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NEW DIRECTIONS FOR CAREER COUNSELLING: PARADIGMS IN TRANSITION

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Abstract: The importance of human development and of structural ecological and life-span perspectives of human development for conceptualizing and organizing career interventions is outlined. The commitment to goals of facilitating human development, the utility of a systems approach in conceptualizing and intervening in human career needs, concerns and problems, and the congruence between these values and career counselling action will be recognized important elements to change and construct the future of career counselling. Accordingly to these perspectives, new developments in professionals' models and practice as well as actual contextual scenarios for women and academic life populations will be briefly referred. Finally, we will refer to some of the Portuguese practice in this area, where recent attempts have been made to define a more inspired developmental orientation of intervention strategies and techniques.

MOVING TO A PARADIGM SHIFT ON CAREER COUNSELLING

We are moving to a new paradigm on career counselling. A number of authors have espoused the view that the goals of modern human career services and programs must transcend the

boundaries established by traditional theories and concepts, and career. Recently, there have been some encouraging signs that a developmental framework is being regarded as an identifying core of counselling.

Sustained historical and contemporary support for a developmental orientation is prominent in the counselling literature (Blocher, 1966; Campos, 1988, 1990; Ivey & Ivey, 1990; Ivey & Van Hestern, 1990; mahoney, 1988; Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971; Rigazio-DiGilio, 1989; Rigazio DiGilio & Ivey, in press; Tamase, 1988, 1989; Van Hestern & Ivey, 1990; Van Hesteren & Pawlovich, 1986).

The decision of the *American Personnel and Guidance Association* to redesignate itself as the *American Association for Counselling and envelopment*, reflects this movement.

The importance of developmental theory has long been recognized by our profession, but only recently the various developmental approaches are being applied to counselling practices - research and theory advanced to the point at which we can use them in a practical way - and development concepts are used to integrate traditional theory and practice (Ivey, 1990).

THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT, IN A STRUCUTURAL, ECOLOGICAL AND LIFE-SPAN PERSPECTIVE

Educational, life-span developmental and ecological perspectives and models seem to be contrasting with the

traditional medical career and psychological ones. The medical mode, based upon the philosophical premise of the separation mind/body, emphasized organic remediation, often criticized by psychology and education.

The traditional psychological models emphasized the mind and the behaviour and focused on the individual (Blocher & Biggs, 1983; Ivey, 1990). The developmental perspective considers both the physical and the mental models as important to education, proffers that human development promotion should be the focus of intervention, and recognizes that individuals live and grow in families, groups, organizations, and culture (Ivey & Van Hestern, 1990).

Some differences exist between this perspective and traditional ones. First, remediation as a purpose for intervention is viewed as entirely appropriate and necessary. However, our main purpose is to help people to avoid dysfunction through developmental and preventive activities. This central tendency reflects a paradigm shift from remediation to development and prevention. Another difference is that the change fulcrum is not found within the individual, but between the individual and salient social environment conditions. This characterization is consistent with more recent human ecological and contextual perspectives in which the significance person-environment interaction is also emphasized (Blocher, 1981; van Hestern & Ivey, 1990; Conyne, 1988).

This ecological orientation of counselling theory seems to be answer to the disappointment with the solutions generated by traditional approaches that supported helping professions over the past two decades, and specially to the tendency, in a psychology, to ignore the role of social and environmental variables in development (cf. Sarason, 1988). As Campos (1988) recently outlined, even the fashionable cognitive oriented approaches of intervention have neglected the social dimension of psychological construction processes and, consequently, the global transformation of life contexts.

In the new perspectives, the interdependence of individuals and human systems is an explanatory process for human behaviour understanding. Underlying is the belief that we need to construct and conceptualize the behaviour of human beings in terms of their interactions, in the context of groups, institutions and communities that define their identities and largely control their destinies. There is also the explicit recognition that individual change is not enough, and that counselling is also about systemic change.

Furthermore, developmental theorists have come to believe that what happens on any level of analysis (e.g., the biological, the psychological, the social) systematically influences what happens on all others (Baltes, Reese & Lipsitt, 1980; Lerner & Bush-Rossnagel, 1981; Nesselroade & Von Eye,

1985). Yet, there is a growing theoretical and empirical literature which suggests the adoption of multilevel bases of human functioning and the connection among levels of development, instead of an exclusively psychological approach of individual development alone.

The literature that suggests these ideas has been associated with a life-span view of human development, reflecting the contextual orientation to science (Lerner, Hultsch & Dixon, 1983). Considered as a whole, lifelong development is a system of change patterns that differ in terms of *timing* (e.g., onset, duration, and termination), *direction* and *order*. One way to give substance to the notion of life-span development is to think of the kind of opportunities and demands that individuals face as they move through life. Developmental tasks involve a series of problems, challenges or life-adjustment situations that come from biological development, social expectations and personal action. These problems change through life and give direction, force and substance to development (Havighurst, 1973, p.11).

The belief is that humans or at least, many humans retain a great capacity for change across the entire life-span and that the consequences of the events of early childhood are continually transformed by later experiences, making the course of human development more open than perceived. There is a major concern with issues of (a) relation between evolution and ontogeny, (b) life course constancy and change, (c) human plasticity, (d) the role that the developing person plays in his

or her own development, (e) and basic role of the changing context in developmental change.

Within this framework, the context for development is not a simple stimulus environment, but rather, as Bronfenbrenner outlined, "an ecological environment conceive topologically as a nested arrangement of concentric structures, each contained in the next" (Bronfenbrenner, 1970, p.22), and including variables from biological, individual-psychological, outer physical and socio-cultural levels, all changing interdependently across history (Riegel, 1975, 1976). The system within which the transactions between the individual and environments are structured, that is, the ecosystem, is the appropriate unit for analysis of human behaviour (Bronfennbrenner, 1979).

Conyne (1988), adopting the same perspective, invited us to bear in mind that humans, encountering a particular environment, will behave as a complex result of several mutually influencing factors such as personal characteristics (e.g., demographic and life-story), environmental characteristics (e.g., physical setting and social climate) and mediational processes (e.g., cognitive appraisal, motivation and dominant coping strategies). Thus, a person, a group, or a total population should not be thought of as automatically or reflexibly reacting to a particular environment, but as more proactive, and actively searching meaning in their social worlds. The processing in which a person dynamically engages about environment, serves to mediate or shape his or her behavior. And the effects of that

behavior, in turn, serve to influence both the environment itself and the ongoing mediation that is taking place. Interventions should be created with mediating process activity well in mind.

Thus, human development is conceptualised as a product of a life-long process of engagement between the individual and the environment, and behaviour is fully understandable only within the natural person-environmental context in which the behaviour occurs. Two basic premises underly the rationale of this model:

- The first one is that human beings are characterized by a basic and inherent drive toward competence or mastery of environment. Failure to achieve some sense of competence or control over one's life has been related to breakdowns in psychological functioning. Human beings are, though, seen as social organisms engaged in patterns of interpersonal relationships that nurture or inhibit their basic humanity.

- The second premise is that there is a need to study the development of competence as it occurs in natural settings. It is recognized that some of the causes of the problems may reside in the less than optimal features of the society itself, such as sexism, unemployment, racism, poverty or restricted educational opportunities. For that purpose, counsellors should be constantly aware that developmental change occurs within a cultural context and modifies all observations and interventions with sensitivity to individual and group differences.

Several intervention strategies may be suggested for use, to help our clients reduce environmental stress or increase social support (according to Swenson, 1968):

- *reconstructing*, or cognitively modifying how situations are experienced by the clients;

- *transcending*, a notion for coping, allowing an environmental stressor, "passing through" without an active response;

- *encapsulating*, a strategy in which client can successfully cope by identifying and aligning with some existing strength or support within a generally unsatisfactory environment;

- *redesigning*, a central strategy for a client to use when seeking to directly change an unacceptable environment;

- *exiting*, or choosing to flee an existing environment when other strategies seem unworkable, which generally is based on the need psychic or physical survival;

- and *selecting*, which also represents a choice to exit but it is based on a planned move toward a more desirable option.

More recently, some of our intervention programs have tended to be concerned with a variety of factors that affect the immediate and practical functioning and performance of an individual in his or her own community setting. Such interventions include the client's attitudes and competences, family interaction patterns, and educational social and vocational skills, and also problems and resources inherent in the client's environment such as housing, employment or

educational opportunities, health care, financial security, and physical mobility and also the attitudes and actions of the community or society itself toward the identified client (Iscoe, 1974).

The system change perspective differs, though, from the predominant person-change perspective in counselling practice which has ignored environmental life-event considerations while emphasizing intrapersonal and, to a lesser extent, interpersonal ones. These ideas influence extremely the design of interventions. It requires from the counsellor (a) analysis of community systems and of how they interact with each other, (b) the careful study of the relationship between the physical environment and individual behaviour and (c) the focus upon the relationships between the individual and the immediate social environment (Blocher & Biggs, 1983).

Though, the challenge we must assume is to help individuals, as well as the organizations and communities they create, to cope more effectively with the problems, opportunities, and stresses of everyday life, in their natural environments. Consulting skills, family skills and community development skills become equal important than our traditional emphasis on individual counselling theory and practice. Counsellors should be able to understand the complexities within a variety of social contexts across the full life-span and to assess, intervene in, and evaluate the dynamics involved in family, neighbourhood, school, social agencies, and community

institutions as these dynamics impact on the members of client systems.

Developmental counselling theory holds that our final task as professional helpers is to understand how client's make sense of the world and, thus, to facilitate change and life-span development.

Naturally, our understanding of the client's world is shaped by our theoretical orientations. Even conscious that, as we work with human systems, we are constantly engaged in building, testing, and modifying our theories, we should, however, start with the client's world view than with our theory. Fortunately, is not so easy to impose our ideas on our clients. For example, research shows than 50% of minority students do not return to a second counselling session (Sue, 1981). The effective counsellor meets the client where he/she is, using developmentally appropriate interventions, within an appropriate cultural framework. The aim is to expand the client's potential before attempting to move vertically, to more complex ways of being (horizontal and vertical development).

Guidano's (1987, 1988) approach, for example, is particularly useful in helping client's discover how they construct reality, in the family and cultural contexts. His method includes confrontational techniques to move clients from denial and distortions to the responsible constructions and creation of new meanings and ways of being. He, then, changes his role in the relationship, from therapist to consultant, to

help client's proceed the process of examination and challenge of their cognitions and world views. Life-span developmental approaches such as this one, focus on education and treatment of developmental concepts.

Ivey's (1990) work is another example of the efforts to translate developmental theories into counselling strategies, and to adapt and relate counselling styles to developmental theory.

In his book *Developmental Strategies for Helpers*, Ivey (1990) states that counselling theory can be organized into four basic tenets: (a) assessing the developmental level of the client's; (b) matching our theory to the specific needs of the client, since different theoretical approaches seem to relate better to some client developmental level's than others; (c) changing our approach as the client grows and develops; (d) and modifying and adapting our theory of choice as our client change.

Developmental strategies, that is, specific interventions to facilitate client cognitive and affective development, can contribute to organize traditional counselling theory into a developmental perspective. In this sense, Ivey believes that counselling and therapy theories can be organized according to four basic types (or developmental levels):

- (a) Body work, experiential awareness, and environmental structuring theories, oriented toward sensorio-motor growth - in this level, counsellors tend to use structuring methods such as

behavioural modifications, gestalt exercises, relaxation training and environment interventions;

- (b) assertiveness training and problem solving approaches are examples of concrete operational methods - the counsellor operates more as coach and may use behavioural methods such as thought stopping, assertiveness training and life - skills training;

- (c) rogerian client-centred and psychodynamic orientations are related to formal operations - reality therapy, structured problem-solving methods, decisional counselling and vocational placement exemplify methods at this level;

- (d) feminist therapy, black consciousness raising and family systems are examples of the dialectics/systemic level - as client's patterns mature, counsellor tends to use formal modes of treatment such as rogerian, psychodynamic approaches and logotherapy.

Different theories of counselling seem to be more effective and more focused on varying developmental levels. However, each theory, in some way, devotes some attention to all levels. The interventions can be used by themselves as a treatment alternative or, they may be integrated into various types of counselling practice.

These above four levels of intervention should be conceived as a developmental sphere, with circular movements through the life space. "With each problem solved, each developmental task met, we must return to the beginning or to another level, to

work on other developmental opportunities and problems", in other words, "There is no end to development" (Ivey, 1990, p.).

In sum, we need to attach our therapeutic style to the developmental needs of the client, always working within professional ethical standards. For these purposes, professional helpers should deal with the diversity of developmental approaches and not with an exclusive perspective. An important and useful task may be to translate the ideas of key developmental theorists like Erikson, Kohlberg, Kegan, Gilligan, Baltes, and others, into practical frameworks, for assessing and understanding the conceptual words of our clients.

Considerable reliance on developmental psychological theory as a basic for professional identification also emphasizes the need for critical awareness of culture-bound value presuppositions and the assumption of cultural differences. One of our special purpose as professional counsellors should be to help individuals and significant others (e.g. family) to learn from the culture, to learn how to act within the culture and, when necessary, to change that culture. Although all individuals work through similar issues in the life-cycle, each culture has different ideas of what comprises a healthy personality and family (Ivey, 1990).

This new role characterization for counsellors also implies that professional helpers will master a number of models of psychological intervention and that, while the traditional modes

involving individual and group counselling are still major tools in the professional repertoire, they are no longer sufficient in themselves. Consultation, training and organizational development are equally important interventions for the counsellors to utilize.

In fact, during the past 20 years, remarkable changes have occurred in the scope and nature of professional roles and settings. Although many of us continue to practice in settings primarily educational in orientation, many others have moved into a variety of human services agencies and settings, and offer an array of services to a number of publics. To be effective in this work, we should articulate a sensible and flexible goal structure around which to organize resources and programs. In this sense, Blocher & Biggs (1983) believe that perhaps one of the most important tasks in the human services field involves facilitating, supporting and encouraging the work of often recognized people such as teachers, counsellors, nurses, social workers, police, family practice, physicians, foster parents and volunteers.

The complexity of this task is enormous - conceptual and methodological oversimplification is not the answer to the problem. Specialization, in terms of knowledge deepening, may not only be appropriate but necessary (Lerber & Schulenberg, 1986, Campos, 1986, 1988).

Psychology remains an important discipline for the practice of counselling and development but it is not enough. Counsellors have to be knowledgeable of all the associate disciplines such as evolutionary biology, epistemology, sociology social and developmental human ecology, and others (Blocher and Biggs, 1983; Campos, 1988; Gonçalves, 1990; Ivey, 1990). We should, therefore, contribute to the emerging shift toward a multidisciplinary approach to human development in order to adopt more complex multivariate conceptual perspectives, taking, however, always in to consideration, the necessity for the integration of those multidisciplinary approaches into a unified interdisciplinary theory.

In addition, it will be important to extend developmental approaches to the usually considered psychopathological situations (Campos, 1988). The notion that development and pathology are to be found in the interaction, between individual and environment, and that the counsellor must be able to understand and intervene constructively in that interaction was articulated some 20 years ago, in the counselling literature. Unfortunately, much of these ideas appear to have been ignored, or at least not carefully nurtured.

Historically, the developmental orientation has been seen as different and distinct from remedial therapy and cure, in the constant effort to separate clinical psychology from counselling psychology. This of distinction has been made by Morrill,

Oetting and Hurst (1974) model of counselling, described as being remedial, preventive and developmental. While these distinctions may be useful, for example, because they remind us of the limitations of a remedial model, the separation of counselling from development results in missing the fact crises and trauma can be part of eventual growth and maturation (Blocher & Biggs, 1983; Conyne, 1988).

Almost 20 years have passed since the publication of the counselling cube. Its main effect was to expand many professional helpers' conceptions of counselling and to generate considerable innovation at this level (Conyne, 1988). It lead to more comprehensive conceptions of intervention, with several combinations of purpose-by-method-by-target. Nowadays, different targets of intervention are proposed: individuals, families, groups, organizations and communities. Direct or indirect methods are used as a function of purposes. Direct methods include individual and group counselling crisis intervention, education and training. Indirect methods include assessment, research and evaluation, consultation, pre or para-professional training and supervision, media delivery and environmental design. Finally, several kinds of settings are advanced as potential fields for counselling: schools, prisons, general hospitals, universities, sports teams and clubs. In sum, the developmental perspective holds that:

- counselling should be concerned with positive human change which may occur in negotiating the developmental tasks we face in daily life or in dealing with issues of severe developmental disturbance

- we should organize interventions and services that allow remediation as well as prevention and promotion of creative development

- that individual change may not be possible unless family, school, community, and sociocultural systems are also taken into consideration and therefore, we should be focused both on individuals and on the systems within which they all live

- we should enlarge the spectrum of potential sites for counselling and different kinds of service and institutions in education, health, industry, justice, and others.

Several implications can be drawn from this developmental perspective to the practice of counselling: a developmental approach should be translated into a developmental practice.

DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVES IN WOMEN AND LIFE COUNSELING

Educational and career issues have always been typical targets of counsellor's activities. In this sense, this Conference

challenged us to discuss, among other themes, the vocational and career issues of women and academic life.

The positive, proactive developmental perspective can be adequate basics to conceptualize and organize practice and environmental action around those problematic.

Educational and developmentally oriented programs can be one of the major features of our interventions in academic life settings and with women population. Moreover, counsellors can promote a more encompassing view of their roles, presenting themselves as consultants who are able to draw on a wide body of knowledge for the benefit of students, parents and educators. Although most counsellors seem to prefer this more innovative approaches, to date it has not been widely implemented and remain underused, for example, in academic settings.

The focus on testing and assessment continues to the present day, with recent surveys showing that, for example, many of us, spend extensive amounts of their time in these activities (Huberty 6 Huebner, 1988; Stewart, 1986). Respectively, increasing the idea of counsellors as problem solvers rather than merely testers, has rarely caught on with educators. Counsellors should foster the consultative approach and free themselves from the constraints of testing.

In fact, traditionally, much practice in higher education engaged in matching people and environments, in terms of offered

and required talents, based on the methods of differential psychology and trait-and-factor perspective, viewed essentially as a theoretical (Hackett & Greenhaus, 1991). One of the main reasons for this practice could be the fact that prior to the 50's, theory development in vocational psychology was limited in scope (Crites, 1959).

The introduction of developmental theory, particularly with the work of Super, has profoundly influenced the conceptions and interventions on career behaviour and fostered the general acknowledgment of career development as a dynamic process. Super and others emphasized:

- the need of considering needs, values and interests, personality and life-style, instead of just abilities and aptitudes;

- the shift from discrete decisions made at particular points in time, to the underlying and continuous process of career development, through which individuals decided who they were and the kinds of lives they wish and might lead; that is, there appears to be a growing recognition that vocational and career development is a life-span phenomenon;

- the concern not only with occupational choices and roles but also with the interactions between such choices and the individual related leisure, family and community roles, in other words, a model that represent the overlap of roles an individual

adopts as well as the salience of these roles at different points in the life cycle;

- and, the focus on the career decision making process, and not only on the content of the decisions.

The work of adult development theorists further stimulated the interest in the life-long aspects of career development. Career stages of development are viewed as flexible and each stage is amenable to recycling at a later point in development.

Careers can no longer be viewed as lifetime commitments but as a lifelong process of commitment and exploration, in which individuals repeatedly throughout their vocational and career development, face the tasks of decision making, of putting plans into action, and of performing adequately in and adapting to organizational and institutional environments. Consequently, it is assumed that interventions should focus on assisting individuals in accomplish these tasks in optimal fashion.

These ideas have had a considerable impact for careers guidance practice: the previously tasks of *diagnosing* individual's attributes and *prescribing* appropriate occupations are now lend space to *facilitating* individual's decision making processes and *promotion* career development.

In what concerns emerging perspectives, the major theoretical development making (Krumboltz, Mitchell & Jones, 1979). In the 80s, the major application of this theory

integrated the concepts of dysfunctional beliefs or self-appraisals and effective decision-making (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990). Moreover, within the social learning tradition, a related theoretical stream appeared, focusing on the construct of self-efficacy - derived from Bandura's (1977, 1986) social cognitive perspective. Self-efficacy was extended to career development by Hackett and Betz (1981) who emphasized its utility to understand women's career development.

Within the developmental tradition, Gottfredson (1981) and Vondracek, Lerner and Schulenberg(1986) also offered new theoretical statements.

Gottfredson, present a theory of occupational aspiration, which received particular attention in research and intervention on the women career development. Vondracek, Lerner and Schulenberg (1986) presented their own approach to career development, emphasizing both life-span development and contextualism perspectives. According to this authors, "counsellors must try to understand the history, the present status and the future aspiration of the person, as well as past, present and future contexts within which he or she has been, is, or may be functioning" (Vondracek et al, 1986, p.).

During the 80s, following an explosion of research on sex differences in work and career choice and attitudes, a considerable attention to women's career development emerged,

reflecting that we are moving toward a more complex consideration of gender as a social construct. Women seem to follow a developmental path different from men. Since the work of Carol Gilligan (1982), this idea is becoming an action of the helping profession. There is some evidence to think that women's developmental orientation seems to be more relation, more attached, to use the language of Bowlby (1969, 1973), and there is some evidence to think that, during adolescence, women are actually working simultaneous on issues of identity and intimacy (Gilligan, Ward & Taylor, 1988).

Gilligan notes that this developmental orientation to a relational connected self requires more complex thought patterns.

Following this focus on women, career development theories are being applied to the understanding of women's career behaviour, and the one of the main conclusion is that women's career development is not fundamentally different from men's, but rather more complex (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). Archer (1985), analysing the family / career priorities domain in relation to other identity domains, concluded that "tentativeness of career plan in girls is not surprising given the complex dilemmas females face. In contrast, boys who opt almost exclusively for their careers have less cognitive and emotional conflict about alternatives and hence, at least in these areas, less complex identities to form" (p.97).

Within the study of women career development, in particular, there have been efforts to propose explanation based on processes associated with nature, nurture or with interactions between both. Three important conceptual models of career development of women have emerged: Astin sociopsychological model, Farmer's model and Betz and Fitzgerald model. These authors evidenced the important of taking into account, in the study of women's career behaviour, and development, aspects such as sex-role socialization, the structure of opportunity, women's needs and expectation, background, personal and environmental predictors of career and achievement motivation, and life-style. Although there is some consensus about the current status of women's careers, research and empirical data are difficult to use to predict much about the long term consequences of a women's embebedeness in a given career. This deficit exists because there is a lack of comprehensive conceptualization or of theories that are capable of production meaningful, testable hypotheses (Fitzgerald & Betz, 1983; Fitzgeralds & Crites, 1980). According to Vondracek et al (1986), it is necessary, though, to integrate she research date, in order to understand the historical and contemporary processes affecting their career development in particular. In this regard a human development perspective in study the career and personal development of women will be important, in order to integrate and interpret "change in patterns of female laborforce participation with

change in the development of the workcycle in women" (Vondracek, Lerner & Schulenberg, 1986).

As we can observe, more and more there is evidence that prevalent guidance theories and practices clearly take a count for career development theories. This trend can account for the effectiveness of our intervention in the sense that these must be based on the understanding of the dynamics of the processes in which we are intervening. Stronger efforts should be done to integrate career development theories with recent advances in development theory, and, more empirical work should be done with this concern in mind.

The work of developmentalist in career domain emphasized the idea that occupational and educational choices can only be fully understood in terms of developmental processes. The result has been the emergence of the concept of *career education*, based on the belief that career development can be facilitated and perhaps accelerated by programmes of deliberate intervention. Though, designing and implementing programmes of this kind is being assumed as a proper and important task for counsellors.

Information and advice give place to counselling and career education programmes, which consist of planned experience designed to facilitate the development in terms of (a) opportunity awareness, (b) self-awareness, (c) decision

learning, (d) transition learning. These experience may include classroom based-work and small group work (Watts, 1987).

Increasing interest has also been shown in experiential methods, based in part in social learning approaches to career development theory. Such approaches focus attention on the personal environmental events that shape individual's decision about careers and, accordingly, centres went on extending the range of activities and services, developing work experience, work shadowing and / or work simulations programs. These programs are drawn upon the community-interaction theory (Bill Law, 1987) which focuses attention on the way individuals are influenced by interactions with and between the various life contexts, such as the extended family, neighbourhood contacts, peer-groups, ethnic groups, teachers and so on. It is assumed that each of these groups may transmit expectations of the individual, provide feed-back, support, act as role models, or provide sources of information.

The contextual perspective of career development is emerging as a useful paradigm of professional help, and although differences exist in the interpretation of the concept of interactionism, most authors agree that both person and settings need to be understood in accounting for career development.

Where external agencies work into the school, their role is more viewed as that of a partner or consultant within the school

itself. In consequence, there is also an increasing concern with finding ways of achieving effective linkages between the several partners involved in the career development of young and adult people.

A more wide range of strategies, methods and tools is used with that purpose in mind: guidance elements within the curriculum of education and training programmes; group work alongside individual work; work with and through networks of individuals and agencies, which involves supporting teachers, supervisors, parents and other members of the community as resources in the guidance process; use of computers and other media.

The development of self-help approaches in occupational centres, the increased interest in counselling, consultation and organizational development strategies as well as the interest in education for enterprise as a way of developing young people's self-reliance and initiative are other examples of the new directions of career intervention.

SETTING THE SCENE OF OCCUPATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS OF DEVELOPMENTAL AND ECOLOGICAL INTERVENTIONS

The mentioned efforts of professionals and service to move towards a more developmental and contextual approach of career and personal issues of individuals can also be justified by the enormous and changing demands of society. These changes may be

viewed as challenges that allow counsellors to behaviour at work while, at the same time, contributing to the creation of healthier, safer and more productive work environments (Hoyt, 1988;Offerman & Growing, 1991).

I will now refer to some of the possible changes in actual occupational and educational contexts, in witch we intervence.

Due to Information Revolution, change is according rapidly both in employment and social habits. As we approach the year 2000, widespread societal change are altering the traditional face and place of work, namely, the nature of work, the force and the workplace.

The entire work forces of the year 2000 have already been born and over to thirds of those are working today. The new workers and those presently employed and continuing to work in 2000 preset different concerns and issues.

Organization must foster increased productivity in each worker, making maximal use of each employee. Consequently, skill levels required for occupational success will increase. Very few jobs of any kind will be available to be unskilled (Johnston & Parker, 1987) and the need for worker retraining is evident (Hoyt, 1988). Some changes are expected in occupational structures. As the labour force will grow more slowly than in the past, due primarily to fewer available youth, service

producing industries will add jobs, representing almost all of the new jobs that will become available.

In the 19th century, it was apparent that success in manufacturing industry depended on having sufficient people who knew about science, engineering and technology, and knew how to apply that knowledge. Nowadays, employment in manufacturing will decline, productivity in the work place will increase, and industry may well function in smaller units which can be located anywhere. The domestic scene is also changing: there are more electronically controlled devices in the home and domestic drugdery is being reduced, and with it, further opportunities for the women's liberation emerged (Dainton, 1987).

The content and complexity of jobs is also being modified by technological changes (Mark, 1987). New jobs to be created till 2000 will be in small business. The fastest growing jobs will be professional, technical, and sales fields requiring the highest skill levels.

The influx of women, particularly women with children into the workplace is having tremendous impact. With the increase of dual earner and single-parent families, concern is growing with balancing the demands of work and family settings (Zedeck & Mossier, 1991). Private and public sector organization alike are experimenting with innovative solutions to resolve work family problems (Ropp, 1987), often without to much research to guide

them. The large proportion of dual-career couples in the work force creates other demands on organization. Consideration for spousal employment opportunities must be given in relocation placement.

It is also projected that, at least in more development countries, a great number of the new entrants into the work force between now and the year 2000 will be minority groups (Johnson & Packer, 1987), those who have traditionally been ill-served by the school system. Women ethnic minorities and immigrants, examples of such groups, fare poorly in today's work force. Societal bias and stereotyping have limited their career development opportunities. They continue to be over-represented among workers in declining occupations. The percentage of women in professional and managerial jobs virtually doubled during the 70s. Yet, workforce is still almost entirely sex-segregated with women clustered primarily in low-status, low paying clerical, retail sales, and service jobs, and low power work.

According to this, there are also some changes expected in Educational Requirements for jobs in the year 2000. A slight decline in the share of jobs requiring only a high school diploma is expected. An increase of jobs requiring at least one year of college and a sharp decline in jobs for high school dropouts are also expected. The median number of years of education required by these new jobs will be higher. There is also great need for workers to possess general employability

skills-namely, academic skills, problem solving skills, and interpersonal skills-for success in tomorrow's jobs.

In Portugal, for example, in 1989, more than 70% of the employed population had only basic education levels, 12% were illiterate and only 3,5% of this population had higher education degrees. Also, within the unemployed group, great percentages (around 70%) of people were young non qualified persons.

Although women's opportunities in a educational system, particularly in higher education, are now near equal to those of men, evidence exists that they have and continue to be educationally disadvantaged, in terms of both level and nature of their obtained higher education. The decade of the 80's has seen educational reform become a natural priority among educators of several countries, including Portugal. However, some have simply called for raising high school graduation requirements which, by itself, seems likely to increase high school dropouts and so, compound the problem.

Is this scenario, graduates will encounter transition from school to work problems very different from those currently being faced. As Hoyt (1988) pointed out, to discuss these problems in terms of traditional sub-topics as "career information", "job search procedures", or " placement programs " would be short-sighted. A much broader view is needed.

Some years ago, most university students studied for highly specialized degrees. Their routes to employment which was likely to be for life, were clearly delineated. In some countries, graduation departments were the principal agencies for bringing them into contact with prospective first employers, through informal networks, composed of the academic staff and future employers.

Now, however, the situation there is entirely different. Careers advice and placement services occupy a central role in many institutions of higher education of more developed countries. The causes of this change are not far to seek. Access to higher education has greatly increased. For many secondary students, the automatic expectation is that when they leave school, they will move into higher education. Unfortunately, a significant proportion of them will face access problems, while others will make the transition without careful consideration. As a consequence, there is a tendency for some students to drop out. Among the reasons the students have for leaving are dissatisfaction with the academic program, unclear career objectives or unclear educational goals. Orientation programs, academic advisement units, student activities and health services are just some of the organizations that have and will continue to respond to these problems. Moreover, research evidences that today's college students:

- are more concerned with adjustment to work and finances, living conditions, and employment (Mayes & McConatha, 1982);
- are more stressed than previous generations;
- present higher levels of distress in all aspects of life and specially in finances, feelings about self, concern about the future (Koplik & De Vito, 1986);
- are more depressed and worried about employability (Astin, 1988);

The problematics rose by adult learners, racial and cultural minorities population, and students who which to prepare for or to pursue careers in international arena are other examples of some of the targets we must face in academies life.

Universities counselling centres have been perform a variety of function. Since the 70's, the one-to-one counselling service overlap with programs of personal development, consultation and prevention of mental health programs (Oetting, Ivey and Siegel, 1970; Warnath, 1971; Drum & Figler, 1973), and counsellors begin to work both with individuals and environments Professionals are now being asked to assume leadership for activities such as orientation and advisement (Harden & Pina-Tallmon, 1988), study skills (Greer & Moore, 1986; Whitener & Altman, 1986) and drug and alcohol education (Hipple, Hay & Young, 1988).

Change in higher education will hold special relevance for university centres in 90's. Opportunities will exist for counsellors to help institution deal with these emerging problems. Crisis management, career development concerns, the changing student population and issues related to retention will be areas in which counsellors could make significant contributions. An emphasis should be put on the need for counsellors and women development professional to be aware of the issues and concerns facing multicultural and diverse population.

COUNSELING AND DEVELOPMENT IN PORTUGAL - A SUMMARY

In countries like Portugal, instead of importing fashionable models and intervention from more developed countries we need to face the psychological realities of our population and make them the targets of our intervention. We should focus on both national priorities and cultural factors and therefore, to determine the nature and scope of our service.

University centres as well as particular work with women are still incipient realities in Portugal, although several deliberate psychological intervention near women and near university students do exist in counselling centres, settled dawn in the Faculties of Psychology and - or Education, in Lisbon, Coimbra, Porto and Minho, and also in the Women's

National Institute. In these centres, individual counselling is generally common offered.

Educational and career counselling are still typical targets of our intervention. Nowhere, there are three main types of service in the field of career counselling and development: service attained to the Ministry of Labor and Employment, to the Ministry of Education and to the Ministry of Youth.

Services in the employment arena are older, developed by career advisers and, recently, by psychologists. Psychological intervention in these employment and vocational training centres aim to facilitated the development of career planning and to provide vocational orientation to those adolescents and adults who have difficulty in gaining access to education, training and employment. There, psychologists have opportunities to the develop deliberate and systematic efforts to meet the differing needs of employed people, women returning to work or study, early school leavers and people in very casual employment, by actively engage in anticipation of work / re-entry; by monitoring training planning and activities; by actively promoting links between concerned professionals educational and training organizations, community groups and employers.

In schools, since 1983, psychologists develop several kinds of services. Developmental programs to facilitate career, interpersonal and identity development of students;

consultation, training and organizational activities, to help teachers, parents, community agents and the school organization to be more effective in their educational roles. Like in many other countries, we are attempting to get more teacher and parental involvement in educational programs, particularly, in secondary schools. Educational and vocational services and activities are conceived as being an integral part of the larger educational school project and, gradually, counsellors have been assuming gradually a more consecutive role.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, our manager task if we want to move in the direction of a professional activity independent from medical models, is to be theoretical grounded in developmental and to pay primary attention to women development perspectives. As we know our intervention and conceptualization are not independent from our own development as counsellors as we approach the year 2000, it is becoming increasingly evident that our professional development is a necessary condition for the development of our clients.

Educational and developmental intervention had a key role to play in any advanced society. They are important to individuals, enabling them to cope with the complex range of demands and opportunities of present and future world; to education and

training providers, in facilitating the effectiveness of their action; to the growth of groups and communities.

Counsellors and educators should draw on children's, adolescents and adults experience of standing in significant relation with other individual, groups and communities. We should consider the possibility of creating programs to stimulate developmental growth or of refine programs to the point where stage growth may be stimulated or help to strengthen.

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