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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FOUNDATIONS OF THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENT IN CANADA

BY

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A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Foundations of the Guidance Movement in Canada", submitted by Francis Nicolas Van Hesteren in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Psychology.

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ABSTRACT

In general terms, the present study represents an investigation into the historical-philosophical foundations of the Guidance Movement in Canada. Within this broad framework, an attempt was made to reach the following objectives: (1) to examine certain movements and philosophical points of view that are directly or indirectly foundational to guidance; (2) to examine the general societal and educational conditions which mediated the introduction of guidance to the Canadian scene; (3) to trace the development of the Guidance Movement in Canada and to focus upon certain important issues and problems which confronted the Movement; and (4) to provide some indication as to the current status of guidance in Canada and to point out selected guidance trends that are emerging.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A. Introduction

The spectrum of activities carried out by school guidance personnel in contemporary Canadian society is a broad one, ranging from individual and group guidance at all levels of education to the training of an ever increasing number of counsellors, school psychologists, and other guidance personnel. Illustrative of the scope of the guidance phenomenon is the fact that, as of October 1969, there were no fewer than fourteen Canadian associations concerned specifically with guidance. Among these were: The Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association, the Maritime Guidance Association, La Corporation des Counseillers d'Orientation Professionnelle du Quebec, The Ontario School Counsellors' Association, The School Counsellors Association of Manitoba, The Saskatchewan School Guidance Association, The Guidance Council of the Alberta Teachers' Association, and The British Columbia Counsellors' Association.[1] It can be seen that the entire Dominion is represented in these organizations. For the purpose of appreciating the number of guidance workers involved in such groups, it is interesting to note that by the Fall of 1970 The Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association was approaching a national membership

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[1] Listed in The School Guidance Worker, Vol. 25, No. 2, November, 1969.

of one thousand.[2]

With so much activity currently going on in the field of guidance and counselling and with considerable expansion predicted for the near future, it is becoming increasingly important, in the present writer's opinion, that an attempt be made to investigate the historical-philosophical foundations of the Guidance Movement in Canada.

Before stating in explicit terms the more specific objectives of the present study and discussing its significance, it is, in the writer's view, necessary to arrive at some understanding of the contemporaneous meaning of the term "guidance". In short, it is necessary to know what it is that we are examining the foundations of. In dealing with this issue, the writer will discuss the semantic problem inherent in the guidance concept, will present a sampling of guidance definitions currently in vogue, and, lastly, will elaborate upon a model of guidance judged to be representative of the modern concept and acceptable for the purpose of this study.

At the present stage of its evolution guidance tends to be a rather nebulously and variously defined concept. In fact, it may well be safe to say that there are as many definitions of guidance as there are practitioners and theoreticians in the field. Depending upon the particular setting in which a guidance worker operates and his unique bias, guidance may be characterized in highly concrete form on the one hand or in relatively vague terminology on the other. Miller has analyzed, in rather incisive fashion, the sources of the semantic entanglements that

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[2]Nevison, M.B. "The Presidential Report," The Bulletin of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association, Vol. II, No. 1, February, 1970.

arise when attempts are made to define the term. He attributes the definitional problem to two primary sources. The first source is the intangible nature of guidance which (a) makes it difficult to measure and evaluate, (b) makes it difficult to separate from such concepts as curriculum and education, and (c) allows a great many individuals, with a great variety of training and experience, to operate as guidance workers. The second source, Miller points out, is the recency of the guidance movement which has caused (a) theory to be at considerable variance with practice in many cases and (b) rapid change in our concepts of guidance.[3]

Having recognized the semantic problem with regard to guidance, it may now be worthwhile to survey a cross-section of definitions that have been put forth in recent times.

Miller emphasizes the importance of offering assistance to the student in the decision making process and the necessity of differentiating guidance from education as a whole. She writes:

> . . . the concept which we wish to symbolize by the word guidance is one of assisting individuals to make plans and decisions and in implementing their development in accordance with their own emerging life patterns. Guidance is a function in its own right. Although it is part of the educative process, it is not the same as instruction, curriculum or control.[4]

Ohlsen chooses to focus upon a broad problem-centred orientation to guidance and the importance of recognizing the uniqueness of each person's difficulties. He explains:

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[3]Miller, F.W. Guidance Principles and Services. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books Inc., 1961, p. 7.

[4]Miller, C. H. Foundations of Guidance. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1961, p. 16.

> Guidance is the cooperative effort of the counselor and his colleagues to help a pupil improve his adjustment to school, and to help him develop skills for dealing more successfully with the problems he encounters after he leaves school. Recognizing that all problems are peculiar to the individual facing them, it considers these problems in relation to the continuous history of that individual and in relation to the many phases of his life.[5]

An example of the very broad manner in which the function of guidance has been conceived is provided by McDaniel who states:

> Guidance services are now expected to take a leading part in making the school actively concerned for the pupil's mental health and social and emotional life as well as for his academic and vocational achievement; in fact guidance is now often referred to as "Pupil Personnel Services" and involves the acceptance of responsibility for the child's full school experience and, to some extent, for his interdependent home and community experiences.[6]

Like their American counterparts, Canadian guidance professionals have been concerned with delineating the meaning and scope of the guidance concept. Perron and Zingle, for example, have attempted to determine the relationship between guidance and counselling. They point out the commonalities among and the distinctions between the two areas. With regard to the former they contend:

> . . . counselling and guidance are two complementary disciplines which have as their source mostly psychology and education. Thus they aim at fundamentally common aims, that is, the development of the resources of the individual as well as his personal adaptation. This is the reason why we find them combined in practice.[7]

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[5] Ohlsen, M. M. Guidance Services in the Modern School. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1964, p. 4.

[6] McDaniel, H.B. Guidance in the Modern School. Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1956, p. 28.

[7] Perron, J. and Zingle, H. "Counselling and Guidance: Definition and Place in the Behavioral Sciences," a brief submitted by the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association to the Special Committee of the Canadian Senate on Scientific Policy, August, 1969. p. 2.

The following description of guidance in the modern school is provided by an outstanding pioneer of Canadian guidance, Morgan D. Parmenter:

> Guidance in schools is an emphasis and a process in education concerned with understanding the individual student and with helping the student to a better understanding of himself, his opportunities and his social responsibilities. . . . In practice, the guidance process is generally called upon to help the student with matters related to selecting, planning toward and achieving suitable educational, occupational and other goals, and in coping with personal problems.[8]

It can be readily appreciated that, while each of the foregoing formulations of guidance may have a somewhat different emphasis and unique terminology, there exists a good deal of overlap among them.

Having surveyed a number of commonly advanced definitions of guidance, the writer will now elaborate upon a model which, in his opinion, characterizes more clearly and explicitly the modern guidance concept.

Hutson, in his book, The Guidance Function in Education, outlines a model of guidance which has been selected for two main reasons. The first of these, as already mentioned, is the relative conciseness of the conception. The second is the fact that the model has considerable historical significance, having been formulated as early as 1928 by Koos and Kefauver. In the Koos and Kefauver scheme, two main functions were subsumed under the general concept of guidance - the distributive and adjustive functions. The former, according to these authors, attempts to "distribute youth as effectively as possible to educational and voca-

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[8]Parmenter, M.D. "What is Guidance?" The School Guidance Worker, Vol. 23, No. 2, November, 1967, p. 32.

tional opportunities" while the latter strives to "help the individual to make the optimal adjustment to educational and vocational situations."[9] These two phases were regarded as being complementary and as bearing a reciprocal relationship to one another. Hutson has used this interpretation as the basis for a conceptual model of guidance which he believes to have modern validity. The model is depicted in the following manner:

Guidance:
distributive)
and) which facilitate DEVELOPMENT
adjustive services)

The distributive phase includes such objectives as to familiarize the pupil with educational and vocational opportunities, to acquaint the individual with his unique abilities, interests, and limitations, and to assist the individual at times of selection and decision. The adjustive aspect of guidance is concerned with such matters as identifying cases of maladjustment and arriving at remedial treatment, administering it, and following it through.[10]

Hopefully having arrived at some insight into the nature of the modern guidance concept, the purpose of the present study will now be outlined.

B. Purpose of the Study

In general terms, it will be the purpose of this study to examine the historical and philosophical foundations of the Guidance Movement in

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[9] Koos, L. and Kefauver, G. N. Guidance in Secondary Schools. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, p. 15.

[10] Hutson, P. W. The Guidance Function In Education. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1958.

Canada. The foundations of guidance refer to those past developments, values, ideologies, and formulations related to guidance which have persisted until the present or have an influence on the present.[11]

More specifically, an attempt will be made to reach the following set of interrelated objectives:

1. To gain an understanding of certain of the movements which are directly foundational to the modern guidance concept. (i.e. To study the Vocational Guidance Movement, The Testing Movement, and The Mental Hygiene Movement in terms of the nature of their development, the philosophies embodied in them, and their significance for guidance.)

2. To survey various points of view within the mainstream of educational philosophy which overlapped with and provided a background for the emergence, growth, and development of the guidance concept.

3. To examine the societal and educational conditions which mediated the introduction, implementation, and growth of guidance in Canada.

4. To trace the development of guidance in Canada and to analyze certain of the important issues and problems which confronted the Guidance Movement in the period up to the time of formal acceptance of guidance at the provincial level in most provinces.

5. To determine the nature and extent of the influence exerted by the United States on Canadian guidance developments.

6. To give some indication of the present status of guidance in Canada and to discuss certain trends that are becoming apparent.

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[11]This view is based essentially upon the perspective adopted by H. T. Johnson regarding the foundations of curriculum. Johnson, H. T. Foundations of Curriculum. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1960.

In a sense, the study falls logically into two divisions - the first dealing with the movements, originating largely in the United States, that are directly or indirectly foundational to guidance and the second concerning itself with the development of guidance in Canada. These two divisions combined are seen as representing the foundations of guidance in Canada.

It is important to note at this point that by the time guidance was being introduced in Canada on any significant scale, the concept had evolved to a fairly sophisticated level in the United States. This was to a considerable extent a result of the blending of the philosophies embodied in and the techniques employed by the Vocational Guidance Movement, The Testing Movement, and The Mental Hygiene Movement.

In order to clarify the purpose of the study, a diagrammatic representation is provided. (See Figure I).

C. Delimitations of the Study

Following are certain restrictions that will delimit the frame of reference of the present study:

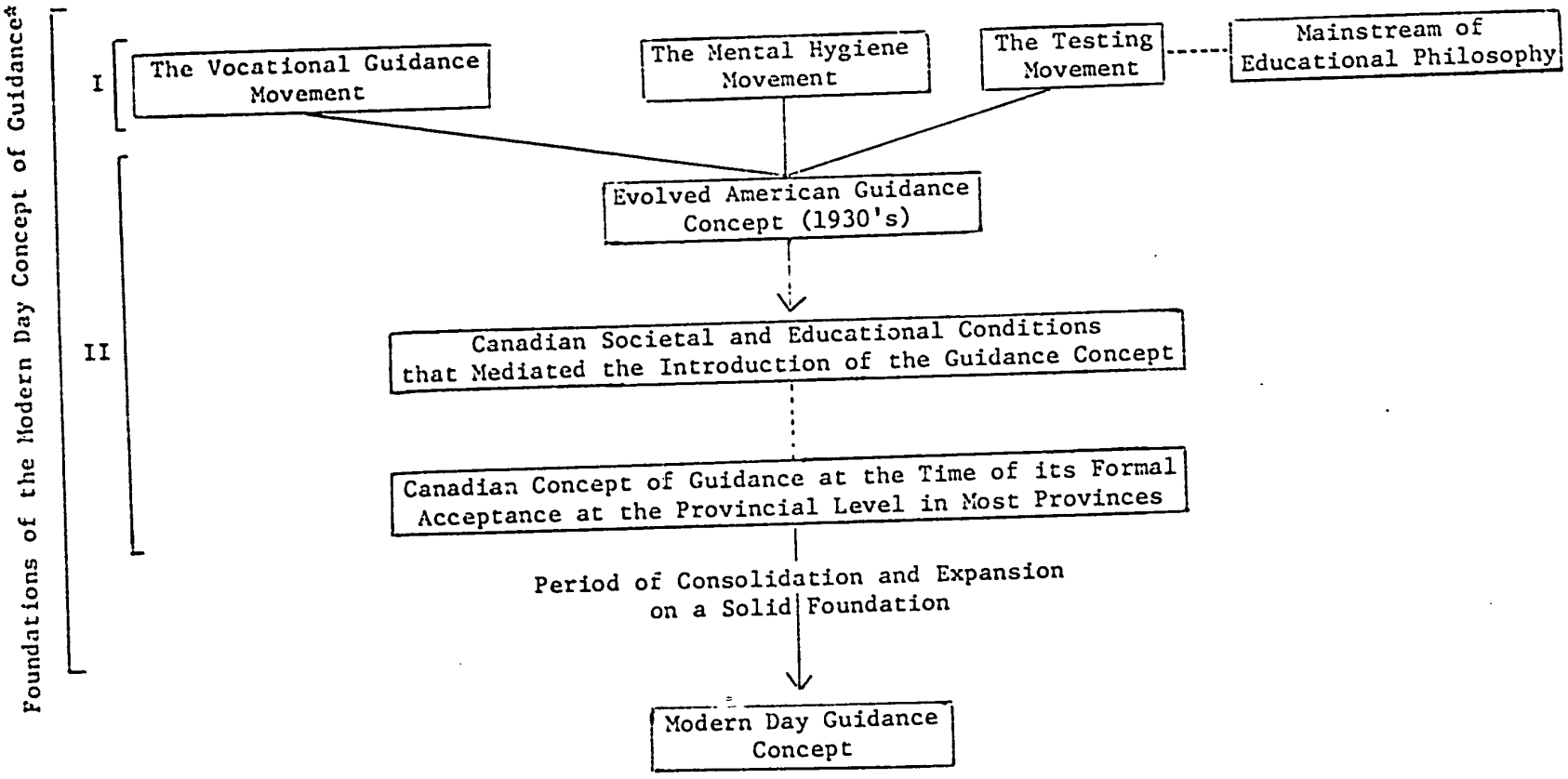
1. The study will limit itself primarily to a concern with guidance as it relates to the educational setting (i.e., guidance in the schools.)

2. Although chronology and specific events will not be overlooked, the major concern of the study will be with the philosophy and ideology foundational to guidance.

3. In terms of the time factor, the main focus of the study will be upon the period up to the formal acceptance of guidance at the provincial level in most provinces.

Figure I

Model of the Study



*This Study falls logically into two main divisions, (Divisions I and II). These combined are regarded as being the foundations of the modern day Canadian guidance concept.

The writer feels a subtle but nonetheless distinct responsibility to defend undertaking a study on a national scale, particularly to those who tend to cling rather tenaciously to the view that guidance and education as a whole, for that matter, is a distinctively provincial affair. In this matter the writer is inclined to assume that the following view put forth by Johnson relative to education in Canada in general is, probably in large part, equally applicable to guidance. Referring to members of the teaching profession, Johnson asserts:

> They may possibly be primarily interested in the educational history of their own province where they expect to practice their profession but education, in spite of the British North America Act, is a nation-wide experience. Citizens of one province can be profoundly affected by the quality and nature of the schooling in other provinces. The Canadian identity owes much to whatever common denominators exist in its school system.[12]

D. Significance of the Study

An understanding of the historical and philosophical foundations of the Canadian Guidance Movement would give those currently involved in guidance and those who will become involved in it in the future the advantages that are inherent in historical study in general. Two of the main benefits to be derived from examining history are well expressed by Butts, who claims:

> History can do at least two things. It can show us what historical ingredients have gone into our present beliefs and practices and what problems face us when inherited traditions confront new conditions and new demands; and it

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[12] Johnson, F. H. A Brief History of Canadian Education. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada Limited, 1968. p. viii.

> can show how peoples in other times have solved similar (though not identical) problems.[13]

Strayer describes more succinctly the value of history in confronting new problems when he states:

> History at its best gives us a real chance of reacting sensibly to a new situation. It does not guarantee the correctness of our response but it should improve the quality of our judgement.[14]

Having dealt with the general value of historical study, the writer will now point to the need for and the significance of studying the foundations of the Guidance Movement in Canada in particular.

It is not unusual, in the experience of the writer, to find that graduate students in guidance and counselling, even those in doctoral programs, are often singularly unaware of names like Parsons, Beers, Beattie, and Laycock - men who helped to shape and develop the profession to which they are presumably prepared to devote a lifetime. This is a most unfortunate state of affairs and represents a serious shortcoming in many counsellor training programs. The question may be asked, "Why is it so important that prospective counsellors be acquainted with the men who helped to shape and who offered leadership in the guidance field?" For one thing, an ability to view his profession in historical perspective would enhance not only the guidance worker's appreciation of his own role but, in addition, it would enable him to communicate more clearly and more confidently to those outside his profession the nature of the activities in which he engages and how these have been

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[13] Butts, R. F. A Cultural History of Western Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955, p. vii.

[14] Strayer, J. R. The Interpretation of History. New York: Princeton University Press, 1943, p. 14.

influenced by past developments. Furthermore, without some understanding of the historical-philosophical foundations of the Guidance Movement, individuals involved in guidance are more likely to believe that, when "new" developments, problems, and innovations arise, these are being experienced for the first time. That this is sometimes clearly not the case is well pointed out by Kliebard who contends:

> Issues tend to arise "de novo", usually in the form of a bandwagon and then quickly disappear in a cloud of dust. Sometimes these issues have their counterparts in an earlier period but this is rarely recognized.[15]

In "The School, Society, and Counselling" C. H. Patterson has suggested that ". . . although counselling has been widely accepted as part of education it has not been clearly understood nor integrated into educational theory and philosophy."[16] The present study will make a modest attempt at such integration by pointing out the relationship between the values embodied in the Guidance Movement and certain points of view represented within the mainstream of educational philosophy. It is important, in the writer's view, that guidance be understood in relation to education as a whole. It is hoped that this study will prove to be a step in that direction.

While at least a minority of Canadian guidance personnel may be quite well informed concerning the development of guidance in the United States, probably very few are aware to any significant degree of the

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[15]Kliebard, H. M. "Historical Scholarship - Persistent Curriculum Issues in Historical Perspective," in A Search for Valid Content for Curriculum Courses, The University of Toledo College of Education, 1970 Educational Comment.

[16]Patterson, C. H. The Counselor in the School - Selected Readings. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967, p. 1.

genesis of the Guidance Movement in Canada and the Canadian social-cultural-educational "Zeitgeist" out of which emerged the need for guidance in this country. Perhaps the present study will serve, in some measure at least, to counteract the distorting effect that a constant and prolonged exposure to American guidance developments has had.

Seguel, in the course of discussing the benefits of studying the foundations of curriculum, has said:

> An attempt to recreate the past in order to discover who engineered this development, what its course was, and what influenced it should help today's curriculum worker. As he becomes more aware of the sources of his current assumptions and the process by which they reached him he is better able to judge them and understand their value. He is also helped to speculate usefully about the future.[17]

It is hoped that the present study will prove to be similarly advantageous to those involved with guidance in Canada.

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[17] Seguel, M. L. The Curriculum Field - Its Formative Years. New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1966, p. 2.

CHAPTER II

MOVEMENTS FOUNDATIONAL TO THE GUIDANCE CONCEPT

General Introduction

It is the purpose of the present chapter to examine three important movements which are foundational to modern guidance philosophy in a demonstrably direct manner - namely, The Vocational Guidance Movement, The Testing Movement, and The Mental Hygiene Movement. Within the context of these movements certain fundamental values inherent in most current conceptions of guidance were clearly and explicitly enunciated for the first time. In relation to each of the movements, an attempt will be made: (1) to describe the nature and course of its development; (2) to examine the philosophy embodied in it; and (3) to point out its significance for and contribution to the contemporary concept of guidance.

In addition to investigating those movements that are foundational to guidance in a relatively direct way, an attempt will be made in this chapter to integrate with the philosophy embodied in the guidance concept certain points of view represented within the mainstream of educational philosophy. Selected educational philosophers from Rousseau to Dewey will be discussed in this regard.

A. The Vocational Guidance Movement

Introduction. While it may be difficult to pinpoint the exact beginnings of vocational guidance, it is nonetheless probably safe to assume that good teachers have for centuries given wise guidance to

their charges. Considerable credit is owed to individuals who made small-scale but, at the same time, significant contributions. Such people were perhaps more concerned with helping youth in the course of performing their function than they were with initiating a movement. However, the value of these independent efforts lay largely in the fact that collectively they provided the interest and momentum required for the establishment and promulgation of what came to be known as The Vocational Guidance Movement. Brewer affirms the notion that certain of the basic elements of vocational guidance have existed for a long time when he claims:

> Vocational guidance consists in the crystallizing of right human desires vaguely felt for long years and in the shaping of informal procedures carried on for centuries. These wishes and informal procedures have only during the present century come to fruition.[1]

In Brewer's view, the birth and growth of The Vocational Guidance Movement was made possible by the combined influence of four conditions: the division of labor, the spread of technology, the growth of vocational education, and the spread of modern forms of democracy. While no one of these conditions was sufficient in itself to insure the birth of vocational guidance, Brewer judges that their combination made its emergence virtually inevitable. The division of labor, the spread of technology, and the various forms of vocational education created a concern for vocational adjustment while the existence of modern democratic philosophy put great stress on the importance of individual freedom of choice. Brewer offers a convincing explanation concerning the flourishing of

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[1]Brewer, J. M. History of Vocational Guidance. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, p. 16.

vocational guidance in the United States:

> It was no accident that vocational guidance was started in the United States of America. Relatively free of the class system and of parental domination over children, equipped with educational arrangements somewhat committed to preparing youth for participation in democratic procedures and conditioned toward awakening them to the need for making their own decisions in many kinds of life activity, America could easily endorse a plan of vocational adjustment involving a beginning in guidance in the true meaning of the term.[2]

Frank Parsons and the Birth of the Vocational Guidance Movement.

While there is some disagreement on the matter, it is generally acknowledged that Frank Parsons is the so-called "founder" of the Vocational Guidance Movement. Williamson has suggested, on the one hand, that Parsons was in actuality only one of three pioneers of what today is known as vocational counseling-the others being Harper, who early recognized the necessity for the scientific study of students with regard to instruction and who "organized a program of personal services for college students", and Witmer, who dealt with childrens' learning difficulties and who initiated the first "professional psychological clinic."[3] On the other hand, Penner claims rather unequivocably that Parsons was "the first modern practitioner and theorist in the profession."[4] The present writer is inclined to lean in the direction of Penner's assessment and

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[2] Ibid., p. 7.

[3] Williamson, E. G. Vocational Counseling. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965, p. 73.

[4] Parsons, F. Choosing a Vocation. New York: Agathon Press, Inc., 1967. (Penner's view is expressed in the preface to this edition.)

will, therefore, deal primarily with Parsons in subsequent parts of this discussion. Prior to dealing specifically with this pioneer's views on guidance, some background information concerning Parsons and the birth and spread of the Vocational Guidance Movement will be presented. This preliminary discussion is based largely on the work done by Brewer and Williamson.

Born on November 14, 1854 at Mount Holly, New Jersey, Frank Parsons received his childhood education from his parents and at a private school. He entered Cornell University in 1869 and majored in mathematics and engineering. In the course of his college education he "pursued an independent course of study that began to admirably fit him for dealing with the problems of civic life."[5] At this same time he became increasingly preoccupied with the belief that the operational bases of the modern industrial system were at odds with the principles of ethics. In the course of his varied career he was a civil engineer, worked in a rolling mill, became a teacher, and finally, became a lawyer and, in 1891, joined the staff at the Boston University Law School. The strong moral sense which he had held from his youth inclined him to become "passionately involved in social reform and civic development."[6] Eventually he became much aware of and concerned about the vocational maladjustment of adolescents who chose and entered vocations that were out of line with their aptitudes, interests, and abilities. He began to conduct "career choosing classes" in the Breadwinner's

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[5]Brewer, J.M., op. cit., p. 53.

[6]Williamson, E. G., op. cit., p. 75.

House, which had been established in the Civic Service House of Boston in 1905. In 1906, at the Economic Club of Boston, Parsons presented a lecture entitled "The Ideal City" in which he outlined his views concerning the occupational choices of youth. This lecture apparently served as the basis of Choosing a Vocation, the one work for which he remains best known. In response to the pressing need that he saw concerning the facilitation of occupational choices and adjustments among the adolescents, and with the financial backing of Mrs. Quincy Shaw, Parsons, in 1907, organized the Vocation Bureau of Boston which was the first service of its kind in the United States. The Bureau was officially opened on January 13, 1908.

From its relatively small scale start in the Vocation Bureau of Boston, Parsons' concept of vocational guidance spread in rather rapid fashion. For example, as Brewer has pointed out:

> Dr. Stratton Brooks, Superintendent of Schools of Boston, during the year following that in which the Vocation Bureau was organized asked for help for the schools, introduced vocational counseling into the Boston School System and thus launched the movement into the school systems of the country.[7]

Before long, summer school courses in vocational guidance were being offered, city-wide organizations were established, and activities were carried out on the state and federal levels. By 1913, a national organization, The National Vocational Guidance Association, had been organized. The tracing of such developments is beyond the scope of the present study. However, for those interested in a detailed description of

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[7]Brewer, J.M., op. cit., p. 65.

the spread of the movement, a reading of Brewer's account should prove informative and worthwhile.

Parsons' Views on Vocational Guidance. Long before Parsons formally put his ideas to paper in Choosing a Vocation, he had become acutely aware of the problem of vocational maladjustment among youth in an increasingly complex industrial society. In fact, in 1894, he lamented the lack of attention given to the young in making the transition from school to the world of work. At that time, in a somewhat sarcastic vein, he had written:

> The training of a horse and care of sheep and chickens has been carried out to the highest degree of perfection that intelligent planning can attain. But the education of the child, the choice of his employment are left largely to the ancient haphazard plan - the struggle for existence and the survival of the fittest.[8]

His belief in the cruciality of making sound vocational choices is nowhere more clearly and forcefully expressed than in his opening statement to Choosing a Vocation:

> No step in life, unless it may be the choice of a husband or wife, is more important than the choice of a vocation. The wise selection of the business, profession, trade, or occupation to which one's life is to be devoted and the development of full efficiency in the chosen field are matters of the deepest moment to young men and to the public.[9]

Fortunately, Parsons was not content merely to recognize the occupational difficulties confronted by youth. On the contrary, he acted upon his understanding of the problems he saw about him to the

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[8] Ibid., p. 15.

[9] Parsons, F., op. cit., p. 1.

extent of formulating and putting into practice a plan for vocational guidance that has a great deal of modern day validity. It is to Parsons' specific formulation of the method of vocational guidance that we now turn.

In Parsons' view, there were "three broad factors" to be considered in the choice of an occupation: (1) a clear and full understanding of oneself; (2) a complete knowledge of the various aspects of the vocation; and (3) a clear understanding of the relationship between the above two groups of facts.

A decidedly better appreciation of the Parsonian model will be enhanced by examining in some detail the various phases of the vocational guidance process. Parsons summarized his approach under the heading "The Method In Outline." He wrote:

> In brief the Method of the Vocational Counselor is as follows:-
>
> I Personal Data
> A careful statement, on paper, of the principal facts about the person, bringing out particularly every fact that has a bearing on the vocational problem.
>
> II Self Analysis
> A self-examination, done in private, under instructions of the counselor, developing specially every tendency and interest that should affect the choice of a life work.
>
> III The Person's Own Choice and Decision
> In a great majority of cases this will show itself in a marked degree before the work under I and II is finished. It must always be borne in mind that the choice of a vocation should be made by each person for himself rather than by anyone else for him. The counselor can only guide, correct, advise, assist the candidate in making his own final choice.

IV Counselor's Analysis

On the basis of the information obtained under I and II, so far as possible the counselor should test III by making an analysis under each of the following heads, seeking in every line for significance in the line of the main quest:-

1. Heredity and circumstance.
2. Temperament and natural equipment.
3. Face and character.
4. Education and experience.
5. Dominant interests.

V Outlook on the Vocational Field

One who would be a vocational counselor should familiarize himself in a high degree with industrial knowledge.

VI Induction and Advice

This calls for clear thinking, logical reasoning, a careful, painstaking weighing of all the evidence, a broad minded attitude toward the whole problem, tact, sympathy, wisdom.

VII General Helpfulness in Fitting into the Chosen Work[10]

Certain aspects of the model merit special comment. In the first place, it is readily apparent that the model is a comprehensive one, beginning with a thorough understanding of the individual and progressing ultimately to what later came to be known as placement and follow-up. Secondly, the individual is examined in a very thorough manner - with his abilities, interests, and personality being brought into focus. Thirdly, the model is narrow in its concern in the sense that the emphasis is solely on the vocational element - with the overall adjustment of the individual being dealt with only to the extent that this may affect his vocational choice and adjustment. Finally, heavy stress is placed upon the ultimate self-determination on the part of the individual with

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[10] Ibid., pp. 45-46.

regard to his choice of a vocation. This emphasis is entirely consistent with democratic philosophy and has proven to be a lasting one in the guidance field.

In cooperation with the Vocation Department of the Boston Young Men's Christian Association, Parsons was instrumental in establishing the first school for the training of vocational counsellors. The purpose of the program was "to train men for carrying on vocational bureau work in connection with Young Men's Christian Associations, schools, colleges, universities, social settlements, and business establishments."[11]

In the school, prospective counsellors received intensive training along the lines of Parsonian vocational guidance methodology. Within the context of the training program, the personal qualities of the counsellor came under close scrutiny for the first time. It was required that the counsellor possess "mature judgement", a wholesome character and a personality that inspired trust and confidence, and a sound general education. In terms of the attributes more specifically related to his role as a vocational counsellor, the candidate, according to Parsons, should possess "a working knowledge" of psychology, an intimate understanding of human nature, an ability to deal effectively with young people, a thorough knowledge of existing occupations, an equally thorough acquaintance with the various courses of study leading to different vocations, and finally, a working knowledge of the scientific method.

Parsons, in a very real sense, was a prophet in his time. An insight into the extent to which he understood what was needed to insure

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[11] Ibid., p. 93.

the optimal success and effectiveness of guidance work is gained by a study of the following prophetic statement made by Parsons at the conclusion of Choosing a Vocation:

> Not till society awakes to its responsibilities and its privilege in this relation (i.e. in relation to vocational guidance) shall we be able to harvest more than a fraction of our human resources, or develop and utilize the genius and ability that are inherent in each new generation. When that time does come, education will become the leading industry, and a vocation bureau in effect will be part of the public school system in every community - a bureau provided with every facility that science can devise for the testing of the senses and the capacities, and the whole physical, intellectual, and emotional make-up of the child, and with experts trained as carefully for the work as men are trained today for medicine and the law.[12]

Conclusion. It would be difficult, indeed, to overestimate the contribution of Frank Parsons and the significance of the movement that he initiated. The ideas and recommendations put forth by this pioneer concerning the vocational guidance of youth are still pervasive in their influence as any examination of current guidance theory will bear out. Prior to offering his opinion regarding the overall significance of Parsons' work, the writer will point out what certain authors have regarded as shortcomings and limitations of the Parsonian view. Williamson, for example, has described three important shortcomings of the early conception of vocational guidance: first, Parsons and those who followed immediately after him did not make use of objective psychological tests in the counselling situation; second, Parsons demonstrated little understanding of psychodynamics beyond recognizing on a rudimentary level that "the choice

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[12] Ibid., p. 65.

of a wrong career meant frustration of motivation"; and third, Parsons conceived of the process of vocational guidance as being essentially a one-step operation occurring just before commencing training or entry into employment.[13] With regard to the first shortcoming, Parsons is hardly to be faulted since, as Paterson has effectively said:

> Parsons knew what was needed but when he went to the psychological laboratories for techniques he found that the cupboard was bare. The psychology of individual differences was almost unknown and techniques for the analysis of the individual were conspicuous by virtue of their absence.[14]

There appears to be little argument among authorities on the matter that Parsons would have used psychological tests of various kinds had they been available to him. However, as Williamson notes, his successor, Bloomfield, chose to ignore psychological tests because of their imperfections and emphasized instead self analysis of abilities and interests.

Among the criticisms of the Parsonian model offered by Barry and Wolf are: (1) vocational guidance theory was put into practice before adequate evaluation techniques had been developed; (2) vocational guidance personnel were trained before any consensus had been reached concerning the objectives and content of training programs; and (3) Parsonian methodology was too narrowly preoccupied with information and

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[13]Williamson, E. G. "An Historical Perspective of the Vocational Guidance Movement," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. XLII, No. 9, May, 1964, 854-859.

[14]Paterson, D. G. "The Genesis of Modern Guidance," in Readings in Modern Methods of Counseling (A. H. Brayfield, Editor). New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950, p. 14.

not enough concerned with what might be called personal guidance.[15]

While the above criticisms may share varying degrees of validity, they in no way detract from the significant and lasting contribution of Frank Parsons. In the present writer's opinion, Parsons' contribution to contemporary guidance resides in the important fact that he provided a basic model for vocational guidance that was, in a manner of speaking, to become the trunk of the guidance tree. Into Parsons' generally sound scheme could be assimilated the values, discoveries, and techniques embodied in the movements that will be subsequently discussed. By creating a functional vocational guidance methodology, by stressing the importance of counsellor training, and by strongly advocating that the schools become actively involved in guidance work, Parsons helped to lay firmly some of the important cornerstones of the current guidance concept.

B. The Testing Movement

Introduction. The Mental Testing Movement can perhaps best be seen in proper perspective if it is considered to be a facet of the general philosophy of scientific determinism which began to emerge in full force in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Concerning the general Zeitgeist out of which this new philosophy arose, Wilds has said:

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[15] Barry, R. and Wolf, B. Epitaph for Vocational Guidance. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961, pp. 8-10 (Quoted in Shertzer, B. and Stone, S. C. Fundamentals of Guidance. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966).

> This great century was characterized by tremendous developments in the pure sciences, such as astronomy, biology, physiology, physics, and chemistry, and in the applications of science to agriculture, manufacture, transportation and almost every other phase of practical life.[16]

As is the case with the scientific movement in general, the contributions to the Testing Movement can be regarded as having come from two main broad sources. The first source is represented by those men who were not directly connected with, or even interested in, education and the second by those who were directly involved with education and concerned about the possible application of their findings to the school setting.

Subsequent to dealing with the contributions of outstanding representatives from these two groups, the writer will discuss what he considers to be the overall significance of the Testing Movement for modern guidance.

German Experimental Psychology and Wilhelm Wundt. The primary preoccupation of the German experimentalists in the latter part of the nineteenth century was with the psychology of sensation and with the discovery of formulations and laws that applied to human behavior in general rather than with what differentiated one human being from another. In other words, their orientation to the study of human behavior was of a nomothetic as opposed to a idiosyncratic nature. The phenomena investigated "were concerned largely with sensitivity to visual, auditory and other sensory stimuli and with simple reaction

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[16] Wilds, E. H. The Foundations of Modern Education. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964, p. 325.

time."[17] In these studies strict control over experimental conditions was insisted upon.

Although men like Ernst Weber and Theodor Fechner made significant early contributions to the Testing Movement, it was Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) who, of all the early German experimentalists, had the most profound and lasting effect on its development. Having earned a degree in medicine, it was not long before Wundt combined his knowledge of physiology with a growing interest in psychology. In 1867 he had inaugurated at Heidelberg a course entitled "Physiological Psychology". The lectures presented in this course were compiled into a book, Grundzuge Der Physiologischen Psychologie.[18] Found in this work are the first formulations of psychology as a true science. In 1879, Wundt established the first psychological laboratory, the one act for which he probably remains best known today. Meyer sums up Wundt's view with regard to the importance of psychology and physiology when he says:

> Wundt did more than declare that psychology was a science as exact as physics. He went so far as to argue that, of the two, psychology was the fundamental science. Unlike the physicists, said Wundt, the psychologists are not limited in their researches to realities which, though measurable, are nevertheless abstractions since they are intangible or invisible. By contrast, Wundt thought, the physiologist can always observe the consciousness which he studies. However, it was to be investigaged in the spirit of the laboratory - nothing was to be taken for granted.[19]

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[17]Anastasi, A. Psychological Testing. London: The Macmillan Company, Collier - Macmillan Limited, 1969, p. 7.

[18]Wundt, W. Grundzuge Der Physiologischen Psychologie. Leipzig: Englemann, 1874.

[19]Meyer, A. E. The Development of Education in the Twentieth Century. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1949, p. 449.

The significant and lasting contributions of the early German experimentalists in general and of Wundt in particular are at least three in number. In the first place, the work of these early experimental psychologists clearly indicated the need to control and standardize the conditions under which psychological phenomena were examined. This emphasis on the strict control of the testing situation remains as strong as ever today. In the second place, in spite of the fact that a high degree of control was attained in the first psychological laboratories, it became increasingly apparent that something in the "personal equation" was not being accounted for - namely, variation among individuals. Out of the early work, therefore, came the first suspicion that individual differences are important and that perhaps a new approach to the study of human behavior was needed. Finally, Wundt in particular was directly responsible for inspiring and training a number of men who were eventually to make outstanding contributions to the Testing Movement. Among those who received their basic training under Wundt at Leipzig were the Americans James McKeen Cattell, G. S. Hall, Edward Titchner, and Charles Judd.

Francis Galton and the Study of Individual Differences. Sir Francis Galton has been called the "father of mental testing"[20] and the "founder of the psychology of individual differences."[21] A genius scholar and scientist, Galton became very much interested in the poss-

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[20]Goodenough, F. L. Mental Testing. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., Publishers, 1949, p. 40

[21]Linden, K. W. and Linden, S. D. Modern Mental Measurement - A Historical Perspective. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968, p. 6.

ible hereditary nature of genius and variability in individual capacities and accomplishments. From the publishing of Hereditary Genius, his first major examination of mental inheritance, it was apparent that Galton's primary interest was in individuals and how they differed rather than with groups. In this work, he clearly and forcefully expressed his conviction regarding the great differences in capacities among individuals. He wrote:

> I have no patience with the hypothesis occasionally expressed, and often implied, especially in tales written to teach children to be good, that babies are born pretty much alike, and that the sole agencies in creating differences between boy and boy and man and man are steady application and moral effort. It is in the most unqualified manner that I object to pretensions of natural equality. . . .To conclude, the range of mental powers between - I will not say the highest Caucasian and the lowest savage - but between the greatest and least of English intellects, is enormous. There is a continuity of natural ability reaching from one knows not what height, and descending to one can hardly say what depth.[22]

Although his individualistic experimental approach was diametrically opposed to the global methodology employed by the German psychologists, the actual tests that Galton employed were of essentially the same psycho - physical type. Galton noted that the discriminitive capacity of idiots for heat, cold, and pain was relatively poor and he assumed that the sensory discrimination of the intellectually ablest would, in relative terms, be superior. Accordingly, he created a system of weights designed to test differences in weight discrimination capacity among different individuals. In addition, he suggested tests for various other sensory capacities. It is

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[22]Galton, F. Hereditary Genius, An Inquiry Into its Laws and Consequences. London: Macmillan (2nd edition), 1892, p. 66.

apparent that Galton conceived of the ability to perform simple sensory tasks as being indicative of a kind of general intellectual ability. Thus, as Peterson concludes:

> . . . he very definitely assumed at this early date the essentials of the theory of mental tests and he worked out actual quantitative tests of intelligence based on this view.[23]

From the time that he wrote Hereditary Genius, Galton collected and treated information according to certain statistical procedures. For example, he used standard measures and was the first to arrive at a crude formulation of the correlation concept. Concerning the significance of this contribution, Peterson has gone so far as to say that "his greatest service to intelligence testing is doubtless the work of developing various mathematical methods of handling data statistically."[24]

Perhaps the work which offers the best insight into Galton's views on human development in general and his position on measurement in particular is Inquiries Into Human Faculty and Its Development[25] which, as Linden and Linden point out, "has been regarded by many as the beginning of scientific individual psychology and mental tests."[26]

By being the first to clearly indicate the significance of individual differences among the general population, by creating various simple tests of intelligence, and by pioneering the development of statistical methodology, Galton provided a tremendous impetus for progress

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[23]Peterson, J. Early Conceptions and Tests of Intelligence. New York: World Book Company, 1925, p. 76.

[24]Ibid., p. 77.

[25]Galton, F. Inquiries Into Human Faculty and Its Development. London: Macmillan, 1883.

[26]Linden, K. W. and Linden, J.D., op. cit., p. 7.

in the field of mental testing.

Cattell and the Introduction of the Testing Movement to the United States. It was primarily through the medium of James McKeen Cattell (1860-1944) that mental testing was formally introduced to America. Early in his career he had been exposed to the work of the German experimental psychologists, having spent a few years studying and doing research under Wundt. As a result of this training, Cattell developed a strong interest in the study of human capacities and a healthy respect for rigorous scientific methodology. As was mentioned previously, Wundt was essentially concerned with formulating scientifically based descriptions which characterized people in general. Although he was working directly under Wundt, Cattell decided not to focus on such generalizations. On the contrary, he persuaded his mentor to permit him to do his doctoral thesis in the area of individual differences in reaction time. (At this stage in the development of mental testing reaction time was considered to be an indicator of intelligence). Before long, Cattell met Galton, who, quite independently, had also begun to study individual differences. As a result of his meetings with Galton and his later-to-be-famous associates, Karl Pearson and Charles Spearman, Cattell learned not only about the particular kinds of tests used by Galton, but, perhaps more importantly, he became conversant with the statistical techniques that had been developed and perfected by these men.

With a sound basic training in Wundtian psychological methodology, and inspired by the techniques developed by Galton, Cattell became determined to establish a beachhead for the Testing Movement in the United States. For three years he was a professor of psychol-

ogy at Pennsylvania where he organized a psychological laboratory. In 1890, he published an article in Mind entitled "Mental Tests and Their Measurements"[27] in which he described the tests he used in his own laboratory. This event was a milestone of sorts in the history of the Testing Movement since it was the first time that the term "mental test" had been used in the psychological literature. Included among Cattell's behaviorally basic tests were tests of "keenness of eyesight and of hearing, reaction time, after images, color vision, perception of pitch and weight, sensitivity to pain, color preferences . . . memory and imagery."[28]

It can be seen that both Galton and Cattell operated on the assumption that an accurate estimate of higher order intelligence could be derived from simple sensory and motor responses - an assumption which was to be subjected to rather severe criticism by such innovators as Binet, as we shall see in the next section.

In the final analysis, Cattell made two notable contributions to the Testing Movement. He introduced mental testing to the United States, thereby facilitating the spread and eventual large scale use of tests in that country and he synthesized the insights and techniques of Wundt and Galton to place the movement on a generally more secure foundation.

The Pioneering Work of Alfred Binet. The work of Alfred Binet (1857-1911) undoubtedly represents a monumental contribution to modern testing theory. After earning a law degree and spending a relatively short time in medical research, Binet, in the 1880's, became involved

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[27]Cattell, J. M. "Mental Tests and Measurements," Mind, Vol. 15, 1890, 373-381.

[28]Peterson, J., op. cit., p. 79.

in issues of a psychological nature. By 1889, in co-operation with Henri Beaunis, Binet had established the first French psychological laboratory.

In the early stages of his work in the area of intelligence, Binet conducted research along essentially the same psycho-physical lines as Wundt, Galton and Cattell. However, he became progressively more disenchanted with this line of investigation. Binet's reaction to the reliance on the testing of simple abilities conveys clearly the strength of his feeling in this regard:

> Nearly all phenomena with which psychology concerns itself are phenomena of intelligence, sensation, perception, are intellectual manifestations as much as reasoning. Should we therefore bring into our examination the measure of sensation after the manner of the psycho-physicists? Should we put to the test all of his psychological processes? A slight reflection has shown us that this would be indeed a waste of time.[29]

In his conception of intelligence, it was judgement, "otherwise called good sense, practical sense, initiative, the faculty of adjusting one's self to circumstances" that held the place of honor.[30] Indicating the importance of this faculty, Binet stressed:

> To judge well, to comprehend well, these are all essential activities of intelligence. A person may be a moron or an imbecile; but with good judgement he can never be either.[31]

Binet was very much aware of the inadequacy and imprecision of the then

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[29] Binet, A. The Development of Intelligence in Children. (Translated by E. S. Kite) Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins Company, 1916, p. 42.

[30] Ibid., p. 43.

[31] Ibid.

existing means of identifying the intellectual level of an individual and concluded that "what is lacking is a precise basis for differential diagnosis."[32]

According to Binet, there were three potentially meaningful methods to tap an individual's mental capacity - the medical method, the pedagogical method, and the psychological method. While all three of these approaches were considered as being valid, Binet favored the psychological method which was the most direct measure since it offered an indication of the current mental functioning of an individual. Basic to this method, Binet explained, was the construction of an intelligence scale consisting of a series of tests arranged in order of increasing difficulty, beginning with the lowest observable level of intelligence and ending with the normal level. Indicating the ultimate utility of such a scale, Binet claimed:

> Understanding the normal progress of intellectual development of normals, we shall be able to determine how many years such an individual is advanced or retarded. In a word we shall be able to determine to what degree of the scale idiocy, imbecility, and moronity correspond.[33]

In 1904 the French Minister of Public Instruction initiated a Commission whose responsibility was to investigate the steps that could possibly be taken to insure that defective children benefit optimally from the educative process. The Committee finally agreed that prior to allocating a child who was thought to be retarded to a special class he be given a "pedagogical and medical examination" to confirm whether or not

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[32] Ibid., p. 14.

[33] Ibid., p. 41.

he had the intelligence to profit from ordinary instruction. Being unsure as to how to proceed in order to arrive at such an assessment, Binet was consulted, with the result that he and Simon, in 1905, constructed the first formal scale of intelligence. The sole purpose of this test was to determine, as accurately as possible, whether a child was normal or mentally retarded. The scale was followed by another version in 1908, the significance of which was the fact that rather than having items grouped in order of difficulty, they were now classed in terms of the age level at which they were normally passed. Thus the concept of "mental age" was heralded into the mental testing field. A second revision of the Binet-Simon scale was put out in 1911.

While the Binet-Simon scale was at first used primarily to determine whether or not an individual was presently functioning at a normal or retarded level of intelligence, Binet realized the potential for the instrument's use in relation to general life problems and to the school. Regarding the implications of the kind of research he was conducting for the educational setting, Binet concluded:

> . . . a profound knowledge of the normal intellectual development of the child would not only be of great interest but useful in formulating a course of instruction adapted to (childrens') aptitudes.[34]

Henri Goddard and Lewis Terman - The Introduction of Binet to America. It was largely through the efforts of Henri Goddard that the Binet point of view was initially brought to the United States. Goddard was concerned about optimizing the learning and development of institutionalized children. He was, therefore, most delighted when he

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[34] Ibid., p. 261.

learned of Binet's work and immediately took upon himself the task of translating the 1908 scale into English, making only those changes that seemed necessary to adapt the test to American children. Upon using the scale, Goddard became increasingly convinced about the wide applicability of the instrument. He was particularly excited about the usefulness of the scale in detecting those children who could not benefit from ordinary instruction but required an instructional program adapted specifically to their needs.

While Goddard deserves credit for his work with the Binet-Simon scale, it was Lewis Terman (1877-1950) who made the more outstanding contribution in terms of adapting the test to American needs.

Terman received his doctoral training under G. S. Hall and E. C. Sanford at Clarke University and was very much impressed by Galton's work. Partly due to Galton's inspiration, he became interested in the use of tests with precocious children.

Beginning in 1910, a great deal of Terman's energies were channelled into revising the Binet-Simon scale. Rather than merely translate the scale, as Goddard had done, Terman refused to employ any test items that did not prove useful in diagnosing American populations. As a result, the scale was, in effect, a new scale with many of the original items revised and a considerable number of entirely new items added. The new test was labelled The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale of Intelligence and was published in 1916.[35] The "Stanford-Binet" quickly became the most popular test in use in the United States and maintained its prestigious position for more than twenty years.

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[35]Terman, L. M. Measurement of Intelligence. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1916.

While its suitability to the American setting was surely a major reason for its success, there were other characteristics which contributed to its widespread popularity. Important among these was Terman's use of the "Intelligence Quotient", which was based on William Stern's concept of the mental quotient (i.e. the ratio of mental age to chronological age). To arrive at an I.Q., Terman merely multiplied the mental quotient by 100. Furthermore, Terman improved the administration and scoring procedures of the scale by providing, for the first time, clear-cut and well organized instructions to be followed in the testing procedure.

Through his efforts, Terman helped to lay the foundations for the continued growth and spread of the Testing Movement in the United States. Regarding the firm establishment of the movement, Terman himself had said:

> To interpret this movement as but another educational fad, destined to flourish a while and then be forgotten would be a serious mistake. The essential facts of the situation do not justify such a view. Intelligence tests have demonstrated the great extent and frequency of individual differences in the mental ability of unselected school children, and common sense tells us how necessary it is to take such differences into account in the framing of curricula and methods, in the classification of children for instruction, and in their educational and vocational guidance.[36]

Arthur Otis, Group Tests and the Stimulating Influence of World War I. To Arthur Otis (1886-1964) must go full credit for the construction of the first group mental ability test. While working under Terman as a graduate student, Otis approached his superior with the idea of de-

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[36]Terman, L. M. et al. Intelligence Tests and School Reorganization. New York: World Book Company, 1923, p. 3.

veloping a test that would perform essentially the same function as the Binet-Simon intelligence scales but that could be administered on a group rather than on an individual basis. With Terman's backing, Otis proceeded to develop the Otis Absolute Point Scale, a test which was to become the paradigm for many subsequent group tests.

The Otis group scale was quickly put to the test, so to speak, with the arrival of World War I. When the United States entered the war in 1917 "several scientific problems of a psychological nature were forced upon the attention of the military authorities."[37] Consequently, a special committee, the Committee on the Psychological Examination of Recruits, was formed with Robert M. Yerkes, a Harvard psychologist, appointed as its chairman. Among the other Committee members were Goddard and Terman. The specific concerns of this body included:"(1) the identification of intellectually incompetent recruits; (2) the selection of men for special tasks; (3) the identification of the psychotic; and (4) the mental diagnosis of incorrigibles."[38] It was felt by the Committee that young men could best be classified through the use of intelligence tests, with particular attention being paid to recruits at the low and high ends of the intellectual ability continuum.

The Committee very quickly realized that the task of testing large numbers of men by means of conventional individual methodology posed practical problems of monumental proportion. In this regard, it was Arthur Otis who saved the day. His Absolute Point Scale was converted

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[37] Linden, K. W. and Linden, J. D., op. cit., p. 41.

[38] Ibid., p. 42.

into the Group Examination A (Army Alpha), a test, which along with another form, Army Beta, a non-language test suited to illiterates and those who spoke no English, was used in the testing and classifying of no less than 1,700,000 men.

The group tests pioneered by Otis had a two-fold significance. In the first place, they performed an invaluable service in the context of World War I. Secondly, their proven success helped greatly to ensure the continuing use and spread of various kinds of testing procedures following the war. Affirming the positive effect of the wartime testing activities, Linden and Linden conclude:

> . . . the road was paved solidly for the future growth of mental measurement by its proven effectiveness during the war years. The tasks of formulating new standards for the Army tests and of developing new tests for school, industry, and social purposes, were assigned to the post-war decade of the 1920's.[39]

Edward Lee Thorndike and Educational Measurement. E. L. Thorndike is certainly one of the most outstanding figures within the scientific movement in education. Not only did he make significant contributions to the field of mental testing, he also made outstanding discoveries in the general area of educational psychology. Today he is still widely acclaimed as the founder of educational measurement.

In the course of his early training, Thorndike was directly exposed to William James and James McKeen Cattell. Under Cattell, he completed his doctoral thesis related to animal intelligence entitled "Animal Intelligence: An Experimental Study of the Associative Processes in Animals." In this study, he formulated his first law of learning -

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[39] Ibid., p. 50.

the law of effect. An indication of the extent and range of his interest in educational psychology is gained by a study of his three volume treatise on the subject. The titles of these works were The Original Nature of Man,[40] The Psychology of Learning,[41] and Individual Differences and Their Causes.[42]

Through his pioneering research in the field of learning and through his direct and indirect contact with large numbers of teachers, Thorndike exerted a profound and lasting influence on education. He strongly felt that in order to understand the educative process the teacher must have more than intuition alone to fall back on. Thorndike expressed his feeling regarding the cruciality of understanding the learning process in The Principles of Teaching. He wrote:

> The work of teaching is to produce and prevent changes in human beings; to preserve and increase the desirable qualities of body, intellect and character and to get rid of the undesirable. To thus control human nature, the teacher needs to know it. To change what it is into what it ought to be, we need to know the laws by which the changes occur.[43]

Fundamental to the discovery of such laws, according to Thorndike, was the development of accurate measures that reflect the extent and the kind of change which comes about as a result of education. This view

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[40]Thorndike, E. L. Educational Psychology: I. The Original Nature of Man. New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1913.

[41]Thorndike, E. L. Educational Psychology: II. The Psychology of Learning. New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1913.

[42]Thorndike, E. L. Educational Psychology: III. Individual Differences and Their Causes. New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1914.

[43]Thorndike, E. L. The Principles of Teaching. New York: A.G. Seiler, 1927, p. 7.

was strongly expressed in Elementary Principles of Education[44] and through the medium of such books as Mental and Social Measurements[45] Thorndike hoped to make more generally accessible the concepts and techniques with which education could be approached in a scientific manner.

Among the most important contributions of Thorndike was his research in the area of individual differences. Concerning the importance of individual differences along various dimensions, Thorndike explained:

> Their significance for educational theory and practice is obvious. What we think and what we do about education is certainly influenced by our opinions about such matters as individual differences in children, inborn traits, heredity, sex differences, the specialization of mental ability, their interrelations, the relation between them and physical endowments, normal mental growth, its periodicities, and the method of action and relative importance of various environmental influences.[46]

To collect viable information in relation to the problems noted above, Thorndike and his colleagues, in addition to using available instruments, devised and used in their research tests of various abilities, including measures of intelligence and educational achievement.

The Broadening of the Testing Movement. As a direct result of the success enjoyed by individual and group tests such as the Stanford-

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[44]Thorndike, E. L. Elementary Principles of Education. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929.

[45]Thorndike, E. L. An Introduction to the Theory of Mental and Social Measurements. New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1919.

[46]Thorndike, E. L. Educational Psychology: III. Individual Differences and Their Causes. p. 143.

Binet and the Otis scale, the Testing Movement broadened its scope to become increasingly concerned with the development of measures that tapped behavioral domains other than intelligence. The additional areas of concern came eventually to include personality, attitudes, interests, and special aptitudes. With regard to the remarkable growth of the Testing Movement since the turn of the present century, Goodenough says:

> The forty years that have elapsed since the appearance of Binet's first scale have thus witnessed a tremendous expansion of the idea and its applications. Not only tests of intelligence but those designed for the appraisal of almost every conceivable aspect of the abilities and behavioral tendencies of children have been devised and more or less completely standardized and tested.[47]

It is probably safe to assume that such advances could hardly have taken place in the absence of the pioneering contributions of men dating from Thorndike and Binet right back to Wundt and the German experimental psychologists. It was the foundations laid by such men that served to guarantee the lasting significance of the mental testing concept.

Conclusion. In the present writer's view, the overall value of the Testing Movement lay mainly in the fact that by means of the theories and techniques worked out within its context, it became possible to translate into practical terms what had hitherto been mostly philosophizing and speculating about the idea of individual differences. Tests covering the various aspects of human functioning became and remained very important tools in the hands of counsellors. An examination of most modern guidance programs will provide ample evidence to substantiate this claim.

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[47] Goodenough, F. L., op. cit., p. 90.

C. The Mental Hygiene Movement

Introduction. The genuine significance of the Mental Hygiene Movement for the modern concept of guidance has been widely recognized. Traxler, in his 1945 edition of Techniques of Guidance,[48] clearly identified the movement as one of the most vital of guidance sources. In Tyler's view, modern day counselling is the result of "two kinds of historical development."[49] The first of these is the Vocational Guidance Movement and the second is the Mental Hygiene Movement. According to Tyler, these two streams merged "to form our present counselling profession."[50] Finally, Moser and Moser have stated rather emphatically their judgement concerning the importance of the movement for guidance:

> The inauguration of the Mental Hygiene Movement contributed extensively to the field of counseling. The movement began with the work of Clifford Beers in 1908, an extremely important year for guidance and counseling.[51]

It is the general purpose of the present section to give an account of the development of the Mental Hygiene Movement and the philosophy contained within it. However, prior to dealing with these matters, a prefatory comment regarding the particular emphases of the subsequent discus-

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[48]Traxler, A. E. Techniques of Guidance. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1945.

[49]Tyler, L. E. The Work of the Counselor. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1961, p. 9

[50]Ibid., p. 11.

[51]Moser, L. E. and Moser, R. S. Counseling and Guidance: an Exploration. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963, p. 5.

sion is in order.

Of the three movements that represent primary sources of modern guidance philosophy, it is perhaps the Mental Hygiene Movement that has a relatively long and clear-cut Canadian history. For this reason, some of the points of view to be presented were either put forth by the Canadians involved in the movement or by Americans who presented their views in this country. There is every reason to believe that these viewpoints accurately represent the movement as a whole. Approaching the matter in this fashion will enhance not only an appreciation of the contribution of the Mental Hygiene Movement to guidance but also an understanding of certain facets of the movement's development in Canada.

Clifford Beers and the Founding of the Mental Hygiene Movement. Concerning the general social climate at the turn of the century and the prevailing ignorance of the plight of the mentally ill, Bromberg has said:

> True social uplift was in the air in 1900; political, social, eugenic, economic, public health, enfranchisement, improvement doctrines, were being advanced in many corners of the world. Society was stirring to its responsibilities for the welfare of man, but the concept of freeing the insane or the neurotic from the chains of neglect and indifference remained a Utopian dream in the minds of a few.[52]

One of those who elected not to remain indifferent to the problem was Clifford Beers, to whose story we now turn. After graduating from Yale University in 1897, Beers followed a business career and worked for about three years in various offices. For some time he had had an in-

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[52] Bromberg, W. The Mind of Man: A History of Psychotherapy and Psychoanalysis. New York: Harper and Row, 1959, p. 241.

tense fear of either having or getting epilepsy, a disorder from which his brother had suffered. During the three years that he worked following graduation, this fear heightened, culminating in an attempted suicide. Beers spent the next few years of his life in various mental hospitals. As a result of his experiences in these institutions, he resolved to do whatever he could to reform them. His book, A Mind That Found Itself,[53] was a potent force in alerting a great many people to the deplorable treatment received by patients in many institutions. Beers referred to his now famous work as a "history of a mental civil war which I fought singlehandedly on the battle field that lay within the compass of my skull."[54] Vivid and at the same time shocking descriptions of the treatment accorded Beers are found in the book. Concerning the maltreatment received at the hands of one attendant, Beers wrote:

> Because I refused to obey a peremptory command, and this at a time when I habitually refused even on pain of imagined torture to obey or speak, this brute not only cursed me with abandon, he deliberately spat on me. I was a mental incompetent, but like many others in a similar position I was both by antecedents and by training a gentleman. Vitriol could not have seared my flesh more deeply than the venom of this human viper stung my soul! Yet, as I was rendered speechless by delusions, I could not offer so much as a word of protest. [55]

It was by making as many people as possible aware of such atrocities that Beers hoped to change the prevailing public attitude toward the insane.

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[53] Beers, C. W. A Mind That Found Itself. New York: Doubleday and Company Inc., 1950.

[54] Ibid., p. 1.

[55] Ibid., p. 43.

After recovering his sanity Beers devoted the remainder of his lifetime to the carrying out of his plan for a Mental Hygiene Movement. With the help and unqualified support of many prominent philanthropists and psychiatrists, the first Committee for Mental Hygiene was formed in Connecticut in 1908. This was followed, in 1909, by the founding of the American National Committee. The movement quickly grew and spread with numerous cities and states organizing groups to deal with problems of mental health.

The movement was not destined to remain within the boundaries of the United States and soon spread to many other countries. In 1918 Dr. C. K. Clarke and Dr. C. M. Hincks organized the Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene. Concerning the small but at the same time sound beginnings of the Mental Hygiene Movement in Canada, Dr. Charles Martin, a former president of the Committee, said:

> Endowed with little more than spiritual support and wise expert medical direction, it was soon supported by the enthusiasm and generosity of a few public-spirited citizens in the larger centres of Canada.[56]

The Committee from its inception stressed the great importance of a broadly conceived educational program to insure the spread and enhance the acceptance of the mental hygiene viewpoint. According to Martin "the educational process began with the college presidents, with deans, and professors in medical schools."[57] Eventually, psychologists were drawn into the movement, followed by social workers, nurses, and teachers. Attempts were

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[56]Martin, C. F. "The Mental Hygiene Movement in Canada," in Mental Hygiene of Childhood published by The Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1928, p. 1.

[57]Ibid., p. 5.

also made to make both provincial and federal governments aware of mental health problems. Last, but certainly not least, came the education of the general public. The results of this educational program in Martin's words, "exceeded the most sanguine hopes of its organizers."[58] As a result of such activities and others undertaken by the Canadian National Committee, mental hygiene came to be regarded as a worthwhile and vital concern. Exemplifying the impact of the movement is the fact that, within a few years after the movement's beginning in Canada, detailed mental health surveys had been conducted in seven provinces. Among these were the Mental Hygiene Survey of the Province of British Columbia[59] and the Mental Hygiene Survey of the Province of Saskatchewan[60], carried out in 1919 and 1920 respectively.

The status of the movement after the first decade of its existence in Canada was indicated by Bridges who, in 1928, concluded:

> In Canada the Mental Hygiene Movement has the same scope, aims, and point of view as in the United States, although it is somewhat behind that country in the achievement of some of these aims. . . .Perhaps at the present moment the most urgent task of mental hygiene in Canada is the education of the general public and the attempt to influence the proper authorities to provide the facilities necessary

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[58] Ibid.

[59] The Canadian National Committee For Mental Hygiene. "Mental Hygiene Survey For the Province of British Columbia," Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene, Vol. 2, No. 1, April, 1920.

[60] The Canadian National Committee For Mental Hygiene. "Mental Hygiene Survey of the Province of Saskatchewan," Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene, Vol. 3, January, 1922.

> for the promotion and preservation of the mental health of the community.[61]

Shifting Emphases Within the Mental Hygiene Movement. To fully understand the Mental Hygiene Movement it is necessary to have some knowledge of the shifts in emphases which occurred in the course of its development.

Originally, it was the primary objective of the movement to improve conditions in the various institutions for the mentally ill. The startling results of the many mental hygiene surveys that were conducted soon alerted the leaders of the movement to the importance of preventing mental disease. It quickly became apparent that in order to prevent mental problems, much more needed to be learned about their causes. As a result, mental hygienists turned to and encouraged the various sciences to investigate problems related to mental health. (More will be said of this shortly). Investigation of such problems eventually resulted in a concern with the causes of crime in general and juvenile delinquency in particular. Finally, the focus became fixed on the study of childhood, since it was increasingly apparent that, in a great many cases, the causes of mental health problems could be traced back to the experiences that individuals had undergone in their childhood. Reflecting the extent to which the scope of mental hygiene had broadened by 1928, Bridges wrote:

> At the present time it might be said that mental hygiene is interested not only in the prevention of various forms of maladjustment but in the development of the best possible type of personality. This aim might be called positive mental hygiene.[62]

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[61] Bridges, J. W. "The Mental Hygiene Movement," The Public Health Journal, Vol. XIX, No. 1, January, 1928, p.8.

[62] Ibid.

The Meaning and Philosophy of Mental Hygiene. In order to more fully understand the concept of mental hygiene, some more detailed attention to the meaning of the phrase is required.

Mental hygiene is a difficult concept to define with any degree of precision. As Bridges has said, "It is easier to talk about in its various aspects than to give a generally accepted definition."[63] Not withstanding the semantic problem, however, Bridges did make an attempt to define mental hygiene. In so doing he put considerable stress on the preventive aspect:

> It may be provisionally described as a movement whose aim is the promotion and preservation of mental health. It is therefore concerned with the prevention of mental disease, mental defect, delinquency, and the many milder forms of social maladjustment and inefficiency which are the sources of so much unhappiness and discontent.[64]

Of all the descriptions of mental hygiene that the writer has come across in the course of studying the movement, the most complete and generally adequate is that rendered by K. H. Rogers. In the article, "Defining Mental Hygiene",[65] he offered some explanation concerning the problems that arise when attempts are made to define the term. He wrote:

> . . . the difficulty of indicating just what is intended by mental hygiene is an expression of its very nature. Mental hygiene is not a body of information. It is primarily an attitude that may be embodied as a background to any specific arrangement of information and as an in-

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[63] Ibid., p. 1.

[64] Ibid.

[65] Rogers, K. H. "Defining Mental Hygiene," Canadian Public Health Journal, Vol. XXV, No. 3, March, 1934, 144-146.

terpretive function governing the use of this.[66]

Rogers then went on to state more explicitly the concerns of mental hygiene:

> Briefly, it denotes an interest in the health of the mind. In its more practical interpretation, this concept would appear to be subject to application in two directions: first, the treatment of the mentally unhealthy; and second, the pursuance of a preventive programme for the maintenance of mental health.[67]

Of the two directions, the preventive aspect was judged by Rogers to be a "distinctively modern tendency" which implies that the individual is in a state of continual mental adjustment to his everchanging environment. To further elucidate the mental hygiene concept, Rogers elaborated upon some general principles underlying the mental hygiene philosophy. The first of these was "The principle of a sound mind in a sound body,"[68] which stressed the undeniable interdependence of mental and physical phenomena. The second principle held that "the individual is at any time a focus for all previous experiences,"[69] implying not necessarily that early experiences are the decisive factors in determining what an individual will turn out to be but, rather, that the past is an important factor in understanding an individual's present behavior. Finally, Rogers presented a third principle which concerned the assumption that "every person is primarily an experiencing individual"[70], implicit in which is the belief that in order to achieve

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[66] Ibid., p. 144.

[67] Ibid.

[68] Ibid., p. 146.

[69] Ibid.

[70] Ibid.

optimal mental adjustment each individual must clearly understand and accept the meaning of his personal experiences.

Before dealing with the relationship between mental hygiene and education, a word is in order concerning the eclectic nature of the movement, particularly with regard to the contributions of psychiatry and psychology.

The Mental Hygiene Movement was greatly influenced by psychiatry and psychoanalysis insofar as it derived from them an appreciation for the importance of early childhood experiences and for the significance of the emotions as a crucial consideration in human adjustment. As Winslow has pointed out, the movement, from its earliest beginnings, "had the support of such psychiatrists as Adolf Meyer, William L. Russel, and Thomas W. Salmon."[71] In some important ways, then, it was the psychiatrists who laid the foundations for the eventual emergence and successful growth of the Mental Hygiene Movement. The movement provided an effective medium through which a humanitarian philosophy of adjustment was popularized and ultimately transmitted to the schools.

Mental hygienists also gleaned what they could from developments in psychology. From this field was derived an appreciation that the whole individual is to be considered in coming to understand human behavior. Furthermore, the fulfillment of mental hygiene objectives was greatly enhanced through the use of various tests developed by psychologists. As early as 1932 mental hygienist, Gilbert Rich,[72] recognized

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[71] Winslow, C.E.A. "The Mental Hygiene Movement and Its Founder," Mental Hygiene, Vol. XVII, No. 4, October, 1933, p. 535.

[72] Rich, G. J. "Contributions of Psychology to Mental Hygiene," Mental Hygiene, Vol. XX, No. 4, October, 1936, 554-565.

and applauded the important contributions of psychology to mental hygiene.

While such contributions should hardly be underrated, it must at the same time be remembered that the Mental Hygiene Movement in turn provided a strong stimulus for the further development of the various disciplines from which it borrowed.

Summing up nicely the synthetic nature of the Mental Hygiene Movement, Groves and Blanchard wrote:

> It places its emphasis upon the importance of understanding the whole organism in relation to the total environmental stimulation. To reach this understanding required a compound of general medicine, neurology, psychiatry, psychoanalysis, sociology and the art of social case work, behaviorism and mental testing, and from each of these fields (as well as from many others) mental hygiene selected whatever could be useful in the accomplishment of its task.[73]

Mental Hygiene and Education. It seems that from its earliest beginnings there has always existed a close relationship between the Mental Hygiene Movement and education. Mental hygienists were generally convinced that if a beachhead for their philosophy could be established on a large scale in the schools a giant step would have been taken in the prevention of mental disorders. At the same time, certain of the movement's members began to question the effectiveness of the school in fostering good mental health in its pupils. One such critic was Mitchell, who implied rather directly that the school was somehow responsible for the growing rate of maladjustment and crime in society. In a discussion concerning the efficiency of the school system, he wrote:

> As parents, as citizens, as workers in the field of social welfare, it is our duty to ask ourselves if the school is

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[73] Groves, E. R. and Blanchard, P. Introduction to Mental Hygiene. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1930, p. 28.

> fulfilling its responsibility to society. That there is something lacking somewhere in our scheme for preparing people to live is evidenced by the enormous amount of nervous and mental disease, by the great group of social failures, by thronged courts, juvenile and adult, and the crowded jails.[74]

Mitchell did, however, let the school off the hook to some extent by admitting that by the time a child enters school a large part of his character has already been formed.

Other mental hygienists critically surveyed the traditional educative process and came to the general conclusion that the concerns of the school were by and large too narrow in relation to the child's development. In this regard, White, as early as 1920, claimed:

> Education has been largely empirical and too much confined to teaching; it needs to be developed as a scheme for assisting and guiding the development of personality, based upon a real understanding of the principles involved and the equipment.[75]

In 1928, addressing a large number of Canadian teachers and parents, Campbell stressed that:

> If the school is an apparatus through which the community hopes to train the child for future citizenship it will be interested not only in pedagogic problems, but in the formation of character; it will pay attention to the emotional as well as to the intellectual life; it will be interested in the social adaptation of the child as well as in his scholastic progress.[76]

It was stressed, furthermore, that mental hygiene was not only

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[74]Mitchell, W.T.B. "Mental Hygiene in the School System," Social Welfare, Vol. X, April, 1928, p. 149.

[75]White, W. A. "Childhood: The Golden Period For Mental Hygiene," Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1920, p. 148.

[76]Campbell, C. M. "The Prevention of Mental and Nervous Disorders," in Mental Hygiene of Childhood, 1928, p. 14.

to concern itself with mentally deficient and delinquent children but also with the fullest possible development of so-called "normal" children. Reflecting this concern for the normal individual, Blanton had insisted that "the chief function of mental hygiene . . . is to keep well people well."[77]

As might be expected, the elementary level of education became an important focal point for mental hygiene efforts, since the work done at this stage was thought to be crucial in terms of the subsequent adjustment and development of the child. This did not mean, however, that this was the only level at which the application of mental hygiene principles was thought to be important. Mitchell made this point clear when he explained:

> I choose to use the division, elementary school, not because mental health principles are not equally applicable in secondary education, but because mental health principles if applied in the elementary school will necessarily be carried over into secondary and university education.[78]

When the mental hygienist examined the school system, it became obvious that, in order to successfully implement the philosophy of mental hygiene, the teacher would of necessity have to perform a vital role. Indicating the great importance of the teacher, White went so far as to claim that "Arrived at school . . . the teacher becomes the surrogate of the parent and in many ways . . . is better calculated to be of service than the parent."[79] While the cruciality of the teacher's mental

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[77]Blanton, S. A. "Mental Hygiene In the School," in Mental Hygiene of Childhood, 1928, p. 2.

[78]Mitchell, W. T. B., loc. cit.

[79]White, W. A., op. cit., p. 149.

hygiene function was generally recognized, it was at the same time true that the vast majority of teachers were woefully ignorant of the mental hygiene viewpoint. Commenting on the lack of knowledge concerning mental hygiene principles among Canadian teachers, Mitchell, in 1928, wrote:

> So far as I know there is no adequate course of instruction in any teachers' training school in Canada which helps to give the teacher an interest and understanding of the behaviour problems evidenced to some degree by every child who makes, or fails to make a satisfactory adjustment at school.[80]

To improve this unfortunate state of affairs, Mitchell went on to recommend that both practicing and prospective teachers be offered a formal course in the principles of child psychology and mental hygiene.

Eventually, through the medium of such courses and by means of lecture series and books on the subject, large numbers of teachers became aware of the significance of the mental hygiene philosophy. A good example of a lecture series in mental hygiene was entitled Mental Hygiene of Childhood, organized by The Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene in co-operation with McGill University. Some of these lectures have already been referred to in the present discussion. A good example of a publication which helped to spread the mental hygiene viewpoint to Canadians was Child Guidance For Parents and Teachers[81] by G. E. Reaman, published in 1933.

It was generally agreed, however, that, until such time as teachers became appreciative of the mental hygiene philosophy and capable of implementing its principles, the child guidance clinic was the

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[80] Mitchell, W. T. B., op. cit., p. 150.

[81] Reaman, G. E. Child Guidance for Parents and Teachers. Toronto: Longmans, Green and Co., 1933.

most effective means of introducing a mental hygiene program into the schools on an operational basis.

Mental Hygiene and Vocational Guidance. In addition to recognizing the importance of education as a whole to the achievement of its aims, mental hygienists also appreciated the role that guidance in vocational choice and adjustment had to play. White, in 1920, stressed the value of systematically offering assistance to adolescents at a time in their lives when adjustment sometimes proves most difficult. Regarding the particulars of such assistance, White wrote:

> It is of the utmost necessity that . . . the individual should be consulted as to his equipment, his personal tendencies and desires, his difficulties and shortcomings, as well as his special aptitudes and opportunities.[82]

Barruch Silverman, Assistant Director of the Mental Hygiene Committee of Montreal in 1929, considered as a "harmful environmental factor" the fact that care was not being taken to insure the proper vocational placement of young people.[83] He went on to stress that although it is a maxim of mental hygiene that vocational adjustment is a prerequisite to happiness, almost no vocational guidance was being offered to adolescents.

Finally, Anderson, in a lecture given as part of the Mental Hygiene of Childhood Series, discussed "Vocational Guidance and Mental

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[82] White, W. A., op. cit., p. 152.

[83] Silverman, B. "Some Aspects of the Mental Hygiene of Childhood," Canadian Public Health Journal, Vol. XX, No. 8, August, 1929, 398-406.

Hygiene of Industry."[84] He explained that "resignations", "lay-offs", and "problem workers" did not necessarily result from inadequate intelligence or ability. Rather, they more often than not were the consequences of individuals not using effectively what capabilities they do possess. Suggesting what was required to remedy this situation, Anderson concluded:

> Nowadays a lot of people come from the public schools, and the problem involved is more than finding out the degree of intelligence and the possession of clerical ability of those who are seeking jobs. We have to find out the tendency to introversion and extraversion if we would ensure the person success in life in job relations. Still more we must have an intimate knowledge of the way the individual behaves and the patterns and mental trends in his personality that have to do with his happiness and unhappiness, his success or failure.[85]

Conclusion. From the preceding discussion, it should be evident that within the Mental Hygiene Movement was embodied a philosophy that contributed substantially to broadening the perspective of the relatively narrow vocational guidance concept. In fact, it seems, in retrospect at any rate, only natural that the Vocational Guidance Movement and the Mental Hygiene Movement should have met and blended. The relationship between the movements was a reciprocal one. From mental hygiene, vocational guidance learned that, in addition to vocation-related factors, other considerations, such as personal, social, and emotional problems, had to be taken into account if the individual seeking guidance was to be guided in the full sense of the term. In vocational guidance, mental

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[84] Anderson, V. V. "Vocational Guidance and Mental Hygiene of Industry," in Mental Hygiene of Childhood, 1928, 1-10.

[85] Ibid., p. 6.

hygiene in turn found a valuable source of concepts and specific techniques that could be utilized toward the realization of its aims. Indicating the high degree to which the two movements overlapped, Tyler has observed that "the two kinds of service - helping people to make wise choices and helping them to improve their emotional health and well-being - have increasingly been offered by the same professional person."[86]

D. Background to Guidance Within the Mainstream of Educational Thought

Introduction. The concern of the study up to this point has been with those movements that are foundational in a relatively direct sense to the modern guidance concept. Some of the individuals discussed previously, particularly in relation to the Testing Movement, were also directly involved in and contributed directly to the main body of educational theory and philosophy. However, in addition to men like Terman and Thorndike, there were numerous other educational leaders whose early viewpoints concerning the nature of man and the learning process collectively provided a receptive background and favorable climate for the introduction and acceptance of the guidance philosophy into the educational setting. The developments in educational philosophy have been recognized as being important for guidance. For example, Arthur Jones, one of the outstanding American pioneers of guidance, has said:

> One of the most important changes as related to guidance is the changed or changing philosophy of education and

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[86]Tyler, L. E., op. cit., p. 12.

the place of the child in this process.[87]

It is to the indirect contributions to guidance of certain men concerned with education, some dating back to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and others who made their contributions in the present century, that we now turn.

The philosophies of Naturalism, Psychological Developmentalism, and Social Experimentalism will be discussed, with the first being represented by J. J. Rousseau, the second by J. H. Pestalozzi, J. F. Herbart, F. Froebel, and G. S. Hall, and the third by J. Dewey.[88]

Rousseau and the Philosophy of Naturalism. The eighteenth century was witness to the emergence of a revolutionary point of view, the philosophy of Naturalism, that was to have a profound and lasting effect upon educational theory and practice. The great significance of this philosophy is affirmed by Wilds, who suggests:

> The earnest student of education should give particular attention to it, not only because of its influence upon current educational theory and practice, but because the concept of natural rights is the basis for our American political and economic structure - especially in its emphasis upon individualism and personal rights.[89]

In order to understand the doctrine of Naturalism it is probably most meaningful to examine the ideas put forth by its champion - Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778).

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[87] Jones, A. J. Principles of Guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1951 (Fourth Edition), p. 33.

[88] These categories of educational philosophy were used by E. H. Wilds in The Foundations of Modern Education, referred to previously.

[89] Wilds, E. H., op. cit., p. 243.

A strong stimulus to the creation of Rousseau's formulations regarding the nature of the child's development was provided by what he perceived as being an artificial society founded on false values and operating on assumptions that served to negate rather than foster optimal individual development. Before Rousseau came upon the scene, children were regarded as being miniature adults, whose education was "determined and organized from the standpoint of adult interests and adult social life."[90] Concerning the manner in which childhood was viewed, Rousseau said in the preface to Emile:

> We know nothing of childhood; and with our mistaken notions the further we advance the further we go astray. The wisest writers devote themselves to what a man ought to know, without asking what he is capable of learning. They are always looking for the man in the child, without considering what he is before he becomes a man.[91]

As a substitute for this perspective on the nature of the child, Rousseau suggested that childhood was of great worth in its own right and that the child should be allowed to develop in accordance with the laws of its own nature. The child should be afforded the freedom to follow his own spontaneous interests and to develop his individuality. The function of education was not to impose upon the child an arbitrary set of adult values and expectations but to provide at each stage of life the conditions necessary to the natural development of the child's interests and capacities. Furthermore, Rousseau was one of the first to explicitly stress the importance of the emotions in the wholesome

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[90] Eby, F. The Development of Modern Education. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937, p. 465.

[91] Rousseau, J. J. Emile. (Translated by B. Foxley) London: J. M. Dent and Sons Ltd., 1955, p. 1.

development of the child.

It can be seen that Rousseau had implicit trust in the basic goodness of human nature. He assumed that basically positive instincts and qualities could be cultivated if man could be freed from the clutches of a corrupt society. Rousseau was not against society per se. However, he wished to reform the existing social scheme in order to make it compatible with the positive nature of the individual man.

Rousseau felt that, since the environment tends to be constantly changing, it was necessary for an individual to develop as a whole before any attempt at specialization was made. Premature choice of a vocation was regarded as being decidedly detrimental and against the best interests of the individual. In this regard, Rousseau explained:

> In the natural order of things, all men being equal, their common vocation is manhood, and whoever is well trained for that cannot fulfill badly any vocation connected with it. . . . Regardless of the vocation of his parents, nature summons him to the duties of human life. To live is the trade I wish to teach him. On leaving my hands, he will not, I grant, be a magistrate, a soldier, or a priest. First of all he will be a man.[92]

Rousseau's respect for the value of the individual was clearly apparent when he described the attitude that should prevail when the time does come to enter an occupation:

> Man is too noble a being to be obliged to serve as a mere instrument for others, and should not be employed at what he is fit for without also taking into account what is fit for him, for men are not made for their stations but their stations for men. In the right distribution of things therefore, we should not seek the employment for which each man is best suited so much

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[92] Eby, F., op. cit., p. 479.

> as the employment most suited for making each man as good and as happy as possible.[93]

One can hardly fail to recognize the distinct resemblance between these sentiments expressed in the eighteenth century and the statements that were to be made by Frank Parsons and other "pioneers" of guidance early in the twentieth century.

Rousseau has been generally recognized as one of the most important and influential of all educational philosophers. Many of his basic notions concerning the nature of the child are still accepted as essentially viable today. Summing up the effect that Rousseau had on subsequent developments in education, Messenger concluded:

> He prepared the way and furnished the inspiration for the widespread psychological, scientific, sociological, and democratic movements which have made modern education.[94]

The Philosophy of Psychological Developmentalism. In a very real sense, the general philosophy of psychological developmentalism may be seen as a rather direct extension of the views originally put forth by Rousseau. He provided the philosophical foundations for the theories that were subsequently to be developed and put into practice.

The psychological developmentalists fully acknowledged that the child should be the primary focus of the educational endeavour but went beyond this general recognition to become concerned about understanding

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[93] Ibid., p. 470.

[94] Messenger, F. J. An Interpretive History of Education. New York: Thomas Y. Cromwell Co., 1936, p. 180.

the principles and laws which were fundamental to learning and the process of human development. Explaining this point of view, Wilds has written:

> The psychological developmentalist conceived of education as a natural process of growth, an unfolding of native capacities; but he believed also that this development - or organic growth - could be hindered or helped, and thus guided in desirable directions, by the methods with which the natural capacities and activities were treated.[95]

Because the early years of life were considered to be crucial in terms of an individual's development, the primary concern tended to be with children of elementary school age.

In this section, the writer will deal in a relatively brief manner with the contributions of Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel, with slightly more attention being paid to G. S. Hall and the Child Study Movement.

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi. Born in Zurich, Switzerland in 1746, Pestalozzi was one of the first to recognize explicitly the potential of formal education for individual development and social progress. He believed that in order for society in general to improve it was necessary to focus first and foremost on the individual person. In order to help himself, claimed Pestalozzi, the individual must be given the opportunity to develop his latent capacities. The means by which this objective might most successfully be reached was education.

Pestalozzi insisted that education should concern itself with the overall development of the individual. In fact, he is recognized as being the first to propose that the physical, intellectual, and emotional

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[95]Wilds, E. H., op. cit., p. 291.

aspects of life must be developed harmoniously. Eby quotes Pestalozzi's insistence on this matter:

> It is only when the harmony (of the various capacities) is maintained that they are in conformity with human nature. Conversely, only that which affects a man as an indisoluble unit is educative in our sense of that word. It must reach his hand and his heart as well as his head. No partial approach can be satisfactory.[96]

It was with reaching an understanding of the laws and principles underlying such harmonious development that Pestalozzi preoccupied himself.

Johann Friedrich Herbart. Herbart was born in Germany in 1776. In his view, the main purpose of education was the nurturance of morality "by which he meant good character, or disposition, and social adjustment."[97] To enhance the achievement of this goal, Herbart put great stress on certain psychological processes such as "analysis" and "apperception", the understanding and application of which were seen as basic to the learning process. In order for the individual to develop the capacity for making sound moral choices he must, in Herbart's view, cultivate a set of many-sided interests. In fact:

> The aim of education is to analyze the interests of man to discover which are best for individual and social living and then by means of instruction to enable the individual to develop and apply these interests in the various situations of life.[98]

Herbart concentrated to a large extent on the education of adolescents and stressed greatly the importance of the teacher in the educa-

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[96] Eby, F., op. cit., p. 639.

[97] Ibid., p. 761.

[98] Wilds, E. H., op. cit., p. 301.

tive process. The function of the teacher in his scheme was to guide the pupil in the development of a sound moral character. He could do this by presenting to the child those ideas that were considered as being conducive to the inculcation of a many-sided interest. In the Herbartian view, then, the teacher potentially had great control and power over the student, since it was the presentations he chose which determined in large part how the child thought and felt.

Friedrich Froebel. Born in Germany in 1782, Froebel viewed education from the perspective of cosmic evolution. He believed that the race in general and the individual in particular are in a state of constant evolution toward progressively higher levels of development. Furthermore, he was of the opinion that education could play a vital role in such an evolutionary process.

Froebel conceived of development as a process beginning with the child's inner capacities and inclinations. The purpose of education was to provide the conditions that would permit the natural unfolding of innate tendencies through the self-activity of the child. Like Rousseau, he affirmed the basic goodness and trustworthiness of human nature. Left unto itself it would develop along positive lines. Furthermore, man, according to Froebel, was not a passive creature who is merely acted upon by forces beyond his control. On the contrary, he represented a creative force, a being who " . . . is self-determined because he can choose his final goal and, in large measure, create the environment . . . necessary for its attainment."[99]

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[99]Eby, F., op. cit., p. 811.

Finally, Froebel regarded the child-teacher relationship as being a very special one in which the teacher constantly had to maintain the delicate balance between his own prescriptions and the best interests of his pupil. Froebel described the relationship in the following way:

> All true education in training and instruction should, therefore, at every moment, in every demand and regulation, be simultaneously double-sided - giving and taking, uniting and dividing, prescribing and following;. . . .The pupil should be similarly conditioned; but between the two, between educator and pupil, between request and obedience, there should invisibly rule a third something, to which the educator and pupil are equally subject. This third something is the "right" the "best", necessarily conditioned and expressed without arbitrariness in the circumstances.[100]

G. Stanley Hall and the Child Study Movement. G. S. Hall has made some of the most significant contributions to our knowledge concerning the nature of the child. Born in Massachusetts in 1844, Hall was to become an eclectic in the fullest sense of the word. Describing the wide-ranging nature of Hall's education, Wilds has written:

> His unusually comprehensive education thus included specialization and study in theology, philosophy, psychology, physiology, anthropology, biology, anatomy, and neurology under the most noted teachers in Germany and America.[101]

It is of interest to note that in America he studied under William James, while in Germany he worked under Wilhelm Wundt.

Although Hall was in basic agreement with Froebel and other developmentalists that the purpose of education was to facilitate the de-

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[100] Ibid., p. 814.

[101] Wilds, E. H., op. cit., p. 297.

velopment of the child's natural capacities and inclinations, he approached the matter from a radically different standpoint. Rather than regarding human development within the context of cosmic evolution, as, for example, Froebel had done, he placed it within the framework of biological evolution. He dedicated much of his life to the study of genetic psychology - the evolution of the mind - and strongly believed that the mind has, over the course of man's history, evolved in parallel fashion with the body. In his view "ontogeny recapitulates phylogeny", meaning that in the course of an individual's development he proceeds through the various stages that the race as a whole has gone through over the long history of its development. While Darwin had attempted to substantiate this theory in physical and biological terms, Hall tried to demonstrate that it was equally applicable to the development of the mind. Such knowledge, he felt, would provide a sound basis for the educational process. In his scheme:

> The teacher must discover through the study of genetic psychology the stages in the mental development of the race, and then so construct the curriculum and so build methods that the growth of the child will be in accord with the order of development.[102]

The study of genetic psychology was by no means Hall's only concern. Through his investigation of many and varied aspects of child nature he came to be known as the founder of The Child Study Movement. He was perhaps the first to examine systematically and with a relatively high degree of scientific rigor, important aspects of child and adolescent development. Eby lists some of these:

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[102] Ibid., p. 303.

> Among the emotional expressions and other activities of children that he traced and studied were fear, anger, pity, curiosity, interest, collecting, cave-building, doll play, sandpile and other forms of play. Physical growth, moral and religious development, growth of the will, social nature, rhythm, and feelings were discussed. Other subjects that he treated were the early sense of self, showing off, bashfullness, love of nature, speech development, early memories, childrens' lying, and imagination and fancy.[103]

Through an understanding of these and other facets of child nature, Hall hoped that the quality of education might be improved. By no means the least among Hall's contributions is the fact that, in 1910, he formally introduced Sigmund Freud to America.

The Philsophy of John Dewey. John Dewey (1859-1952) was and remains today a monumental figure among educational philosophers. His profound insights into the nature of the learner and the learning process have served, perhaps more than those of any other educational theorist or philosopher, to fundamentally alter traditional ways viewing the process of education. According to Dewey, education was essentially equivalent to life itself. As Power has put it:

> Life alone, as the learner lived it, was for that learner the source of the most relevant kind of education; and the kind of education that enabled him to live a full and productive life was the kind of education he should have.[104]

Education was life and had, in Dewey's view, no goal beyond or outside itself. More specifically, education was an ongoing process in which

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[103] Eby, F., op. cit., p. 854.

[104] Power, E. J. Evolution of Educational Doctrine: Major Educational Theorists in the Western World. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969, p. 339.

the individual was constantly reorganizing, reconstructing, and transforming his experiences. Indicating that the meaning of education was to be found in the ongoing process rather than in the attainment of some remote goal, Dewey explained in Democracy and Education:

> Since life means growth, a living creature must live as truly and positively at one stage as at another, with the same instinctive fulness and the same absolute claims. Hence education means the enterprise of supplying the conditions which secure growth, or adequacy of life, irrespective of age. The process of education is a continuous process of adjustment, having as its aim at every stage an added capacity for growth.[105]

Involved in the educational process were two broad factors - the individual and the social. Although these two factors were seen as being highly interrelated, Dewey stressed that education must begin with a careful study of the individual if his potential contribution to society is to be realized. He wrote:

> Education must begin with a psychological insight into the child's capacities, interests, and habits. . . . These powers, interests, and habits must be continually interpreted - we must know what they mean. They must be translated into terms of their social equivalents - into terms of what they are capable of in the way of social service.[106]

In the final analysis, the end result of education, according to Dewey, would hopefully be social progress.

Dewey had certain views concerning the nature and purpose of vocational education which merit some elaboration. Dewey greatly stressed the importance of an occupation since it was an individual's chosen work

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[105] Eby, F., op. cit., p. 866.

[106] Ibid., p. 868.

which helped in large part to determine his happiness and his ultimate contribution to society. In Democracy and Education he clearly indicated his position on this matter:

> An occupation is the only thing which balances the distinctive capacity of an individual with his social service. To find out what one is fitted to do and to secure an opportunity to do it is the key to happiness. Nothing is more tragic than failure to discover one's true business in life, or to find that one has drifted or been forced by circumstance into an uncongenial calling.[107]

Consistent with his view that life or education consists in the constant reconstruction of experience, Dewey stressed that individuals should not be trained only along a single line of endeavor. Rather, they should be prepared for vocational life by being permitted to engage in those occupations which are "indicated by their needs and interests" at various stages in their development.[108] Dewey felt that this was the only way in which a pupil could become optimally aware of his personal aptitudes. Furthermore, the discovery of such aptitudes was regarded as being a life-long process. Regarding this matter, Dewey warned:

> When educators conceive vocational guidance as something which leads up to a definitive, irretrievable, and complete choice, both education and the chosen vocation are likely to be rigid, hampering further growth.[109]

Conclusion. On the basis of the viewpoints examined in the pre-

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[107]Dewey, J. Democracy and Education. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1963, p. 308.

[108]Ibid., p. 311.

[109]Ibid.

sent discussion it can be appreciated that a considerable degree of overlap exists between the educational philosophies put forth by individuals like Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, Hall, and Dewey and the basic philosophy of guidance. While the contributions of the educational philosophers did not lead directly to the development of the guidance concept, they nevertheless insured that by the time that guidance was ready to enter the educational enterprise, a favorable climate or background had been created for its acceptance and further development.

Having dealt with certain movements that are either directly or indirectly foundational to the modern guidance concept, we come to the conclusion of the first major subdivision of the present study. The study will now shift its attention to investigating the changing societal and educational conditions which mediated the emergence of guidance in Canada. It is important to re-emphasize at this juncture that by the time guidance was introduced to Canada on a significantly large scale, the various movements previously discussed had already begun to blend, with the result that Canadians inherited whole a relatively broad and sophisticated guidance concept.

CHAPTER III

CHANGING CANADIAN SOCIETAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS

General Introduction

To understand how guidance developed in Canada, it is invaluable, in the present writer's estimation, to have an appreciation of the general Canadian societal and educational conditions which mediated its introduction, implementation and growth. The purpose of the present chapter, therefore, is to discuss the Canadian societal-educational Zeitgeist, or "spirit of the times", out of which emerged a recognition for the need of formalized guidance. After dealing with the changing Canadian societal conditions from the turn of the century through the depression of the 1930's, the writer will examine the effects of these changes upon the nature of secondary education. Furthermore, an attempt will be made to fill out the general Canadian educational background to guidance by discussing the changing educational philosophy and the growth of psychology and testing.

A. The Changing Canadian Society

Introduction. In order to understand the Canadian societal conditions out of which the need for guidance arose, it is unnecessary to go any further back than the turn of the present century. By the late 1890's and early 1900's, Canada had begun to take significant steps in the direction of becoming a strong and prosperous in-

dustrial nation. Describing the general mood apparent in Canada in the first few yearsof the twentieth century, Creighton has written:

> In Canada, the first dozen years of the new century were marked by restless human mobility and social confusion as well as by rapid economic expansion and social mobility . . . .It was an agitated but energetic and hopeful period, and out of its strenous but creative turmoil a new and very different Canada was coming into being.[1]

A closer examination of some of the changes that occurred will provide a better understanding of the period.

Population Changes. The period between 1901 and 1911 represented for Canada a time of rapid population growth, the rate of which was not to be equalled until the decade of 1951-1961.[2] From a total of 5,371,315 people in 1901, Canada's population had risen to 7,206,643 by 1911. This represented an increase of almost thirty-five per cent which, as Creighton indicates, "was more than three times the percentage increase for the two previous decades."[3] As might be expected, a very substantial proportion of this increase was accounted for by the vast number of immigrants who entered the country. McInnis points out that while in 1900, 41,000 immigrants had come to Canada, in 1913 the number had ballooned to 400,000.[4] In terms of a broader time perspect-

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[1]Creighton, D. Canada's First Century. Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1970, p. 110.

[2]Porter, J. Canadian Social Structure: A Statistical Profile. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Ltd., 1967, p. 9.

[3]Creighton, D. Dominion of the North. Toronto: The Macmillan Company of Canada Ltd., 1957, p. 411.

[4]McInnis, E. "The People" in Canada (C. W. Brown, Editor). Berkeley: University of California Press, 1950, p. 16.

ive, it is interesting to note that between 1901 and 1941 Canada's population had more than doubled, growing from approximately five and one-half million to eleven and one-half million.[5]

Increasing Industrialization and Urbanization. In addition to experiencing considerable growth in population, Canada was, in the early part of the twentieth century, becoming progressively more industrialized. An inevitable accompaniment to such industrialization was the growth of cities and the creation of a rather pronounced tendency for people to move from the country to the various urban centres. Describing the intimate relationship between the growth of industry and the trend toward increasing urbanization, Creighton writes:

> The rise of the cities was the social expression of the growth of the new industrial Canada. Industrialism meant the slow decline of the primary economic activity of the farm, and the development of an increasingly complex and sophisticated division of labour.[6]

Creighton goes on to more clearly describe the effects of population growth and industrialization upon the Canadian occupational structure:

> As might have been expected, the number of Canadians employed in manufacturing, construction, transportation, and communications rose substantially during the ten years from 1901 to 1911, but there were equally significant advances in the growth of more skilled and influential occupations . . . The ranks of the professions increased by about a third, clerical workers nearly doubled their numbers, and bankers and merchants more than doubled theirs.[7]

It was in central Canada, that is in Ontario and Quebec, that

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[5] Ibid.

[6] Creighton, D. Canada's First Century. p. 107.

[7] Ibid.

the industrialization and urbanization trends were most pronounced in the century's first decade. While Winnipeg and Vancouver had populations of 136,000 and 100,400 respectively, Montreal was approaching the half-million mark and Toronto had close to 400,000. Creighton explains that in these two cities "were concentrated the technical and professional skills, the expert knowledge and experience, the economic power and social influence that dominated the country."[8]

The urbanization trend was to continue unabated. McInnis explains that by the early 1920's the number of people living in cities was greater than the number living in rural areas. Whereas in 1901 only Toronto and Montreal had populations in excess of 100,000, by 1931 seven urban centres had reached this plateau.[9] McInnis judges that there were two reasons for the steady continuance of the urbanization trend - the increasing mechanization of the farming process, which lessened the need for farm labourers, and the increasing number of "service occupations" in the urban centres which drew many people from the rural areas.[10]

The Influence of World War I. As was pointed out in the previous discussion, Canada, by 1914, had begun to make considerable progress toward modern industrial nationhood. Her entry into the First World War served to accentuate the trends that had already been set into motion. Higgins and Lermer comment on the status of Canada on the eve of the war

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[8] Ibid., p. 108.

[9] McInnis, E., op. cit., p. 18.

[10] Ibid.

and the general effect that the war years were to have upon her development:

> Despite increases in population and urban trends, however, and despite efforts towards diversification of industry and development of internal and external trade, Canada was still in 1914 both politically and economically immature. The next four years were to accelerate enormously the rate of economic change. War brought heavy burdens and tragic losses, but it was to have a more marked effect on the national life than two or three decades of peace. [11]

Soon the entire Canadian economy was involved in the war effort. In particular demand during this time were foodstuffs and ammunitions. Canada was eminently capable of providing the former and before long had geared her industries to the production of the latter. Canadian industry also became more diversified in response to the requirements of war. As McInnis explains:

> The wide variety of wartime demands brought into existence new types of manufacturing plants and developed new skill for application to post-war needs. The virtual cessation of imports from Europe in many lines of goods provided an incentive and an opportunity for domestic producers. Textiles, chemicals, and secondary industries processing iron and steel were among the groups to profit by the new conditions.[12]

Following the war, a general mood of uncertainty pervaded the Canadian scene. Some were abundantly enthusiastic and optimistic concerning Canada's future. Representing this group, Stapleford, in an

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[11] Higgins, B. J. and Lermer, A. "Trends and Structure of the Economy" in Canada (G. W. Brown, Editor). Berkeley: University of California Press, 1950, p. 246.

[12] McInnis, E. Canada: A Political and Social History. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947, p. 421.

article entitled "The Present Social Outlook;"[13] expressed the view that, although considerable catching up was to be done, the time was ripe for rapid social progress. On the other hand, Scott, in "The Effects of the War on Literature and Learning", struck a less positive note, claiming that while Canadians might be on the verge of an "age of freedom and brotherhood", they might also stand in danger of being thrown "back on barbarism."[14]

A more objective evaluation of the effect of the war is provided by McInnis, who concludes:

> The First World War was a cataclysm that thrust Canada abruptly from a state of development that was nearing completion into a new and drastically different one . . . The war years were not so much a period of transition as a violent interlude that greatly accentuated the inevitable transformation. The agrarian phase had but ended by 1920. The future expansion of the Dominion was now linked to the development of industrial capitalism.[15]

Although there was a short period of relatively little progress immediately after the post-war boom, the decade following the cessation of hostilities was a prosperous one, with a peak being reached in the late 1920's, at which time "expansion in almost every field of commerce and industry was swift and feverish."[16]

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[13] Stapleford, F. N. "The Present Social Ontlook," The Public Health Journal, Vol. IX, No. 5, May, 1918, 231-233.

[14] Scott, E. F. "The Effects of the War on Literature and Learning," Queens Quarterly, Vol. XXVII, No. 2, 1919, 147-158.

[15] McInnis, E. Canada: A Political and Social History. p. 425.

[16] Stacey, C. P. "The Twentieth Century" in Canada (G. W. Brown, Editor) Berkeley: University of California Press, 1950, p.137.

The Effects of the Depression. The growth and prosperity which characterized Canada's development during the 1920's was sharply curtailed with the arrival of the world depression which was touched off by the "crash" of 1929. The depression profoundly affected every facet of Canadian life - social, economic and political. In terms of the Canadian economy, the national revenue dropped from $460,000,000 in 1928-29 to $311,000,000 in 1932-33. Furthermore, the gross value of manufactured goods was halved and exports declined drastically. Unemployment was a very serious problem, with 26.5 per cent of Canadian wage earners out of work in 1933.[17]

A good appreciation of the general atmosphere during the days of the depression can be gleaned from Creighton's account of the prevailing conditions:

> In the cities salaried people and wage-earners accepted pay cuts of 10 per cent and 20 per cent with submissive resignation, and clung apprehensively to their jobs. Farmers eked out a primitive existence and struggled to meet the interest on bank loans for steadily depreciating equipment. Skilled tradesmen, who could pick up odd jobs more easily than others, worked at cut rates and endured long periods of enforced idleness.[18]

The depression had an undeniably devastating effect upon the Canadian economy and took its toll in terms of "human misery and social dislocation."[19] However, Canada was eventually to recover and the trends that had been set into motion prior to the depression reasserted them-

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[17] Ibid., p. 140.

[18] Creighton, D., op. cit., p. 206.

[19] Young, W. D. Democracy and Discontent. Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1969, p. 47.

selves in the latter part of the 1930's.

B. The Changing Face of Education.

Introduction. The general societal conditions that prevail in any given country tend sooner or later to be reflected in the philosophy and practice of its educational institutions. Canada was to be no exception to this tendency. As the trends toward increasing industrialization and urbanization became more pronounced, and as the social problems that appear to be the concomitants of such growth became apparent, important questions concerning the function of education were raised. We now turn to examining the nature of the educational changes that issued directly from Canada's social and economic growth and her involvement in the First World War.

Changes in Secondary Education. The social, economic, and political changes which had been taking place since the early 1900's had a profound effect upon the purpose and scope of Canadian secondary education. Beginning in the latter part of the nineteenth century, the number of individuals attending secondary school began to rise dramatically due to the combined influence of natural population increases and "the growing demand for broader educational opportunities in an increasingly industrial and urbanized society."[20] In 1915, Coleman, after examining "the present day literature of educational insurgency", concluded that the

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[20]Stamp, R. M. "Education and the Economic and Social Milieu: The English-Canadian Scene From the 1870's to 1914," in Canadian Education: A History (D. J. Wilson, et. al., Editors) Scarborough: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1970, p. 322.

most important demand being expressed at the time was:

> . . . for a recognition of the claims of the farm, of the household, of the shop and factory, as ranking with the claims of the so-called "learned professions". This has meant a very persistent and enthusiastic advocacy of such subjects as domestic science, manual training, and (as a rule) a concurrent disparagement of certain of the time honored subjects of the curriculum.[21]

The overall effect of the First World War was to raise new educational problems which had already begun to become apparent before it had started. As Patterson has pointed out:

> The war precipitated and heightened educational problems. The twenties were a time for recognizing and identifying problems and experimenting with possible solutions.[22]

Reflecting the critical stance adopted in relation to education in the post-war years, Coleman, in "The Teacher and the New Age", had written in 1918:

> In these years of social unrest and upheaval, of the revaluation of all values, men and women in increasing numbers are asking what our schools have accomplished and are judging these accomplishments by rather definite standards of achievement.[23]

A direct outcome of the war was a clear recognition of the importance of developing a technically skilled labour force to meet the needs

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[21]Coleman, H. T. J. "Educational Insurgency," Queens Quarterly, Vol. XXIII, July, 1915, p. 51.

[22]Patterson, R. S. "Society and Education During the Wars and Their Interlude," in Canadian Education: A History. (D. J. Wilson et. al., Editors) Scarborough: Prentice-Hall of Canada Ltd., 1970, p. 363.

[23]Coleman, H. T. J. "The Teacher and the New Age," Queens Quarterly, Vol. XXV, No. 4, 1918, p. 396.

of a diversified and growing economy. As early as 1910 the Canadian Federal Government had indicated an awareness of this need by appointing The Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education. Following a close examination of the prevailing conditions and needs in Canada, this Commission recommended the creation of a comprehensive scheme of nation-wide secondary vocational education. The war delayed the implementation of its recommendations. However, in 1919, under the Technical Education Act, action was taken to the extent of providing $10,000,000 for the development of vocational education in Canada. This capital, which was to be allocated over a ten year period, provided a great impetus for the growth of technical education.[24] It should be pointed out, however, that vocational education in Canada did not begin with this legislation. Considerable activity along this line had been going on prior to its enactment, particularly in the larger urban centres. In this regard, Stamp explains:

> Since provincial governments and the federal government were late in committing themselves to large-scale financing of vocational education, city school boards were forced to take the lead. By 1914, Montreal, Toronto, and other large industrial centres were offering technical and commercial courses at the secondary school level.[25]

Combined with a heightened awareness of the requirements of an industrialized society was a growing concern during the post-war years that the high school curriculum should meet the needs of an increasingly

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[24]Ward, H. H. "Vocational Training in Canada," American Federationist, Vol. XXXVI, February, 1929, 201-207.

[25]Stamp, R. M., op. cit., p. 303.

more heterogeneous student population. Consequently, as Patterson has pointed out, "The curriculum of the secondary school was under constant attack during this period."[26] Of all the criticisms levelled at the narrow programs offered by the high school, perhaps the most objective and cogent was that provided by the Putman-Weir Survey, conducted in relation to the British Columbia School System in 1924. Regarding the "prevccational" value of the secondary school curriculum, the report stated:

> Up to the present our secondary schools have given pre-vocational training to the favoured classes - those planning to enter the so-called learned professions, including those connected with applied science. In proof of this you may go into any high school in Canada and question the graduating classes. Out of any number of pupils you will find not less than ninety percent of the boys and perhaps more than fifty percent of the girls who are ready to tell you that they are to teach, take law, or medicine, or engineering, or banking, or nursing.[27]

In the light of this situation, the report went on to stress that, in order to insure the meeting of individual needs and the realization of social objectives, the high school must broaden its program of studies. It was recommended that the high schools provide three year courses in four program types: (1) graduation diploma; (2) normal entrance for a second class diploma; (3) commercial course; and (4) university matriculation.[28]

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[26] Patterson, R. S., op. cit., p. 370.

[27] Putman, J. H. and Weir, G. M. "Survey of the School System" (The Province of British Columbia). Victoria: King's Printer, 1925, p. 84.

[28] Ibid., p. 117.

During the 1930's, recommendations of the type put forth in the Putman-Weir Survey were increasingly put into practice. The progress made along this line is summarized by Johnson, who writes:

> British Columbia in 1930 established a two track program for its high schools, i.e. a "General Course" leading to a high school graduation diploma and a "University Program" leading to university entrance. Ontario in the late thirties revised its secondary school curriculum to include more cultural and practical subjects . . . Alberta, which had experimented with a liberal new curriculum in the 1920's again revised its high school course offerings to include a wide range of offerings both vocational and cultural. Other provinces were equally concerned with developing high school curricula which would continue to give a sound education to the academically able as well as provide courses suitable for children of average or less than average abilities.[29]

Not only were secondary school curricula being broadened but students were tending to stay in school considerably longer than had been the case in the past. A number of factors contributed to this state of affairs- including the raising of the compulsory school age, the spread of free high school education, the introduction of the junior high school, and the fact that during the depression there was little for young people to do but remain in school and continue their education.[30]

The changes in the nature of secondary education noted above - including increasing enrollments, a more heterogeneous student population, the growth of technical education, and the general broadening

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[29] Johnson, F. H., op. cit., p. 145.

[30] Ibid., p. 144.

of the curriculum - came as a rather direct result of the relatively rapid social and economic progress that had characterized Canadian life from the beginning of the twentieth century. In a manner of speaking, the general social conditions examined at the beginning of the present chapter contributed in a very significant way to the indigenous development of Canadian education.

While internal social and economic conditions undoubtedly altered the nature of Canadian education, it must be recognized at the same time that "Canadian educators have never worked in isolation . . . and continued to be influenced by new thoughts on pedagogy from abroad."[31] It is to some of these outside influences, aimed essentially at the elementary level of school but having implications for Canadian education in general, that we now turn.

External Influences Upon Canadian Education

Early Influences. Canadian education was directly and indirectly affected by the views put forth by the various early educational philosophers discussed in the previous chapter. As Stamp has observed:

> In eighteenth and nineteenth century Europe writers such as Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel were advancing new ideas on the teaching and learning process that eventually produced fundamental changes in Canadian educational theory and practice.[32]

G. S. Hall and the Child Study Movement, which in a sense represented an extension of some of the most enlightened ideas of the early European writers, also exercised considerable influence on the views of

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[31] Stamp, R. M., op. cit., p. 306.

[32] Ibid.

Canadians regarding the nature of the child and the learning process. In fact, Hall was invited to address the Ontario Teachers Convention in 1894 and in 1895 the Ontario Education Association created a Child Study Division. Concerning the effect of the movement, Johnson concludes, "Child study focused the attention of teachers and the general public alike on the need for a humane and understanding attitude toward children."[33]

The extent of the combined influence of these early writers is exemplified by the fact that in the early 1900's an examination of the official programs of study of provincial departments of education made apparent that "the stamp of approval had been put on education for and not merely of the child."[34] While such official provincial statements might have taken a decidedly enlightened view of the child in the learning process, by 1920 actual practice in the elementary school was not entirely consistent with the ideal. Johnson summarizes the essential characteristics of the school at this time:

> The Canadian elementary school by 1920 had become fairly stabilized, strongly teacher centred, highly regimented, strictly but not harshly disciplined, emphasizing factual learning, reading ability, the acquisition of arithmetical skill and good behavior.[35]

Progressive Education in Canada. One of the most important and influential educational movements to be born of the twentieth century

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[33]Johnson, F. H., op. cit., p. 83.

[34]Phillips, C. E. The Development of Education in Canada. Toronto: W. J. Gage and Company Ltd., 1957, p. 425.

[35]Johnson, F. H. op. cit., p. 132.

is the Progressive Education Movement. Developing in large part as a reaction to the "traditional" type of education described above and stimulated by the changed social conditions following the First World War, progressive education appeared to possess great potential for providing a medium through which children could acquire the skills required to live productively in a democratic society.

Although there "were many variations and differences in philosophy and practice within the broad framework" of progressive education,[36] certain general concerns characterized the movement as a whole. Some indication of the central concerns of the progressivists during the 1920's is provided by Goldring who notes the progress of the movement over the course of the first twenty-five years of its existence: He writes:

> Among the achievements were increased freedom for children and emphasis on child growth and development, more attention to problem solving and thinking, and the placing of the child in the centre of the educational picture with the thought that procedures must be in terms of his needs and interests.[37]

A good many of the essential concerns of the progressivists had been expressed by John Dewey, one of the most famous and influential spokesmen that the movement has had.

While various aspects of the Progressive Education Movement, particularly some of Dewey's ideas, were imperfectly understood by Canadians,

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[36]Patterson, R. S., op. cit., p. 373.

[37]Goldring, C. C. "Education Old and New," The School Guidance Worker, Vol. 10, No. 8, May, 1955, p. 2.

certain of its basic tenets were looked upon with favour during the 1920's. In this regard, Patterson writes:

> For many (Canadians) this new educational approach, despite the limited understanding of it, seemed to express the answers to the problems of the period. Emphasis was upon education as "life itself" - concern for individual differences, satisfying school experiences, democratic development, and rejection of traditional formalism were all incorporated in the new approach to education.[38]

It is interesting to note at this point that certain individuals in Canada who were actively involved in mental hygiene saw a great deal of overlap between the basic philosophy of their movement and the general objectives of progressive education. In fact, Spaulding and Line went so far as to claim that the primary justification of the Progessive Education Movement in education resided in its potential for playing a preventive function in the mental hygiene sense. Clearly indicating the extent to which the mental hygiene point of view was identified with that of progressive education, they had written:

> But all along the line, the activities engaged in (by the child) are but the media whereby he himself develops. The point of view is continuous; the setting varies. Both home and school are training the child. . . .Mental hygiene is, therefore, not something over and above reading, writing, arithmetic, social sciences and the like. It inheres the angle of regard pervading the direction of these activities.[39]

The Growth of Psychology and Testing. Although the scientific

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[38]Patterson, R. S., op. cit. p. 375.

[39]Spaulding, H. B. and Line, W. "Mental Hygiene, Research and Teacher Training," The School, Vol. XXIV, No. 7, March, 1936, p. 557.

movement in education first came upon the Canadian scene in some force between 1890 and the First World War, it was during the 1920's that the need to implement the findings of psychology became clearly recognized. In 1920, Rogers, in an article entitled "The Message of Educational Psychology to Parents and Teachers", chastized the schools for not heeding the findings of psychology:

> The school largely fails to apply the facts psychology has disclosed with regard to the innate interests of man and the ways in which he acquires new interests, and it ignores the great individual differences in both original and acquired capacities which must be recognized if education is to proceed economically and efficiently.[40]

In the light of such observations, the importance of research into various aspects of Canadian education came to be stressed during the remainder of the 1920's. Perhaps one of the most outstanding examples of Canadian research into educational problems was the Putman-Weir Survey of 1924, which was referred to previously. Certainly one of the most prominent representatives of the new emphasis on research, psychology and testing was Peter Sandiford, who, incidentally, conducted the testing aspect of the Putman-Weir Survey. Sandiford, who had been a graduate student of E. L. Thorndike, was highly instrumental in familiarizing many Canadians with the findings of the new psychology and with the techniques of testing. In 1931, at the University of Toronto, he founded the Bureau of Educational Research from which issued The

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[40]Rogers, A. L. "The Message of Educational Psychology to Parents and Teachers," Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene, Vol. 2, No. 1, 1920, p.66.

Dominion Intelligence Tests and a variety of achievement tests.[41]

Some indication of the range of Sandiford's work in the area of testing during the 1920's is afforded by examining some of his publications during this time. Among these were: "Critical Survey of Intelligence Testing (1921)"[42], "Paternal Occupations and Intelligence of Offspring (1926)"[43], "Present Status of Opinion as to the Use of Tests and Measurements in College Work (1927)"[44], "Technical Education and the I.Q. (1929)"[45], and "Subnormal Intelligence As An Educational Problem (1930)"[46].

It should be made clear that Sandiford was not the only Canadian active in the area of research and testing. As Patterson has pointed out, "M. E. Lazerte was a pioneer of these ideas in the West."[47]

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[41]Stein, H. L. "Educational Psychology,"in Canadian Education Today. (J. Katz, Editor) Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada Ltd., 1956, p. 46.

[42]Sandiford, P. "Critical Survey of Intelligence Testing," Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene, Vol. III, July, 1921, 3-48.

[43]Sandiford, P. "Paternal Occupations and Intelligence of Offspring," School and Society, Vol. XXIII, January, 1926, 117-119.

[44]Sandiford, P. "Present Status of Opinion as to the Use of Tests and Measurements in College Work." Proceedings of the Eleventh National Conference of Canadian Universities, 1927, 47-61.

[45]Sandiford, P. "Technical Education and the I.Q." Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association, 1929, 151-158.

[46]Sandiford, P. "Subnormal Intelligence as an Educational Problem," Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene, I, April, 1939, 65-69.

[47]Patterson, R. S., op. cit., p. 372.

Furthermore, S. R. Laycock, who also had a strong interest along these lines, created what came to be a "reputable mental ability test."[48]

While various developments related to Canadian education have been examined in a rather isolated fashion for the purpose of discussion, these developments were, in fact, highly interrelated. An excellent example of the reciprocal nature of the relationship between movements in education is provided by W. Line in "Mental Hygiene and Progressive Education", published in 1931, in which he discussed the relationship between these two movements and the developments that had taken place in psychology. Progressive educators considered the findings and techniques of psychology to be of great significance in the achievement of their aims. Line, recognizing this state of affairs, warned that:

> . . . we frequently fall into the habit of measuring progress by changes in the conditions of the educational process rather than in the process itself - often, indeed by changes in relatively unimportant conditions; and in this tendency, psychology, through educational psychology, has exercised a great influence.[49]

Line went on to suggest that a better perspective on the process of education and the place of the individual in that process might be maintained through the adoption of a mental hygiene point of view toward the learning situation.

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[48]Stein, H. L., loc. cit.

[49]Line, W. "Mental Hygiene and Progressive Education," Mental Hygiene, Vol. XV, No. 4, October, 1931, p.744.

Conclusion. In this chapter, the writer has attempted to offer some measure of understanding with regard to the Canadian societal and educational developments which collectively provided a favorable climate into which guidance could be introduced. The attention of the study will now focus specifically on the emergence and growth of the Guidance Movement in Canada.

CHAPTER IV

THE EMERGENCE OF AND ISSUES RELATED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF GUIDANCE IN CANADA

General Introduction

In general terms, it will be the purpose of the present chapter to deal with the development of guidance in Canada up to the time of its formal acceptance at the provincial level in most provinces. Within this broad framework an attempt will be made to: (1) trace some of the earliest beginnings of guidance in Canada; (2) examine certain theses, monographs, and other publications, written mostly during the 1930's, which began to point to the need for guidance; (3) provide some examples of early guidance programs; (4) analyze certain important issues and problems related to the development of guidance in the 1940's; (5) examine briefly the development of child guidance in Canada; (6) discuss the influence of the United States on Canadian guidance developments; and (7) provide an indication of the status of guidance in Canada by the late 1940's.

A. Foreshadowings of Guidance in Canada

Although the Guidance Movement did not begin to gain real momentum until the late 1930's and early 1940's, there were, nevertheless, clear-cut prior indications that the guidance concept was on its way to being accepted and established in Canada.

Brewer, in surveying the progress made in vocational guidance

in countries other than the United States, referred to the work of a vocational guidance nature being carried out in Winnipeg before the First World War. He wrote:

> In the year 1912 a number of men connected with the Winnipeg Industrial Bureau and with the Winnipeg Development and Industrial Bureau arranged a series of lectures for seventh and eighth grade children. These were published in the form of twenty or more pamphlets and widely distributed throughout Manitoba. Professor E. P. Fetherstonaugh of the University of Manitoba was one of the men especially interested and Daniel McIntyre, Superintendent of Schools at Winnipeg, and Charles E. Roland, Secretary of the Educational Committee, arranged for the lectures. The work was interrupted by the outbreak of the war in 1914.[1]

In "The Evolution of Guidance in the Schools of Nova Scotia", Chard points out that R. V. Harris, in a City of Halifax Board of School Commissioner's report published in 1916, recommended that the schools become concerned with vocational guidance. Harris had written:

> The public should . . . devote some attention to such vocational guidance as would enable the pupils leaving school to make an intelligent selection for life's career and avoid blind-alley occupations and subsequent drifting.[2]

Following World War One there were relatively more concrete indications that guidance was beginning to gain a foothold in Canada. In 1920, the Ontario Department of Labour published a series of bulletins under the name of "Vocational Opportunities in the Industries of

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[1]Brewer, J. M., op. cit., p. 236.

[2]Chard, W. D. "The Evolution of Guidance in the Schools of Nova Scotia," Master of Arts Thesis, St. Mary's University, 1965, p.28.

Ontario"[3] which provided relevant material for the guidance of students leaving school to enter the industrial labour force. In the same year, Bott, suspecting that the transition from school to the world of work represented a problem of major proportions to many students, conducted an investigation into juvenile employment in Toronto.[4] Regarding the relationship between the school and industry, Bott concluded:

> In our industrial centres . . . the gap which at present exists for a large percentage of children between school and work is a serious handicap and an industrial loss. The relation of education to juvenile employment, therefore, is an important question which should command the cooperation and support of employers, educators, and parents.[5]

In 1921 provision was made in the Ontario Vocational Education Act for the appointment of vocational guidance officers.[6] As early as 1922 the importance of assistance in the choice of a vocation was clearly recognized in The Junior High School of Vancouver. A report of a Sub-Committee on the Relation of School and Community stressed that "one of the most important functions of the school" was the familiarization of the pupil with the various opportunities and occupations

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[3]Ontario Department of Labour. Vocational Opportunities in the Industries of Ontario. Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1920.

[4]Bott, E. A. Juvenile Employment in Relation to Public Schools and Industries in Toronto. University of Toronto Studies, Vol. IV, No. 2, 1920.

[5]Bott, E. A. Studies in Industrial Psychology: A Point of View. University of Toronto Studies, Vol. IV, No. 1, 1920, p.6.

[6]Parmenter, M. D. "Vocational Guidance," The School Guidance Worker, Vol. 14, No. 4, January, 1959, p. 15.

that await him after he leaves school. Action was taken on this recommendation to the extent that a vocational guidance course was incorporated into the program at The Junior High School of Vancouver.[7]

In addition to recommending needed reforms with regard to education as a whole, The British Columbia Putman-Weir Survey of 1924 also explicitly recognized the need to become more concerned about the vocational adjustment of those leaving school. Indicating the role of the school in this matter, the report stated:

> . . . if an urban centre has twenty thousand children in its schools, and if many of these children after leaving school, through the force of circumstances or because of lack of opportunity, become vocational misfits, the school may not complacently and lightly dismiss the problem and disclaim all responsibility. If education and social progress are, as we believe, two aspects of one great movement, then educational leaders have some responsibility for the vocational misfits among the school graduates.[8]

The report went on to recommend that a vocational guidance officer be appointed for the Vancouver area.

By 1925, the Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers provided for vocational guidance training within the context of their program.[9] In 1927, Dr. F. H. Sexton and Mr. A. T. Jewitt offered a course in vocational guidance during a Nova Scotia summer school session.[10]

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[7]Ward, H. H., op. cit., p. 205.

[8]Putman, J. H. and Weir, G. M., op. cit., p. 84.

[9]Parmenter, M. D., loc. cit.

[10]Chard, W. D., op. cit., p. 16.

Also beginning in 1927, some schools in British Columbia began to establish relatively small scale guidance programs.[11]

B. Early Theses and Monographs Related to Guidance

During the 1930's, theses, monographs, and other publications related to guidance began to appear. These early works not only pointed out the general potential of guidance in meeting the needs of youth in an increasingly complex industrial society, but they also raised issues and made recommendations directly related to the Canadian scene. It is to an examination of some of these early publications that we now turn.

Partly as a reaction against the tendency to overemphasize the theoretical aspects of vocational guidance, Webster, in 1933, undertook an experiment to investigate the feasibility of applying vocational guidance techniques at the beginning of high school in the city of Montreal.[12] A second and related objective of the project was to study "juvenile placement in relation to school training and the distribution of mental ability."[13] An attempt was made to determine the relationship between a variety of psychological tests - including measures of intelligence, achievement, special aptitude, and personality - and such things as formal school training, the choice of optional subjects, and the chances of of an individual's success in a variety of occupations. The ultimate

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[11] Parmenter, M. D., op. cit., p. 16.

[12] Webster, E. C. "An Experimental Approach to Vocational Guidance," Master of Arts Thesis, McGill University, 1933.

[13] Ibid. p. 10.

intent of the investigation was to provide a plan for the establishment of a program of vocational and educational guidance for Montreal schools. On the basis of the findings of the study, a number of "tentative" conclusions were reached relative to the problems that had to be faced for the city of Montreal to have a successful program of vocational guidance. Concerning the importance of offering assistance in the choice of a high school program, Webster concluded:

> Evidence has been brought forward to show that these choices are often not made in a manner satisfactory to the child. Vocational guidance must, then, commence in Grade 7, - just prior to the time when a pupil elects a high school course. In order that this may be done, a study of the characteristics of pupils entering the various courses and those successful in their high school careers had to be known. This study we have tried to make.[14]

Webster pursued his interests along these lines over the course of the next few years, completing his doctoral dissertation, "Vocational Guidance in Relation to School Training and the Distribution of Mental Abilities"[15], in 1936. In 1939, he incorporated much of his previous research into a monograph entitled "Guidance for the High School Pupil"[16] which was published as part of the McGill Social Research Series. It was in this monograph that Webster finally elaborated upon various recommendations related to guidance and aimed at the schools of the province of Quebec. Among the most noteworthy of these were:

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[14] Ibid., p. 154.

[15] Webster, E. C. "Vocational Guidance in Relation to School Training and the Distribution of Mental Abilities," Ph.D. Thesis, McGill University, 1936.

[16] Webster, E. C. Guidance for the High School Pupil. McGill Social Research Series, No. 8, Montreal: McGill University, 1939.

(1) A broadened curriculum providing opportunities for the development of different abilities, skills, and interests, and unfettered by "academic" preoccupations is essential if schools are to cater for a wider, or the whole, juvenile population.

(2) Educational and vocational guidance must be based upon research. A research bureau or department is needed for the development of sound techniques adapted to the specific conditions of Quebec and Canada.

(3) Guidance must be based upon a systematic study of the individual in relation to his environment. An important function of the research bureau recommended above would be the study of techniques for revealing individual progress and maladjustment, which could be employed by teachers and qualified examiners.

(4) Cumulative records available to the teacher would provide an inexpensive aid to the study of the individual pupil.

(5) Guidance service in remedial training, choice of school subjects, and choice of occupation needs to be developed for the school system as a whole with a competent director in charge.[17]

Webster felt that if public support could be rallied for the implementation of his recommendations, the nature of secondary education might be fundamentally altered. Expressing this belief, he wrote:

> If enlightened public opinion can be generated to support the cooperative efforts of education specialists and the school authorities, a new secondary school organization can be built up within which pupils will be guided and trained to take their places more securely and successfully in the life of the community.[18]

Stimulated by a vocational guidance course he took in 1930 at the Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers and feeling that know-

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[17] Ibid., pp. 128-129.

[18] Ibid., p.129.

ledge concerning vocational guidance was almost totally lacking among Canadians, Jackson, in 1934, surveyed certain of the problems inherent in vocational guidance and the techniques in use or available at that time for the solution of these problems. Jackson suggested that, in the light of the conditions of the day, vocational guidance should include essentially four interrelated functions:

(1) Minute study of each child's capacities and talents.

(2) Survey of industry and commerce to determine society's needs.

(3) Advice to the child based on these studies and the taking into consideration his economic status, and other possible obstacles.

(4) Placement service.[19]

It is interesting to note the rather striking resemblence between this view of vocational guidance and the Parsonian model presented near the beginning of the present study. Furthermore, a heavy emphasis on the use of various tests is implicit in this view. In fact, Jackson went so far as to suggest that vocational guidance rests upon two basic assumptions, the first being that "human capacities can be measured" and the second holding that "measurements made in childhood can be used to predict final capacities."[20] No less than twelve different categories of tests were listed - including tests of intelligence, achievement, mechanical aptitude and character. Clearly indicating his belief that tests play a central, if not the central role, in the carrying out of a guidance program, Jackson had said:

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[19]Jackson, H.J. "Vocational Guidance," Master of Arts Thesis, McMaster University, 1934, p. 11.

[20]Ibid., p. 19.

> The weakest part of all vocational guidance programs is the lack of information regarding those qualities, more or less capable of objective measurement, which are required for a given occupation.[21]

Apart from providing a useful overview of the problems and techniques of vocational guidance, Jackson provided several suggestions for the improvement of guidance services in Ontario which were somewhat prophetic in nature since some of them were actually put into effect in the 1940's. Among his recommendations was the appointment of a Provincial Director of Vocational Guidance who would "rank with the Directors of Technical and Professional Education and report directly to the Deputy Minister."[22] Jackson conceived of such a director as performing, among others, the following duties:

(1) To plan, first, a testing program to be carried out as a regular part of the work of each school, and, secondly, a survey of occupations throughout the province.

(2) To appoint expert counsellors with the rank of inspectors to visit individual schools and supervise the vocational guidance program.

(3) To provide for the training of professional counsellors.

(4) To appoint an Advisory Vocational Guidance Committee made up of interested persons in different parts of the province to assist in getting the movement started, to collect and collate information, especially as regards occupations, and to stimulate and maintain local interest in the work.

(5) To maintain a Research Department under the direction of a qualified educational psychologist, to examine and evaluate available tests, etc., and to devise new

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[21] Ibid., p. 16.

[22] Ibid., p. 47.

> ones suitable for use in Ontario, and generally, to put into the hands of counsellors and inspectors all the material of a technical nature which they may require.
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> (6) To publish booklets and other helpful material for the use of counsellors in the schools.[23]

Jackson went on to urge that every school should have a counsellor to carry out the testing program and offer educational and vocational guidance.

Other theses, conducted along lines similar to the Jackson study, were done during the 1930's. In 1937, Dimock, in a thesis entitled "Vocational Guidance", pointed to the need for guidance and discussed the various techniques that had been found useful in this field.[24] Similarly, Dodd, in 1938, dealt with various guidance methods in a thesis called "Vocational Guidance in British Columbia."[25]

Morton, in 1937, wrote a monograph called "Individual Diagnosis-A Manual for the Employment Office" which was published as part of the McGill Social Research Series.[26] Although it was not particularly intended to be directly applicable to the school situation, it does merit some attention because it had implications for youth dropping out of and graduating from school. In the forward to this monograph, Marsh

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[23] Ibid., pp. 48-49.

[24] Dimock, M. C. "Vocational Guidance," Master of Arts Thesis, University of British Columbia, 1937.

[25] Dodd, A. J. "Vocational Guidance in British Columbia," Master of Arts Thesis, University of British Columbia, 1938.

[26] Morton, N. W. Individual Diagnosis - A Manual for the Employment Office. McGill Social Research Series, No. 6, Montreal: McGill University, 1937.

stated that although the Federal Employment Service had existed in Canada since 1918, it had "yet to be accorded the attention which in the modern industrial world it demanded."[27] To enhance the optimal effectiveness of the service it was considered essential that systematic individualized attention be afforded its clientele. Regarding the already changing attitude toward those requesting the assistance of the Employment Service Morton wrote:

> No longer does it tend to view its registrants as so many arithmetic units, to be summarized at the end of the day as a quantity of labour meeting a quantity of labour demand. Rather does it regard them as a manifold of personal characteristics, and warranting as individual a form of treatment as may possibly be given. Gradually, but nonthe-less certainly, a practical blending of the older economic with the newer psychological and educational values has been taking place.[28]

As a step in the right direction toward implementing this philosophy, Morton recommended a number of "current instruments and methods of psychological practice" to be used in the selection and counselling of applicants to the employment service.[29] Under ideal circumstances, tests of various kinds would be administered to elicit from applicants information relative to such factors as general intelligence, special aptitudes, personality, physical condition, and special interests. Morton stressed that it was the personal interview which was central to the whole process of vocational selection and guidance and warned that the various tests available were only aids in learning as much about the

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[27] Ibid., p. vii.

[28] Ibid., p. 1.

[29] Ibid., p. 6.

individual as possible.

Finally, a significant contribution was made to the vocational guidance of Alberta students when, in 1938, the Alberta Teachers' Association published "Choosing Your Life Work."[30] Compiled at the suggestion and under the direction of Dr. M. E. LaZerte, the monograph was based in large part on the work done by Frederick Tyler[31] and Dorothy Deakin.[32] By way of introduction, Tyler explained the basic assumption on which the book was based. He wrote:

> Since existing economic conditions make it practically impossible for schools to give students actual vocational experience, it would seem that the next best thing to do is to give them information about such experience.[33]

The book went on to discuss certain of the problems encountered in the choice of an occupation and described in some detail the nature and requirements of occupations in such general areas as agriculture, manufacturing, transportation and communication, business, and professional services. Much responsibility for the choice of a career was placed directly on the individual students. As an aid to self-analysis, the following outline was provided:

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[30] LaZerte, M. E. Choosing Your Lifework. Edmonton: The Alberta Teachers' Association, 1938.

[31] Tyler, F. T. "A Study of Certain Selected Alberta Occupations," Bachelor of Education Thesis, University of Alberta, 1938.

[32] Deakin, D. E. "Vocational Guidance for High School Pupils in Alberta," Master of Arts Thesis, University of Alberta, 1939.

[33] LaZerte, M. E., op. cit., p. vii.

Types of Abilities and Related Occupations

a. Verbal and linguistic - fluency in use of one's own language, and facility in learning other languages. Perception of verbal relations.	a. Author, lawyer, professor, minister, editor, advertising copy-writer, etc.
b. Scientific - facility in defining, classifying, grasping principles, inductive reasoning, perceiving relations of rule to example.	b. Research worker, physician, physicist, chemist, geologist, psychologist, etc.
c. Mathematical - facility with abstract symbols (and relations of cause and effect)- perception of complex number relations.	c. Mathematics teacher, accountant, statistician, engineer, comptroller, etc.
d. Clerical and commercial - accuracy and speed in handling numbers, names, systems and details.	d. Bookkeeper, credit man, purchasing agent, cashier, clerk, etc.
e. Constructive and mechanical - perception of spatial relations, facility in designing, calculating, working with machinery, etc.	e. Engineer, architect, inventor, tool maker, printer, etc.
f. Manual skills - dexterity in using tools, skill with hands and fingers, precision in coordinating movements.	f. Surgeon, dentist, sculptor, artist, skilled mechanic, special skilled trades, etc.
g. Artistic - appreciation of form and color, facility in crafts and in imaginative interpretations.	g. Artist, sculptor, architect, designer, composer, actor, dancer, etc.
h. Executive - initiative, self-reliance, ambition, leadership.	h. Director, manager, foreman, inspector, etc.
i. Social - sociability, co-operativeness, tact, personal pleasingness, helpfulness.	i. Politician, teacher, personnel or social welfare worker, salesman, etc.

j. Practical - efficiency in practical affairs, calmness under pressure, persistence, courage.	j. Air pilot, sea captain, army officer, surgeon, etc.[34]

While the material presented up to this point in the present chapter provides evidence for the claim that a Canadian awareness of the potential utility of guidance had been progressively widening since before the First World War, it was not until the late 1930's and early 1940's that the movement began in earnest. It is this period in the development of guidance in Canada that will now be discussed.

C. Heightening Awareness of Guidance and Attempts at Implementation

By the latter part of the 1930's it was becoming increasingly obvious to those concerned with education that guidance of a formalized sort was a necessity to meet the needs of youth and the demands of the times. Sorsoleil, in 1937, described what often happens regarding the choice of a vocation in the absence of some form of guidance. He wrote:

> Some follow family tradition and inherit a business; many yield to economic pressures and take the first thing that comes up; some accept the occupational limitations of the community; some yield to the wishes of parents, and that, frequently on the basis that some jobs ensure social status and that certain other jobs elicit social contempt; some observing that an acquaintance has done well at a certain type of work, imitate. Thus do we supposedly intelligent beings enter into the most significant undertaking of our lives.[35]

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[34] Ibid., p. 21.

[35] Sorsoleil, M. A. "Vocational Guidance," The Canadian School Journal, November, 1937, p. 394.

Sorsoleil went on to stress the importance of recognizing the wide range of individual differences among youth and the almost equally varied occupational field that had come into existence in recent times.

Marquesado explained the positive effect of knowing what one wanted to do in life:

> Having a definite objective is a great advantage. When a young man knows what he wants he can plan his activities toward the attainment of his ideals. He knows what he can offer, and having something to offer is of major importance in the matter of seeking employment in these days when money is so carefully counted.[36]

In spite of the undeniable advantages accrued from having a viable goal in life, Marquesado observed that many boys and girls leave high school without even a slight idea of what they want to do to make a living.

Sadler considered unfortunate the fact that the knowledge of most teachers concerning their pupils was confined to their performance in the academic domain and their general attitude and classroom behavior. He claimed that, "Their family environment, their outside school activities, their likes and dislikes, their hopes and fears, their ambitions and their frustrations are in most cases beyond our ken."[37] Sadler felt that if the school could gain an insight into its pupils along these lines and help them to utilize their assets toward entry into a satisfying occupation, it would be providing a service of "inestimable value."[38]

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[36]Marquesado, J. "Youth Needs Vocational Guidance," The School Trustee (Saskatchewan), June, 1937-38, p. 18.

[37]Sadler, W. "An Experiment in Guidance," The Manitoba School Journal, Vol. II, No. 9, May, 1940, p. 8.

[38]Ibid.

Finally, Goode presented a rather convincing argument concerning the need for guidance in the schools in terms of the various unfortunate consequences of vocational maladjustment. Concerning the unhappy state of the worker ill suited to his task, she wrote:

> The man of intelligence and initiative doomed to spend his days in routine tasks; the man of limited capacity, painfully conscious of his inferiority, struggling vainly to accomplish what is beyond his powers; the man of independence and reserve forced to feign servility and to assume an unnatural affability towards those whom he despises; these are but a few familiar examples of incompatibility between the characteristics of the worker and the requirements of the work.[39]

In Goode's view, the negative side effects of occupational misplacement were not merely psychological in nature. Viewed within a larger perspective, it was not only the worker himself who suffered its consequences but also the employer and, ultimately, the public consumer. In more general terms, Goode explained that, in the light of radically altered societal conditions, considerably more responsibility for the wholesome development of youth, which includes their choice of a vocation, was being placed squarely upon the shoulders of the school. Explaining why such was the case, she wrote:

> Change in industry has considerably altered the home life of the family. Most of the members of the family work outside the home and find their amusement outside of it as well. There is now less parent-child contact and consequently less education from the home. Religious influences have also greatly lessened. The education and stability which youth formerly received from industry, the home, and the church must now be supplied by some other institution if young people are to make successful adjustments to our present complex society. Much of this reponsibility rests on the school.[40]

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[39]Goode, M. E. "The Need of Guidance," The School, Vol. XXIX, No.2, October, 1940, p. 109.

[39]Ibid., p. 111.

In Goode's opinion, problems related to the factors listed above could begin to be resolved by bringing guidance out of the "vague realms of experimentation."[41]

While the attitude of most Canadians who had been exposed to the concept of guidance was a generally positive and optimistic one, there were also those who adopted a critical posture with regard to its potential. Reflecting the kinds of questions asked by those interested in the guidance concept, Sadler had written:

> We have heard a great deal about guidance recently. What is the truth about it all? Is there really as much in it as its advocates would have us believe? Is it just another one of those American fads which sweep the continent today and are gone tomorrow? Is it something new or have we been doing it all along without troubling to give it a name? If we come to the conclusion that it is worthwhile can we afford to put it into operation or can we afford not to put it into operation? These are extremely pertinent questions which must be carefully considered before any ambitious scheme is initiated or the whole matter calmly ignored.[42]

By and large, however, the value of guidance was acclaimed by Canadians and the problem was not so much deciding whether or not to accept guidance as a useful part of the educational system as it was deciding just how to go about establishing actual guidance programs. Guidance in the early 1940's was, relatively speaking, a new comer in educational circles and the manner in which it was introduced to the public in general and the schools in particular was a matter of grave

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[41] Ibid., p. 108.

[42] Sadler, W., loc. cit.

concern, since it was upon these initial attempts that its success would depend. Fortunately, the movement was spearheaded by men who were aware of what needed to be done to insure the most effective introduction of guidance into the schools. One such man was E. K. Ford, who was a pioneer of guidance in Nova Scotia. Ford stressed the importance of the adoption of a prudent and patient attitude on the part of those feeling the need to set up programs of guidance. Although such individuals might have in mind the creation of an ultimately comprehensive program of guidance, it was paramount, in Ford's view, that they begin in a small way by introducing elements of guidance which served a useful purpose while at the same time providing a foundation for further expansion. In his opinion, vocational guidance, since it was obviously needed by students and at the same time easily understood by parents, provided an ideal tool by means of which to introduce guidance into the schools. In Ford's words:

> Vocational guidance represents a field for the take-off with hangers, runways, and beacons pre-established. Preoccupied as parents are with the economic futures of their children, and confused as they may be with the complexity of the occupational pictures of today, there is need for little more than pointing up the problem and presenting the first steps. The results of those first steps are almost certain to be beneficial and obvious.[43]

Another advantage of initiating a guidance program through the medium of vocational guidance - which Ford seemed to equate with information giving in the early stages of a program's development - was that it is readily carried out by teachers who have supposedly already become ex-

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[43]Ford, E. K. "The Administrator Looks at Guidance," Journal of Education (Halifax), January, 1944, p. 97.

perts in the dissemination of information. Implicit in this approach was a two-fold advantage. In the first place, it made use of existing staff to carry out an important aspect of the guidance function, and, secondly, it provided an opportunity for those teachers who possessed the personal qualities for becoming counsellors to become aware of this and perhaps take advanced training in guidance methods.

It is obvious that in the early days of guidance in Canada, the teacher was expected to play an active and central part in the guidance program. In fact, it was felt by some that it was primarily the teachers who should be expected to provide the initiative and leadership required to introduce guidance into the schools. Making this point perfectly clear with regard to teachers in Nova Scotia, Beed, in reaction to the tendency of certain educational leaders and legislators to have a skeptical attitude toward guidance, wrote:

> Therefore, from the teachers must come the inspired leadership, based on study and interest, that will influence and encourage the government to provide the best possible program of guidance for Nova Scotia.[44]

Beed proceeded to offer some suggestions that might be of help to teachers in the event that they should be provided with an opportunity to initiate a program of guidance. Among these were the collection of occupational information, the holding of a career week, and the building up of a library of occupational literature.

To rally public support for guidance, virtually every available means of communication was recommended. Regarding this eclectic ap-

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[44]Beed, J. "Vocational Guidance in Our Schools," The Teacher's Bulletin (Nova Scotia), June, 1941-42, p. 9.

proach, Ford had said:

> Local service clubs, home and school organizations, teachers institutes and clubs, any rostrum through which he can reach various sections of the public, can be used to educate people into taking the one short step needed to initiate the program.[45]

A technique for spreading knowledge about the philosophy and methods of guidance that seemed to be highly favoured by Ford was the adult study group. In 1940, under the auspices of the Canadian Association for Adult Education, he published a monograph called "Vocational Guidance"[46] in which the nature of the study group was explained and various aspects of guidance were discussed. It was hoped that through activities of this kind parents, teachers, and others could offer "intelligent support" to the movement.

D. Examples of Some Early Guidance Programs

To provide some indication of the nature and scope of guidance during the early 1940's, certain examples of early guidance programs will be examined. While most of the programs to be discussed were established in Ontario, there is, to the writer's knowledge, no reason to suspect that these programs were not similar to early attempts at guidance undertaken elsewhere in Canada.

Morgan D. Parmenter, one of the most outstanding contributors to the development of guidance in Ontario, described the program in

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[45] Ford, E. K., op. cit., p. 98.

[46] Ford, E. K. Vocational Guidance. Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1940.

which he was involved at the Danforth Technical School.[47] By 1941, a guidance program subsuming ten interrelated functions was in operation at the school. Among these functions were:

(1) Gathering relevant background information from students upon entry into the school, followed by the administration of a group intelligence test and a test of mechanical aptitude. These materials provided the first entries for a cumulative record which could provide a starting point for interviewing students.

(2) Offering of a course dealing with a wide variety of occupations that students might possibly enter following graduation.

(3) Giving of talks by teachers in various special subject areas to provide students with a sound insight into the kinds of courses that they might possibly take in their junior and senior years.

(4) Bringing in outside speakers, especially former students of the school, to describe the nature of the work-a-day world and their experiences in it.

(5) Insertion of occupational information into the context of shop courses.

(6) Provision for individual testing and counseling for students with regard to school or vocation related problems.

(7) Helping students find employment following graduation.[48]

Parmenter explained that because of the large number of students requiring attention, a good deal of the assistance was provided by means of group guidance methods.

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[47] Parmenter, M. D. "What We Do About Vocational Guidance," The School, Vol. XXIX, No. 6, February, 1941, 560-561.

[48] Ibid., p. 561.

A relatively small-scale guidance program established in the Scarboro Collegiate Institute was described by Kidd in a 1941 issue of The School.[49] At this school the guidance function was carried out by the form teachers under the supervision of the principal. Describing the nature of the work, Kidd wrote:

> One half period per week, taken from the subject taught by the form teacher is given to this work. Each class is informed of the subject matter covered in different courses during future years, and questions relative to the standing necessary for various occupations and further study are answered.[50]

Available in the school library were several books that might be useful to students in familiarizing themselves with a wide variety of occupational possibilities and their requirements. The school also had access to the library of the Ontario Vocational Guidance Association. For students approaching the completion of their programs, individualized assistance in the choice of a vocation was provided by the principal and the vocational guidance officer.

In the vocational guidance program at the North Toronto Collegiate Institute described by Keeling, a great deal of emphasis was placed upon the provision of adequate assistance in the final year of a student's high school career, since it was at this point that he was confronted with the alternatives of proceeding to some form of higher education, taking some type of advanced training, or seeking some kind

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[49] Kidd, E. E. "The Guidance Program at Scarboro College Institute," The School, Vol. XXIX, No. 9, May, 1941, 834-835.

[50] Ibid., p. 834.

of employment.[51] A unique aspect of this program was the formation of a vocational guidance study group comprised of the guidance officer and a number of students enthusiastic about making others in the school aware of the subject. The student members of this group served the cause of guidance by "making contacts with other pupils, by assisting in obtaining speakers for group meetings, and by gathering material that might be of benefit to other students."[52] Another notable characteristic of this particular program was its explicit recognition of the importance of offering help to students in problem areas other than those directly related to vocational choice. Explaining why individual counselling is one of the most vital functions of guidance, Keeling wrote:

> Most pupils welcome the opportunity of having a personal interview with a teacher in whom they have confidence, if they find that he is willing and anxious to help them solve some of their problems. These conversations need not be limited to mere chats about his vocation, but should include other matters which come within the teacher's field of operation.[53]

Through statements such as this, it can be seen that those involved actively in the field were beginning to point to the need for a broader frame of reference for guidance than was provided by the vocational guidance model.

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[51] Keeling, L. W. "Vocational Guidance at North Toronto Collegiate Institute," The School, Vol. XXIX, No. 10, June, 1941, 896-897.

[52] Ibid., p. 897.

[53] Ibid.

A classic example of what during the 1940's seemed to represent the ideal type of vocational guidance organization is provided by the department that was established in London, Ontario. Mr. H. R. Beattie, an outstanding pioneer of the Guidance Movement in Canada, in a publication entitled, "Vocational Guidance in London", gave a detailed account of the nature and scope of this program.[54] Describing how the London program was initiated, Beattie wrote:

> In January 1941 the Chairman of the Vocational Guidance Committee of the Board of Education, Mr. F. G. McAllister, and the Superintendent of Schools, Mr. G. A. Wheable submitted a memorandum to the Board of Education. This was accepted by the Board and has been the basis for the organization of Vocational Guidance in London.[55]

The vocational guidance program was a comprehensive one and was organized upon the following "fundamental bases":

(1) Cumulative records - carefully prepared and continually used.

(2) Tests and measurements - properly administered and interpreted in relation to all other information gathered and assembled in the cumulative records.

(3) Occupational and self-appraisal classes - the dissemination of information and courses in self-appraisal in regular assigned periods in Grade XI, and, if possible, in all grades.

(4) Counseling - the core of vocational guidance which can be performed adequately only by those trained in the work.

(5) Placement - the finding of jobs at graduation or school leaving is the duty of the individual, but the school must lend its effort and support.

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[54] Beattie, H. R. Vocational Guidance in London. London: Department of Vocational Guidance - Board of Education, 1943.

[55] Ibid., p. 4.

(6) Follow-up-the assistance given to students to advance in their occupations, and an evaluation of the guidance program.[56]

In order to carry out these guidance functions it was considered essential to have the services of a Vocational Guidance Officer, a number of counsellors, both male and female, and an assistant to aid in various aspects of the program. The Vocational Guidance Officer played a very crucial and apparently demanding role in this program. Among his duties were: to direct the Department of Vocational Guidance, to supervise the activities of the counsellors and provide what training they might require, to collect relevant and current information regarding various occupations, to address and keep in contact with various segments of the public, such as service clubs, etc., and to offer any assistance that he could to teachers in the senior grades. The duties of the counsellors were: to teach part-time in order to become acquainted with students, to assist students in the choice of a vocation, to administer vocational tests under the supervision of the Guidance Officer, to keep in touch with parents if necessary, and to keep a record of the capacities and interests of students in order to be able to suggest to the Guidance Officer the suitability of particular individuals for various employment opportunities that might be discovered.

Testing played a very important role in the London program, with tests of intelligence, interests, aptitudes, and miscellaneous other measures being used on a regular basis. Among the intelligence tests

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[56] Ibid., p. 6.

were the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale, The Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, and The Dominion Test of Intelligence. The aptitude tests included the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Kuder Preference Record. The Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers, The Detroit Mechanical Aptitude Test, and the Minnesota Paper Form Board Test were among the measures of special aptitudes.

Although test administration was an important aspect of the work, it was individual counselling that constituted the heart of the entire vocational guidance program. Beattie stressed that while information giving was an essential function of the guidance process, "much value will be lost unless the students have an opportunity to talk over privately with some older person their plans and problems."[57] Beattie went on to outline the nature of the counsellor's role under four different headings:

> (1) The Process of Release: Many emotional problems are the result of pent up emotions. Counseling may help to relieve those emotions. Also many vocational problems involve tension. Probably it is only because the individual has not chosen his vocation. In such cases the discussion with a counselor may release this tension. But counseling must go still further.
>
> (2) Interpreting Facts and Attitudes: Through explanation and discussion, the student may be brought to face the facts. It may be that the student is unwilling to recognize the value of the school as training for later life.
>
> (3) Giving Insight: In this work a person is working on an emotional rather than an intellectual level.

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[57] Ibid., p. 27.

(4) Making Plans: This is a summation of the interview.[58] It should be noted that while the personal problems of the student are acknowledged in this conception of counselling, they appear to be considered primarily or almost solely to the extent that they have a direct bearing on the individual's choice of occupation. Describing the ideal outcome of the counselling session, Beattie wrote:

> The successful counseling interview is so concluded that the pupil leaves it feeling that choosing a vocation is a serious undertaking for which the responsibility rests with him and that the counselor is ready and able to give him further help later in this matter.[59]

An indication of the scale on which vocational guidance was being conducted in the schools of London by 1944 is provided by Nethercott who reported in The Ontario Public School Argus that approximately 3,500 students were benefiting from the counselling services provided by the Director of Vocational Guidance and eleven part-time counsellors.[60]

E. Critical Issues in the Early Development of Guidance in Canada

In addition to the problem of simply deciding whether or not guidance should be introduced into the schools, certain other crucial issues had to be dealt with by those spearheading the establishment of the Guidance Movement in Canada. Among these were the problems of:

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[58] Ibid.

[59] Ibid.

[60] Nethercott, J. P. S. "Vocational Guidance Program in the Schools of London," The Ontario Public School Argus, May, 1944, 116-120.

(1) deciding the scope and range of guidance services; (2) establishing the relationship of the guidance concept to the educational endeavour as a whole; and (3) determining the role definitions of those directly or indirectly involved in providing guidance services. As long as guidance was interpreted in the narrow vocational guidance sense, such issues assumed a stature of relative unimportance. However, with the continual broadening of the guidance concept to include, in addition to matters of a vocational nature, such concerns as personal and social adjustment, these questions increasingly had to be confronted and resolved.

To provide a general frame of reference for the discussion of these interrelated issues relative to the Canadian scene, the present writer will outline in somewhat brief fashion the different points of view put forth during the late 1930's and early 1940's by three outstanding spokesmen of the Guidance Movement in the United States - John Brewer, George Myers, and Arthur Jones. Each of these men promoted a rather unique interpretation of the optimal scope of the guidance concept and the relationship of the concept to education in general. Apart from providing a framework within which to examine problems related to the nature and scope of the guidance concept, these viewpoints provide an excellent indication of the kinds of guidance related ideas to which Canadians were being exposed during the early days of the Guidance Movement in this country.

John Brewer and the Concept of Guidance as Essentially Synonymous With Education. Adopting a somewhat extremist position, Brewer in his

book, Education As Guidance,[61] claimed that, under ideal circumstances, the guidance function would be very closely identified with the task of education as a whole. In the preface to the 1938 edition of his book he had written:

> In spite of the elaborate nature of our present school and college machinery, most educators would agree that the final purpose of it all is simply that students may learn to live better lives. This is essentially the guidance aim. Why, then, do we not set up living and guidance therein as the curriculum, rather than the so-called standard subjects or fields of knowledge. Apparently our practice lags behind our purpose.[62]

According to Brewer, there were basically three ways in which to consider the relationship between guidance and education. In the first place, the school curriculum might be designed to relate to actual life activities so that, hopefully, students partaking in it might be assisted in the process of daily living. Secondly, there might be created a system of guidance services conducted by counsellors, teachers, advisers, etc., which would parallel and "in no way interfere" with the activities conducted in the existing curriculum. Lastly, guidance might be highly integrated "with a curriculum of activities designed to give children the opportunity to learn in the laboratory of life."[63] It was the latter possibility with which Brewer aligned himself. An indication of the great degree of overlap between the educative and guidance functions is provided by Brewer's characterization of the "total

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[61] Brewer, J. M. Education as Guidance. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

[62] Ibid., p. vii.

[63] Ibid., p. 3.

program for guidance", which he outlined as follows:

> (1) An organized, rich life of normal, interesting, and important activities, making up the juvenile community.
>
> (2) Classes and study groups for the discussion of problems involved in these activities, for such information and technical knowledge as may be needed to develop and appropriate skill in them, and for the wise motivation and integration of all the activities of life.
>
> (3) Counseling in these activities, with fostering and friendly supervision, to develop wisdom in specific activities and to develop skill in planning, balancing, and integrating them.
>
> (4) A Committee to plan the total guidance program, to set up specific curriculums, and to study and coordinate all guidance efforts. Committees to study and foster each specific aim of a comprehensive program of guidance. Administrators who see guidance as the chief function of the school and college, cooperating with and encouraging teachers, committees, counselors, and students, and coordinating all effort leading toward this objective.[64]

Incorporated into this educational scheme were several kinds of guidance which were related to various general areas of life activity. In fact, Brewer listed no less than ten different kinds of guidance needed in the ideal program. Among these were educational and vocational guidance and guidance in the areas of "home relationships", "citizenship", "leisure and recreation", "personal well being", "religion", "right doing", "thoughtfulness and cooperation", and "wholesome and cultural action." The ultimate aim of the guidance endeavour was to make the individual capable of self-guidance in the many and varied activities of everyday living.

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[64] Ibid., p. 112.

It is important to note the distinct similarity between the position put forth by Brewer and the views of certain educational philosophers, particularly those of John Dewey. Brewer acknowledged the great contributions of educational philosophers and those who were actively involved in the field of curriculum construction. However, since he desired to have his interpretation stand or fall on its own merit, Brewer elected not to deal with the contributions of others.

George Myers and the Concern for Clarifying the Role of Guidance in Relation to Education. Reacting to what he considered to be the unfortunate confusion with regard to the meaning and scope of the guidance function in education, Myers in 1941 published Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance.[65] He listed four tendencies which, in his opinion, contributed to the confusion and ambiguity surrounding the guidance concept. These were: (1) a tendency on the part of some educators to use the term guidance as synonymous with organized education; (2) a tendency on the part of many others to think of guidance in terms of individualized teaching; (3) a tendency on the part of others to treat guidance as synonymous with pupil personnel work; and (4) a tendency on the part of still others to look upon guidance as consisting chiefly of mental hygiene.[66]

Myers was convinced that a clearer perspective on the guidance

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[65]Myers, G. E. Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941.

[66]Ibid., p. vii.

function could best be enhanced and maintained if the vocational guidance model was employed as a basic frame of reference with which other kinds of guidance could be compared. Disagreeing vehemently with those who tended to relegate vocational guidance to a position of lesser importance in relation to other forms of guidance, Myers stressed the inextricable relationship between one's occupation and success and happiness in living. In this regard, he wrote:

> There has been a tendency on the part of many writers and school administrators . . . to treat vocational guidance as on a somewhat lower level than educational and certain other kinds of guidance, which they think of as concerned with making a life. They seem to forget that making a life and making a living are absolutely inseparable for most mortals and that vocational success is far more than making a living. An individual does not make a life in a vacuum. . . .His ability to make valuable contributions to society outside of his so-called "working" hours, and also to find personal satisfaction, is conditioned by his vocational success and his vocational environment.[67]

According to Myers, then, a very significant step toward an individual's ultimate success and happiness in life could be taken through the provision of adequate vocational guidance which, in his view, consisted of "assisting an individual who possesses certain assets, liabilities, and possibilities to select from the many occupations one that is suited to himself and then to aid him in preparing for it, entering upon, and progressing in it."[68] Vocational guidance was to be considered an integral part of the educational system. As early as 1924 Myers had stressed that the offering of vocational guidance

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[67] Ibid., p. 3.

[68] Ibid., p. 5.

to students was "just as truly educational service as teaching the same youth history or mathematics."[69] He went on to stress that, "This conception of vocational guidance as an integral part of organized education, and not as something added on, is fundamental."[70]

Although he tended to emphasize the importance of vocational guidance, Myers did not deny the possible significance of other kinds of guidance - such as educational, recreational, and community service guidance. In fact, he recognized that these other varieties of guidance are ideally offered within the framework of a properly conducted program of vocational guidance. He merely stressed that an attempt be made to strive for as much precision as possible in the discussion of the guidance concept. Regarding this matter, he concluded:

> For the sake of clear understanding and wise planning it is . . . highly desirable that the word "guidance" without a qualifying adjective, when used in relation to the work of the schools, shall mean, not education itself, not individualized education, not teaching, not personnel work, not mental hygiene, nor all of these combined, but the process of assisting the individual to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and progress in courses of action pertaining to the educational, vocational, recreational and community service groups of human activities.[71]

The Arthur Jones View of the Guidance Function. In a sense, the opinions of Arthur Jones regarding the function of guidance and its proper place in the schools represent a compromise between the extremely broad interpretation of guidance proposed by Brewer and

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[69] Ibid., p. 9.

[70] Ibid.

[71] Ibid., p. 36.

the relatively narrow view favoured by Myers. Jones agreed with Myers that the guidance concept was being increasingly misunderstood and also stressed the importance of clearly delineating its purpose and scope relative to education as a whole. Such misunderstanding, in Jones' opinion, was due to the combined influence of two opposite tendencies - one being the tendency to overstress the vocational aspect of guidance and the other being the tendency "to identify guidance with all of education."[72] Over the course of his career, Jones published a number of books in which he attempted to clarify the function of guidance within the context of education. From the first edition of his book, Principles of Guidance, published in 1930, he stressed the importance of conceptualizing the guidance function in a broad manner in which "guidance implied a concern for all personal problems, not just those involved in the selection of a vocation."[73] He regarded as hazardous the attachment of too much importance to the vocational aspects of the guidance process and considered illogical and dangerous the tendency of placing vocational guidance at the centre of the stage with all other forms of guidance developing out of this function. Explaining his position regarding this matter, he had written in the 1945 edition of his book:

> The point of view that vocational guidance is the all inclusive term necessitates the belief that the entire life of an individual is determined by the vocation he follows and that the life of the child should be, and

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[72] Jones, A. J. Principles of Guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945, p. 59.

[73] Jones, A. J., Stefflre, B., and Stewart, N. R. Principles of Guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1970, p. viii.

> will be determined by his future occupation. But, obviously, our lives are much broader than our occupations. No one can truthfully say that his aesthetic, recreational, civil or moral development is determined entirely by his occupation.[74]

According to Jones, all forms of guidance should have one common objective, that being "to assist the individual to make wise choices, adjustments, and interpretations in connection with critical situations in his life."[75] He went on to describe how this goal might be reached:

> This is done, in general through (1) information that he is helped to secure; (2) habits, techniques, attitudes, ideals, and interests that he is helped to develop; and (3) wise counsel, by which direct assistance is given him to make choices, adjustments, and interpretations.[76]

Jones stressed that although there might exist great variability in the needs of students and the kinds of problems experienced, the essential guidance point of view remained constant- "to give such assistance as each individual may need and to give it in such a way as to increase his ability to solve his problems without assistance."[77]

Although Canadians interested in guidance could benefit from the theorizing and speculating concerning the nature and scope of the guidance concept done by leaders of guidance in the United States, they nevertheless were forced to confront essentially similar issues. In the days when guidance was enjoying the status of a full-fledged movement, the same confusion and misunderstanding of the guidance concept that

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[74] Jones, A. J. Principles of Guidance (1945). p. 78.

[75] Ibid., p.80.

[76] Ibid.

[77] Ibid., p. 81.

tended to prevail in the United States also became apparent in Canada. A man who was very much aware of this state of affairs was H. R. Beattie. In 1943, he had stressed the importance of clearly understanding the function of guidance in the broader educational context. He wrote:

> Guidance is enjoying today wide spread popularity, but there is no activity in the educational field which is more imperfectly understood. It may, on the one hand, become the greatest single factor in making all education more effective or it may become the greatest educational fad of the century, and go the way of all fads. The responsibility for directing it into the right channel rests upon the shoulders of those interested in vocational guidance and this can be done if we get the majority of our school personnel to understand thoroughly the nature of guidance and its relation to school administration and the curriculum.[78]

Beattie's views concerning the nature and role of guidance in relation to the schools were very much in accord with the position taken by George Myers. In fact, he repeatedly quoted his American counterpart in a number of articles intended for Canadian guidance workers. A plan for vocational guidance that Beattie judged could be implemented in any Canadian city bore a striking resemblence to the scheme outlined by Myers in his Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance. The Myers model - consisting of cumulative records, tests and measurements, occupational information, counseling, placement, and follow-up - was used as the basis for the program of the Department of Vocational Guidance of the London Board of Education which was described in a previous section of the present chapter.

Although Beattie, like Myers, was inclined to stress the voca-

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[78]Beattie, H. R., op. cit., p. 3.

tional aspects of guidance, he also recognized the importance of the overall development and adjustment of the individual. This recognition is exemplified in one of his articles entitled "General Principles of a School Guidance Program"[79] in which he wrote:

> The guidance point of view puts the emphasis on the full development of each individual to the limit of his abilities and capabilities, the assistance given to each student to make intelligent decisions, and the assistance necessary to make a satisfactory transfer from the school to another educational institution or the occupational world.[80]

It might be safely said that the Beattie view of the guidance function - with its recognition of the overall adjustment of the individual but emphasizing vocational choice and adjustment - typified the interpretation of guidance adopted by most Canadian guidance workers during the 1940's.

Recognition of a Broader Concept of Guidance. While vocational guidance tended to occupy the center of the stage in Canadian guidance, there was at the same time a definite recognition of a broader guidance concept.

In 1940, D. S. Woods, in a bulletin entitled "Educational Guidance - A Major Function of Instruction"[81], clearly indicated the need to consider guidance within a broader frame of reference than that implied by the vocational guidance model. He wrote:

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[79] Beattie, H. R. "General Principles of a School Guidance Program," The Canadian School Journal, April, 1945, p. 167.

[80] Ibid., p. 137.

[81] Woods, D. S. "Educational Guidance - A Major Function of Instruction," Research Bulletin, University of Manitoba, Faculty of Education, March, 1940.

> The problem of the school is to distribute individuals to those means by which they can best grow in a wholesome home, community, and school environment. Having done that major job to the best of our ability, the question of vocational aptitude, information and placement finds a niche, but, guidance has much broader and more fundamental implications than any such limited interpretation.[82]

G. C. French, in a series of ten articles related to guidance published in The Alberta Teachers' Association Magazine, stressed the need for guidance in relation to the personal and social problems experienced by students.[83] He was of the opinion that personal-social guidance was one of the most important and at the same time one of the most difficult aspects of a comprehensive guidance program.

Perhaps the most outstanding Canadian advocate of the broad guidance concept was Samuel R. Laycock. In the light of his varied background, it was perhaps only natural that Laycock should adopt a relatively broad perspective with regard to guidance. He had received his doctorate degree at the University of London and while there was directly exposed to the views of Charles Spearman, an outstanding figure in the field of testing and measurement. For a time he was a consulting psychologist and an organizer of special classes for exceptional children in the Saskatoon Public School System. Laycock subsequently became a professor of educational psychology at the University of Saskatchewan and was actively involved in the work of the Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene, serving at one time as the

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[82] Ibid., p. 2.

[83] French, G. C. "Personal - Social Guidance," The A.T.A. Magazine, Vol. 22, No. 8, April, 1941, 20-22.

Director of the Division for Education and Mental Hygiene.[84]

Laycock considered as vitally important the mental health of teachers and pupils alike. In articles such as "The Teacher's Influence on the Mental Health of Pupils (1937)"[85] and "The Teacher's Mental Health"[86], he dealt with the importance of the teacher in the fostering of wholesome development and adjustment on the part of children. Explaining how this end might be achieved he had written:

> There are two main ways in which this is accomplished, first, by the influence of the teacher's own personal characteristics, problems, and relationships, and, secondly, through the teacher's professional attitudes, knowledge, and skill. The first of these is apt to be more of less an unconscious influence so far as the teacher and pupil are concerned. The second is more likely to be the result of a definite plan.[87]

In Laycock's opinion, then, the mental health of the teacher was probably one of the most crucial factors in helping to determine the mental health of students.

Laycock also focused more specifically on the basic needs of school children of all ages. In an article called "Do Our Schools Meet the Basic Needs of Children?"[88] he urged that those responsible for the

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[84]Laycock, S. R. Education for a Post-War World. Toronto: Ontario Educational Association, 1944.

[85]Laycock, S. R. "The Teacher's Influence on the Mental Health of Pupils," The School (Elementary), November, 1937, 191-195.

[86]Laycock, S. R. "The Teacher's Mental Health," The School (Elementary), Vol. XXXIV, No. 10, June, 1946, 807-813.

[87]Laycock, S. R. "The Teacher's Influence on the Mental Health of Pupils," p. 192.

[88]Laycock, S. R. "Do Our Schools Meet the Basic Needs of Children?" The School (Elementary), Vol. XXXI, No. 10, June, 1943, 847-852.

education of the young be fully aware of both their physical and psychological requirements. Among the psychological needs highlighted were the needs for affection, belonging, independence, approval, maintaining self-esteem, and creative achievement. He went on to outline various school practices - such as over-competition, unsuitable curricula, and over-restriction of childrens' activity - which tended to thwart the child's attempts to satisfy his psychological needs. With regard to the adolescent age group, Laycock enumerated five general problems which had to be understood and resolved if the individual's optimal adjustment was to be enhanced. These problem areas were: (1) to make adjustments to his physical growth and physiological development; (2) to become emancipated from his family and free from too great emotional dependence upon his parents; (3) to accept his own characteristic sex role and to make adjustments to the opposite sex; (4) to find and enter upon a suitable vocation; and (5) to forge some sort of philosophy which will give meaning and purpose to life.[89] Laycock concluded that the school played a vital role in deciding whether or not an individual successfully resolved problems that might arise in these areas.

As can probably be deduced from the foregoing discussion, Laycock had some definite opinions regarding the guidance function. In Laycock's view, there were three primary factors which contributed to the emergence of guidance as a significant part of the process of edu-

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[89] Laycock, S. R. "Helping Adolescents Solve Their Problems," The School (Elementary), Vol. XXXI, No. 1, September, 1942, p. 17.

cation. These were: (1) the changing educational philosophy which, in addition to being concerned with traditional subject matter, focused also upon the social and emotional aspects of development; (2) the growing awareness of the wide range of individual differences along physical, intellectual, and psychological lines that exist among children of all ages; and (3) the development of psychological tests that could be utilized in the assessment of children in a variety of behavioral domains.[90]

In a manner consistent with the above account concerning the emergence of the guidance emphasis, Laycock adopted a decidedly broad definition of guidance. In his words:

> Guidance may be defined as the process whereby the abilities of pupils along physical, social, emotional, occupational, and intellectual lines are discovered and developed.[91]

He went on to point out that:

> Obviously, on the basis of the above definition, the aims of guidance very closely resemble the aims of modern education as a whole.[92]

Among the many kinds of guidance that Laycock considered as being subsumed under this global definition were:

> (1) Personal Guidance - helping students to understand and accept themselves.

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[90]Laycock, S. R. "Guidance in the Modern School," Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 1, February, 1939-40, 28-30.

[91]Laycock, S. R. "The Teaching of Guidance in the High School," The British Columbia Teacher, February, 1944, p. 175.

[92]Ibid.

(2) Social Guidance - helping pupils to understand and get along with others in the many aspects of human relationships.

(3) Curricular Guidance - helping pupils to choose courses and electives which will best promote their all around growth.

(4) Guidance in Study Skills - helping pupils to develop economical habits of study and learning, including habits of effective thinking.

(5) Recreation Guidance - helping pupils to learn how to use leisure time so that it may yield rich fulfillment.

(6) Health Guidance - helping pupils to form effective health habits and wholesome attitudes toward their own and the community's health.

(7) Vocational Guidance - helping pupils to select, prepare for, and enter upon an occupation which will not only enable them to make a living, but also to lead a satisfying life.[93]

Laycock in no way underrated the value of vocational guidance but cautioned that in order to be optimally effective it should include all the other forms of guidance, depending on the needs and problems of the individual. He was quite aware that "Vocational guidance certainly constitutes the major interest of the public in guidance"[94] and suggested, as E. K. Ford had done, that this form of guidance might serve as the most effective medium through which to introduce into a particular school a broad and comprehensive guidance program. However, he consistently emphasized that a program which was restricted to voca-

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[93]Laycock, S. R. "What is Counselling?" Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation Bulletin, September, 1945.

[94]Laycock, S. R. "The Teaching of Guidance in the High School," p. 176.

tional guidance per se was likely to be inadequate in terms of the overall progress and development of students.

Laycock felt that the guidance philosophy should pervade the entire educational system. There was, in his opinion, no special time and no particular problem to which the guidance function should be restricted. In this regard, he maintained that:

> Guidance must be conceived of as very much wider than vocational guidance. Guidance begins the very first day the child comes to school and continues throughout every grade until he leaves its portals forever. Vocational guidance is simply an aspect of guidance which happens to emerge at the junior high and senior high school level. A recognition of that fact will prevent vocational guidance from getting out of perspective. Indeed it is doubtful if vocational guidance can be undertaken apart from the larger task of guidance.[95]

It can be seen that where Beattie's views concerning the nature and scope of the guidance function were most nearly congruent with those of George Myers, Laycock adopted a perspective in this regard that aligned him perhaps most closely with the positions taken by Jones and, particularly, Brewer. Perhaps one of the reasons for their differing interpretations of the guidance concept lies in the fact that whereas Beattie was directly involved with the actual introduction and establishment of guidance programs in the schools, Laycock was viewing the guidance function from a relatively more detached view. One might go so far as to suggest that Beattie was a guidance realist, concerned with the very practical considerations that had to be kept in mind in the actual introduction of a new concept in education, while Laycock was a guidance

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[95] Laycock, S. R. "Guidance in the Modern School," p. 30.

idealist, playing the probably equally important role of encouraging the progressive adoption of a broader concept of guidance than that encompassed by the vocational guidance model. In retrospect, it might be safely said that in the relatively early years of the Guidance Movement in Canada both types of men were needed for progress to be made.

The Growing Emphasis on "Counselling". While counselling had long been considered to be an integral part of any comprehensive vocational guidance program, the increasing recognition of the need for a broader guidance concept was accompanied by a new orientation toward this aspect of guidance. Counselling carried out within the context of vocational guidance tended to restrict itself to a consideration of the personal and social problems of the individual almost solely to the extent that these might have a bearing on his vocational choice and adjustment. The new concept of counselling approached the individual in a much less narrow manner. The whole developing person became the focus of attention with consideration being given to his vocational life if such was required. The counselling process was described by Laycock who wrote:

> To guide pupils to express their feelings freely so that they may lead to a reorganization of their attitudes and to the acceptance of long range values. This is the greatest job of the counsellor. Except in the simplest counselling situations the pupils feelings are greatly involved and often lead him to harmful solutions to his problem. Getting the pupil to express himself freely so that he talks about his hostile feelings towards his parents, his teachers and his classmates, his feelings of inadequacy over real or imagined physical, mental and social limitations, and his fears and jealousies is the job of the counsellor. In other words, counselling is a

> means of helping the individual to help himself through a reorganization not merely of his ideas, but also of his feeling life.[96]

In an article published in The Ontario Public School Argus in 1944, W. J. Dick emphasized the need for a broad understanding of the pupil if guidance counsellors were to be effective. He wrote:

> Counsellors cannot advise and assist youths without becoming intimately familiar with their hopes and fears, and their leading difficulties. . . Their future development is dependent upon their emotional behavior just as much as their intelligent growth, their feelings and desires, their spiritual and emotional conflicts, their social and home problems. These must be included within the scope of an organic guidance program.[97]

Dick went on to elaborate upon the more specific purposes of counselling and to discuss three varieties of counselling interviews - educational, vocational, and personal.

While there was general agreement concerning the general philosophy and purpose of counselling, Canadian teachers were, at the same time, being made aware of differences of opinion regarding the best means or techniques by which the objectives of counselling might be reached. For example, a 1946 edition of The Alberta Teachers' Magazine contained an article entitled "Two Viewpoints on Counselling" written by D. S. Arbuckle, a prominent guidance figure in the United States.[98] Arbuckle compared and contrasted the views of Carl Rogers,

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[96] Laycock, S. R. "What is Counselling?" p. 3.

[97] Dick, W. J. "Counselling," The Ontario Public School Argus, December, 1944, p. 286.

[98] Arbuckle, D. S. "Two Viewpoints on Counselling," The A.T.A. Magazine, Vol. 27, No. 3., December, 1946, 7-10.

an exponent of the "non-directive" counselling approach and Edmund Williamson, who favored the "directive" approach. Arbuckle described one of the most fundamental ways in which the two interpretations differed:

> The basic thesis of the non-directive school is that within every individual there are great growth forces, forces such that every individual has the capacity to adjust to his environment. With this Williamson cannot agree. He tends to believe that no individual can entirely overcome his own bias in viewing himself, and for this reason a counselor can see the individual more objectively than can the individual himself.[99]

An example of a concrete attempt to implement a "counselling program" was provided by R. T. Snider, who, in a 1946 edition of The School, described the counselling activities conducted at Moulten College, a private school in Toronto.[100] This program was initiated in September of 1944 and represented, in part at least, a reaction against "a tendency to emphasize the vocational aspects and to minimize guidance and counselling activities designed to meet the personal and social problems of students."[101] Within the context of the counselling interviews, an attempt was made to elicit from the student information related to such matters as "out of school life", "attitude toward school and school work", "social life", and "extra-curricular activities". A basic assumption of the program was that problems emerge

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[99] Ibid., p. 7.

[100] Snider, R. T. "A Counselling Program in a Private School," The School (Elementary) Vol. XXXIV, No. 10, June, 1946, 803-806.

[101] Ibid., p. 803.

when the needs of the individual and the demands of the environment are uncomplementary and that a better adjustment could be facilitated either through actually altering the problem situation or by changing the individual's attitude toward it.

The Problem of Role Definition and the Recognition of the Need of Specialized Training for Counsellors. One of the most important issues that had to be confronted by Canadians in the relatively early stages of the Guidance Movement was the problem of role differentiation among guidance workers and the related issue of formalized training for counsellors. The need for specialized training had long been recognized but it became a particularly important concern when the Guidance Movement in Canada was beginning to gain real momentum. As early as 1936, R. D. Walton dramatically emphasized the complex and demanding nature of the vocational guidance function. After describing the essential components of the guidance process, he wrote:

> This may all seem rather complex, a big handful for the poor teacher who tries to give some sort of help to pupils leaving school. It will be something definitely gained if this point is recognized, that the matter really is complex. It is indeed much more complex than a doctor's job, as the whole of human personality is more complex than the body which forms a part of it. Hence the value of a vocational advisor's recommendations is likely to be in direct proportion to the comprehensiveness of his psychological training.[102]

However, while the need for extensive training was generally admitted, the development of the movement could not wait upon the preparation of adequate numbers of guidance specialists. In the relatively

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[102] Walton, R. D. "Vocational Guidance in Schools," Journal of Education (Halifax), January, 1938, p. 47.

early days of the Canadian Guidance Movement it was upon the shoulders of the ordinary classroom teacher that the responsibility for vocational guidance was placed. This was perhaps only to be expected since trained counsellors had not entered the guidance picture in any significant numbers, and since the teacher, by virtue of her professional preparation, was quite well equipped to handle at least the relatively less demanding aspects of vocational guidance. One of the most popular and potentially effective means of providing vocational guidance for pupils was through home-room guidance. Under this scheme, the basic unit of the guidance program was the home-room with a teacher adopting the role of a sponsor and assuming responsibility for carrying out certain aspects of guidance. Describing the kinds of activities typically carried out in such a program, Goode wrote:

> In the home-room periods the individual pupil may come to his sponsor for discussion of his problem, and for direction. Discussion also takes place within the group, tests are given, records are kept, vocational and educational information is collected and displayed, and instruction is given by the sponsor. Other home-room guidance activities are: the showing of vocational films, touring the school building, and making vocational scrapbooks.[103]

Goode gave a concrete example of a guidance program, which she judged as being "one of the finest on this continent", that was based on the home-room rationale.[104] In this program, each home-room teacher, in addition to conducting the normal guidance activities in her class,

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[103]Goode, M. E. "The Methods of Guidance," The School, Vol. XXIX, No. 4, December, 1940, 288-291.

[104]Goode, M. E. "The Function of Guidance," The School, Vol. XXIX, No. 3, November, 1940, p. 194.

assumed responsibility for some other special aspect of the guidance program. For example, one teacher had a special interest in collecting information relative to college entry opportunities, another took an active part in the placement of pupils in part-time and full-time jobs, while still another, due to some specialized training, made a contribution with regard to the administration and interpretation of psychological tests.

While work along the lines described above undoubtedly constituted an invaluable contribution to the establishment of guidance services in the schools, it became increasingly apparent that the teacher was not adequately trained to carry out the more technical aspects of a comprehensive guidance program. Furthermore, with an increasing emphasis on the importance of the counselling aspect of guidance, it became necessary to take steps to insure that prospective guidance workers possessed the aptitude and personal qualities required by this crucial aspect of the work. By the mid 1940's concern about such matters was becoming widespread. Answering those "educationalists" who were convinced that ordinary teachers should carry out the various phases of a vocational guidance program, Beattie had written:

> Theoretically this is the truth. Practically it is impossible. Firstly, most teachers have not been trained to do the specialized work demanded in guidance. . . .Furthermore, all teachers have not the personal qualifications to do guidance work even though they may be good subject teachers. For these reasons the most practical program is one where the informal or incidental guidance is supplemented and made effective by the work of trained and specially chosen teachers who assume responsibility for the organization of the work and the specialized phases for which the regular teachers have not the natural

ability or training.[105]

In an article called "Guidance in Education,"[106] Beattie concurred with an American, F. J. Keller, concerning the general qualities of the counsellor. Among these were "good basic intelligence, copious general information, intensive special information, special skills, and special personal qualities."[107]

Zeran, in a 1947 edition of The Manitoba Teacher, gave an excellent and progressive account of the professional responsibilities of the various people involved in a modern school guidance program.[108] Among the primary responsibilities of the administrator were: (1) making adequate provision in the budget for carrying on the guidance program; (2) making his staff cognizant of the values, functions, and problems of guidance; (3) working out and coordinating the guidance program cooperatively with members of the staff; and (4) selecting and providing for the training of the best qualified individuals as counsellors. Among the duties of the counsellors were: (1) establishing procedures that would result in providing an individual inventory for each

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[105] Beattie, H. R. "Planning for a Total Guidance Programme," The Canadian School Journal, June, 1946, p. 217.

[106] Beattie, H. R. "Guidance in Education," Canadian Welfare, March, 1945, 24-29.

[107] Ibid., p. 27.

[108] Zeran, F. R. "Professional Guidance Training as an Element in Providing Educational Opportunities," The Manitoba Teacher, September-October, 1947, 33-41.

pupil; (2) providing for the collection and dissemination of occupational information; (3) providing a counselling service for pupils in such areas as vocational choice, educational and/or occupational adjustment, and problems related to physical, mental, and emotional growth; (4) carrying out any occupational placement and follow-up work that might be required; (5) serving as a resource person in regard to guidance for all members of the staff; and (6) assuming responsibility for the testing program. Zeran also elaborated upon the guidance role of the classroom teacher, among whose responsibilities were; (1) assisting in the compiling of the individual inventories; (2) helping in the collection and dissemination of occupational information; and (3) doing whatever possible to assist counsellors in their work with individuals. Zeran went on to stress the necessity of specialized training if the guidance program was to reach its full potential in terms of assisting the student population. He wrote:

> If administrators, counselors, and teachers are to be prepared to carry out their responsibilities and duties and if the guidance program is to help provide better educational opportunities, professional guidance training must be available.[109]

Although there was during the mid 1940's a definite and increasing tendency to emphasize the importance of special training for counsellors, there was, at the same time, a concern with not going to extremes in this regard. For example, R. J. Cochrane in "The Teacher and Counselling", reacted rather strongly to the contention that only highly trained and qualified people could take an active part in the

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[109] Ibid., p. 39.

counselling function.[110] In response to this claim he answered:

> Nonsense! The class teacher is the only hope of the guidance movement. Who knows the background, the personality, the problems of each individual pupil as well as the class teacher, especially in a small school? Therefore, you (the class teachers) are in an excellent position to help students to select high school courses in keeping with their interests, aptitudes, and abilities.[111]

G. Budd, in an article entitled "What Guidance Can Do"[112], written in 1947, was equally emphatic in pointing out the central role to be played by the teacher in the guidance program. In fact, he went so far as to suggest that while directors and counsellors are required, it is upon the classroom teacher that the success or failure of the guidance service ultimately depends. Budd concluded:

> The smooth organization of the system should be the responsibility of the counselor, but he is second in command when the whole picture is viewed. Without the activity and co-operation of the classroom teacher he is simply a figurehead.[113]

While some controversy existed regarding the specific roles that should be played by those involved in guidance, it was generally recognized by the mid-1940's that the guidance function, particularly with regard to testing and counselling, was a complex and demanding part of the educational process requiring of those intending to become involved

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[110] Cochrane, R. J. "The Teacher and Counselling," The Manitoba School Journal, Vol. VII, No. 10, June, 1946, 21-24.

[111] Ibid., p. 21.

[112] Budd, G. "What Guidance Can Do," The School (Elementary), March, 1947, 426-429.

[113] Ibid., p. 426.

in it specialized professional training.

The purpose of the present section up to this point has been to highlight certain important issues and problems related to the development of guidance in Canada. In the remainder of the chapter, the writer, after side-tracking somewhat to examine the growth of child guidance clinics in Canada, will discuss the nature and extent of the American influence on Canadian guidance developments and will provide some evidence indicating the relatively firm establishment of the Guidance Movement in Canada by the late 1940's.

F. Child Guidance In Canada

While the guidance work carried out at the junior and senior high school levels constituted a very important aspect of the Guidance Movement in Canada, there was at the same time a concern with the guidance needs of younger children. Among the most significant means of meeting these needs was the child guidance clinic. Although these clinics were generally not administered and controlled by school personnel, there tended to exist a close working relationship between the two agencies. The purpose of the present section is to examine some of the work done in this area.

As early as 1923, the Mental Hygiene Committee of Montreal had been instrumental in establishing a child guidance clinic, the aim of which was "to study, help and advise in the case of any problem children referred to it."[114] In elaboration of this general purpose, Mundie

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[114] Mundie, G. S., and Silverman, B. "The Child Guidance Clinic," The Public Health Journal, Vol. XV, No. 10, October, 1924, p. 443.

and Silverman wrote:

> It offers its services to the child with superior abilities, whose parents wish guidance in maintaining his mental health and mapping out a program for his best development, to the school child who manifests conduct disorders or educational maladjustment, to those preschool children who have begun to develop habits that later may become injurious to their mental health, to the child who has developed a mental conflict that may result in a nervous breakdown, to the ward of the child placing agency that wishes to place the child in a foster home, and to those children whose delinquency has brought them to juvenile court.[115]

In order to be optimally helpful and effective, a five step procedure was followed with regard to each problem case. These steps consisted of: (1) collecting as much general background information as possible that might lend insight into the nature of a particular child's difficulty; (2)conducting a physical examination; (3) carrying out a psychological examination to determine the child's mental status, to ascertain his educational achievement, and to uncover any particular abilities or disabilities that the child might have; (4) performing a psychiatric examination to gain some measure of understanding of the child's mental problems; and (5) planning a program of treatment best suited to meet the requirements of a particular problem situation. Mundie and Silverman stressed that while the guidance clinic was offering valuable assistance to many children, under ideal circumstances other agencies, such as the schools, would be shouldering a larger share of the responsibility in making child guidance available.

During the late 1930's and early 1940's there appeared to be a

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[115] Ibid., p. 444.

growing concern in Canada for the establishment of child guidance clinics. In an article entitled "The School Child Guidance Clinic"[116] written in 1939, M. V. Mitchell indicated that while such clinics were to be found in many of the larger centers in the United States, in Canada they were, as yet, virtually non-existent. In response to what he saw as being a widening awareness regarding the need for this type of service, Mitchell proceeded to describe what, under ideal circumstances, might constitute the components of a "well organized child guidance service functioning under the direction of the school authorities."[117]

In a 1941 issue of The Canadian School Journal, A. D. McColl described some of the concrete steps being taken along the lines of child guidance in the schools of St. Catherines, Ontario.[118] Among the activities being conducted within their program were: (1) a study of the problems experienced by children of kindergarten and elementary school age and the best means of understanding and preventing such problems; (2) provision of lectures for teachers by child specialists, directors of mental clinics, psychologists, and psychiatrists; (3) keeping of a health observation book by teachers in which the needs and problems of individual children could be noted; (4) assembling up-to-date cumulative record cards; (5) maintaining close contact with parents; and (6) attempting to measure the abilities and interests of pupils.

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[116] Mitchell, M. V. "The School Child Guidance Clinic," The Teachers' Magazine (Montreal), October, 1939, 7-8.

[117] Ibid., p. 7.

[118] McColl, A. D. "The School and the Child Guidance Clinic," The Canadian School Journal, June, 1941, 190-191.

A child guidance service was established in the late 1930's in the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba. Through arrangements made with the Superintendent of Winnipeg Schools and with the cooperation of school principals, provision was made to offer Saturday morning guidance to groups of five to eight pupils "of varying ages, abilities and personality traits."[119] The staff made available to help such youngsters was drawn from such specialized areas as educational psychology, psychiatry, paediatrics, social work, and nursing.

An outstanding example of a comprehensive Canadian child guidance clinic is provided by the Winnipeg Child Guidance Clinic. Established in 1941, the clinic was jointly sponsored by the Winnipeg City Health Department and the Winnipeg Public School Board. Explaining the reason for the program's existence, Dolmage had written:

> The Winnipeg Child Guidance Clinic was developed in an attempt to bring together the resources representing modern sciences dealing with human behavior - the psychiatrists and other physicians, especially paediatricians, and psychologists as well as psychiatric social workers, nurses, principals, supervisors and teachers - for the study and guidance of children in the City of Winnipeg.[120]

More specifically, the objectives of the clinic were: (1) to maintain and develop sound mental health among children and to prevent the onset of mental and emotional difficulty whenever possible; (2) to facilitate the child's educational progress; (3) to play a preventive role

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[119] Woods, D. S. "The Child Guidance Clinic of the Faculty of Education," The Manitoba School Journal, Vol. II, No. 9, May, 1940, p. 7.

[120] Dolmage, G. L. "The Winnipeg Child Guidance Clinic," Canadian Education, March, 1948, p. 53.

by educating both teachers and the general public alike in the principles of mental hygiene; and (4) to make available to those interested and qualified to enter the field the necessary courses of training.

The program itself represented an excellent co-ordination of Public Health and School Board personnel. One of the most important aspects of the program was the discovery of individual differences in development and learning through the use of individual and group tests. Regarding the ideal outcome of such activity, Dolmage wrote:

> The greatest service to teachers which the psychologists can perform is to interpret the results of these tests and then cooperate with the teacher and principal in planning modified educational programs for individual children.[121]

The Winnipeg Child Guidance Clinic should not be considered as being typical of the work being done across Canada in the area of child guidance. While by the late 1940's and early 1950's all the provinces, with the exception of the Maritimes and Newfoundland, had established child guidance clinics, none had a program as comprehensive and well integrated with the educational system as that provided by the Winnipeg clinic.[122]

G. The Influence of the United States Upon the Development of Guidance In Canada

It is not the purpose here to prove that the United States exerted a strong influence upon the development of guidance in Canada. On the

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[121] Ibid., p. 61.

[122] Donald, R. L. "The Development of Guidance in the Secondary Schools of the Dominion of Canada," Master of Education Thesis, University of Manitoba, 1951.

basis of the material presented up to this point in the present study, it should be readily apparent that this is a foregone conclusion. Consequently, the intention here is not to determine whether or not Canadian guidance was influenced by American guidance theory and practice but, rather, to give some indication of the nature and extent of this influence. Following a brief discussion of the influence of the United States upon Canadian culture and education, some of the specific ways in which Canadian guidance was influenced by developments in America will be examined.

The pervasive influence of the United States has long been acknowledged. For example, in a 1912 publication entitled The New Canada - A Survey of the Conditions and Problems of the Dominion,[123] the Canadian correspondent of the London Times had written:

> Over all the continent the English tongue will prevail and for good or evil all nations which speak the language will show something of the temper, borrow something of the customs, and yield something to the ascendancy of the American people. Canada in particular must be profoundly affected in its social fashions, in its political life, and in the general type of civilization which it develops by its close geographic relation to the United States.[124]

The character of Canadian education was also strongly affected by developments in the United States. H. L. Stein pointed out two important factors at least partly responsible for the filtering of "elements of progressivism into the thinking of Canadian educators."[125]

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[123] The New Canada - A Survey of the Conditions and Problems of the Dominion by the Canadian Correspondent of The Times, London: The Times, 1912.

[124] Ibid., p. 21.

[125] Stein, H. L., op. cit., p. 43.

The first of these was the fact that many prominent Canadian educators had received their advanced training at American universities. In this regard Stein wrote:

> They have sat at the feet of great American educators. It is only natural that they should bring back with them what they considered to be advanced ideas in educational content and method.[126]

The second factor, in Stein's estimation, was the strong tendency toward using American textbooks as the bases for Canadian curricula and teacher training programs.

An indication of the extent to which Canadian educators were being exposed to American viewpoints is provided by Patterson who indicates that at Columbia Teachers College, 1,097 out of 3,853 foreign students who registered there between 1923 to 1938 were Canadians.[127]

American ideas related to guidance theory and practice were introduced to Canada in much the same manner as were ideas concerning education in general. One of the means most used by Canadians to acquire guidance knowledge and training was the taking of guidance courses at American universities. Following are some examples of the use made of this option by Canadians interested in guidance.

> (1) Mr. Stewart Murray, who was to become the Director of Guidance for the Province of Nova Scotia, had attended the State University of New Jersey and Columbia University, specializing in industrial

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[126] Ibid.

[127] Patterson, R. S., op. cit., p. 373.

arts and vocational guidance.[128]

(2) Mr. J. P. S. Nethercott, who in 1943 was named Director of Vocational Guidance in London, Ontario, had taken a summer guidance course at Harvard University.[129]

(3) The Toronto Board of Education in 1945 offered grants amounting to $150 each to encourage teachers to take guidance summer courses in the United States.[130]

(4) In a 1945 edition of The School, an "incomplete list" of recommended American universities at which Canadians could enroll in guidance courses included no less than eleven institutions. Among these were Boston University, Harvard University, Columbia Teachers College, the University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, and Ohio State University.[131]

(5) Some of the counsellors active in Nova Scotia by the late 1940's had received their training at such American universities as Harvard, Brown, Tufts, Minnesota, and Boston.[132]

Another means used by Canadians to become familiar with progessive guidance practices was to send guidance workers to examine actual programs in operation in the United States. For example, The Halifax Board of School Commissioners in 1947 sent two counsellors to study

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[128]From the Guidance Section in The School, Vol. XXXII, No. 3, November, 1943, p. 230.

[129]From the Guidance Section in The School, Vol. XXXII, No. 1, September, 1943, p. 42.

[130]From the Guidance Section in The School, Vol. XXXIII, No. 9, May, 1945, p. 768.

[131]Ibid., p. 769.

[132]Province of Nova Scotia Annual Report of the Department of Education, 1950, p. 142.

various American guidance programs.[133]

Canadians were also directly exposed to American Guidance theory and practices through having prominent guidance figures speak at Canadian guidance conferences. For example, in 1944, The Commercial Section of the Ontario Educational Association and the Canadian Vocational Guidance Association invited Dr. R. Floyd Cromwell, Supervisor of Guidance for the State of Maryland, to speak to Canadians involved in guidance.[134]

One of the most important ways by which Canadian guidance workers became familiar with American guidance practices was through the medium of books and periodicals, published in the United States. A list of sixty-three "books, tests, and other materials of value to Canadian teachers and counselors" published in a 1943 edition of The School contained only seven entries that had clearly originated in Canada, with most of these dealing with information related to Canadian occupations and not representing unique contributions to guidance theory.[135]

H. The Status of Guidance in Canada by the Middle and Late 1940's

During the war years and immediately thereafter it became increasingly apparent that the guidance function was coming to be re-

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[133] Province of Nova Scotia Annual Report of the Department of Education, 1947, p. 104.

[134] From the Guidance Section in The School, Vol. XXXII, No. 9, May, 1944, p. 792.

[135] From the Guidance Section in the September, October, November, December issues of The School, Vol. XXXII, 1943.

garded as a necessary and viable aspect of Canadian education. The purpose of the present section is to provide an indication of the extent to which guidance in Canada was established by the late 1940's. Subsequent to briefly considering the extent of nation-wide acceptance of guidance, the writer will discuss certain important events relative to specific provinces. Most of the discussion concerning provincial guidance developments will be based upon official Provincial Department of Education reports.

By the mid-1940's there were indications that guidance was becoming formally recognized on a national scale. For example, The Report of the Survey Committee of the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association published in 1943 urged that professional guidance services be made available to children in Canadian schools.[136] The report stated:

> In order that pupils may receive the fullest benefit from their school life and that square pegs should not be placed in round holes, it is essential that children be given not haphazard or even well intentioned amateur advice, but professional guidance. Such guidance should apply to all phases of living from the rudiments of building good health, through the various features of school and home life, to playing a goodly part in moulding the character of the individual and giving him occupational advice.[137]

The report went on to recommend that in order that adequate guidance services might be made available to substantial numbers of Canadian stu-

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[136] Canada and Newfoundland Education Association. "Report of the Survey Committee," March, 1943.

[137] Ibid., p. 51.

dents, "a minimum of one thousand five hundred guidance officers is needed at an annual cost of $3,000,000."[138] It was cautioned that since the Guidance Movement represented "a comparatively new departure", the sound training of guidance workers was of the utmost importance.

A publication entitled "Trends In Education" put out in 1944 by the Educational Policies Committee of the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association pointed out that, "the trend towards guidance has recently become more and more marked, so that it must now be ranked as an innovation of major importance."[139] An important aspect of the report was its description of the tendency toward conceiving of guidance as ideally being concerned with more than vocational considerations. It stated:

> To most people guidance means vocational guidance, and undoubtedly this is the primary concern of nearly all guidance agencies at present. But thereis an easy transition to educational guidance, for which the need is hardly less obvious. From there the movement is beginning to spread to other fields, offering help to the individual in all problems of adjustment and in all aspects of life. Thus, in its full connotation, guidance may mean nothing less than a new concept in education; whether the name should be used for this is of no importance in comparison with the fundamental significance of the trend.[140]

While the previous reports offer some indication of the degree to which guidance was being generally recognized as an important function in Cana-

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[138] Ibid., p. 51.

[139] The Educational Policies Committee of the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association "Trends in Education," October, 1944.

[140] Ibid., p. 42.

dian education, a better appreciation of the status of guidance by the late 1940's will be derived through examining certain guidance developments in specific provinces.

Ontario. An event that was of great significance not only to guidance in Ontario but also to Canadian guidance as a whole was the establishment of the Vocational Guidance Centre by M. D. Parmenter in 1943. After operating as a sub-division of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene for approximately two years, the Centre was incorporated into the Ontario College of Education. The main purpose of the Centre was to "publish and/or distribute tests, forms, occupational information monographs and other materials" that might be of use to Canadians involved in guidance. In September of 1945 the Centre began publishing The School Guidance Worker, a bulletin that was to familiarize many Canadian teachers and counsellors with progressive guidance theory and practice.[141]

A milestone in the development of guidance in Ontario was the creation in 1944 of a Guidance Branch of the Ontario Department of Education. Under the direction of H. R. Beattie, the branch was highly instrumental in making Ontario educators aware of the need for guidance and in assisting schools to set up guidance programs. Assessing the progress made by the Guidance Branch in the first year of its operation, Beattie wrote:

> Considerable progress has been made in the establishment

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[141] Parmenter, M. D. "Vocational Guidance," p. 16.

> of guidance work. The fundamental framework is now taking shape. The year has been marked by growing interest both from within the school structure and without.[142]

Beattie was of the opinion that a well rounded secondary school guidance program should provide the amount of time equal to one teacher's timetable for every five hundred students.

One of the most vital concerns of the Guidance Branch was the training of sufficient numbers of teachers to carry out the guidance function in various parts of the province. In 1945, one hundred and fifty teachers from all parts of Ontario enrolled in the first summer course that led to an "Elementary Guidance Certificate."[143] By 1947, in excess of 650 teachers had received some formal training in guidance [144] and by 1949 this number had reached 800.[145]

Another important aspect of guidance in Ontario was the growing concern with providing guidance services at the elementary school level. The main emphasis at this level was to be upon "the understanding and development of students rather than vocational and educational choice."[146] Regarding the spread of guidance to the elementary level by 1949, Beattie said:

> An interesting and encouraging development during 1949 has

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[142] Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario, 1945, p. 87.

[143] Ibid.

[144] Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario, 1947, p. 61.

[145] Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario, 1949, p. 28.

[146] Ibid.

> been the voluntary movement of more and more elementary schools toward search into the possibilities of organized guidance in their schools. Some elementary schools are developing a counselling service.[147]

From the early 1940's,and particularly since the establishment of the Guidance Branch of the Department of Education, guidance in Ontario experienced an even and steady expansion. Looking back over more than a decade of guidance in Ontario, Beattie concluded in 1953:

> The development of guidance services in Ontario has not been spectacular. On the other hand, we believe that it has been sound and practical. We are confident that it will continue to grow and develop and render an even greater service to education.[148]

Nova Scotia. Nova Scotia in 1943 became the first province to appoint a provincial Director of Guidance. Mr. Stewart Murray was the first to hold this position. This step provided a strong stimulus for the expansion of guidance services in the province. As was the case in Ontario, great importance was attached to the training of sufficient numbers of teachers in the methods of guidance. Nova Scotia teachers were encouraged to take guidance courses offered by universities in the province and in other parts of Canada and the United States.

An event that was significant not only for Nova Scotia but also for the other Maritime Provinces was the formation in 1946 of the Maritime Vocational Guidance Association. This organization proved to be very instrumental in the promotion of guidance in the Maritimes. It is

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[147] Ibid.

[148] Beattie, H. R. "Interesting Highlights in Guidance," The School Guidance Worker, Vol. 9, No. 2, November, 1953, p. 4.

interesting to note that Dr. Donald E. Super, a professor at Columbia Teachers College, was involved in the setting up of the association.[149]

By 1947 guidance in Nova Scotia had been quite well established. Describing the status of guidance in the province at that time, Murray said:

> There is considerable evidence that the nature, purpose, and importance of guidance work in our schools is now fairly well understood by all urban school administrators in the province. This is also true of the majority of village school administrators. To a lesser extent it is true of rural teachers, but that is to be expected as many of them are newcomers to the teaching profession. The public is becoming increasingly aware of what guidance means, especially in those centres where a satisfactory program is in operation. It seems safe enough to state, in figurative terms, that the guidance program in Nova Scotia is no longer an infant but is growing into a reasonably healthy child.[150]

Guidance services were being considerably expanded in Nova Scotia by the late 1940's. G. S. Perry, who succeeded S. Murray as Director of Guidance, provided an indication of the magnitude of this growth in a 1950 Report to the Superintendent of Education. He wrote:

> Formal guidance programs were this year begun in Berwick and Mahone Bay, and in the rural high schools at Coxheath, Musquodoboit, Tatamagouche, and Brookfield. A notable expansion of services has occurred in Halifax, Sidney, Middleton, Digby, Windsor, Lunenburg, Louisburg, Yarmouth, Springhill and Oxford, where programs have already been in operation for some time.[151]

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[149] Province of Nova Scotia Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education, 1947, p. 106.

[150] Ibid., p. 107.

[151] Province of Nova Scotia Annual Report of the Department of Education, 1950, p. 143.

British Columbia. Great impetus was provided for the growth of guidance in British Columbia by the appointment of a Provincial Director of Educational and Vocational Guidance in 1944. Harold P. Johns, the first to hold the new office, in a 1944-45 report described some of the activities undertaken to familiarize British Columbia teachers and principals with various aspects of guidance. He explained:

> During the school year 1944-45 visits were made to thirty-eight junior and senior high schools for the purpose of discussing the problems of each school and assisting in organizing guidance services. At thirty of these schools staff meetings were held in addition to conferences with teachers and guidance workers. Because they offer an opportunity to consult with many teachers who might otherwise be difficult to reach, an attempt was made to visit as many teachers' conventions as possible . . . At the same time three Guidance Bulletins were issued to all Inspectors, secondary and superior school principals and counsellors.[152]

High priority was given in British Columbia to the training of guidance workers, with particular stress being placed upon the acquisition of counselling skills on the part of trainees. In the summer of 1947-48, The British Columbia Department of Education established a counsellor training program which provided for those enrolled in it highly specialized training in guidance and counselling techniques. The program was made up of three courses - a laboratory course in counselling techniques, a course in the use and interpretation of tests in counselling, and a course related to the individual inventory.[153] One of the

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[152]Province of British Columbia Annual Report by the Superintendent of Education, 1944-45, p. 147.

[153]Province of British Columbia Annual Report by the Superintendent of Education, 1947-48, p. 123.

great strengths of this program was that competent American guidance professionals were brought in to conduct several of the courses. For example, among the instructors participating in the program offered during the 1950 summer session were: Dr. O. R. Chambers, Head of the Department of Psychology at Oregon State College, and Dr. C. P. Froehlich, a specialist in the training of guidance personnel for the United States Office of Education.[154]

An indication of the rate of expansion of guidance services in British Columbia is provided by the fact that where in the year 1948-49 there were thirty-four schools with counselling services approved by the Department of Education, by 1951-52 there were fifty-five such programs. The number of counsellors employed on a half-time or full-time basis increased from 85 to 141 in the same time period.[155]

Saskatchewan. Classes in guidance were offered in 1937 at the Nutana Collegiate Institute in Saskatoon and by 1943 two other collegiates in the city were making guidance services available to students. In 1943 a Director of Guidance was appointed by the Moose Jaw Collegiate Board and by 1944 the Regina Collegiate Board was encouraging teachers to enroll in summer session guidance courses. It was in the summer of 1944 that guidance was officially recognized at the provincial level in Saskatchewan with the appointment of T. M. Spencer as

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[154]Province of British Columbia Annual Report by the Superintendent of Education, 1949-50, p. 127

[155]Province of British Columbia Annual Report by the Superintendent of Education, 1951-52, p. 132.

Director of Guidance and Public Relations. While earlier isolated attempts at establishing guidance programs constituted valuable contributions to guidance in Saskatchewan, it was the creation of the Guidance Branch that provided the organization required to establish guidance on a sound basis in the province. Toward this end, the Guidance Branch embarked upon an ambitious program which was comprised of the following activities:

(1) Instilling in the general public an awareness of the meaning and significance of guidance through the medium of addresses and publications of various kinds.

(2) Providing for school boards and teachers information and advice concerning the setting up of guidance programs and the mental hygiene problems of students.

(3) Continuing and extending the courses in guidance offered during both winter and summer sessions at such institutions as the University of Saskatchewan and Regina College.

(4) Assembling a guidance library that could be used by any school in the province.

(5) Establishing a vocational information service consisting of books, monographs, and classes in occupations that could be used by both teachers and students.

(6) Establishing a testing service from which tests of intelligence, school achievement, aptitudes, and personality could be obtained by teachers throughout the province.

(7) Conducting a survey of agricultural, industrial, and professional occupations in the province so that students might be given up-to-date and accurate occupational information.[156]

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[156]Spencer, T. M. "Guidance in Saskatchewan," The School (Elementary), Vol. XXXIII, March, 1945, 577-579.

Through action taken along the above lines, guidance was to become an integral part of education in Saskatchewan.

Alberta. Although some forms of guidance had been offered in Alberta schools as early as the mid-1930's and although the school systems of Calgary and Edmonton appointed supervisors of guidance in the years 1945 and 1946 respectively,[157] it was with the establishing of the Guidance Branch within the Department of Education in 1947 that guidance began to make genuine headway in the province. The first provincial Director of Guidance was Mr. A. A. Aldridge. Among his responsibilities were: (1) assisting in the organization of guidance services in Alberta school systems; (2) compiling up-to-date occupational information and providing for its distribution; (3) organizing and administering a testing service; (4) promoting the training of guidance workers through such means as inservice classes and winter and summer university courses; and (5) supervising the work done by guidance personnel.[158]

It was stressed that guidance should concern itself with the development of the whole individual. Making this point, Aldridge wrote:

> The Department feels that a program of guidance must reach further than that of vocational information and placement and recognize the need of providing assistance to teachers so that every effort can be made to achieve the fullest possible personal growth of the students.[159]

Through the activities carried out by the Guidance Branch, many

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[157] Aldridge, A. A. "Guidance in Alberta High Schools," July, 1956. p.2

[158] Ibid., p. 1.

[159] Province of Alberta Report of the Department of Education, 1948, p. 57.

Alberta teachers and administrators became more clearly cognizant of the significance of guidance in the service of students. Providing an indication of the status of guidance in Alberta after the first year of the Guidance Branch's operation, Aldridge stated:

> Definite interest in guidance is apparent and it is expected that formal programmes will be in fairly general operation throughout the province with the beginning of the new school year. Counsellors have been appointed in the high schools of Medicine Hat, Lethbridge, and Red Deer, and certain divisions are introducing the Cumulative Record either throughout the division as a whole or by means of pilot schools.[160]

As was the case in the provinces previously discussed, it soon became apparent in Alberta that for guidance work to be carried out successfully adequate numbers of trained personnel were required. Accordingly, the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta in 1948 was approached to provide for the training of "teachers desiring to serve as counsellors or guidance officers."[161]

Developments in Other Provinces. While progress in the establishment of guidance services on a relatively large scale tended to be greater in those provinces that by the late 1940's had appointed directors of guidance, other provinces were also showing varying degrees of advancement.

In May of 1938 the Minister of Education for the Province of Manitoba organized the establishment of a guidance service that was to be operated as part of the Technical Branch of the Department of

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[160] Ibid., p. 58.

[161] Province of Alberta Report of the Department of Education, 1948, p. 57.

Education. Among the functions carried out by this service were: (1) offering occupational information and guidance to individuals requesting it; (2) collecting occupational information suited to the conditions of the province; (3) helping teachers in the organization of vocational guidance programs; and (4) addressing groups of students, teachers, and other interested adults in an attempt to increase awareness concerning the need for guidance.[162] R. J. Johns, the Director of Technical Education, in a 1944-45 report pointed to the progress that had been made in establishing guidance services in Manitoba:

> Educational and vocational guidance activities are playing a more important role in the schools of Manitoba than ever before. In many schools teachers have been given responsibilities as counsellors to assist students to select courses in keeping with their natural interests and general abilities.[163]

By 1948, provision was made for guidance and counselling in the Programme of Studies for the High Schools of Manitoba.[164]

Although a guidance organization called "L'Institut Canadien d' Orientation Professionnelle" had been established in Montreal in 1940,[165] guidance work in Quebec, with the exception of Montreal, was not being carried out on a significantly large scale by the late 1940's. Describ-

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[162] Laycock, H. B. "Guidance Service," The Manitoba School Journal, Vol. II, No. 9, May, 1940, p. 1.

[163] Province of Manitoba Report of the Department of Education, 1944-45, p. 100.

[164] Donald, R. L., op. cit., p. 39.

[165] Parmenter, M. D., loc. cit.

ing the status of guidance in Quebec by 1949, W. P. Percival, the Director of Protestant Education, wrote:

> There is no provincial director of guidance in Quebec and most of the systematic work undertaken in this field is being carried out in the schools under the Montreal Central School Board. A good deal of guidance work is at present being done and various testing and counselling procedures are being followed in the Protestant high schools of Montreal, but the work is still largely experimental and no standard program has yet been worked out.[166]

In New Brunswick, guidance work was not being conducted on a large scale by the latter part of the 1940's, but programs had been established in Saint John, Moncton, and Edmunston. Although some guidance services were being provided at this time in Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland, there was little or no evidence of provincial organization.[167]

Conclusion. On the basis of the previous discussion it might safely be concluded that, generally speaking, guidance had been firmly established in Canada by the mid-point of the present century. By this time the guidance concept had been thoroughly tested and judged to be of great potential significance in meeting the needs of pupils. The 1950's represented for Canadian guidance a period of consolidation and expansion upon the solid foundations that had been laid in the previous decade. In most parts of the country existing guidance services were to be broadened and new programs were to be established.

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[166] Donald, R. L., op. cit., p. 35.

[167] Ibid., p. 64.

Furthermore, the guidance concept itself was to undergo in practice the broadening that had been advocated by such men as Laycock during the 1940's. Parmenter, in a 1952 article published in The School Guidance Worker,[168] described the change that was taking place in the way Canadians conceived of guidance. He wrote:

> During recent years tremendous developments have taken place in the field of guidance in both elementary and secondary schools. Such organized activities as were in existence, say ten years ago, were for the most part directed toward "assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon, and progress in it." Guidance, in short, was amost 100% vocational guidance. The qualifying adjective, however, is gradually disappearing. Guidance is no longer mere vocational or educational - it now includes the needs of the whole and adjusted person.[169]

An excellent example of the nature and scope of the guidance concept in Canada by the mid-1950's was provided in the "Outline of Objectives and Criteria in School Guidance" drawn up by the Guidance Sub-Committee of the Ottawa Research Committee on Education.[170] This Committee defined guidance as "assisting the individual in making wise choices in critical situations in his life."[171] The objectives drawn up by the Committee

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[168] Parmenter, M. D. "Psychologists and School Guidance Services," The School Guidance Worker, Vol. 7, No. 7, April, 1952, 1-2.

[169] Ibid., p. 1.

[170] The Guidance Sub-Committee of the Ottawa Research Committee on Education "Outline of Objectives and Criteria in School Guidance," (Study Pamphlets in Canadian Education, No. 8, 1955).

[171] Ibid., p. 2.

made provision for the guidance of pupils in personal, social, educational, and vocational problem areas.

By the mid-1950's, then, the need for guidance was not only more widely recognized than it ever had been before, but it was also being viewed from a broader perspective than had hitherto been the case. Guidance had come a long way in Canada since its very earliest beginnings just prior to the First World War.

Beattie in a 1957 article called "Guidance - Is It a Fad In Education?" pointed out that, in the early days of guidance in Canada, the movement "contained within itself the germs which could lead to its own destruction."[172] Among these were: (1) The temptation on the part of guidance enthusiasts to regard guidance as a means of reforming youth; (2) the conviction that "fervent desire and a deep sincerity" were more important than thorough counsellor training and extensive experience in the field; and (3) the tendency on the part of those concerned with guidance to want to set up programs overnight. Fortunately, the Guidance Movement in Canada was blessed by having active within it dedicated men with enough prudence and vision to prevent such negative tendencies from going unchecked.

A good deal of territoryhas been covered up to this point in the present study. Over the course of the last three chapters, the movements and educational philosophies that are directly or indirectly foundational to the modern guidance concept, the general Canadian societal and educational conditions that mediated the introduction of guidance, and the

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[172]Beattie, H. R. "Guidance - Is It a Fad in Education?" The School Guidance Worker, Vol. 13, No. 2, November, 1957, p. 2.

development of guidance in Canada, including certain issues related to that development, have been examined. The writer will now focus upon the current status of guidance in Canada and will discuss certain guidance trends that are becoming increasingly apparent.

CHAPTER V

GUIDANCE IN CANADA TODAY AND APPARENT TRENDS

Owing in large part to the great advances being made in science and technology, Canadian society is undergoing rapid change and is becoming progressively more complex. Even those basic institutions such as the family, the church, and the school that have traditionally been regarded as being relatively stable and immutable are being profoundly affected by modern conditions. This state of affairs will place new demands upon and offer new challenges to those involved in guidance in Canada. Indicating the unsettling effect that rapid social change is having upon certain leaders in Canadian guidance, Nevison writes:

> It is sobering to look back over the last few years and to realize that the momentum of change now engulfing us is not giving us time to stop and plan, to consolidate our steps forward, to sit back and contemplate our directions. There was a time - not long since - when the description of our society as being catapulted into a new age was merely intriguing; now it is startling, even disturbing.[1]

In a subsequent editorial, "The Emerging Post Industrial Society", Nevison stressed that if Canadians were in fact on the threshhold of a new age, it would become increasingly essential to understand how this society would differ from the current technological order and to determine the nature of guidance and the role of the counsellor in such a

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[1] Nevison, M. B. "It's the 1970's," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 4, No. 1, January, 1970, p. 1.

society.[2]

Notwithstanding the challenges that must be met in the 1970's and beyond, guidance in Canada has entered upon a stage of unprecedented growth and development. One of the most significant manifestations of this growth is the formation of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association.

The "Founding Conference" of the Association was held at Niagara Falls in October of 1965[3] and since that time it has served as an important agency in the pooling and coordinating of guidance and counselling resources across Canada. Included among its members are individuals operating in a wide variety of guidance contexts, with those working in an educational setting representing the largest single group. A good indication of the scope of the Association's concerns is provided by its formal objectives, which are as follows:

> (1) To be alert to the basic philosophies underlying educational, economic and social goals, especially as they relate to the individual's freedom and responsibility, and to keep in the forefront of developments in human understanding.
>
> (2) To foster the interests and endeavors of all those who are engaged in guidance and counselling by promoting contacts amongst diverse persons, agencies, organizations, professional associations, business and institutions participating directly and actively in the work of educational, vocational, and personal guidance and counselling for youths and adults.

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[2]Nevison, M. B. "The Emerging Post Industrial Society," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 4, No. 2, April, 1970, p. 74.

[3]Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association. Papers Presented at the Plenary Session, Niagara Falls Conference, October, 1965.

(3) To provide facilities for an exchange of information relating to guidance and counselling.

(4) To work towards the development and coordination of existing guidance and counselling services.

(5) To work through community and private agencies and governmental and educational authorities, and collaborate with other professional associations towards improved conditions, resources, research, and facilities for guidance and counselling.

(6) To provide an official voice for Canada in international conferences relating to guidance and counselling.[4]

An important contribution of the Association was the drawing up of a set of "Guidelines for Ethical Behavior" which "are intended as a basis for the conduct of persons engaged in providing guidance services."[5] In addition to dealing with the general standards to be met by Canadian guidance professionals, specific standards relating to counselling, testing, and research are outlined. One of the most effective means through which the C.G.C.A. has facilitated communication among guidance workers in Canada and between them and leading American guidance figures is through the holding of national conventions. Since the Founding Conference in 1965, two such conventions have been held.

A review of current Canadian and American guidance literature makes apparent certain clear-cut trends. An examination of such trends should contribute to a better appreciation of what is happening with regard to the guidance concept in Canada today and what is likely to happen in the future.

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[4]These objectives are stated in each issue of The Canadian Counsellor, the official publication of the C.G.C.A.

[5]Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association, "Guidelines for Ethical Behavior" (A. D. Adkins - Editor).

The Emergence of the Developmental Guidance Concept. In the past, the primary emphasis in guidance has been on providing assistance to individuals with problems. It was essentially concerned with "providing emergency and to some extent remedial treatment."[6] At the present time, however, there appears, in theory at least, to be a movement in the direction of providing preventive or developmental guidance services. The nature and goals of developmental counselling have been clearly articulated by Donald Blocher, a noted American guidance figure. He described the essential aim of the approach as follows:

> It is possible then to see developmental counseling as an attempt to help an individual to maximize his possible freedom within the limitations supplied by himself and his environment. Developmental counseling in this sense aims at helping an individual become aware of himself and the ways he is reacting to the behavioral influences in his environment. It further helps him to establish some personal meaning for his behavior and to develop and clarify a set of goals and values for future behavior.[7]

The developmental approach implies a concern not only with so-called problem cases but also with essentially normal individuals. It implies a shift from the "psychological" model, which was problem centered and based on a one-to-one relationship, to an "educational" model which is development centered and based on working with groups as well as with individuals.[8]

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[6]Parmenter, M. D. "What is Guidance?" p. 35.

[7]Blocher, D. H. Developmental Counseling. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966, p. 5.

[8]Lipsman, C. H. "Revolution and Prophecy: Community Involvement for Counselors," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 48, No. 2, October, 1969, 97-100.

Canadian guidance professionals are beginning to stress the need to adopt a developmental perspective to meet the growth requirements of pupils. For example, M. D. Parmenter in 1967 described his interpretation of the developmental approach and stressed that "guidance along developmental lines should receive major attention in our schools today."[9]

The Growing Emphasis on Elementary School Guidance. One of the most important modern guidance developments is the growing awareness of the need to provide counselling services for children of elementary school age. It is generally agreed that the most suitable model for this particular level is the developmental model in which "the child learns not only to understand himself but to become ultimately responsible for his choices and actions."[10]

Although widespread agreement seems to have been reached regarding the general objectives of elementary school counselling, this relatively new field is characterized by problems that will have to be resolved if genuine progress is to be made. Aubrey, in the process of examining "some unresolved issues and conflicts" in the area of elementary school counselling, pointed to three of the more serious problems.[11] These were: (1) the tendency for the training programs of

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[9]Parmenter, M. D., op. cit., p. 36.

[10]Dinkmeyer, D. "Developmental Counseling in the Elementary School," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 45, No. 3, November, 1966, p. 264.

[11]Aubrey, R. F. "The Legitimacy of Elementary School Counseling: Some Unresolved Issues and Conflicts," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 46, No. 4 , December, 1967, 355-359.

elementary school counsellors to be based on theories and models originally devised for the secondary school level; (2) the relative absence of theory and sound research and the consequent lack of direction regarding methodology; and (3) the problem of role definition, upon the resolution of which the success of an elementary school counselling program is highly dependent.

While problems of the type listed above must be resolved, there is reason for considerable optimism regarding the development of elementary school counselling. Blocher claims that there are at least three good reasons why elementary school counsellors are in a position to make a significant contribution:

> First, as newcomers to the profession they may escape many of the distorted role expectations that have been built up during the years . . . Secondly, they are entering, in the elementary school, the one institution in American education that has consistently demonstrated a commitment to the concept of developing the full range of effective human behavior in its children. Finally, the elementary counselling profession has a chance to develop a program of professional preparation geared to its own needs, rather than one that has been variously watered down from, or grafted onto, preparation programs designed for other professions.[12]

In Canada, increasing numbers of articles related to elementary school counselling have appeared in periodicals such as The School Guidance Worker and the Canadian Counsellor. Furthermore, a number of conferences related to elementary school counselling have been held. In May of 1970, a conference named "Guidance and Counselling in the Elementary School - A Conference for Educators" was held in Toronto at which

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[12]Blocher, D. H. "Developmental Counseling: A Rationale for Counseling in the Elementary School," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, Vol. 2, No. 3, March, 1968, p. 164.

the keynote speaker was Dr. Donald C. Dinkmeyer.[13] About the same time, a National Conference on Elementary School Counselling was put on in Banff, Alberta.[14] Included among the speakers was Dr. Verne Faust, who has written an excellent account of the history of elementary school counselling.[15]

It would appear that the future of elementary guidance in Canada is a bright one. Concerning the growth that might possibly occur in this area, Nevison has concluded:

> From all indications we can expect (in the next ten years) a phenomenal increase in the use of counselors in elementary schools. It is generally agreed that we need them - but we are not at all sure what such counselors will actually do.[16]

The Use of Group Guidance Methods. Group methods are becoming increasingly popular as a means of meeting the guidance needs of both elementary and secondary school pupils. Indicating why this is the case, Hewer writes:

> The expansion of case loads, the lack of adequately trained personnel, and, of more significance, the possibility that group counselling may be more effective than individual counselling are pressures encourag-

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[13] Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 2, May, 1970.

[14] Ibid.

[15] Faust, V. History of Elementary School Counseling. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1968.

[16] Nevison, M. B. "Research Notes," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 2 No. 3, July, 1968, p. 181.

ing us to explore group methods.[17]

Group work in the future may provide an excellent medium through which the objectives of the developmental approach might be reached. Gazda, for example, has suggested that group methodology should accommodate itself to the differential developmental tasks typically confronted by various age groups.[18] Such group activity would be carried out as an integral part of the educational process. Making this point and at the same time describing the nature of the group process, Dinkmeyer has said:

> Developmental group counseling is part of the educational process. It provides the opportunity for each student to engage in an interpersonal process through which he works within a peer group to explain his feelings, attitudes, values, and problems, with the result that he is better able to deal with developmental tasks.[19]

There are indications that group counselling techniques are beginning to be integrated with existing Canadian guidance programs. For example, the Manitoba Department of Education in 1966 instituted a "New Group Guidance Program" in which assistance was provided for students in six general areas. These were orientation to school life, study and learning, educational and vocational planning, personal guidance, social

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[17]Hewer, V. H. "Group Counseling," The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 16, No. 4, June, 1968, p. 250.

[18]Gazda, G. M. "Group Counseling: A Developmental Approach," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 13, No. 4. October, 1969, 5-25.

[19]Dinkmeyer, D. "Developmental Group Counseling," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, Vol. 14, No. 4, May, 1970, p. 267.

guidance, and use of leisure time.[20]

While the potential value of "group work in the schools is generally acclaimed, certain leaders in Canadian guidance have stressed the need to understand clearly the purpose of group counselling in the educational setting. Striking a cautionary note, J. G. Paterson has emphasized that:

> Surely goals, directions, competence of workers, need for definition and relationship to the broader educational spectrum are as essential in group counseling as individual counseling. Thus, the need for a statement of goals or biases in counseling before elaboration of group procedures in schools.[21]

Increasing Concern About Counsellor Preparation and Effectiveness. One of the most vital issues confronting guidance in Canada today is the problem of counsellor selection and training. This issue, of course, is highly related to the matter of counsellor effectiveness. An awareness of the need to closely scrutinize the methods currently in use for the training of counsellors has been heightened through the efforts made by researchers such as Truax and Carkhuff in investigating the essential factors operating in the counselling process. Describing the current state of knowledge regarding the effectiveness of counsellor training programs, Carkhuff has written:

> There are no well-designed, controlled, and implemented studies assessing the efficacy of training programs. There are few systematic attempts to provide appropriate training control groups and pre- and post-training meas-

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[20] Banmen, J. "Group Guidance in Manitoba - A History and Survey," Guidance Service Branch - Department of Youth and Education, Winnipeg, 1970.

[21] Paterson, J. G. "Counselor Use of Group Techniques in School Situations," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 2, No. 2, April, 1968, p. 88

> ures. With few notable exceptions, there are no systematic specifications of the antecedent training conditions of the behavioral change which we have implicitly asked from our trainees in therapeutic training.[22]

In response to claims such as those made by Carkhuff, Canadians involved in counsellor training are increasingly concerning themselves with establishing valid counsellor-selection procedures and with the creation of training programs that will turn out effective guidance workers. Particular emphasis is being placed upon the personality characteristics of the prospective counsellor. Doyle and Conklin have stressed that counsellor effectiveness might be greatly enhanced by creating training programs "based on refining those human qualities which are most relevant to the criterion of counsellor effectiveness."[23] Implicit in this statement is the notion that the possession of desirable personal qualities is a prerequisite to entry into the counsellor training program. McNeilly, in "The Personality of the Counselor - A Guide to Training," stressed the central importance of the personality factor but also cautioned that "we must not wait for the personality to evolve out of training."[24]

The general concern for counsellor selection and training has been accompanied by practical suggestions for the creation of more effective

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[22]Carkhuff, R. R. "Requiem or Reveille?" in Sources of Gain in Counseling and Psychotherapy (B. G. Berenson and R. R. Carkhuff, Editors) New York: Holt, Rinehard and Winston, Inc., 1967, p. 11.

[23]Doyle, W. L. and Conklin, R. C. "Counselor Effectiveness: A Changing Emphasis," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 14, No. 4, October, 1970, p. 275.

[24]McNeilly, R. A. "The Personality of the Counsellor - A Guide to Training," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 3, No. 4, October, 1969, p. 38.

training programs. For example, Zingle and Winship have outlined what they consider to be a practicable eight point counsellor education program to meet "the increasing demand for qualified school counsellors."[25] Nevison has urged that the perspective of university counsellor training programs be considerably broadened in order that counsellors might be prepared not only to operate in the school setting but also in a wide variety of other contexts.[26] She offered several suggestions as to how this goal might be achieved.

The Use of Computers and Advanced Technology in Guidance Work. One of the most exciting and promising guidance trends is represented by the attempts being made to utilize modern technology in the achievement of guidance aims. Indicating the importance being attached to this type of endeavour is the fact that an entire recent issue of The Personnel and Guidance Journal was devoted to the topic, "Technology in Guidance."[27] The technological advance that appears to possess the greatest potential for use in guidance work is the computer.. In a 1970 edition of the Canadian Counsellor, Super discussed the use of computers in guidance and gave an up-to-date account of some of the computerized guidance

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[25]Zingle, H. W. and Winship, W. J. "Counsellor Education," Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. 7, No. 2, June, 1967, p. 138.

[26]Nevison, M. B. "Evolving Patterns of Counselor Education," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 3, No. 1, January, 1969, 59-62.

[27]"Technology in Guidance," Special Issue of The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 49, No. 3, November, 1970.

experiments that have been conducted in the United States.[28] Canadian researchers are also investigating the potential of the computer in guidance work. Romaniuk and Maguire, for example, attempted to determine the efficacy of using a computer program in the transmission of information to students.[29] They concluded that although the computer was capable of performing part of the counsellor's role in disseminating information, "a great deal of work must be done in order to overcome some of the drawbacks."[30] Recently, the executive of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association began discussing with the Program Development Service of the Department of Manpower and Immigration the possibility of establishing a computer-assisted counselling service that would ideally be "available to all educational institutions and Canada Manpower Centres across the country."[31]

Bedal has gone so far as to say that the use of computers is one indication of what he sees as being "The Renaissance of Vocational Guidance."[32] He points out that while technology has increased the need for

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[28]Super, D. E. "Using Computers in Guidance: An Experiment in a Secondary School," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 4, No. 1. January, 1970. 11-21.

[29]Romaniuk, E. W. and Maguire, T. O. "Computer Assisted Guidance," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 4, No. 3, June, 1970, 149-160.

[30]Ibid., p. 150.

[31]Nevison, M. B. "President's Report," Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 4, December, 1970.

[32]Bedal, C. L. "The Renaissance of Vocational Guidance," Canadian Counsellor, Vol. 3, No. 4, October, 1969, 26-33.

vocational guidance it has, ironically, also provided the means to meet this need.

While technology may provide us with new tools to reach guidance objectives, it is necessary to proceed with some measure of caution and understanding with regard to their utilization. This point is well made by Walz, who, in the course of providing a "conceptual overview" for the use of technology in guidance, wrote:

> An emerging guidance technology provides opportunities for us to realize in new ways the old goals we strived for, and to accomplish goals previously thought unattainable. We must, however, consider technology within the social context where it will be used. It is more than a matter of how to design machines; rather, it is a question of how we use and in turn are influenced by technology in realizing our goals.[33]

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[33] Walz, G. R. "Technology in Guidance: A Conceptual Overview," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 49, No. 3, November, 1970, p. 176.

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