keep students off drugs and alcohol, how to motivate students to stay in school and increase their learning, and how to help parents set up learning rituals in the home. The "add-on" approach has caused some of the trends in current guidance and counseling programs.

Current Trends

Too many add-ons resulted in a reaction by one school district in which counselors were eliminated, replaced by guidance technicians who do all the

scheduling and record keeping. Career development is addressed through classroom units, added on to the classroom teacher's responsibility. School psychologists address the needs of students with serious emotional and learning problems. College and career fairs are coordinated by central office staff and are held during evening hours. Other guidance-related needs of students are not addressed in this approach. Other solutions have been less drastic, but equally inventive in trying to find answers:

1. A second trend is called guaranteed guidance services (White, 1981). This program guarantees that counselors provide specific services, but does not address student results.
2. Teacher-advisor and mentoring programs (Myrick, R., & Myrick, L., 1990) have re-emerged and are gaining support as an alternative to the add-on programs. These approaches hold the teacher-advisors or mentors accountable for certain guidance results, while counselors handle added-on duties.
3. Another program that has gained popularity is the time-on-task guidance model (Gysbers & Henderson, 1988). This approach suggests that counselors spend 100% of their time teaching guidance curriculum units, doing individual planning, providing responsive services, and providing system support. In this model counselors are accountable for their time, the tasks, and the student outcomes.
4. Emerging in Indiana is the concept that guidance is a community responsibility. Parents, businesses, government agencies, organizations, and school personnel all contribute to the program (Herr, 1989).
5. Another perspective has been advanced by an exemplary counselor re-training model, Mentoring, which calls for counselors to re-train their colleagues (Anderson, 1989). Ancillary to this model is a trend that focuses on career ladders/lattices (Johnson, 1987, & Steinberg, 1989), which encompasses a form of differential staffing to make more effective use of counselors' time and other resources.

These reactions to the pressures caused by add-ons have a loosely connected direction: a move toward individual and program accountability. There is also a major split among the trends. Some are designed primarily to focus on the counselors, counselor responsibilities, and use of counselors' time; these trends identify the counselor as the primary client in the efforts to reform guidance. The other branch identifies the student as the primary client, and designs all reform efforts in terms of the results for students.

The *new guidance* is a total pupil services program developed with the student as the primary client. The program is designed to guarantee that *all* students acquire the competencies to become successful in school and to make a successful transition from school to higher education, to employment, or to a combination of higher education and work.

Paradigm Shift

Education is undergoing a new conceptualization. "Under the old conceptualization, education was thought of as process and system, effort and intention, investment and hope. To improve education meant to try harder, to engage in more activity, to magnify one's plans, to give people more ser-

vices, and to become more efficient in delivering them" (Finn, 1990, p. 586). Similarly, guidance has been stuck in an old model that was revised by reacting to other people's priorities, working harder and implementing systems of accountability for services provided and the time expended. Barker (1987), in a video on futures, reviews Kuhn's (1970) work on paradigm shifts, indicating that one's view or perspective on a given subject serves as a screen or filter, making it impossible to see conflicting information clearly. This phenomenon in guidance has kept us from recognizing the need to reconceptualize and reframe the guidance field.

The quality of an organization can be judged by the quality of the questions it chooses to answer. "The important element in decision making is *defining the question*" (Drucker, 1971). In guidance, we have spent many years trying to define our field by answering the wrong question. The question "What do counselors do?" leads us in an endless circle of describing a variety of processes and services available to students and staff. As these processes change, the answer to the question has to be readdressed to respond to many publics. The new paradigm question to answer is "How are students different as a result of the guidance program?" Clearly, if students do not benefit from a guidance program by acquiring new knowledge or skills, then there is little need to continue the program.

To get a clearer picture, the following contrasts between traditional "add-on" programs and the *new guidance* program are offered:

1. *Focus on Student Results:* The *new guidance* approach has evolved from the idea of students' need for a comprehensive, developmental guidance program. The difference between this guidance program and "add-on" services is a basic philosophic difference between (a) offering students an opportunity to experience and benefit from guidance at their own request and (b) providing a planned, sequential program in which counselors take responsibility for assuring that all students gain specific guidance-related competencies. Services have traditionally been based on student demand and local school need. Competencies are based on identified educational, career, and personal/social needs of students.

2. *Accountability:* Accountability in the *new guidance* is for student results. Traditionally accountability in guidance has used a role and function statement to define what a counselor does, and to approximate the amount of time spent on each function. In the *new guidance*, it is assumed that students learn differently; and, therefore, a variety of processes will have to be used to ensure success for all students. In current programs, specific processes are established for all counselors; and, therefore, only a percentage of the students can be expected to learn.

3. *Teaming:* Traditionally, counselors have worked as individuals attempting to meet all the needs of their assigned students. In the new approach, counselors work as a team utilizing the unique interests and skills of each to accomplish results. This concept legitimizes the inclusion of differentiated staffing, leading to the possibility of career ladders and lattices. In addition, there is much interest now in developing student support teams in which counselors, school psychologists, child welfare and attendance specialists, and others work as a team. Working closely as a team with other pupil personnel professionals reduces territorial disputes, reduces duplication of efforts, and expands the program to encompass all students.

4. *Inductively Planned:* The *new guidance* program is developed by counselors, using research based on student needs as the source of student competencies to be addressed. Traditionally, counseling services have been designed based on needs assessments, that is, asking teachers, students, parents, administrators, and community members what counselors should do.

5. *Program Evaluation:* The *new guidance* program evaluation is based on the number of students who demonstrate the competencies learned. Guidance programs are usually evaluated on the number of students receiving services, the number of services offered to students, and how the students felt about the services. Traditionally, counselors have spent 90% of their time with 10% of the students. The goal of the new approach is for counselors to spend 90% of their time with 90% of the students.

6. *Counselor Evaluation:* Counselors are no longer evaluated in competition with their colleagues, with all counselors being measured by the same criteria (role and function statements). *New guidance* counselors are evaluated on their success in providing students with guidance-related competencies. A counselor's success in this system is based on the ability to create, select, and implement processes to reach student results. Counselors are encouraged to work as a team in conjunction with other pupil personnel professionals and other staff members to maximize the use of their individual skills and interests to reach all students.

7. *Management/Leadership:* The role of the administrator becomes one of negotiating results and plans, monitoring processes, and coaching for new behaviors rather than directing the activities of the counselors and judging their effectiveness based on elusive criteria or criteria developed for use with teachers.

8. *Systems-oriented: Proactive, Developmental, Preventive:* The *new guidance* is proactive, that is, counselors must reach out to all students rather than wait for students to request services. It is developmental, that is, designed to address expected concerns/needs associated with normal stages of development. It is preventive, that is, planned to occur on a systematic basis, before crises necessitate emergency or remedial actions. This approach expands the role of the pupil personnel services specialist to include an educational role. Traditionally, counselors wait for the "teachable moment," and try through crisis intervention to assist students to solve their problems.

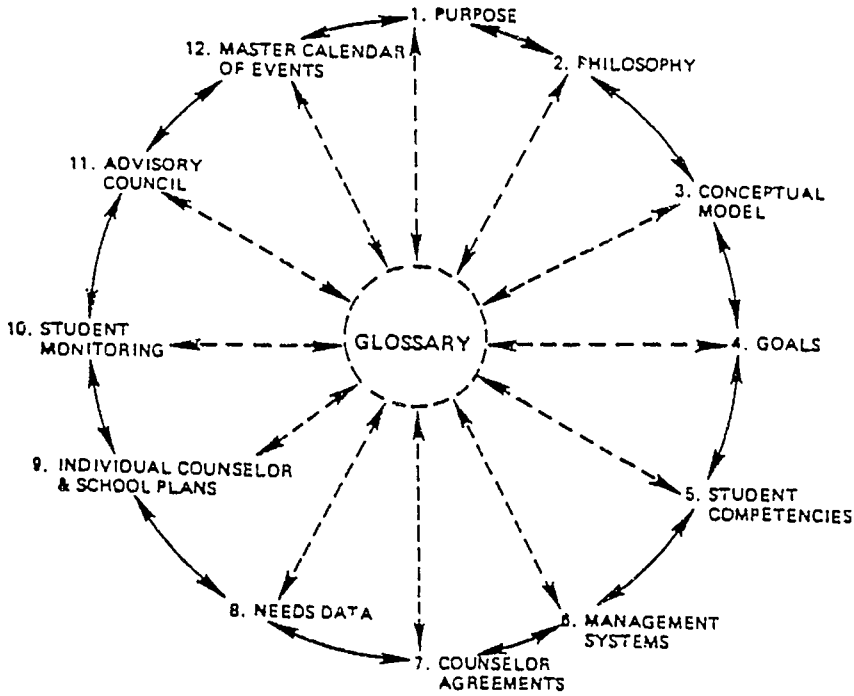
Program Elements

The *new guidance* program consists of a system of elements which are interrelated and interdependent. It also provides congruence with the school district's philosophy, curriculum, and other programs. This system of elements is shown in Figure 1.

The elements of the *new guidance* program are as follows:

1. *Purpose:* The statement of purpose articulates the intentionality of the guidance and/or pupil services program. It provides direction for all student goals and program activities by specifying the desired long-range (5 to 10 years) outcomes for ALL students. It shows linkage with the statement of purpose or mission of the administration and the board of education.

Figure 1. Elements of the new guidance program.



2. *Philosophy:* The philosophy is a set of guiding principles that are used in the development, implementation, and evaluation of the program. The principles (usually a set of "we agree" statements) address all students, focus on prevention, specify the management system, indicate how counselors will maintain their professional competencies, and indicate the ethical guidelines.

3. *Conceptual Model of Guidance:* A conceptual model of guidance or pupil services provides a framework for student goals and competencies. It provides a glossary, and it has a basis in research. The conceptual model serves as an organizer for all elements of the program.

4 *Goals:* Goals are an extension of the statement of purpose and define the desired results to be met by the time the student is ready to graduate. They are stated in terms of what the students are to achieve, for example, how to learn, to work, to relate to others, to use leisure time effectively.

5. *Competencies:* Competencies consist of specific knowledge, attitudes and skills operationally defined by grade level for all students. They are developmental and measurable.

6. *Management System (Data Flow Schedule):* The management system is the process by which accountability for results is established. It identifies who is responsible for students acquiring pre-determined competencies, which data will be generated, how the data will be collected, and when the

data will be submitted to the administrator. There is a clear division between the student results for which counselors assume accountability and duties assigned by administration.

7. *Results Agreements:* These agreements are responsibility statements made by each counselor, specifying the results for which she/he will be accountable. The results are delineated in terms of the competencies students will achieve and are related to the program goals. The results agreements include a separate section for all assigned duties. The administrator responsible for the guidance program is active in the negotiation of the results agreements. A district director of pupil personnel services, or comparable position, audits the results agreements to assure that the assigned duties are not disproportionate to the duties of teachers.

8. *Needs Assessment:* Needs are the gap between the desired results and results that are being achieved. They are directly related to the goals and student competencies defined for the program.

9. *Results Plans:* The plans completed by the counselors indicate how the results will be achieved. The plan contains the competency; criteria for success; who will do what, where, and when; the activities and resources; and how the evaluation will be done.

10. *Monitoring Systems:* This is the process of ensuring that each student acquires the specified guidance competencies. It is a system designed to communicate, to the student and the parent, the individual student's progress in attaining guidance-related goals.

11. *Advisory Council:* A committee that consists of representation of those groups affected by the program, that is, parents, teachers, pupil personnel services staff, administration, local community groups, and students, when appropriate. The purpose is to review guidance program results and recommend priorities to the appropriate administrative body.

12. *Master Calendar of Events:* A calendar of guidance events is published to communicate program activities to allow students, teachers, parents, and administrators to know what, when, and where activities are scheduled. This element serves as a communication vehicle for increased visibility of the program in the school, the district, and the community.

13. *Glossary:* The glossary ensures clarity of all terms included in the description of the program. It is imperative that guidance and counseling throw off the cloak of mysticism in order for others to work comfortably with counselors as team members. The glossary is a definition of terms written at a basic reading level, to ensure that team members, administrators, students, parents, and community members clearly understand all aspects of the program.

Summary

The time for change in the structure of guidance programs has arrived. The *new guidance program* offers an alternative to existing programs by making the paradigm shift to guaranteed guidance results. The way one sees and thinks about guidance must undergo a fundamental change, if guidance is to escape from the add-on syndrome. The *new guidance* focuses on the student as the primary client, not on the services being provided. By clearly identifying individual accountability for specific student results,

counselors are encouraged to break out of established boundaries, to become more creative, and to involve others in the process. Involving others also provides a way to share one's skills, build a caring community, and expand the resources available to help students.

The *new guidance* program, also referred to as competency-based guidance or results-based guidance, is currently being implemented in part or in whole in 27 states and 9 countries. In every location, as the program visibility, accountability, and communication have improved, support for guidance programs has increased verbally and, in most cases, financially. Perhaps the most encouraging reports come from counselors currently implementing the program, who indicate that they have gained control over their programs and their time, and are recognized as professionals who are making differences in students' competence and confidence.

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Public Sector Employee Assistance Programs

Donna R. Kemp and Beverly Verlinde

ABSTRACT

Employee assistance programs (EAPs) have been developed to help employees deal with personal problems that seriously affect job performance. The authors specifically address EAPs in the public sector, and describe the establishment of an EAP on a public university campus.

Employee assistance programs (EAPs) have been developed by government and industry to help employees deal with personal problems that seriously affect job performance. The philosophy behind EAPs is that it is more desirable, both economically and socially, to rehabilitate previously proven and trained employees than to terminate them.

Although some employee counseling and social service programs go back to the turn of the century, the real growth of EAPs began during and after World War II with the development of occupational alcohol programs. In the 1970s, with the growing recognition of the impact of drug, psychological, marital, financial, and other difficulties on employees, EAPs became broadbrush programs to address many problems.

EAPs have been developing as a way for employees to deal with productivity and disciplinary problems and as a tool for risk management. EAPs have also been seen as a way to address employer health care costs through a prevention and promotion model. In addition, they have been used as a low-cost employee benefit for employees and their dependents.

Research on EAPs is in the process of development. Much of the literature is descriptive or prescriptive and is practitioner-focused (Kemp, 1989). Relatively little empirical research has been completed. Although some information may apply to EAPs in both the public and private sector (Bureau of National Affairs, 1987; Johnson, 1986), little information specifically addresses application in the public sector. The purpose of this article is to examine the literature briefly in regard to the extent and context of EAPs in the public sector and then to describe the development of an EAP at a state university.

Federal, State, and Local EAPs

There are over 80,000 governmental jurisdictions in the United States (federal, state, counties, municipalities, townships, and special districts). Government employment accounts for over one out of six employees (Dye & Zeigler, 1987). There are no exact figures on how many of these public

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entities have EAPs. A 1987 survey of the membership of the Association of Labor Management Administrators and Consultants on Alcoholism (ALMACA, now known as EAPA), one of two major professional associations in the EAP field, indicated that, out of 4,153 members (82% of the current membership), 111 members (2.6%) worked for the federal government, 158 members (3.8%) worked for state governments, and 186 (4.4%) worked for local governments. An additional 30 members (0.7%) identified themselves as working for government unions (ALMACA Clearinghouse, 1987). No information was given on how many of the 2,881 private sector members provided contractual services to the public sector. With the growth of EAP services in the public sector, however, the public sector provides an important source of clientele for counselors wishing to engage in EAP services.

In 1984 and 1985, Johnson (1986) compared public and private sector EAPs in the Baltimore-Washington, D.C., area. Of the 11 public agencies 3 were federal, 2 were state, and 6 were local, all at the county level. These were compared to 10 private sector organizations. Johnson concluded that there were no great differences between public and private sector EAPs, and that EAPs in both sectors appeared underdeveloped and not well-integrated into their organizations. Politics and the law were seen as constraints for the public sector. Johnson's study indicates that counselors wishing to provide EAP services in the public sector should make themselves aware of the political and legal constraints within the jurisdictions in which they are interested in providing services.

Federal legislation in the 1970s encouraged EAP growth. Public Law 91-616, the Comprehensive Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse Act of 1970, provided for federal agencies to develop alcoholism prevention, treatment, and rehabilitation programs for federal civilian employees. In 1972 Public Law 92-255 required federal agencies to set up drug abuse programs. Public Law 93-282 and Office of Personnel Management regulations encouraged EAPs and required confidentiality in referral and treatment. Public Law 99-570, the Omnibus Drug Enforcement Education Act of 1986, provided additional support for EAPs in federal agencies, and an executive order issued November 28, 1986, called for federal government EAPs to counsel and rehabilitate drug abusive employees.

According to the Federal Office of Personnel Management (OPM), there were 1.8 million federal employees covered by EAPs in 1981 (Bureau of National Affairs, 1987). Forty-seven federal agencies reported having EAPs for at least some of their employees. Federal government EAPs were provided by individual agencies and also by consortia. Consortia were used in federal regions where employees of several agencies worked at the same job site. OPM established a goal of covering all federal employees, even those who work in small offices in remote areas, through contracting for services.

A 1983 study found that 39 states had EAPs (Kemp, 1985). Since that survey, at least three additional states, Idaho, Indiana, and Oregon, have added EAPs. The Kemp study found that the most frequently used services were alcohol rehabilitation, individual psychological counseling, drug abuse counseling, stress management, interpersonal relations counseling, marital and family counseling, financial counseling, legal counseling, physical-ill health, and life style issues such as smoking. Forty-six percent of states

used an in-house state agency EAP, 27% contracted for EAP services, and 18% used a combination of in-house and contractual.

In 1984 the International City Management Association (1985) surveyed city managers in 1,604 cities with populations of 10,000 or more concerning employee counseling. Of 349 respondents, 33% reported that their city offered personal counseling benefits to their employees. Of 272 respondents, 26% provided substance abuse assistance, and of 225 respondents, 23% provided financial counseling.

Schweitzer, EAP director for New York City's Department of Corrections, estimated from informal research that approximately 200 municipalities had EAPs in 1987 (Bureau of National Affairs, 1987). One of the most developed, New York City's program for 300,000 employees employs approximately 200 EAP professionals and expends approximately $6 million for 28 in-house programs in large city agencies. A case study of how the New York City program operates was published in 1980 (Rostain, Allan, & Rosenberg). In another article (Kolben, 1982), New York City was used as a prototype for the range of services which have developed during the expansion of work site social welfare programs, and the relative roles of the public, private, and not-for-profit sectors in employee and union-sponsored employee counseling programs.

Local government EAPs seem to be most prevalent in larger, urban counties, municipalities, and school districts. In Boston, an EAP is jointly run by the Boston Fire Department and Boston Firefighters Local 718, International Association of Firefighters, covering 1,660 firefighters with a 5% utilization rate. Sixty percent of referrals are for subsance abuse, with most of the remainder for stress-related issues (Bureau of National Affairs, 1987). In the West, Los Angeles and Phoenix have established programs. The Los Angeles Department of Water and Power designed a Trauma Response Program to provide immediate response to serious work-related accidents or traumatic experiences. Five EAP staff counselors are on 24-hour call (Halcrow, 1987). The city of Phoenix began an EAP, Project Concern, in 1974; by 1980, approximately 1,130 of 8,700 employees were served by the program (Wagner, 1982).

Research on three eastern EAPs (Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Washington, D.C.) found employees made contact with EAPs primarily for problems with alcohol. Other presented problems were emotional, drugs, personal or family difficulties, and excessive absences and other work-related issues. Supervisor referrals, followed by self-referrals, were the most common means of referral; those receiving services were predominantly blue collar, male, and black. It was hypothesized that supervisors of blue collar employees viewed the EAP as a useful program and were more willing to refer troubled employees than were supervisors of white collar employees (Johnson, 1985).

Nationally, it is unknown how many countries provide EAP programs, but it is estimated that about half of the counties in California have EAPs. For example, Kern County has contracted since 1986 with a private for-profit contractor for EAP services for its employees. Counselors may find a role with counties or other local governments through either contracting to provide services or working for a governmental in-house EAP.

Community colleges and state universities are another site of EAP services. One of the first employee assistance programs in a California State University provides a case study of EAP development in a public university.

A State University Case Study

The complexity of developing a University EAP in an environment with many constituencies can be seen in the experiences involved in the organization of an EAP at California State University, Chico (CSUC) (Verlinde, 1988). In 1985 CSUC employed 713 full-time and 266 part-time faculty and 700 full-time and 155 part-time staff members, for a total of 1,834 employees. In that year, there was growing awareness by deans and the personnel office of employees needing assistance; with the help of a staff member with former EAP experience, a proposal was submitted by a committee to the university president and cabinet. With their approval, a grant proposal was written and submitted to the systemwide chancellor's office. Funding was received, and development and implementation began in December 1985.

The program began with one professional person responsible for assessment and referral, and later expanded to include a .25 clerical position and interns in public relations and social work who assisted in on-going program development.

The director chose to use a prevention and education model to implement the program. This included monthly lunch hour programs addressing such problems as aging parents, teen substance abuse, and child/parent developmental issues. The University "grapevine," as well as formal sources of communication, was very useful in publicizing upcoming lunch hour programs on sensitive subjects which may cause a negative impact on the work environment. Programs were presented by professionals in the field who proved to be a rich resource for the future referral of troubled employees. The lunch hour programs were successful in reaching troubled faculty and staff, and self-referrals began. Everything possible was done to give the program high visibility.

The first year focused on educating the administration and supervisory personnel through department orientation sessions. Employee group sessions followed. Other orientations consisted of regular monthly meetings with the Administrative Council, Dean's Council, Academic Affairs Council, new Faculty and Staff orientation meetings, union meetings, Faculty Senate, and Staff Council. A written formula on cost effectiveness was completed, addressing absenteeism, tardiness, accidents, low productivity, grievances, and workmen's compensation costs. The EAP Advisory Board comprised of community and campus representatives was established, and its members brought forth many ideas and resources for addressing EAP issues.

The director learned of "the silent crew," the employees working the night shift, and devoted time to meet supervisors and employees during the 5:00 a.m. safety meeting. In addition, the nursing division, colleges, and departments assisted in the development and presentation of health promotion programs offered throughout the year. It was believed that the more participation and input received from the various areas, the more committed the campus would be to the concept. Faculty and staff would own the program and subsequently use its services.

The director carefully selected public relations interns to help market the program through the design of a bulletin and an EAP brochure; articles were also placed in the University Bulletin, and flyers were distributed. There are many ways to market an EAP in a university setting, but the grapevine still proves to be the most effective. Even after four years of continuous marketing efforts, faculty and staff still enter the doors stating, "I just heard you were here." The underlying message really is, "I need you now."

Because of limited staffing, a 1-3 session assessment and referral model was chosen, with flexibility for extreme cases such as substance abuse rehabilitation. Those faculty and staff leaving the work environment for an extended period of time for entry into a recovery program were provided a strong back-to-work plan which included weekly sessions with the director; when appropriate, the supervisor was a part of the return-to-work process. Referrals were made to private therapists, treatment facilities, community service agencies and organizations, and self-help groups for problems such as marriage and family counseling, addiction, aging parent issues, psychological problems, grief, sexual orientation, and legal and financial concerns. During the first year of services a total of 102 faculty and staff sought individual consultations with the director. A total of 22 supervisory personnel contacted the EAP regarding troubled employees and their workplace concerns.

AA and Al-Anon representatives were encouraged to provide informational meetings on campus. The implementation of regular twelve-step programs was initially slow. Time and patience paid off, and supervisors began to seek assistance for troubled faculty and staff through EAP. Formal training of supervisors in ways to recognize a troubled employee was expanded by formally addressing substance abuse in the workplace. A physician was invited to campus to discuss substance abuse, and top administrators encouraged supervisory attendance at a forum through a letter from the President and Provost. A full house heard the physician explore alcoholism and drug addiction. This was an example of the types of training given to supervisors, which encouraged continued utilization of the EAP. This has resulted in over 400 employees and staff being seen by the EAP this year.

Conclusion

Although there is limited research on EAPs in the public sector, existing information indicates that the public sector, including universities, remains an excellent source for EAP development. Counselors interested in working with public sector employers and and employees should keep in mind the importance of political and legal constraints in the public environment, as well as the complexity and multiple constituencies of large public entities. With a proper understanding of these issues, counselors may find challenging work either in in-house government EAPs or through contracting to provide EAP service to governments.

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An Update on Stress Management

Richard S. Weiner

Abstract

This update of the state-of-the-art for the research and treatment of stress disorders presents the major role of stress in the onset of illness. Stress produces a disequilibrium that requires an adaptive neurophysiological, chemical, and emotional response. Current social forces are increasing the amount of research and the implementation of preventive stress reduction techniques.

Stress disorders are recognized as playing a role in many prevalent diseases. Both lay public and health care providers agree that measures should be taken to reduce the negative impact of stress on health.

Yet, many investigators are perplexed by the lack of accepted definitions of stress and by the serious conceptual problems involved in research on stress disorders. The development of reliable assessment instruments and effective treatment programs have been handicapped by this perplexity.

Currently social forces are combining to escalate research efforts and to serve as an important catalyst for stress management treatment centers. As public-policy decision-makers embrace cost containment reimbursement methods, health care providers are expected to pay more attention to preventive medicine.

Interest in holistic approaches to health problems is growing. New service delivery organizations, such as health maintenance organizations (HMO) and preferred provider organizations (PPO), are augmenting the individual practitioner's efforts in the delivery of health care. Treatment for chronic health problems is moving toward a multidisciplinary team approach.

State-of-the-art information, as presented in this article, is important for human development specialists. Cognitive learning principles and environmental, behavioral, and physiological roles in stress management are reviewed. Specifically, this article includes a definition of stress, as well as information about stress-triggers, current assessment techniques, the emerging role of molecular biology in research, stress reduction techniques, and stress clinics.

The Definition of Stress

Change causes stress. The change can be positive, such as a job promotion, or negative, such as chronic pain. The process occurring during change requires the individual to adapt to new demands and roles. When the level of adaptation is intense, occurs frequently, or is of long duration, stress may be damaging to the individual's health. Hans Selye (1974) defined stress as follows:

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> . . . the specific response of the body to any demand made upon it. . . . All agents to which we are exposed produce a non-specific increase in the need to perform adaptive functions and thereby re-establish normalcy. . . . It is immaterial whether the agent or situation we face is pleasant or unpleasant; all that counts is the intensity of the demand for readjustment or adaptation (p. 19).

Utilizing the anecdotal method of case review, Meyer demonstrated by means of a "life chart" that illness manifested when clusters of major change-events occurred for a patient in a short time span (Pelletier, 1977). In later research Wolff (Wolff & Goodell, 1968) demonstrated that rapid and escalating societal stress contributes to a high incidence of psychosomatic disease.

Toffler (1980) and Naisbitt (1984) referred to the "age of information" as very stressful. For the first time, it is clear that the major cause of death and disease is stress-related disorders.

Social vs. Individual Stress

Stress is a cumulative by-product of rapid social change and individual life circumstances. Social stress may be triggered by economic instability or recession, major social change such as war, or natural disasters such as a change in work environment (Weiner & Hendricks, 1985).

Individual responses may include one or more of the following: peptic ulcers, heart attacks, impotence, weight changes, sleep disorders, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, chronic pain, and migraine headaches. Frequently alcohol, tranquilizers, and anti-depressants are used by individuals as self-medication, because they are socially available.

Assessment Techniques

The assessment of stress can start with self-awareness by an individual. He/she may be having marriage difficulties or interpersonal problems at work or in other relationships. An evaluation to determine a Type A personality assessment should be considered when the pressure of work deadlines begins to take a toll on the individual and relaxation is difficult to achieve (Price, 1982).

Holmes and Rahe (1967) developed a brief screening device entitled The Schedule of Recent Events (SRE). In a study of the relationship of social readjustments, stress, and subsceptibility to illness, they noted a correlation between intensity of life change and onset of severe illness. From their retrospective study they assigned numerical values to events such as divorce, marriage, death in the family, job change, pregnancy, and large mortgage. Although some of these might be considered happy events (Selye, 1974), Holmes and Rahe found that all of these events can evoke a neurophysiological and biochemical reaction. Additional studies (Rahe, 1973; Holmes & Masuda, 1973) have used this simple assessment instrument with a high degree of success in predicting illness.

These simple assessment instruments could and should encourage preventive measures. A counseling intake interview, social factors, and physiological factors also need to be considered. As health-care dollars become

scarce and there is a shift to a holistic health paradigm, these tools will become fundamental, the same as the stethoscope is today.

Palliative management, the treating of symptoms, is more widespread today than preventive medicine. It is possible to diagnose and treat a stress disorder at many stages. For example, many physicians recognize and treat hypertension by utilizing standard examination techniques, routine laboratory work, and medication. The attendant physician may also advise the patient that he/she should adapt to life's stress triggers with a change in lifestyle and in means of coping with problems.

The Physiology of Stress

The mind and body interaction of an individual with his/her environment is recognized, even though the exact process is little understood. Stress disorders are developmental and occur only after repeated exposure to stress triggers. Zimbardo (1969) advanced the concept of a "feedback loop" in which antecedent events continue to trigger later events. Such a system does not easily allow a reductionist cause-and-effect analysis. Pelletier (1977) gave the example of a migraine headache to illustrate this point. He stated that the migraine "may be triggered by a dietary imbalance, psychological stress, various other factors, or an interaction among them. Which comes first becomes academic, since the precipitating incident is rapidly amplified into more severe symptoms (p. 169).

Perhaps the most promising area presently under investigation involves research into the biochemistry of health. In 1973, scientists discovered the endorphen. The endorphen is a natural opiate within the brain that not only shields the body from pain but now is thought to influence basic forms of emotion and mood. It is part of the ancient limbic system of all vertebrates and is linked to the "fight or flight" response to stress. Some researchers claim the "endorphen and other neuropeptides may (actually) be the molecular basis of emotion" (Cordes, 1985, p. 11). It is believed that peptides relay messages between the endocrine system and the brain, hence the term neuropeptide. Neuropeptides are now linked to the immune system — and even to the spread of cancer. Receptors for neuropeptides are found throughout the body such as the dorsal horn of the spine but are concentrated in localized areas; this may help explain pain transmission. Neuropeptides do not communicate like neurotransmitters using classical synaptic "hook-ups." In fact, some researchers think the term neurotransmitter is passe, and prefer the term "informational substance."

Little is known presently about which emotional mood neuropeptides foster. However, these theories build upon the work of psychoneuroimmunology. The opiate receptors help modulate the immune function and play a role in regulating health. Although endorphens have only recently been discovered, efforts to map their location in the brain will help determine how they impact clinical symptoms. They are tentatively offered as one mechanism of a stress-disease etiology.

In the future an endorphen count will be used to determine how individual tolerance to pain differs and will play a vital role in the diagnostic treatment of stress disorders.

Other means of assessment are being developed. Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR), in addition to Positron Emission Transaxial Tomo-

graphy (PET), Computerized Axial Tomography (CAT) and computer-enhanced electroencephalography are providing new information about the structure and metabolism of the brain.

Although heredity, environment, general health, life style, and past illness influence whether an illness will occur, frequently prolonged stress places a person in a state of disequilibrium and at risk for the onset of illness.

Treatment

Awareness of the problem is the first step in treating any illness. Stress-reduction education will become a high priority when we learn more about mind-body holistic health and social pressure to contain health care costs will force us toward preventive health management.

Society will have to address environmental questions, such as noise pollution, overcrowding, and economic disequilibrium. Caple (1985) postulated there will soon be a shift in paradigm that will emphasize a greater sense of hope and purpose, a shift that "does not alienate human beings from the world but paves the way for participation in an evolving world" (p. 6).

At the micro-level, holistic approaches will allow the patient and the clinician to become partners in the prevention and treatment of stress disorders. Individuals must assume greater personal responsibility for their health care. This requires emphasizing changes in life style and will necessitate patient and physician education about health.

The health care industry needs to restore the therapeutic balance between medical technology and individual and social considerations. Time must be taken by a physician to talk with the patient about an acute illness episode and to evaluate his/her diet, amount of sleep, and exercise. In the near future, the insurance industry will find that resources spent in this manner will save them money.

A synthesized approach to health care is needed. Routine service delivery needs to include a health-hazard appraisal that estimates future risks along with the individual's physical examination. This kind of appraisal is only one additional diagnostic tool available to the modern clinician. Intervention will require coordinating palliative modalities and preventive strategies. Medication and surgical techniques need to be supplemented with biofeedback training, autogenic positive imagery, and relaxation techniques. A multidisciplinary clinic can be a valuable resource in this effort.

Summary and Recommendations

This paper proposes the notion that stress plays a central role in the onset of illness. An individual's response to intense and profound stress-triggers can create disequilibrium, followed by a non-specific increase in the need to perform adaptive functions and restore homeostasis. For many individuals this results in illness.

As human development specialists understand the role that stress and life style play in health maintenance, they should assume the responsibility

to conduct early and ongoing individual assessments that supplement the traditional physical examination. Health appraisal forms are useful in identifying individuals who are at risk of developing a stress disorder.

Intervention will need to emphasize early recognition rather than to wait for the disease process to become debilitating. Treatment will require both a blend of traditional medicine and holistic behavorial modalities.

Finally, we need to stress a multidisciplinary research emphasis that can bring the tools and techniques of our "age of information" to bear on this problem.

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Campus-Based Volunteerism: Moving Into a "You-and-Me" College Student Generation

Kent D. Beeler

Abstract

College student volu ism is growing, as today's undergraduates turn toward an oth entered focus, and as national, state, and institutional service-learning activities expand. Theoretical and practical benefits accrue for collegians who contribute to the public good: College Student Affairs has an opportunity to promote and facilitate campus-based volunteer programs and services.

Will the decade of the 1990s represent campus apathy and insignificant college student response to humanitarian issues? Certainly there are enough causes to go around — homelessness, hunger, domestic violence, substance abuse, illiteracy, AIDs, the elderly, and the disabled. During this century, America has experienced a revival of interest in volunteerism about every decade and a half (Levine, 1988). A meaningful level existed during the 1960s but waned with the end of the Vietnam conflict. A new cycle of public service, both on campus and in society, may appear during the coming years.

Compared to the public image of their parents' campus generation of the 1960s, current undergraduates may appear politically and socially disengaged. There are indications, however, that college students are responding to critical social problems, often within the context of advocacy-oriented groups.

This article compares levels of volunteerism for campus generations of the 1960s and 1980s, and looks at today's student participation. Profiles of current national, state, and institutional public service programs are provided. Incentives and dividends of undergraduate volunteerism are listed, and the role of Student Affairs in promoting and facilitating campus-based volunteerism is discussed.

Campus Volunteerism — 1960s, 1980s, and Today

How do volunteer levels compare for college students of the 1960s and the 1980s? Results of some studies suggest there is less willingness now to perform public service. When matched with 1966 cohorts, 1985 first-year enrollees showed a greater interest in material and power goals, coupled with decreased social concern and altruism (Hassan, 1987).

A study conducted by Yankelovich, Skelly, and White, Inc., for the Rockefeller Brothers Fund found that individuals between the ages of 18 and 34 did not place community service high on their priority list (O'Connell, 1987). A Gallup Poll also revealed that volunteerism had declined 11% from 1980 to 1985 among those in the 18-24 age group (O'Connell, 1987).

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In November, 1987, pollsters conducted face-to-face interviews with over 500 college students and inquired about several aspects of activism. One question asked students to compare their level of volunteer activities with that of their parents' generation. Twenty-six percent of respondents said they did more. 36% stated less, and 31% identified participation as the same ("Activism Lives," 1988). These studies, polls, and survey results generally reflected a wider degree of social involvement by the 1960s campus generation than by 1980s collegians.

How many recent students regularly engage in some form of voluntary public service? A 1986 survey of students at Campus Compact member institutions showed that between 10 to 20% of undergraduates took part in some form of community volunteering (Theus, 1988). Another estimate indicated that 25% of collegians were involved ("Education," 1987). What do college students report about their interest level in community service? A 1987 on-campus poll showed that 35% of those surveyed said yes to the question, "Are you involved in any charity or social-service activities such as working in a soup kitchen, helping retarded children, assisting in a hospital?" ("Activism Lives," 1988).

There is institutional evidence that public service has increased. At Harvard University, for example, 56% of the class of 1986 had participated in some form of volunteerism, compared to 35% in 1983 (Vellela, 1988). In February, 1988, the *New York Times* reported that 2,200 of 5,100 Yale University undergraduates performed community work (Theus, 1988).

There are other signs that the idea of helping those in need may be increasing (Read, 1986; "Education Trends," 1986). At St. Michael's College in Vermont the number engaged in community service has risen from about 50 in 1986 to more than 450 in 1988-89 (Hempel, 1989). More than one in four (26%) of college freshmen in fall, 1988, said, "Becoming involved in programs to clean up the environment was very important," compared to 15.9% of those surveyed just three years earlier (Collison, 1990).

Enrollment demographics affect public service involvement. Rising higher education costs have created a need for nearly one-half of today's college students to hold jobs while taking classes. A Spring, 1986, survey explored public service activities at Campus Compact member institutions and found that 70% of respondents cited financial deterrents as a reason for not participating in volunteer programs (Gynne, 1989).

Two of every five enrollees are over the age of 25, many with family responsibilities. Fewer than three of five students are on campus full-time, and 80% of attendees commute (Parker & Van DerVeer, 1988). Clearly it is becoming more difficult for those in postsecondary education to find extra time to do public good and still meet ongoing job, family, community, and academic commitments.

While perhaps not as visible as the campus activism of the 1960s, the new wave of public spiritedness is just as far-reaching, with the potential to create significant societal changes. This Renaissance of interest in volunteer work is influenced by today's more diverse student population.

Campus-Based Volunteerism: National, State, and Institutional Levels

National Level

Interest in student service-learning in higher education is increasing. Three national groups have been organized since 1981 with a common goal of establishing and widening campus volunteer efforts: Campus Outreach Opportunity League, Campus Compact, and National Student Campaign Against Hunger. These groups and the National Association of Student YMCAs are profiled below, based on information provided by the groups.

CAMPUS OUTREACH OPPORTUNITY LEAGUE
(386 McNeal Hall, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108)

Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) is a national nonprofit organization designed to promote and support college student involvement in community service. The League, initially financed with a Hazen Foundation grant in October, 1984, now includes a network of over 450 campuses with 150 national, state, and local groups. The League's goal is that, throughout the remainder of the century, every student in the United States will be challenged to become involved in some form of volunteer work.

CAMPUS COMPACT
(Box 1975, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912)

Campus Compact, The Project for Public and Community Service, is a coalition of over 225 college and university presidents, up from 12 in 1985, who believe that higher education institutions have a responsibility for promoting civic-mindedness among their students. The leaders of Stanford, Georgetown, and Brown Universities agreed in 1985 to co-chair the Compact, which is under the administrative oversight of the Education Commission of the States. The rationale is that, if the presidents support student volunteerism, public service becomes integral to the mission of the institution and postsecondary education. The Compact's objectives are to encourage institutions to promote public service opportunities for students, and to instill awareness of community responsibility.

NATIONAL STUDENT CAMPAIGN AGAINST HUNGER
(29 Temple Place, Boston, MA 02111-9907)

National Student Campaign Against Hunger (NSCAH) is a project of the Student Public Interest Research Groups (PIRGs), in cooperation with USA for Africa Hands Across America. The Campaign's goals are to develop immediate relief for the hungry and homeless and to provide long-term solutions to problems that keep individuals impoverished. Founded in 1981 from a coalition of 25 state PIRGs, the organization sponsors or co-sponsors several annual projects: World Food Day, Annual Food Stamp Survey, Call for Action, and Student Hunger and Homelessness Week. The Hunger Cleanup has become the biggest student-run community service event in the country. NSCAH, the largest network of student hunger and homelessness activists in the United States, coordinates efforts of 600 institutions in 45 states.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STUDENT YMCAs
(101 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, IL 60606)

The National Association of Student YMCAs, a program of the YMCA of the USA, is redirecting its efforts in the service field and working to regain a historic prominence in the service field. The Association provides 34 campus-based membership YMCAs with leadership, training, and project consultation.

State Level

With Campus Compact's assistance, California, Michigan, and Pennsylvania were the first states to organize coalitions to promote and support community service activities. In December, 1988, higher education officials announced the creation of the California Compact to promote public service among college students at member institutions. This Compact includes the presidents and chancellors of the University of California and the California State University campuses, as well as those of several private and community colleges. Member institutions share ideas about student service

work, advocate related policies and projects, and raise funds to develop or enhance service-learning. Similar state Compacts are being formed in Florida, Minnesota, and Wisconsin (*State Compact*, 1988), and Indiana.

Institutional Level

Some institutions have a long-standing commitment to volunteerism as a visible part of their ongoing mission. Prominent examples include Winter Term in Mission (DePauw University), Interns in Conscious (Duke University), Community Action Council (Tulane University), Study-Service Trimester (Goshen College), and Community Action Coalition (Georgetown University) (Busch, 1988).

Other colleges and universities are in the process of renewing or implementing service programs. The Phillip Brooks House Association, Inc., at Harvard University, a student-run group, is the oldest college community-service organization. Volunteers generate projects and write detailed proposals about how to fund and operate them. In March, 1987, the city of Cambridge awarded a $23,000 contract to the Association as the social service agency to run a 20-bed shelter for the homeless.

Brown University inaugurated a Center for Public Service in 1986 with the commitment to integrating public service into university education. The Center was organized to expand and strengthen the service efforts of students, to create new initiatives, and to work in cooperation with community organizations. The Center, supported by endowment grants from the C. V. Starr Foundation in New York, has a full-time director and an advisory board ("Education," 1987).

Several institutions have developed financial incentives in an effort to encourage public service and decrease loan dependency and pressures on students to hold jobs. Rice and Stanford Universities, Metropolitan State University in Minnesota, Wellesley College, and Bethany College in Kansas, offer small grants through student government, activity fees, or donations. At Brown University, students who have devoted a full year of civilian or military service are eligible for grants. Fellowships to defray living and transportation costs are available to those doing community work at Wheaton, Grinell, Dartmouth, and Radcliffe Colleges, and at the University of Southern California, California Polytechnic University, and the University of California at Berkeley (Theus, 1988).

Alumni are also becoming involved. The Class of 1955 at Princeton University has created a national nonprofit organization to inspire both alumni and students to become involved in community-service projects ("Princeton U. Alumni," 1990). Examples abound documenting willingness to give time, energy, and money to assist those less fortunate.

Benefits of College Student Volunteering

Motivations for public service volunteering have been categorized as (a) altruism (increasing recipients' welfare), (b) egoism (increasing volunteers' welfare), and c) social obligation (repaying social debt) (Phillips, 1982; Fitch, 1987). The social exchange theory also needs to be reviewed as an incentive; the thesis is that while altruistic rewards are important, so may be egoistic rewards.

What do present college students say when asked why they volunteer? The most frequent reason (57%) is wanting to do something useful, help others, and do good deeds. Another 31% indicated they enjoy this form of work and feel needed. Twenty-eight percent reported they want to learn and get related work experience helpful in later job searches. Another one-fourth of the interviewees had an interest in the activity, while 15% participated because of religious concerns ("Activism Lives," 1988). Fitch (1987) contends that the motivations for collegians' involvement in community service still need further research.

The National Society of Internships and Experimental Education, after consulting with more than 70 organizations interested in volunteerism, developed a statement of principles of good practice for combining service and learning (Honnet & Poulson, 1989, p. 2). Potential dividends for those engaged in volunteer work included: developing a habit of critical reflection, committing to address underlying problems behind social causes, understanding problems in a more complex way and imagining alternative solutions, and demonstrating more sensitivity to how decisions are made.

This roster of possible outcomes from volunteer work, however, is somewhat idealistic and difficult to measure. Commonly listed as less theoretical and more realistic are several gains that can accompany helping the less fortunate (Harrison, 1987):

1. *Satisfaction of helping others in need.* Perhaps the truest reward of all is simple personal satisfaction. Even the smallest of efforts can help make a difference in others' lives. A related aspect is that individuals receive something positive when they give to society.

2. *Useful work experience.* Volunteer experiences provide valuable preparation and help individuals understand the work ethic better. Gaining real world exposure without being threatened by the loss of a paying job is an advantage. Additionally, doing community service can provide an inside view of different career fields and the chance to gain specific pre-job skills and knowledge.

3. *Enhanced personal development.* For college students, volunteering provides a broadening life experience and permits interactions with individuals not otherwise encountered. Service opportunities also generate personal leadership skills. Competencies in management and organization, for example, speech writing, public relations, and fund-raising, can supplement current ones. Added self-confidence can come from the opportunity to analyze situations, make judgments, and work effectively with others.

4. *Competitive employment edge.* Prospective employers look favorably upon candidates with a volunteer record. Successful volunteers can use positive recommendations from supervisors in their placement credentials. Evidence of public spiritedness can give job candidates a competitive edge in the employment marketplace.

Benefits need to be a part of the picture to attract many on campus to conduct volunteer work. Undergraduates may not always recognize the dividends possible from doing public good. It is beneficial to acquaint prospective volunteers and to remind present ones of the many positive outcomes derived by performing service for others. Both idealistic and practical results can accrue to participants.

Student Affairs and Campus-Based Volunteerism

College students seem to be becoming other-centered, and campus-based volunteerism appears to be increasing. The idea of doing good as a social-civic responsibility is at the heart of this revived volunteerism. Today's students are shrugging off the "Me" orientation, and moving toward the "You-and-Me" orientation.

Collison (1990) has suggested that campus activism will have a new approach in the 1990s, pragmatic idealism. While contemporary students remain concerned about getting decent grades and jobs, they are also finding ways to involve themselves as volunteers in their college communities.

The student affairs unit is frequently responsible for coordinating and promoting volunteer opportunities for students (Fitch, 1987). Ironically, student leadership development is infrequently facilitated for on-campus groups involved in public-spirited activities. Comprehensive programming and training are needed for organizations involved in volunteer efforts both at and away from the institution. Linking community service and student leadership programs needs to be more intentional (McManamon, Rice, & Wilson, 1988).

At many institutions, volunteer functions lack visibility and are not assigned status as ongoing. Service-oriented activities need to be given a permanent place within the institution. The presence of a volunteer director/coordinator better insures programming continuity, which is sometimes difficult to guarantee within student organizations inherently handicapped by a changing membership. At least 40 institutions have hired full-time employees, often undergraduates, to coordinate campus service-learning efforts. Rice, Fordham, Brown, Georgetown Universities and the University of Southern California, along with Hood College, have done so (Collison, 1990).

Colleges and universities have historically provided students with opportunities for involvement in community service. As we move into the 1990s, the concept and practice need redefinition. It is time to promote campus volunteerism as a mission of higher education. At least two long-range benefits accrue when service-learning becomes a prominent part of the campus experience: (1) having a sizeable cadre of students involved in community service benefits university-community relations; and (2) when collegians help out without expecting compensation, society in general regards them more favorably.

Student affairs professionals have a golden opportunity to take or share a leadership role in promoting and facilitating campus-based volunteerism for today's collegians. Setting up a formal program, providing leadership development, fostering active student volunteer involvement, and hiring full-time directors are dynamic ways to support this important out-of-classroom education. It is time to allocate necessary resources to provide visible evidence of institutional commitment to volunteerism.

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Counselor and Client Uses of Computer-Assisted Career Information Delivery Systems

Gerald T. Olson

Abstract

Nineteen computer-assisted career information delivery systems (CIDS) were inventoried. Data are reported to assist guidance professionals and others in CIDS selection, to offer a structure for CIDS producers/developers for presenting information, and to assist policy-makers in monitoring CIDS characteristics.

Computer-assisted career information delivery systems (CIDS) have become one of the most popular guidance resources used in schools and colleges and in occupational training, career guidance, and job placement programs. CIDS usually provide information about occupations, colleges, and financial aid. They may also include client assessment based on test scores, work experience, and self-report.

Important considerations in determining the appropriateness of CIDS are content, costs, suitability for various target groups, and capability of meeting goals and objectives of guidance programs. The compilation and dissemination of this information is a challenge, since CIDS are regularly modified to include new information, user feedback, advances in guidance theory, and innovations in computer hardware and software.

To assist in meeting this challenge, the California Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (COICC) and the California Department of Education (CDE) initiated a project to inventory the characteristics of computer-assisted CIDS currently used in California. A study was subsequently conducted under contract with the Los Angeles County Office of Education.

The purposes of this study were: (a) to develop information to help practitioners make informed choices, (b) to provide a structure for software developers for the systematic presentation of product information, and (c) to assist policy-makers in monitoring the features of CIDS.

A report of some of the results that pertain to counselor and client uses of CIDS is presented in this article. Additional information is included in the project report (Olson & Whitman, 1990) and in a comprehensive article (Olson, 1990).

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Method

An inventory instrument was developed by a 15-member statewide advisory committee composed of staff members of the California Employment Development Department, the California State Job Training Coordinating Council, CDE, and COICC, as well as staff members of secondary schools, community and private colleges and universities, adult education, county offices of education, and an expert on bias-free guidance materials.

Based on selection guidelines developed by Heppner and Johnston (1985), the instrument (Olson & Whitman, 1990, pp. 19-27) included 13 areas, as follows:

1. computer hardware,
2. ease of use,
3. purposes and scope,
4. costs,
5. contacts for further information,
6. content update,
7. reading level,
8. graphics,
9. staff requirements,
10. built-in evaluation and accountability,
11. ability to tailor the basic program,
12. fairness, and
13. system security.

Information about these 13 areas was provided by CIDS producers/developers, reviewed by the author, and verified by advisory committee members who had used particular CIDS. Data were collected ostensibly about 33 items on each CIDS. Nineteen CIDS were inventoried, as shown in Table 1.

Results

All data were summarized, analyzed, and reported (Olson, 1990). This article includes information that is significant for the work of counselors and other human development workers in the selection and use of CIDS.

Theoretical Orientations

Three major theoretical orientations appear in the CIDS constructs: trait-factor, decision-making, and economic.

The trait-factor orientation is based on the assumptions that (a) individuals possess unique patterns of capabilities and potentials (traits); (b) particular qualities are possessed by successful workers in each job family (factors); and (c) the success of the individual in each job family or occupation can be predicted.

The decision-making orientation includes the assumptions that (a) vocational choice is a rational process; (b) the process includes a decision-maker and a decision; and (c) people can use information to make choices.

The economic orientation assumes that (a) people make rational decisions; (b) economic return is a major factor in vocational choice; and (c) accurate information on costs, risks, and rewards is available.

User Groups

As shown in Table 2, over three-fifths of the CIDS were designed to be used by both counselors and clients; one-fifth were designed for clients only, and under one-fifth for counselors only.

Table 1
Career Information Delivery Systems Inventoried

1. (GIS) The Guidance Information System, Houghton Mifflin Company, Riverside Publishing Company, Wayside Road, Burlington, MA 01803
2. (DHS) DISCOVER for High Schools, 3. (DJH) Junior High and Middle School, and 4. (DAD) Adults and College, American College Testing, Education Services Division, Iowa City, IA 52243-0168
5. (SG+) SIGI PLUS, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, NJ 08540-9885
6. (CH) CHOICES, High School, 7. (CCT) College and Adult, and 8. (CHJ) Junior High and Middle School, STM Systems Corporation Careerware, Industrial Park Building #3, Ogdensburg, NY 13669
9. (ERK) California Career Information System, EUREKA, 130 33rd Street, Richmond, CA 94804
10. (VCN) Vital Information in Education and Work/Coordinated Occupational Information Network, VIEW/COIN, 3361 Executive Parkway, Suite 302, Toledo, OH 43606
11. (VLS) Val SEARCH. VALPAR Internaional Corporation, 10721 Treena Street, Suite 110, San Diego, CA 92131
12. (PPS) Placement Problem Solver. The Capability Corporation (CapCo), West 915 Second Avenue, Spokane, WA 99204
13. (DTM) DataMaster, Singer Career Systems, and 14. (OSY) Occupational Access System (OASYS), Vertek, Inc., West Coast Educational Systems, 1486 Paseo Grande, Fullerton, CA 92633
15. (CSS) California Occupational Search System (COSS), California Department of Employment Development, 800 Capitol Mall, MIC 57, Sacramento, CA 95814
16. (RVE) Realistic Assessment of Vocational Experience (RAVE), The Vocational Resource, 2017 Cedar Street, Berkeley, CA 94709
17. (PTR) Peterson's Career Planning Service, Peterson's Guides, Inc., P. O. Box 2123, Princeton, NJ 08543-2123
18. (ISL) ISABEL, P. O. Box 10405, Tallahassee, FL 32302
19. (DMC) DISCOVER for Mini-Computers, American College Testing, Education Services Division, Iowa City, IA 52243-0168

CIDS contents were designed to serve various target groups, including students at all levels, adults in career transition, re-entry adults, and the physically disabled. Target groups for the CIDS inventoried are shown in Table 2.

Operational Features

All CIDS provided (a) file menus, (b) options to select information for print-outs, (c) results within 20 minutes, and (d) technical assistance for users.

Over one-half of the CIDS offered the option of reporting results for specified groups. All CIDS except one gave users the flexibility of skipping

Table 2

Features of Computer-Assisted Career Information Delivery Systems (CIDS)

	GIS[1]	DHS[2]	DJH[3]	DAD[4]	SG+[5]	CH[6]	CCT[7]	CHJ[8]	ERK[9]	VCN[10]
Graphics card	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
Color Monitor	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	no
Ease of Use										
Change minds	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
Designed for	both	both	students	both	students	students	both	students	both	both
Free tech assistance?	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Disclaimer	yes	yes	yes	yes	--	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
Purposes/Scope of the System										
System tells users	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Theoretical orientation for:										
(a) middle school	yes	—	yes	—	—	—	—	yes	yes	yes
(b) high school	yes	yes	—	—	yes	yes	—	—	yes	yes
(c) college users	yes	—	—	yes	yes	yes	—	—	yes	yes
(d) graduate school	yes	—	—	yes	yes	—	yes	—	yes	—
(e) re-entry adults	yes	—	—	yes	yes	—	yes	—	yes	yes
(f) physically disabled	yes	--	—	—	yes	—	yes	—	yes	yes
(g) adult	yes	—	—	yes	yes	—	yes	—	yes	yes
(h) technical school	yes	—	—	—	yes	—	yes	--	yes	yes
The occuptional file is based on:										
(a) national data	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(b) local data	yes	no	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Updates no cost	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	no

Table 2 (Continued)

Features of Computer-Assisted Career Information Delivery Systems) (CIDS)

	VLP[11]	PPS[12]	DTM[13]	OSY[14]	CSS[15]	RVE[16]	PTR[17]	ISL[18]	DMC[19]
Graphics card	yes	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	—
Color monitor	yes	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
Ease of Use									
Change minds	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Designed for	couns	both	couns	both	couns	both	both	both	both
Free tech assistance?	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes
Disclaimer	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Purposes/Scope of the System									
System tells users	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Theoretical orientation for:									
(a) middle school	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
(b) high school	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	—	yes	yes	yes
(c) college users	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes
(d) graduate school	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	—	—	yes	yes
(e) re-entry adults	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes
(f) physically disabled	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes
(g) adult	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes
(h) technical school	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	—	yes	yes
The occupational file is based on:									
(a) national data	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(b) local data	no	—	yes	yes	yes	no	—	no	yes
Updates no cost	no	—	no	no	—	yes	no	no	yes

sections or changing prior entries. About one-half required the use of a graphics card, and about one-third needed a color monitor for best results. (See Table 2.)

Data Storage, Entry, and Retrieval

As shown in Table 2, all CIDS based their information on national data. About three-fifths reported local data; some included state and substate, and some only state data. About 70% of the CIDS provided the option of adding local data, and about 40% offered updates of information at no extra cost.

The CIDS made various options and combinations of options available for the entry of test scores, for on-line assessment, for the retrieval of information about occupations, postsecondary education/training, and financial aid, and group reports.

About four-fifths of the CIDS inventoried allowed entry of test scores, and over one-half reported on-line assessment features. Most CIDS included capability of sorting occupations with user entry of data about values, interests, and aptitudes, and, in some cases, transferable skills and temperament. (See Table 3.)

The CIDS reported occupational information in 10 different categories; over one-half included information on military occupations. Two CIDS provided information on all categories of postsecondary education/training. About two-fifths reported sources of financial aid. (See Table 4.)

Seven types of test scores were applicable with about two-thirds of the CIDS inventoried: achievement, aptitude, intelligence, interest, combined measures, skill, and occupation. (See Table 5.)

Discussion and Implications

This study was conducted to assist guidance professionals and others in the selection of CIDS. In reviewing the results of the study, certain points should be considered:

1. The survey instrument was designed to elicit the same information from all CIDS included in the inventory. Thus, unique information on some CIDS may not have been reported.
2. Every effort was made to insure that data were collected and reported fairly and accurately. No inference regarding the support or nonsupport of any specific CIDS should be made.
3. Three sources gave input about the CIDS: producers developers, the author, and advisory committee members.
4. Decisions about "best" CIDS depend upon user needs in specific situations. Different factors will be important to different users in different situations.
5. CIDS data were collected according to a specific set of criteria. Consumers may wish to collect data about CIDS according to characteristics not included in this study.

Firm conclusions cannot be drawn from this study, because each system is different, and because the data can only be described as soft.

Table 3

Assessment Features of Computer-Assisted Career Information Delivery Systems (CIDS)

	GIS[19]	DHS[2]	DJH[3]	DAD[4]	SG+[5]	CH[6]	CCT[7]	CHJ[8]	ERK[9]	VCN[10]
Assessment systems	yes	yes	—	yes	no	no	no	no	yes	yes
If yes, they are:										
(a) valid	yes	yes	—	yes	—	—	—	—	—	yes
(b) reliable	yes	yes	—	yes	—	—	—	—	—	yes
(c) appropriate	yes	yes	—	yes	—	—	—	—	yes	yes
Previous scores	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
The system assesses the followniing attributes on-line:										
values	—	yes	—	yes	yes	—	—	—	—	—
interests	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	—	yes	—	yes
temperament	—	no	—	no	—	—	—	—	—	—
aptitudes	—	yes	yes	yes	—	—	—	—	—	yes
transferable skills	—	no	—	no	yes	—	yes	—	yes	—
Assessment formal?	—	yes	—	yes	—	—	yes	yes	—	yes
informal?	—	—	yes	—	yes	—	—	—	yes	—

	VLP[11]	PPS[12]	DTM[13]	OSY[14]	CSS[15]	RVE[16]	PTR[17]	ISL[18]	DMC[19]
Assessment systems	yes	no	no	no	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
If yes, they are:									
valid	yes	—	—	—	yes	—	—	yes	yes
reliable	yes	—	—	—	yes	—	—	yes	yes
appropriate	yes	—	—	—	yes	—	yes	yes	yes
Previous scores	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
The system assesses the following attributes on-line:									
values	—	yes	—	—	—	—	yes	—	yes
interests	—	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes
temperament	—	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	—
aptitudes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes
transferable skills	—	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	—	—	—
Assessment forma?	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	—	—	—	yes
informal?	—	—	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	—

Table 4

Occupational, Postsecondary Education/Training, and Financial Aid Information in Computer-Assisted Career Information Delivery Systems (CIDS)

	GIS[1]	DHS[2]	DJH[3]	DAD[4]	SG+[5]	CH[6]	CCT[7]	CHJ[8]	ERK[9]	VCN[10]
Occupational files include the following descriptive information about each occupation:										
(a) definition	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(b) duties	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(c) career ladders	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes
(d) working conditions	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(e) physical demands	yes	no	—	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(f) education required	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(g) licensing requirements	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes
(h) starting salary	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(i) occupational outlook	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
(j) employment level	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	—	yes	—	yes	yes
Military occupations	yes	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
The system contains files of postsecondary programs including:										
(a) two-year colleges	yes	yes	no	yes	—	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
(b) four-year colleges	yes	yes	no	yes	—	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
(c) graduate schools	yes	yes	no	yes	—	—	—	no	yes	yes
(d) vocational schools	yes	yes	no	yes	—	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
(e) apprenticeship	yes	—	no	—	—	—	—	no	yes	yes
(f) ROP	yes	yes	no	—	—	—	—	no	yes	yes
(g) financial aid	yes	yes	no	yes	—	yes	yes	no	yes	—

	VLP[11]	PPS[12]	DTM[13]	OSY[14]	CSS[15]	RVE[16]	PTR[17]	ISL[18]	DMC[19]
Occupational files include the following descriptive information about each occupation:									
(a) definition	—	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes
(b) duties	—	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	—	—	yes
(c) career ladders	—	yes	—	yes	yes	—	—	—	yes
(d) working conditions	yes	yes	—	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	yes
(e) physical demands	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	—
(f) education required	—	yes	yes	yes	yes	—	yes	—	yes
(g) licensing requirements	—	yes	—	—	yes	—	yes	—	yes
(h) starting salary	—	yes	—	—	yes	yes	—	—	yes
(i) occupational outlook	—	yes	—	—	yes	yes	—	—	yes
(j) employment level	—	yes	—	—	yes	—	—	—	yes
Military occupations	no	yes	no	no	yes	no	no	no	yes
The system contains files of postsecondary programs including:									
(a) two-year colleges	no	yes	—	—	no	no	yes	no	yes
(b) four-year colleges	no	yes	—	—	no	no	yes	no	yes
(c) graduate schools	no	—	—	—	no	no	no	no	yes
(d) vocational schools	no	yes	—	—	no	no	no	no	—
(e) apprenticeship	no	—	—	—	no	no	no	no	—
(f) ROP	no	—	—	—	no	no	no	no	—
(g) financial aid	no	—	—	—	no	no	yes	no	yes

Table 5

Test Scores Which May Be Entered Into Career information Delivery Systems

TESTS	GIS[1]	DHS[2]	DJH[3]	DAO[4]	CH[6]	CCT[7]	PPS[12]	DTM[13]	OSY[14]	CSS[15]	RVE[17]	DMC[19]
1. Achievement:												
a. CAT			yes									
b. CTBS			yes									
c. ITBS			yes									
d. MAT			yes									
e. SAT			yes									
f. SRA			yes									
g. WRAT								yes				
2. Aptitude:												
a. ASVAB					yes	yes						yes
b. GATB					yes	yes	yes		yes	yes	yes	
c. BMCT								yes				
d. CASAS												
e. DAT												yes
3. Intelligence:												
a. WAIS								yes				
4. Interest:												
a. CAI	yes	yes		yes	yes							
b. CDM	yes	yes		yes	yes							yes
c. SII	yes	yes		yes	yes	yes			yes			yes
d. SDS	yes	yes		yes	yes	yes						yes
e. COPS	yes	yes		yes								
f. OVIS	yes	yes		yes								yes
g. KOIS												yes
5. Combined:												
a. MESA							yes					
b. APTICOM							yes	yes			yes	
c. SAGE							yes					yes
d. CPP												
6. Skill:												
a. CASAS											yes	
7. Occupational:												
a. MRMT								yes				
b. MCT								yes				
c. Purdue Peg.								yes				
d. CSPDT								yes				

Legend:

1a	(CAT)	California Achievement Tests
1b	(CTBS)	Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills
1c	(ITBS)	Iowa Test of Basic Skills
1d	(MAT)	Metropolitan Achievement Tests
1e	(SAT)	Stanford Achievement Test
1f	(SRA)	SRA Achievement Series
1g	(WRAT)	Wide Range Achievement Test
2a	(ASVAB)	Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery
2b	(GATB)	General Aptitude Test Battery
2c	(BMCT)	Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test
2d	(CASAS)	Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System
2e	(DAT)	Differential Aptitude Test
3a	(WAIS)	Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale
4a	(CAI)	Career Assessment Inventory
4b	(CDM)	Career Decision-Making
4c	(SII)	Strong Interest Inventory
4d	(SDS)	Self-Directed Search
4e	(COPS)	Career Occupational Preference Survey
4f	(OVIS)	Ohio Vocational Interest Survey
4g	(KOIS)	Kuder Occupational Interest Survey
5a	(MESA)	MESA
5b	(Apticom)	Apticom
5c	(SAGE)	Systems for Assessment and Group Evaluation
5d	(CPP)	Career Planning Program
6a	(CASAS)	Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment System
7a	(MRMT)	Minnesota Rate of Manipulation Tests
7b	(MCT)	Minnesota Clerical Test
7c	Purdue Pegboard	Purdue Pebgoard Test
7d	(CSPDT)	Crawford Small Parts Dexterity Test

CIDS features vary considerably in perceived importance among system developers, policy-makers, researchers, and practitioners. The variability, the inclusion of different categories of occupational and educational information, and the integration of a career decision-making system to guide the individual's use of the system can be valued very dfferently among professionals.

CIDS costs vary considerably according to list prices and pricing structures. Variations for discounts for leasing more than one copy of the software, for multi-year leases, for using software on multiple computers at one site at no additional cost, and for unit costs of consumable and non-consumable support materials may have considerable impact on ultimate costs.

Decisions regarding CIDS adoption should be based on a careful analysis of the interaction of several features, including, but not limited to, costs and the context of implementation, that is, the goals and objectives of the organization, theoretical assumptions of counseling and guidance, staff competencies, and the size of the institution. The results of this study can be a starting point for a critical analysis of computerized CIDS.

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Reviews of Career Guidance Instruments

Robert H. Bauernfeind
Committee to Screen Career Guidance Instruments
Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development

Abstract

Three career guidance instruments are reviewed by the Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development (AMECD) Committee to Screen Career Guidance Instruments (CSCGI): the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey, and the Career Assessment Inventory-Enhanced Version.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI™)
FORM G — SELF-SCORABLE EDITION

Authors: Isabel Briggs Myers
Katharine C. Briggs

Publisher: Consulting Psychologists Press
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, CA 94306 — (800) 624-1765

Prices: Form G Sampler Set .....$ 6.50
"Introduction to Type" .....$ 2.50
Manual (1985) $26.00

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator™ and MBTI™ are trademarks of Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

PURPOSE:

The MBTI uses four dichotomous "personality types" to classify each client as a 4-letter type. The four dichotomies are:

E vs. I — Extraversion vs. Introversion
S vs. N — Sensing vs. Intuition
T vs. F — Thinking vs. Feeling
J vs. P — Judgment vs Perception

Thus, for example, a client could be classified as an ENFJ "type."

GROUPS:

Grades 9-12. College Students. Adults.

Reproduced with permission of AMECD NEWSNOTES, official publication of AMECD, from 24:2, 10-11; 24-3, 5-7; and 25:1, 5-7, respectively. Prices for the instruments have been updated to January, 1991.

AMECD CSCGI reviews are compiled by Committee Chairperson Robert H. Bauernfeind, Professor, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb.

FORMAT:

Form G Self-Scorable presents 94 preference items in a 4-page booklet. The items are of two types:

Phrases — 49 items . . . Example: Is it higher praise to say someone is (A) famous, or (B) gentle?

Word-Pairs — 45 items . . . Example: (A) debate relax (B)

A client marks these kinds of items on a separate answer booklet that records the marks on a scoring sheet inside the answer booklet. Next a client opens the booklet, calculates eight raw scores, records the raw score for each dichotomy, and records a 4-letter "type." Finally, a client transfers the 4-letter code to the MBTI Report Booklet and reads the eight preferences, along with a short summary of the code.

SCORES:

A client receives eight scores. For each dichotomy, only the letter of the higher score is recorded. With four dichotomies, there are 16 possible four-letter "types."

TIME:

This self-scorable edition of Form G can be marked and scored in 20 to 30 minutes.

HISTORY:

Based on theories of Carl Jung, the first MBTI appeared in 1943. Form F was issued for local scoring in 1957, and a publisher's scoring service was developed in 1962. Form G was published in 1977 with central scoring services, and this shorter self-scorable edition was issued in 1987. A Spanish edition of this same Form G was also issued in 1987.

A new 32-page booklet, *Introduction to Type*, describes each of the 16 MBTI types and gives interpretive and vocational suggestions for each type.

Throughout its 50-year history MBTI has emphasized the 4-letter Jungian "types." Scores are calculated, perforce, but only as a means for assigning a classification to each client.

RATINGS:

These Form G materials were studied by panelists Robert Bauernfeind, Gerald Olson, and Paul Tonetti. In addition, we polled panelists Robert Read and Donald Rosen, who have worked with the MBTI materials, and we studied three independent reviews in the test-review literature. The split was 4-to-4. First, the negatives:

Bauernfeind:

I really disliked many of the items. Choosing between "determined" and "devoted" seemed like choosing between "speedy" and "fast." Using the scoring key, I contrived an ENFJ "type." But, after changing only 5 of my 94 pencil marks, I came out ISTP. It doesn't seem reasonable that users are encouraged to abandon raw scores.

Rosen:

It seemed fine for its original purpose, like finding people who would probably "get along" with each other. But it is now being promoted for career counseling, with questionable validity studies.

Read:

. . . needs much more validation against career-satisfaction criteria.

Olson:

One must be familiar with types and theory to understand and interpret results; language is difficult; the items are verbal as opposed to behavioral; change in or omission of a single item can alter one's classification. It is *not* for high school students — I feel certain about that.

But, on the positive side:

Tonetti:

Items generally are well-written. The vocabulary level seems to be appropriate for above-average adolescents and adults. The inventory is well laid out, with plenty of room; type is clear; instructions are clear. Counselors must be able to use the MBTI as a counseling tool, and not as a test. The manual does an excellent job in providing an explanation of Jung's theory, a description of typologies, and instructions for using the MBTI for counseling, assessment of learning styles, and research purposes.

OTHER REVIEWS:

And the reviews in the literature also were on the positive side:

Coan (1978) wrote that the MBTI "needs further refinement, particularly with respect to item content. . . . On the whole, the test clearly merits further research and use" (page 975).

DeVito (1985) wrote that ". . . the Strong Interest Inventory is far more helpful (and valid) for the person making career choices, although the MBTI could be a useful adjunct. . . . In counseling, this reviewer recommends the dichotomies and 4-letter type in conjunction with the (raw scores). For research purposes, the use of (raw scores) is recommended" pages 1031-1032).

And Willis and Ham (1988) wrote that "In general, the MBTI is a good instrument, based on its substantive theoretical and empirical bases. . . . The MBTI Manual is among the top two or three currently available for use" (page 232).

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SUMMARY VIEWPOINT

It may be that the split opinions noted here are between those who are glad to see Jungian theory brought to life, and those who are more concerned about everyday career counseling.

Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (KOIS)

Author: Frederic Kuder

Publisher: Science Research Associates (SRA)
155 N. Wacker Drive
Chicago, IL 60606 — (800) 621-0476

Prices: Specimen Set .....$ 7.40
Computer/answer sheets: Pkg. of 20 ...$77.55

Note: The $77.55 price includes complete scoring services for each of 20 clients. Large quantity purchases have lower prices.

PURPOSE:

KOIS compares a person's interests with the interests of people already established in their careers. It is used chiefly as an aid in making school and occupational choices.

GROUPS:

Grade 10 through Adult.

FORMAT:

KOIS is printed in a four-page computer answer sheet. It presents 100 3-activity items. For each item, one activity is marked M-MOST, one activity is marked L-LEAST, and the third activity is left blank. Thus, the KOIS format elicits 200 pencil marks from each client.

The answer sheet must be machine-scored by SRA.

SCORES:

The computerized report form consists of four sections:

1. Does it appear that the client's record of pencil marks is trustworthy?
2. Which of these 10 area scores were high, average, and low when comcompared with a general population of KOIS users?

0 — Outdoor	5 — Artistic
1 — Mechanical	6 — Literary
2 — Computational	7 — Musical
3 — Scientific	8 — Social Service
4 — Persuasive	9 — Clerical

3. With which of more than 100 career groups does one's pattern of pencil marks most agree? Least agree? (The career scores are printed in rank-order from high to low).
4. With which of some 40 college-major groups does one's pattern of pencil marks most agree? Least agree? (The college-major scores are printed in rank-order from high to low).

TIME:

Most people finish marking the KOIS in 30 to 40 minutes.

NORMS:

Each career or college-major key was developed with data from some 250 workers (or college students) in all parts of the country. The same scoring keys are used with all clients, irrespective of their backgrounds, age, or sex.

REPORTS:

The report form is a four-page folder, with interpretive suggestions on the outside, and the client's results on the inside.

SUPPORT MATERIALS:

Four support materials are noteworthy. The first is the comprehensive General Manual (Kuder & Diamond, 1979). The second is the user-oriented Manual Supplement (Zytowski, 1985). The third is an Interpretive Audiocassette, currently priced at $17.75 per copy. The fourth is *FastFax*, a package of career-information sheets with current facts about the careers and/or college majors for KOIS scores. The *FastFax* pages are printed separately, so that any of them can be quickly updated. The complete *FastFax* packet is priced at $15.85 per package; users are welcome to reproduce any pages that would be helpful to their counselees.

PERSPECTIVE:

Scores on the KOIS are often quite similar to scores on the Strong Interest Inventory (STRONG) and the Career Assessment Inventory (CAI). Moreover, the computer print-outs for KOIS are quite similar to those for the STRONG and CAI instruments. However, the KOIS is unique in at least four major respects. First, the clients mark items in different ways:

KOIS	STRONG
For each item mark one M for MOST and one L for LEAST.	For each item mark L for Like, I for INDIFFERENT, D for DISLIKE:
Item 1. Listen to music .....M L	Item 1. Listen to music ....L I D
Read books .....M L	Item 2. Read books .....L I D
Watch TV .....M L	Item 3. Watch TV .....L I D

Marking KOIS, clients must make choices, sometimes hard choices. Marking STRONG or CAI, clients mark each activity separately, without reference to other activities.

Second, the "general" scores are different. The KOIS print-out shows Kuder's ten situational scores; the STRONG and CAI print-outs show scores for Holland's six personality themes along with a variety of "Basic Interest Scores" such as "mathematics," "law/politics," "religious activities," and the like:

KOIS	STRONG
0 — Outdoor	R — Realistic
1 — Mechanical	I — Investigative
2 — Computational	A — Artistic
3 — Scientific	S — Social
4 — Persuasive	E — Enterprising
5 — Artistic	C — Conventional
6 — Literary	Plus "Basic Interest Scores":
7 — Musical	23 in the STRONG
8 — Social Service	25 in the CAI
9 — Clerical	

Third, the statistical designs for the career scores are sharply different. With STRONG and CAI, a career score is generated as a client marks "bubbles" in ways in which a specific career group differed from a general reference group of students and working adults. With KOIS, a career score is generated as a client marks bubbles that given percentages of that specific career group marked. Thus, if 43 percent of a specific group marked "Watch TV — M," a client who marked "Watch TV — M" would gain .43 on his raw score for that career field. Thus, the KOIS research program does not require a carefully selected general reference group in order to generate a career key; the STRONG and CAI *do* require a carefully selected general reference group in order to generate a career key.

Fourth, the KOIS provides shared-interests scores with college majors — nursing majors, English majors, and the like. To date neither the STRONG nor the CAI provides college-major scores.

Advocates of KOIS view all four differences as positive. First, choosing a college major or a career often requires hard choices; the KOIS requires hard choices. Moreover, the forced-choice format tends to control for differences in "mood" between individuals, or between testings of one individual.

Second, advocates of KOIS tend to prefer the ten situational scores provided.

Third, the KOIS statistical design which does *not* require a carefully selected general reference group avoids that one research step where things might go wrong.

Fourth, the college-majors scores bring the "career" groups closer in age to high school and college students, and in many cases provide data of more immediate relevance for high school and college students.

Opponents of the KOIS often point to the historical eminence of the STRONG and to the fact that the current STRONG provides more than 200 careers scores. They also argue that many high school and college students dislike the forced-choice item format.

RATINGS:

These most recent KOIS materials were examined by this panel: Scarvia B. Anderson, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA; Kevin R. Murphy, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO; Carol Pearson, Sierra Sands Unified School District, Ridgecrest, CA; John D. Williams, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND.

Overall, the panel was pleased with the author's long history of research on the KOIS and with the manuals that accompany the instrument, especially the most recent Manual Supplement (Zytowski, 1985). The panel was less pleased with some of the items, the light green printing, and the fact that answer sheets must be scored by SRA.

On a scale of 1 to 10, panelists' ratings of KOIS ranged from 5 to 9:

Anderson:

Overall — 5. The KOIS benefits from over three decades of research, but of necessity most of the items have been around that long too. They appear to be quite dated. Some specifics: TV is not mentioned although the game of checkers figures prominently; the word "computer" does not appear in any of the items. The scores, especially the lambda coefficients, are difficult for students and counselors to understand. The answer sheet must be scored by SRA. Can there be a scoring program that users can use on their own computers? The KOIS is unlikely to be useful with any but the more knowledgeable high school students. To suggest, as the publisher does, administering it to "students who have reading problems" doesn't make sense. Counselors may want to include this old standby in their menus of optional instruments, but I would not suggest it for routine use with large groups.

Williams:

Overall — 8. While the inventory *per se* is satisfactory, one continuing problem for me is the necessity to have the answer sheets scored non-locally. Undoubtedly this is done both to insure control and maximize profitability. If local sites could be licensed to do their own scoring, it would be helpful.

Murphy:

Overall — 8. The KOIS is highly reliable and well-normed, and appears to be a highly valid instrument. The manual is informative and well-written, and conveys quite clearly the strengths and limitations of the test. The KOIS is, however, somewhat difficult from the respondent's point of view. Several items require the respondent to make choices among three activities about which the respondent may have no clear preference. It is useful to warn respondents before they take the test that many items represent activities they have never done or thought about.

Pearson:

Overall — 9. I felt the report forms did a fine job of conveying useful information to the client and the counselor. The print-outs are such that the readers can readily review the information unique to them while considering the explanatory notes. It seems that many inventory takers would indeed find much useful information that would not require further explanation. The manual supplement provides concise coverage that is quite readable.

OTHER REVIEWS:

Jepsen (1988) expressed concern about some of the items in the KOIS: he was especially concerned that the KOIS program focuses on *occupational membership* more than on *occupational satisfaction*. Jepsen concluded that KOIS does well what it is designed to do, "namely, assist students to differentiate among a limited group of occupations on the basis of similarity of interest patterns. Claims that go beyond this simple, but important, purpose are not substantiated by data or theory" (page 108).

Hunt (1984) wrote quite positively about the KOIS program, and concluded that "the test makes a distinct contribution both practically and theoretically, and is especially useful in specific vocational decision-making" (page 409).

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SUMMARY VIEWPOINT

Career counselors are urged to consider the concerns expressed by Anderson and Jepsen. If those concerns are judged to be minor, *then we endorse use of the KOIS with individuals and with groups.*

ADDENDUM

For interesting reading we recommend "Preferences: Frederic Kuder's Contributions to the Counseling Profession" by Zytowski and Holmberg, published in the November, 1988, issue of the *Journal of Counseling and Development.*

Career Assessment Inventory (CAI) — Enhanced Version

Author:	Charles B. Johansson		
Publisher:	National Computer Systems P. O. Box 1416 Minneapolis, MN 55440 — (800) 627-7271		
Prices:	Preview Package		$40.25
	Manual Only		$17.00
	Profile Report	1-9	$4.75 each
		100+	$3.50 each
	Narrative Report	1-9	$9.25 each
		100+	$6.10 each

NOTE: This report is concerned with the *Enhanced Version* of CAI which yields scores for 111 career clusters requiring both limited and very high levels of education. This report is NOT concerned with the *Vocational Version* which yields scores for 91 career clusters requiring only limited levels of education. The *Vocational Version* has fewer items; it requires fewer reading skills; it has slightly lower prices. Counselors working with students who very probably will NOT attend a four-year college may prefer to use the *Vocational Version.*

PREFACE:

The CAI was developed at National Computer Systems and is very similar in purpose and design to the latest STRONG materials. Counselors who have used the STRONG are well placed to use the CAI.

PURPOSE:

To provide each client with general interest scores along with 111 scores showing shared interests, values with people in 111 career fields.

GROUPS:

Grade 10 through Adult.

FORMAT:

The test booklet is an 8-page folder, consisting of 370 interest items:

Part 1 — Activities (e.g., Grow flowers) ..... 200 items
Part 2 — School Subjects (e.g., History) ..... 43 items
Part 3 — Occupations (e.g., Barber) ..... 127 items

Each item is marked on a 5-point scale, ranging from L-LIKE very much to D-DISLIKE very much. After the client marks the 370 "bubbles," the 8-page folder is sent to NCS for electronic scoring/processing.

TIME:

Most clients finish marking the CAI instrument in less than 40 minutes.

NORMS:

The general interest scores were normed on item responses of 900 students and working adults (450 males, 450 females) from the general population. Career scores were normed on item responses of workers in each specific career. (See the following section on Scores).

The CAI computer print-out presents a 3-tier structure. The first tier shows normalized standard scores on the six themes of the Holland Hexagon: R-Realistic, I-Investigative, A-Artistic, S-Social, E-Enterprising, and C-Conventional.

SCORES:

These six scores are approximately bell-shaped, ranging from a low of 20 to a high of 80. The author suggests these interpretations:

20-34 ..... Lowest 5 percent
35-42 ..... Low: Percentiles 5-25
43-57 ..... Average: Percentiles 25-75
58-65 ..... High: Percentiles 75-95
66-80 ..... Highest 5 percent

In selecting items for the CAI, the author tried to neutralize gender differences while retaining items that were heavily weighted toward career choice and or career satisfaction. The result is that male norms and female norms are *similar but not identical.* The pre-printed bar graphs show the middle 50% range for both sexes separately.

The second tier shows the same model of 20-80 standard scores for 25 "Basic Interest Area" scales, each listed under its predominant Holland

theme. Although the research design was somewhat different, these 25 scores can be thought of as factor scores from intercorrelation studies of all 370 items. The 25 basic interest scores are:

R-Mechanical/Fixing
- Electronics
- Carpentry
- Manual/Skilled Trades
- Protective Service
- Athletics/Sports
- Nature/Outdoors
- Animal Service

S-Community Service
- Educating
- Medical Service
- Religious Activities

I-Mathematics
- Science Research/ Development
- Medical Science

A-Writing
- Creative Arts
- Performing/Entertaining

E-Public Speaking
- Law/Politics
- Management/Supervision
- Sales

C-Office Practices
- Clerical/Clerking
- Food Service

The Carpentry scale, for example, consists of eight items, all correlating between .76 and .89 with the total score of the eight items. For Carpentry, the internal-consistency coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) was .95 for a sample of 1191 working adults.

The third tier shows the same model of 20-80 standard scores for 111 career groups. Each career group was composed of at least 70 workers (of both sexes) currently employed in that field for two or more years, who had marked spaces 4 or 5 on a 5-point job satisfaction scale.

Items for each career group were selected by comparing item responses of that career group with item responses of 900 students and working adults (450 male, 450 female) comprising a general reference population. When the items had been selected for each career, workers in that career were scored on the same 20-80 scale: A client scoring 50 on any career scale has scored in the middle of people in that career. Scores of 50 or higher are therefore very rare, and the author views such scores as highly significant in predicting job satisfaction.

The CAI author notes that this policy can cause confusion. In the first two tiers of print-outs, clients are compared with a general reference population. In this third section, clients are being compared *on the same 20-80 scale* with workers in specific careers. "An alternative was to also set up the population average at 50 for the Occupational scales, but when this was tried experimentally, it proved confusing to vocational professionals due to the historical nature of the norming occupational scales" (Johansson, 1986, page 96). The author apparently had the STRONG in mind when he made that comment.

Two possibly negative notes can be made with regard to the development of the careers scores. One is the fact that a few career groups were located in Minnesota only, or in Midwestern states only. However, the vast majority involved national samples in each career group. Second, some

career groups (17 actually) involved fewer than 100 workers. However, the 5-point item scale is probably more sensitive than the 3-point scale used in the STRONG and other similar instruments.

TECHNICAL DATA:

Technical data, answering almost every question imaginable, are found in a 218-page technical manual (Johansson, 1986).

RATINGS:

These latest CAI materials were examined by this CSCGI panel:

J. Paul Tonetti, New York State Education Department, Albany, NY
John D. Williams, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND
Kevin R. Murphy, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO
Donald Rosen, Texas Woman's University, Denton, TX

Each panelist was asked to rate the CAI on seven considerations, and then to give an overall rating of 1-to-10 to the entire CAI program. Three panelists were concerned about the L-I-I-D item format, noting that the second and third letters were very much alike. Two panelists were concerned about the small sample sizes for several of the career keys. Nonetheless, all four panelists gave the CAI program high ratings, although Tonetti was concerned about the ability of counselors to communicate key ideas to their clients, a concern previously expressed by McCabe (1988, page 80).

Tonetti:

Overall — 7. Counselors using this instrument need to be able to explain Holland's theories, facilitate group instruction, relate the results of the CAI to career/educational planning, and ensure that clients can distinguish between upper-case and lower-case letters in the test booklet.

Williams:

Overall — 8. The omnibus set of occupational activities does not represent blue collar jobs as much as one might expect. Occupations like "statistical technical worker" might have been a better choice than "statistician," and "behavior analyst" or "psychiatric technician" might have been a better choice than "psychologist." Still, for students needing more information after perhaps a SELF-DIRECTED SEARCH and who do not see themselves attempting a bachelor's degree, the CAI might well be worth the expense. . . . The manual for the CAI is excellent.

Murphy:

Overall — 9. The CAI is a well-developed test, with high levels of reliability, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. The test features careful attention to possible gender bias. The norms used in developing and validating the test are based on careful analyses that are described in a very well-written and complete test manual.

Rosen:

Overall - - 9. Johansson has done a really nice job of updating his instrument. I was impressed with the manual. Things are clearly labeled, easy to find, and written so that most counselors with their obligatory one course in measurement can understand and evaluate this instrument. . . . I tended to check a lot fewer "Like" responses on the CAI vs. the STRONG. This

might suggest that some screening of occupational goals might be advisable so that folks not looking for 4-year college occupations would get the CAI rather than the STRONG, and vice versa, as the instrument of first choice.

OTHER REVIEWS:

Four reviews published elsewhere also have been highly positive about the CAI program. Bodden (1978) wrote that ". . . the CAI is an excellent instrument and one which will probably receive wide acceptance and usage. It has an appropriate reason for being and should prove especially valuable to high school counselors in areas where a minority of students typically attend college" (page 1548). Lohnes (1978) wrote that ". . . (I) would choose it myself if I had to counsel an indecisive youth who had properly ruled out seeking a baccalaureate education" (page 1550).

McCabe (1985) wrote that "the test is well-developed and is engineered to be easily and appropriately used. Although it is not perfect, it appears to accomplish what it sets out to do and to do this quite effectively" (page 137). Walsh and Betz (1985) wrote that ". . . the interpretive information suggests that individuals with interests similar to those of workers in a given occupation probably find that kind of work to be personally rewarding. . . . The CAI developed by Johansson is making good effort at helping students and adults with career decisions related to beginning work immediately" (page 257).

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SUMMARY VIEWPOINT

Clearly other members of our profession tend to agree with this CSCGI report: *We strongly endorse use of the CAI with individual clients and groups*, especially with those who are not considering a 4-year college program.

Building the Counseling Profession . . .

"Building the Counseling Profession" highlights significant events and offerings in the history and the development of the counseling profession in California. The inaugural issue of the CPGA NEWS JOURNAL (the CACD Journal) featured this article.

1968-69 CPGA President's Message
Richard Hoover

Abstract

The president of CPGA (now CACD) presents visionary leadership in calling for action for the profession of counseling and human development in California.

My term of office has just begun, yet already it is apparent that four or five developments will be unusually demanding of the time and attention of the association, its leadership, and its members.

First, this is a year which brings new association relationships. This inevitably means that a "shakedown" period is necessary. Let us find ways of cooperating with each other and coordinating our efforts so that the strength of our united association can be maximized on every occasion. Further, let us also observe and discuss fully the apparent strengths and weaknesses of our present machinery and move to implement change in internal structure and processes as appropriate.

Second, as the only APGA state branch having six statewide divisions, we are now able to enjoy a direct and immediate line of communication to and from APGA and APGA Headquarters as well. Our assumption that developing a state branch of APGA would put us in a position of affecting national and state policy is being realized. For example: California representatives to the 1968 APGA Senate and to division legislative bodies led successful floor fights to amend bylaws of the aforementioned organizations so that a greater voice in directing the national associations was secured for the states, local organizations, and the individual member; California members of the APGA Board of Directors introduced and received passage in May of board policies which commit APGA to providing financial assistance to state associations and which modified APGA nomination and election procedures, insuring that the nominees receiving the greatest number of nominating ballots are the nominees whose names actually go on the APGA election ballot. This is just the beginning! It now remains for us to organize ourselves within the state so that grassroots opinions and positions can be appropriately transmitted to Washington, D.C., and Sacramento. In turn, legislation and policy determination at the national and state levels must be scrutinized and reviewed by local groups and individual members to insure appropriateness.

Third, we are today a united group. We consist of 4,500 members, six statewide divisions, and six local chapters. We have, however, a potential membership of well over 10,000 professionals. Can you visualize the impact and the strength CPGA and its affiliates could have in all matters affecting

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the personnel, guidance, and counseling profession if that membership potential could be realized? A primary task, then, for each of us is to actively and aggressively promote our profession and membership in our local association, in our state division, in CPGA, and in APGA. Only in this way can we make strides toward becoming a professional association truly representing all counseling, guidance, and personnel workers.

Fourth, while we are obligated to give considerable emphasis to structure and organizational matters, we must also give high priority to the professional purposes and activities of CPGA. Two activities illustrative of the forthcoming program of services for members are the 1969 CPGA Convention and, of course, this first issue of the *California Personnel and Guidance Association News Journal.* Both are stamped with quality and both need our support as participants and as contributors respectively.

Fifth, the question of where we stand and who we stand with is a crucial one this year. Can we as professional personnel and guidance workers muster the strength and commitment to openly and actively work together to assist and support our California School Counselor Division, CSCA, in its efforts to improve counseling services in the schools by reducing counselor-pupil ratios and by purging counselor function of its quasi-administrative duties? Can we, by our actions and not by words alone, demonstrate our belief in the right of every human being to a self-determination not restricted by prejudice, bigotry, racism, or intolerance in any form? It seems imperative that our answers to such questions must not only be in the affirmative but that they must also be backed by some sort of positive and direct professional programs of action on the part of organizations and individuals alike.

Finally, can we as a united profession speak for ourselves on issues of direct and primary concern or must we rely on the older "more powerful" related organizations to handle our causes for us? Perhaps this is the year for us to begin to look to our own professional personnel, guidance, and counseling associations for leadership. Perhaps this is the year to ask *these* associations to speak for and implement action on behalf of professionals in the field. Yes, this may even be the year for us to rely a little less on the "more powerful" related professional groups to fight our battles and carry our messages as our goals do not interfere or conflict with the goals of such groups. This may, in fact, be the year for us to begin to rely even more upon ourselves and the inherent strength of *our* professional organizations to actively and directly promote *our* cause: that of better counseling services, higher counseling standards, and commitment to ethical practices in all settings.

This is not meant to say that we turn away from inviting cooperation and support from other related professional or lay organizations. It does say, however, that we now consider assuming full responsibility for our profession and its concerns and not "hand over" such responsibility to others for whatever the reason.

Those we work with, especially the young adults and youth, have shown us the value of involvement and activism. Our commitment and our efforts on behalf of our profession must be as visible.

I invite you to join your board of directors and me in making a commitment and initiating effort — now! In other words, "Come on in — the water's fine!"

The Personal Side of Counseling . . .

The personal side of counseling highlights feelings, opinions, and attitudes within and about the counseling profession.

As a Glowworm Giveth: The Investiture of Counseling

Wendell H. Jones

Abstract

A counselor experiences heightened consciousness serendipitously and finds inspiration from an unexpected source.

> Mr. Jones . . . I am asking you to say a little prayer for me every now and then. I am gonna (sic) keep on pushing because I know that if my baby were still alive, she'd like that.

The note fluttered, annoyingly, from the heavy black scrapbook I wrenched from the top shelf of my closet. It was from a former counselee of mine, 16 years old when she wrote it.

I was getting the scrapbook, decades old, because my daughter's swim team had asked me to give the invocation at its banquet that night. My wife had laughed — not a religious person, I was looking for a poem I had in mind, the paraphrased words of an Aztec chieftain at his coronation. I could remember only the rhythm, not the words, but I knew the poem would be ideal — something about insight and seeking inspiration. All the swim team and parents would like it. But was it in the scrapbook?

Other yellowing papers, protruding, handwritten, caught my eye. Some bore dates: 1961, 1964, the 1970s. They crinkled in my hands. Below messages, I saw signatures: "Dolores," "Ed's Grandmother," "Christine."

A senior picture tumbled out. I read the back of it:

> To Mr. Jones:
>
> You are the only teacher I have ever really talked to. In the future don't forget me (please).
>
> Your student, Dolores.

On the other side was a photo of a young woman with beautiful, trusting eyes — Lincoln High School, Class of '61. I was 24 years old and single at the time, a new teacher of business subjects, and Dolores had been assigned by the counseling office to help me alphabetize papers, post grades, and do other clerical work. I took her note as a great compliment then; today, 30 years later, I wondered what had happened to her. I thought about her going to college, but 30 years ago some fathers didn't allow their daughters to accept college scholarships; the fathers didn't believe a single woman of 18 had any reason to go.

From the bothersome binder I pulled a thank-you note signed "Ed's Grandmothe.," received when I was working at another high school as a

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counselor. The note had a Hollywood Boulevard return address:

> Dear Mr. Jones,
>
> I know Ed Small has been absent often this past month, and I could no longer wield any influence on him.
>
> I sent him home to Nashville and his mother yesterday. I really regretted doing this.
>
> You helped him a great deal, he appreciated it, and I did too.
>
> Thank you so much.

Ed wouldn't have thanked me face-to-face in 1964. I believe he would have felt less than manly doing that. As a matter of fact, I doubted that I'd helped Ed in any way.

As I looked at his grandmother's thank-you note, another male student came to mind: a bedraggled, would-be runaway with an auto club road map in his hand. His mother had taken the money he saved from his after-school job and spent it on narcotics for herself, then awakened him in the night with a shotgun and threatened to kill him. I spotted him at the edge of the campus on a Friday afternoon, as I left work in the dusk.

In 1970 any runaway taken into custody by police was returned by the officers to his or her parent. I didn't think that would be a good move in this young man's case, so I stayed with him at a lunch counter until midnight, when he was officially placed in a temporary foster home. I felt a sense of responsibility and a conflicting sense of resentment. I was tired from the work week, still single, and this kid was delaying my weekend. I reminded myself that other counselees had died, and that maybe I should have found more time to spend with them.

My impatience grew. I wasn't finding the poem from the Aztec chieftain.

And then, the note that had fluttered out, annoyingly, in the first place—typed, and dated January, 1977 — with it a Polaroid snapshot of a baby, sleeping:

> I want to thank you for your understanding, and for comforting me in pain and sorrow when I suffered the loss of my daughter whom I loved very much.
>
> On Thanksgiving Day, 1972, nine months after being molested. I gave birth to an 8-pound, 6-ounce, beautiful baby girl with sweet eyes and a head full of sandy hair. I was 12½ years old then. Just a baby myself, and I had to take on the responsibilities of being a mother.
>
> My daughter passed away in early December. She was only four years old. I ask myself why God decided that it was her turn to come to visit him.
>
> Christmas this year was no Christmas for me. I am hoping that 1977 will be a much better year, and I am asking you to say a little prayer for me every now and then. I am gonna (sic) keep on pushing because I know that if my baby were still alive, she'd like that.
>
> Christine.

Christine had used the phone on my desk in the vocational school's counseling cubicle to receive the call from her friend at the hospital where her sick child had been taken. I put out my hand; weeping violently, she took it.

Powerful images flooded my senses! I saw that, like the poem from the Aztec chieftain that had flickered through my mind and now was gone, school children had passed through my life sparkling brilliantly. Touching me. And, from time to time, spectacularly affecting me! I felt the rhythm, the cadence, of an ancient culture. Words took form . . . a firefly . . . a glowworm!

Then I knew. Those were the words of the Aztec chieftain. He had asked for "light . . . be it only so much as a glowworm giveth."

I knew I could find that poem somewhere.

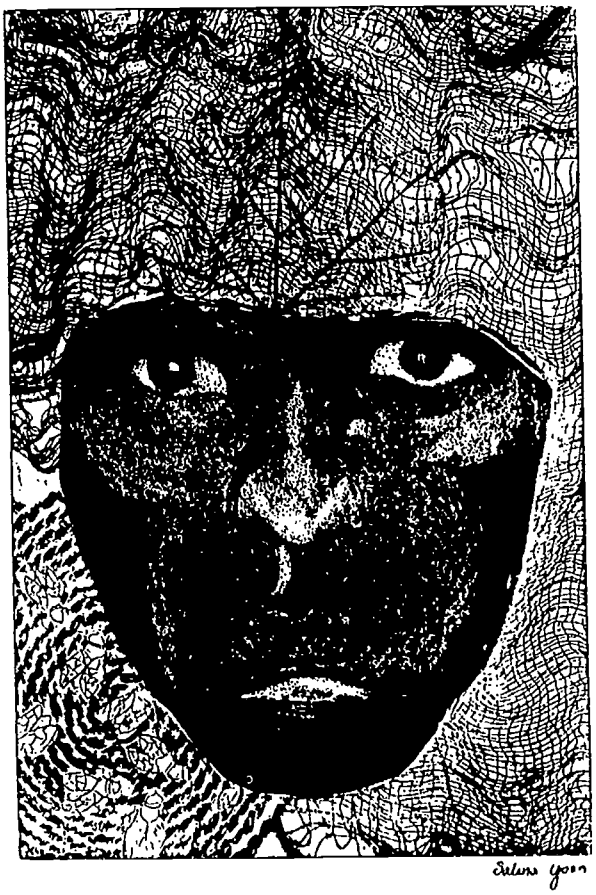

Illustration by Salina Yoon, Student, Los Angeles County High School for the Arts, Los Angeles, California.

Academic Advisors, Computers, and CAN: The Future of Academic Counseling

Fred Emerling

Abstract

Academic advisors, computerized advising, and the California Articulation Numbers system impact the role of the community college counselor. Counselors are urged to take action.

I have seen the future of academic counseling and it is bleak. Three developments could signal the demise of one of the community college counselor's chief duties, academic counseling: academic advisors, computerized advising, and the California Articulation Numbers (CAN) system.

Those who have been involved in academic counseling recognize the importance of having a friendly, well-trained counselor clarify the intricacies of major and general education requirements to often bewildered students. Not all segments of the academic community concur.

Recently, our administration was funded to hire two full-time counselors to help to relieve an overburdened staff and a frustrated student body. Rather than hire two proven professionais, the administration hired four bachelor's level "academic advisors" — a title selected over "paraprofessionals," "counseling assistants," and others. These academic advisors (with majors in speech, physical education, and so on) conduct orientation, meet with all first-semester students to explain major and general education requirements, and perform other duties previously done by master's level counselors.

Why was this done? Simply put, four bodies were added for the price of two. Forget training, assume that every student knows his or her major with certainty, and assume that personal problems are not interfering with student academic performance.

There is no use in becoming a Luddite about computer usage, but a future of academic advising with a computer leaves me cold. Imagine a student receiving a print-out each semester detailing the remaining major and general education courses needed to transfer to the University of Somewhere. Further, imagine the student signing up to take his or her next semester's classes, and completing an associate degree without ever meeting with a counselor. Such a scenario assumes a clear career goal and major, a well-defined transfer location, and no personal problems interfering with the student's academic performance that necessitate personal contact with a human being. This is the vision for our counseling center — as early as two years hence.

A third development, much older than the preceding two, is CAN. CAN allows colleges and universities with unique course numbering sys-

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tems to determine whether courses are equivalent from one college to another. Despite its benefit, CAN presents one problem for counselors: less astute administrators may view a large CAN system as a replacement for a counseling professional. Inserting CAN numbers into the aforementioned computer system may seduce unwary administrators into believing that students are being served in the best possible way.

While the preceding discussion sounds depressing, it should instead be viewed as an alarm to sound us to action. All three of these developments are neither evil nor undesirable in and of themselves; they could be successfully integrated within the current counseling framework. To begin with, it is imperative that administrators recognize that most students have only vague understanding about the careers that they have selected, and that some students may not be well-suited for those careers.

Professional counselor input, advice, and direction are required. Second, many students want to communicate with people, not computers; counselors, therefore, must become literate on how computers can assist our profession and our students.

If academic advisors are inevitable, they must act as counseling assistants rather than as an autonomous group. Counselors must work to ensure that advisors will be supervised by counselors, or, at least, serve under the Dean of Counseling. When students confuse counselors with advisors, counselors may receive the criticism for all errors. To avoid the "necessity" for educational advisors, counselors must actively lobby at all levels of college — deans, president, board, college committees, and individual faculty — as well as at the district and state levels. To do less is to hide our heads in the sand.

White, Male, and Human

John Baker

Abstract

A counselor makes a strong personal commitment to affirmative action for all people.

The other day I attended a session on women/minorities issues. During the discussion, a colleague stated that when she became Dean of Instruction, she would hire women and minorities. I leaned over and said, "And white males." I continued by saying I needed to share something with my colleagues that I had never shared with anyone. Saying it would be most difficult and very painful.

As I looked around the room, I saw people to whom I, as a representative of white males, had brought great grief and suffering. As a white male, I must confess that I came from a family that owned slaves. I confess that I came from a nation that viewed women as subservient; I confess that I came from a community that demeaned members of the gay community. For this I am deeply ashamed.

It should be good enough for any of us to simply get up and go to work each day. That is not happening for many of us.

I know that the women present in this seminar receive unequal treatment at their work sites. That minorities present are forced to explain themselves because of their skin color or to be criticized unfairly by those with whom they work regarding cultural differences. That gays are the target of demeaning jokes. The burden of these cruel attacks has haunted me throughout my life. The suffering and cruelty that continue around issues of gender, race, sexual preference, and creed continue to divide people.

As a person who is white and male, let me tell you that, like others, I am a victim. Someone once said that when one person suffers, I too suffer. for I am a member of the world family. So it is for us.

I remember at the age of 22, when I was in graduate school, the pain I experienced in the Civil Rights Movement. I saw the injustice that African-Americans experienced, and all the broken promises made by white males. I remember how desperately I wanted to become black. White and Male for me seemed to be the source of all evil. One day my roommate and I visited his family in Harlem. He took me aside and said, "John, you can't help me unless you respect yourself. Being white and male is okay." I have never forgotten those words.

Yes, the pain of past and continuing suffering lives with me, and will until I die. Yet I also know that I am a part of the solution — white

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male and all. And since graduate school I have dedicated myself to the human rights struggle. My family and I, like others, have paid a price for this choice; we have also experienced the joy of seeing people become more complete members of community in all ways.

Many talk today about the 90s as the decade through which many historical non-players will become affirmed and able to participate fully in community at all levels and to celebrate themselves and others. I pray for this. We must remember that affirmative action is not about minorities, is not about women, is not about white males. Affirmative action is about building a community on the shoulders of all its people and it is about the empowerment of all residents. Doing so will guarantee a healthy future for all children.

Like my brothers and sisters, I was born with givens (white skin and male), over which I have no control. I know that ignorance is the enemy of all. Today we are all victims of this disease which leads to bigotry, hate, poverty, war, and death. Ignorance is a disease of the heart — and a disease that we can control.

As a white male, and, more importantly, as a fellow human being, I share with you in the struggle of human rights. Acting affimatively is our best medicine in our battle against ignorance.

I do not dismiss the past, nor those injustices that continue today. Much homework awaits us now. And, as we address the next decade, I know that it will require the efforts of all.

I offer you the only gifts I have, my friendship and my commitment that I will throughout my remaining days — with you — do all in my power to affirm myself and the peoples of this world so we all can claim these words:

Free at last, Free at last —
Thank God almighty we are free at last.

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