

# CONTENTS

<i>Foreword by Lisbeth E. Hearst</i>	ix
<i>Acknowledgements</i>	xi
<i>Preface</i>	xiii
<b>PART I COUNSELLING IN ORGANISATIONS</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1 The Nature and Culture of Organisations</b>	<b>3</b>
Introduction	3
Defining Organisations	3
Organisations, Systems and the Environment	6
Survival Culture	12
Thriving Culture	18
The Individual in the Organisation	18
Stress at Work	20
Summary	25
<b>2 The Role of Counselling at Work</b>	<b>27</b>
Introduction	27
Workplace Counselling	27
Managing the Workplace Counsellor's Role	33
Confidentiality	37
Developing the Counsellor's Role in the Organisation	42
Publicising Services	45
Summary	46
<b>PART II MANAGING THE PROCESS: FEATURES AND PRACTICE</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>3 Client and Practice Management</b>	<b>51</b>
Introduction	51
Therapeutic Alliance	51
The Counsellor	52

## CONTENTS

The Client	55
Resistance to Counselling	59
The Interaction between Client and Counsellor	60
The Helping Process	62
Practice Management	65
Monitoring the Progress	69
Record Keeping	70
Summary	71
<b>4 The Process in Practice</b>	<b>72</b>
Introduction	72
Beginning the Relationship	72
Contracting	73
The First Session	77
The Initial Referral	80
Developing the Relationship	89
Ending the Relationship	97
Handling Endings	99
Summary	100
<b>PART III MANAGING THE PROCESS: ISSUES AND DILEMMAS</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>5 Therapeutic Issues and Techniques</b>	<b>105</b>
Introduction	105
Subjectivity and Objectivity	105
Transference and Countertransference in Practice	110
Transference	110
Countertransference	118
Making Sense of Transference and Countertransference	126
Projective Identification	128
Self-disclosure	134
Power	138
Summary	140
<b>6 Working with Diversity</b>	<b>142</b>
Introduction	142
Race, Culture and Ethnicity	146
Working with Difference – the Counsellor’s Role and Responsibility	150
Cross-cultural Perspectives	151

## CONTENTS

Sexual Orientation	153
Disability	155
Religion	156
How does Diversity Impact on the Counselling Process?	158
Learning the Language of Difference	160
Transference	163
Gender and Culture Matching	164
Summary	167
<b>PART IV INTERVENTION STRATEGIES</b>	<b>169</b>
<b>7 Intervention</b>	<b>171</b>
Introduction	171
Opportunities for Intervention	172
The Organisation as a Client	175
A Systemic Approach	178
Change Management	182
Stages of Individual and Organisational Change	186
Defence Mechanisms in Organisations	191
Summary	197
<b>8 Particular Approaches</b>	<b>198</b>
Introduction	198
Short-term Therapy	198
Time-limited Counselling	199
Mediation	202
Telephone Counselling	203
Critical Incident Stress Debriefing	205
Co-working	206
Group Facilitation	206
Summary	218
<b>9 Practitioner Development</b>	<b>219</b>
Introduction	219
The Initiate	219
The Relationship between Theory and Practice	224
The Counsellor and the Outside World	228
The Developing Counsellor	230
Personal Development	232
Counselling Supervision	234
Personal Therapy	236
Burn-out	236

CONTENTS

Caring for Yourself	239
Summary	240
<i>Postscript</i>	241
<i>Appendix 1: Employment Law</i>	242
<i>Appendix 2: Useful Addresses</i>	244
<i>References</i>	248
<i>Index</i>	255

## Part I

# Counselling in Organisations

# INTRODUCTION TO PART I

In the numerous books on organisational psychology, counselling is rarely mentioned. Likewise, books on counselling seldom refer to organisations. In this section I seek to narrow that gulf and embark on the process of integrating the importance of both, thus minimising the potential for division.

As mentioned in the preface, the book is written for three groups of people: counsellors working for an in-house counselling service; employees who have a counselling role as part of their function; and those who provide counselling through EAPs (employee assistance programmes). Whatever differences exist between counselling in general and workplace counselling, all three groups need to know about:

- the context in which the counselling activity takes place;
- issues that arise in organisations;
- where a counsellor can help;
- how they can develop their role.

Counselling in organisations dates back to work done in the United States in the 1930s. Over the past two decades there has been a movement towards acknowledging the need to provide counselling in organisations in the United Kingdom. Whether it is merely the concept of counselling itself that is increasing or whether it is the actual provision of counselling services involving identifiable counselling functions that is increasing, is debatable. Certainly an increased awareness of the impact of legislation and employers' legal obligation to their employees may be a contributory factor.

Therefore in this section I will offer an overview of the setting in which workplace counselling takes place; the opportunities and limitations which exist for counselling and the interaction between the workplace counsellor, the organisation and the client.

# THE NATURE AND CULTURE OF ORGANISATIONS

## Introduction

When counselling takes place in organisations we need to consider the effects of such a setting and what the word ‘organisation’ actually means. By standing back and thinking about organisations, their structure and the way they work we are better placed to consider potential interventions. Initially I wish to consider the organisation as a system, the individual within that system and then the effects of internal and external changes, including social, political and technological change, on the individual.

## Defining Organisations

Organisations conjure up many different images with associated words such as ‘impersonal’, ‘dynamic’, or ‘entrepreneurial’ often being used to describe them. Frequently the simple fact that they are merely a collection of people doing some form of work gets lost.

Bell (1967) suggests contrasting social groups and work groups, as a way of discovering the distinguishing features of an organisation. What is it that people do at a social gathering – say at a party – which is different from a department in a work situation? After all, they both gather for a purpose requiring organisation and allocation of roles. Schein offers this definition:

An organisation is the rational co-ordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through division of labour and function, and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility. (Schein, 1980)

Much of the literature on organisations supports this definition and sees organisations in terms of rational, planned activities with specific objectives. However, this does not offer a complete picture.

Schein's definition is a rather traditional view of organisations, which does not adequately refer to social relations and interactions such as friendships and communities, which evolve as a result of people undertaking specific tasks to achieve their goal. These occur over and above those required by the formally prescribed roles.

So where do people fit into this rational definition? How do individual characteristics, behaviour of people and small groups interact with the nature and the structure of organisations? What about the individual's emotional experience of work and how does this affect the structure and performance of the organisation?

## **Emotions in organisations**

My experience of organisations is that there is too much emphasis on management and insufficient attention paid to the heart and feelings of the organisation. Although control is necessary for an organisation to function effectively it is possible that creativity is stifled by a repressed organisational 'super ego', a term used by Freud (1923), that restricts the range of feasible ways in which it can operate. There is much emphasis on the cognitive and purposeful deliberations of individuals, which gives an impression of organisations as places where there is much headwork, but little of the heart. A more balanced approach is not only desirable but would enhance productivity.

Fineman (1993) talks about organisations as emotional arenas and notes that feelings contribute to and reflect the structure and culture of organisations. It has been suggested that emotions in organisations are controlled by those in power who define what is an acceptable expression of emotion. By defining what is acceptable emotionally, employees who do not fit the 'identified' criteria of organisational strength are vulnerable to being stigmatised or ostracised.

### **Case example: the ostrich syndrome**

A Managing Director would not address a personal issue in which he had behaved inconsiderately towards his assistant who had a serious illness. This caused communication problems between them and amongst the staff, to whom it was made quite clear that the assistant's illness 'was not to be discussed'. All emotions were therefore expressed in subgroups 'behind closed doors'. Even though these issues needed addressing the Managing Director had the ultimate power to prevent them being talked about openly.

Clearly what was happening was having an effect, but it was a taboo subject and not for discussion. In such situations individuals may talk to the staff counsellor and while this may be very therapeutic for them, it raises the question of whether or not the counsellor is colluding in reinforcing a dysfunctional organisational culture.

Organisations can use counselling services as an excuse to avoid legitimate managerial responses to emotional messages from their staff. Parkin (1993) suggests that the growth of workplace counselling could be a way in which emotions are dealt with, restricted and controlled. If the expression of emotions is only acceptable within the counselling arena then this reinforces the stigmatisation of strong emotions at work and they become pathologised.

## **The influence of organisations**

Organisations play a significant part in most people's lives without them even realising it. Some people identify strongly with the organisation for which they work and they can become very attached to its ethos. Understanding the factors that have an influence on individuals' attitudes towards – and choice of – work can assist the development of empathy with clients who will present with a variety of workplace issues.

People's early experience of organisations is quite extensive, starting with childhood experience in schools. Blackler and Shimmin (1984) suggest three main influences.

- **Context of social learning** – it is in organisations that we develop concepts of ourselves and the world about us. We experience competition and power, authority, co-operation and the ways people seek to influence others.
- **Life sequence** – as we go through life we define ourselves and are defined by the stages of life through which we pass – school, work, leisure, retirement home. General and particular titles such as pupil, youth worker, teacher, volunteer, nurse, doctor, director, resident will be given, adopted or sought.
- **Providers of education** – employment, career opportunities, health care or therapy, the means through which organisations can satisfy people's hopes and aspirations.

As we can see from the above there are many opportunities for organisations to have a significant impact on people's development which can help us to understand how and why they behave as they do in the workplace.

## **Work, society and identity**

It is important for workplace counsellors to understand what work actually means to people and the importance individuals attach to their work. People often define themselves by their jobs, introducing themselves by saying, 'I am a doctor' or 'I'm an engineer'. Any counsellor working with someone who has lost their job will not underestimate the meaning of a social framework, colleagues, a daily task, a place to go, time-markers to pace the day, sense of identity and in some cases a purpose to living (Fineman, 1993). Individuals' attachments to organisations and the many functions that the organisation provides need to be borne in mind. These can include a source of creativity and mastery, self-value, status, income and an opportunity for social interaction.

This is true not only at the point of entry but also at the point of withdrawing from the organisation. If work represents all of the above it is not surprising that although some people cannot wait to retire, others cannot believe it will actually happen and some people do not wish to think about it at all.

For some years I contributed to a seminar called 'Life After *Yes Minister*' which addressed retirement issues for senior civil servants. It would be easy to assume that those who had 'made it to the top' of their organisations would have their future retirement all sorted out. This was not the case. Whilst many had indeed made plans for the future they were still 'psychologically' adjusting to what it would mean for them to no longer have their job or their position. Some had not even given it a thought. As one man who had retired put it: 'I only realised I had retired when I put out the lights, went out of the office and walked down Whitehall – then it hit me.' In this illustration he just worked up until the last minute but others, realising the significance of the adjustment they would need to make, withdrew more gently.

This underlines just how large a part work plays in people's lives not only in terms of identity but also of affiliation and meaning. Although many of us dream of the day we no longer have to work, we tend to deny the importance of the relationship we have with our work.

## **Organisations, Systems and the Environment**

Counselling takes place within a system and the counsellor needs to know about that system. By understanding organisational cultures, systems and pressures, they are better placed to help the client who says 'but you don't

realise what it is like to work here' how to consider realistic options or change. In order to fully help the individual make realistic changes within the world in which they live and work the counsellor needs to appreciate the impact and constraints of their workplace.

One theory about organisations and businesses which has been particularly influential is the concept of organisations as systems. Four perspectives for considering how organisations operate are outlined below.

### **The socio-technical system**

This system describes the interaction between technical activities and what is happening at a social level. It implies that if you try to optimise one it will be at the expense of the other and ultimately it will cost the system as a whole. Trist and Bamforth (1951), together with Rice (1958) and Miller and Rice (1967), were interested in developing a framework to understand the interaction between a system of *technical activities* necessary for task performance and a social system of *relationships*, which met the psychological and social needs of the workforce.

Most of us don't even think of the workplace as a community even though we spend the majority of our waking hours there. The degree to which a work community operates cohesively will directly affect the task. Good communication, when individuals' needs are considered, facilitates the technical task. Where this does not exist, time delays and even sabotage occur, generally accompanied by low morale. It is often at this point that the workplace counsellor is approached.

#### **Example: the ideal office**

I was involved in a relocation project, which required families to make decisions about whether to stay in London or to move to the north of England. Naturally there were many personal considerations to be taken into account but any doubts seemed to be offset against the promise of improved working conditions in a new high-tech, state-of-the-art office building. A completely new structure was to be erected. The possibilities were endlessly exciting.

However, follow-up work with the organisation showed a high level of dissatisfaction about how the relocation had been managed and, in particular, about the lack of consultation about the design of the new building and its impact on practical working arrangements.

Sadly innovation is all too often obsessed with logistics and technology while the human aspects are considered only as an afterthought or when changes have been resisted. Clearly both sub-systems as described above were important. There was a real opportunity for these principles to be applied but they needed to be introduced at the strategic planning stage of change with a plan for effective consultation throughout the process.

## **The open system**

The comparison is often made between living organisms that have to adapt to environmental conditions in order to exist and organisations as systems that face similar challenges. This biological approach is simply saying that human organisations are living systems that need to interact with the world around them in order to survive. Like nature, organisations need to be inter-dependent and cross boundaries where necessary. The concept of open systems is about the interconnectedness of the parts of an organisation – meaning that when you change one bit of the organisation it will have repercussions in the other parts.

In the commercial world businesses have customers, they have suppliers and there are wider social and economic forces that affect them such as government legislation, labour markets and economic forces. With transactions taking place daily across their organisational boundaries one could say that they are ‘open systems’, competing for survival and needing to adapt to current environmental conditions. For example, the wider forces of worldwide events and fluctuating financial markets have an effect on the European economy. Acts of Parliament affect local authorities, taxation affects small companies and the financial pressures on central government have an effect on public sector organisations.

The internal environment of an organisation is affected and potentially changed by events in the external environment as described above. As a result, the external environment is then affected by the level and quality of the organisation’s outputs and so the circular process continues. Internal changes, such as relocation, reviews, restructuring, changes in working practices and accountability will also have their effect. They are all interconnected.

Open systems provide for change, offer choices and successfully meet reality. Rules are overt, up to date, humane, and can be changed when needs arise. In contrast, closed systems provide for very little or no change at all and depend on edict and law and order operating through force. Rules are covert, out of date and fixed. If the boundary of an organisation is too

impenetrable or rigid then there is no opportunity for exchange. If the system doesn't interact then it cannot be sustained, grow and develop, and if it fails to restrict exchange across the boundary, then it would cease to exist, as it would be undifferentiated from its surroundings. I expect you can think of an individual who is seen as closed – not interacting with people around them, often isolated and not benefiting from mutual exchange – and the opposite type whose boundaries are so blurred that they appear not to have an identity of their own.

This way of considering open and closed systems can be applied to individuals, groups, families and organisations alike. A balance needs to be struck in the degree of openness, for if an individual, a group or an organisation operates by being completely open, it could become submerged and then there would be no individual or corporate identity.

There are comparisons to be drawn here with boundary maintenance in the counselling process. In the chapter 'Therapeutic Issues and Techniques' I will consider subjectivity and objectivity and the potential for the counsellor to become enmeshed and undifferentiated from the client's world.

## **The political system**

To the extent that an organisation is engaged in negotiating and allocating power between groups and individuals the organisation is a political system. Aristotle supposed that 'Man by nature is a political animal.' Shared assumptions about the distribution of power are significant in maintaining any system. In other words, it is the belief of the employee that the manager might fire people or make them redundant, and the belief that the union members could go on strike or the belief that the counsellor has the power to support early retirement that support the system.

Political activity is universal and inevitable. I recall my own resistance to acknowledging that politics existed in the therapeutic world (let alone the world of organisations) and rather arrogantly decided that the game of organisational politics was not something I wished to play. I learned the hard way and so feel it would be remiss of me not to draw your attention to the fact that it does exist and that you will not be working in a vacuum.

The workplace counsellor works within a political system and, by relating to particular departments, e.g. personnel, they will be perceived as part of the power structure. It is important for workplace counsellors to recognise this and be aware of the consequences of any unrealistic perceptions. They will need to know about the shared assumptions of the organisations in which they work and to recognise their potential for empowering their clients.

It often comes as a surprise to new workplace counsellors that employees perceive them as having more power than they feel they have. For example, employees may believe that the counsellor has the power to arrange a transfer on their client's behalf, that they will stop the bully or that they will take the grievance procedure forward for them. The point here is that counselling is about enabling clients to realise that they are not powerless and that they have choices. It is for them to decide which way they prefer to live.

## Organisations and culture

How often have you heard someone say of another, 'They don't mean any harm, it's just their nature'? We refer to a person's nature as being 'kind hearted' and in a similar way one can consider an organisation's nature. Yes, organisations have personalities too!

Fineman (1993) argues that people rely heavily on cognitive indicators to describe how the organisation works: for example, how people think about their organisational life, the language they use and the myths and stories that are circulated and cultivated. The word 'culture' as used by Fineman (1993) describes the feelings as well as the thoughts which characterise a particular organisation. Culture can be a pervasive way of life and a guest or visitor to an organisation can quite quickly pick up the 'vibes' that exist to describe the 'mood' of the company.

### Example: 'Good morning'

The greeting I receive at reception and the exchanges between staff entering and leaving the building have often given me a snapshot of the issues I might be discussing when I meet with senior management. On one occasion a simple question en route to the lift – 'How is it going now that you have moved to these lovely new offices?' – elicited an out-pouring about what it was like at lunch-time with nowhere decent to shop and the extra travelling time involved: a clearly disgruntled employee. The company had relocated a mere mile up the road.

The actual task of an organisation can be reflected in the way that people behave; for example, it is not unusual in accountancy firms for there to be a culture of logic, fact and 'bottom line' thinking. In legal firms argument and debate exist to service clients but can also become the norm for dealing with colleagues. In government departments rules and procedures can

dominate the way people behave. Sometimes the culture is clearly visible in the type of logo, the mission statement or the way the building is designed, or it is reflected in its product and the way it operates – for example, The Bodyshop uses only environmentally friendly materials in its shops. Naturally cultures will vary according to the organisation's function.

Within an organisation each department might have its own subculture; for example, the research department may vary from the culture of the personnel department. One way of exploring cultures is to classify them into types, as proposed by Harrison (1972):

- **The power culture** is where key individuals exercise control, and policy and strategic decisions are centralised.
- **The role culture** is highly formalised, resources are controlled and it is assumed everybody is doing their job according to the rules co-ordinated at the top by a narrow band of senior management.
- **The task culture** is job- and project-orientated with the main emphasis on getting the job done. It has a strong sense of the basic mission of the organisation.
- **The person culture** is one where the individual is the central point and the power base is usually expert e.g. collectives, barristers' chambers. There is minimal structure and influence is shared.

It is not enough for a culture to be precisely defined, it also has to be perceived. Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that where a pattern of beliefs is known, understood and shared by most people in the organisation then that organisation is most likely to be successful. This supports the use of 'mission statements', when they are understood, accepted by all employees and above all acted upon. It seems like the ideal scenario. Not everybody agrees that there is a clear perception of culture, perhaps it is an illusion. It is more likely that there are clashing subcultures or even no fixed consensus at all. Whilst there can be subcultures within cultures which enhance the overall success of the organisation, sometimes there are covert disruptive subcultures which, if they go unrecognised, can become destructive forces. Closing the gap between rhetoric and reality requires commitment of time, attention and resources.

De Vries (1991) argues a need to understand the psychological rationale behind common patterns of irrational organisational and individual behaviour. The counsellor is better placed to identify the culture in which they operate by standing back, observing and understanding where people focus their attention and also which areas get overlooked. This perceptiveness assists effective and objective intervention. The workplace counsellor

may observe and enquire about the written and unwritten rules of behaviour, how clients think about and describe themselves, the emotions or collection of feelings that underlie their activities, and the externalised symbols of an organisation such as the logo or mission statement.

The following exercise invites you to think about the culture of organisations you know.

### **Exercise**

Honest questions such as the following may help clarify the nature of an organisational culture:

- Is there a mission statement?
- If so, how does it relate to what happens in practice?
- Is control with individuals or committees?
- How long do people stay?
- Are working hours flexible or inflexible?
- How formal or informal is the organisation?
- How open or closed is the organisation?
- Is there a general level of education?
- What is the mood?
- Do people take risks?
- What is the dress code?
- What language do people use to describe the organisation?
- What are the incentives, bonuses and stock options?
- What are the symbols?

Two extremes of organisational culture, the 'survival culture' and a 'thriving culture', will now be discussed. A survival culture may be characterised by corporate abuse or workplace bullying. Features of both are described along with case examples. This is then contrasted with what a counsellor may recognise as a thriving organisational culture.

## **Survival Culture**

The last decade has produced a culture of survive rather than thrive. The survival culture, described as a 'culture of fear', can often lead to bullying and other problems. For example, it is quite common for people to be working very long hours and not taking holidays. Levels of sickness and absenteeism, traditionally used as indicators of stress in organisations, can

no longer be relied upon. Staff may be working hard but this does not necessarily mean they are working productively.

It would appear that the trend towards ‘downsizing’ and the effects of job uncertainty have meant that staff are reluctant to take time off even when they would benefit from so doing. Although people might not ‘absent’ themselves from work, one might enquire to what extent they are really there and how effective they are when at work. Because of the fear of uncertainty it is likely that individuals will continue to operate using compromise and trade-offs. A new member of staff, unsure how secure her position was, described this process very clearly when she told me: ‘To help you keep your job, you take on this, take on that, more and more – then they won’t be able to get rid of you!’

That member of staff was a staff counsellor. Demotivation, unexpressed dissatisfaction and indirect communication are just symptoms of more fundamental causes leading to the ‘go with it’, ‘get out of it’ or literally ‘become sick of it’, phenomena. If this is the case then there is a danger that in a culture where there is significant level of anxiety about job uncertainty a counsellor could compromise to the point that they lose their identity, independence and autonomy.

If the climate of the organisation is ‘achieve an end result in a cost-effective way’ – how does the organisation achieve this with people? Aldrich’s (1979) idea about organisational culture as a jungle is thought-provoking. If indeed the culture is one of a ‘jungle’, how should the counsellor operate in such an environment and how will it affect their role?

I do not underestimate the task which workplace counsellors face in survival cultures. In my view there has never been a time when they were more needed in organisations, yet when resources are reduced and standards compromised counsellors may feel their contributions are devalued. Sometimes ethical and effective practices are challenged without a sound basis or professional knowledge. All these forces, I would suggest, are familiar to our clients in their own pressurised work settings, a reflection of what is happening in many organisations as they face an economic downturn.

## **Workplace bullying**

The survival culture often arises where changes at work are brought about by deregulation, privatisation, restructuring, downsizing and new technology. These changes can contribute to an erosion of working conditions for many. Casualisation and job insecurity can create a climate where people are increasingly powerless and at risk from being bullied. Research

suggests that millions of adult working days are lost each year as a direct result of workplace bullying (see Hoel and Cooper, 2000).

The perception of bullying is often one of persecuting and ganging up on an individual, but it can be subtler than that. Bullying is an abuse of power and it can occur in conjunction with discrimination. The psychological well-being of staff is important at work, but sadly there are many devastating personal stories which tell of the demoralising and isolating experiences of people who are bullied at work. Those who seem to be most vulnerable include young workers, apprentices and trainees, women, older workers, and people from non-English-speaking backgrounds who may experience sexual and/or racist harassment. However, bullying can happen to anyone. It occurs across all industries and in all professions.

Under occupational health and safety legislation employers have a legal duty to control all health and safety hazards in the workplace. This includes organisational structures and behaviours that may lead to bullying. At worst bullying can result in serious health problems such as stress-related illness, anxiety and depression, suicidal thoughts and heart disease.

#### **Example: 'You cannot be serious'**

Dennis was an efficient public servant who was known 'to get the job done', but who also had a reputation of being difficult to work for. Consistently good job appraisals led to regular promotion.

When a new manager arrived and heard from a robust character that he had been 'broken' by Dennis, he decided to take action. Dennis was admonished in a meeting with a third party present. This was very distressing for him as it was tantamount to a disciplinary meeting for a senior person. 'You cannot be serious', he said, but they were and he was given 'gardening leave' and offered counselling.

Dennis at first appeared brusque, non-smiling, took control and was business-like. He had lots to say at a factual level and was deeply shocked and hurt. When this was acknowledged he burst into tears. He spoke of having been under considerable pressure for some time, always introducing unpopular changes on behalf of the organisation. Now he felt aggrieved, angry, generally betrayed and was struggling to make sense of the allegations. From always having been valued for his ability, under new management he now found himself accused of being a bully. His view of himself was shattered.

He accepted there were problems with his 'people skills' but thought they were well under control. He knew there was more to do but thought he was making progress. He was horrified at hearing that people dreaded his footsteps and that he was terrorising people. Aware he was intolerant of slowness or lack of commitment in others and was

quick-tempered, he also thought he had been improving in his interpersonal style. That this was not evident to others was a double blow and he was filled with self-doubt.

The focus of the work in the short term was to help him work through the shock and pain. In the medium term the underlying causes for his behaviour towards others were addressed. He found it difficult to tolerate the vulnerable softer side of himself and there were unresolved issues in his personal life, with suppressed emotions, including anger, which when he was under stress was discharged inappropriately onto others. In the long term he committed himself to a development programme to change his interpersonal skills.

But what about the organisation's responsibility for allowing such a situation to arise? Should one just work with Dennis or does the workplace counsellor have a responsibility to address a system which allows such a situation to occur?

Unfortunately scenarios like this are all too common. In cultures that reward results without regard to the process, managers are promoted without the necessary training to manage staff effectively. The system puts strain on managers and staff alike. Some become addicted to pressure to the extent that they behave like express trains, not alert to the danger they may cause to others that get in their way. This was the case with Dennis. In a sense he too was a 'victim' of the system, which did not care enough to confront his behaviour at an early stage, nor give him the necessary training for his position.

Bullying is characterised mostly by a combination of the following conditions:

- unreasonable demands and impossible targets;
- restrictive and petty work rules;
- being required to perform tasks without adequate training;
- being forced to stay back to finish work or additional tasks;
- compulsory overtime, unfair rostering or allocation of work;
- constant intrusive surveillance or monitoring;
- no say in how your job is done;
- interference with personal belongings or sabotage of work;
- shouting or abusive language;
- open or implied threat of the sack or demotion;
- oppressive, unhappy work environment;
- people afraid to speak up about conditions, behaviours or health; and
- compromise of safety.

## Corporate abuse

Many people dread each day because they have to work in places where they feel abused and powerless. Some organisations have gone beyond being tough and competitive and their desperation to be successful has obscured common decent behaviour. Autocratic, inconsistent management, illogical rules, red tape and ruthless downsizing have led to a climate of hostility and fear. In such workplaces, the modus operandi of the organisation could be described as corporate abuse.

Employees expend so much energy just surviving the day that often there is nothing left to give when they return to their families. This has a significant impact on personal lives, for example exhaustion, preoccupation and frayed tempers. Abuse makes people doubt themselves; they begin to think it is only they who are undervalued and that they are going 'mad', even though that is not the case. Everyone else is just busy surviving and conforming to the system.

### Example: Big Brother

A telecommunications organisation was struggling to survive and in order to improve cost effectiveness it introduced changes. It employed a team of supervisors whose job it was to observe and report back on the customer advisers' working patterns, including time taken for coffee, lunch and toilet breaks. In addition employees were asked to present evidence to justify their positions and remuneration – a form of performance-related pay. The level of accountability became excessive. Not only did the employees at the call centre feel that they had no autonomy but that there was a divisive atmosphere because some of the 'observers' were personal friends of the operators and it was considered that favouritism existed. The staff described it as 'a big brother culture' where the degree of personal scrutiny regarding their personal habits was experienced as an infringement of personal liberty. The employees felt dehumanised. The effects of continually having to prove themselves and not being valued meant that staff morale was low. Whilst some felt trapped as a result of fear, others had no loyalty to the firm and left. This left the company with staff shortages and difficulty in retention.

Why do people stay? Corporate abuse is similar to domestic abuse in that it goes through a cycle of hope, expectation and disappointment. I am reminded of spouses of violent or alcoholic partners who would genuinely believe that 'it won't happen again', only to have their hopes dashed.

Characteristics of an abusive environment are when staff are furtively looking over their shoulders and feeling increasingly vulnerable. They may be aware of their every move and sentence and can appear depressed, withdrawn and have low self-esteem. Although working hard they may never feel fulfilled and stop trying to excel or take initiative. Such staff may feel overwhelmed by fear and suspicion.

## **Recession and survivors**

It was argued that there was a slow-down in the economy prior to the attack on the World Trade Center, 11 September 2001, but the impact of that day will be very significant and may well bring about recession. We have already seen the restructuring in the airline and travel industries with job losses being announced weekly. There is likely to be a squeeze in public spending, probably the most severe for years, to cover the cost of disaster recovery and war.

Living with uncertainty or change for short periods of time is manageable but what are the effects on individuals on a long-term basis and how do they affect corporate performance? In recession some companies, in the interests of 'the bottom line', become so preoccupied with surviving that they do not have time to deal with management problems until a crisis point is reached. In the face of lack of external control one way organisations react is to increase rules and regulations and have more security measures to 'cope with the chaos'. This can lead to the 'watch your back syndrome' illustrated earlier in the Big Brother example.

As the economy emerges from recession organisations will need to respond to an increase in customer demand. Expansion caused by a buoyant market, although most welcome, still requires skilful handling but is often overlooked. Investment in the 'people' side of growth does not always keep pace with systems and productivity.

Companies who survive recessions are much tougher. They believe they have seen off any threat and start to feel positive, wanting to move on. Perhaps what is forgotten at the point of upturn in the market is that it is not just a question of luck. Companies in such positions could, if they invest time and expertise, reflect on and assess what they have learned, enabling them to go forward with renewed vigour. In an effort to restimulate the economy they could share not only what they have learned about how to survive but also how to thrive. Sadly the workplace now provides little time for development, individual reflection or coaching. In today's environment of continuous change, it is vital for companies to motivate and develop management so that they are able to handle the challenges they face every

day. Such issues need to be addressed otherwise mistakes will occur which could adversely affect organisations' reputations and company profits.

## Thriving Culture

Of course, not all organisations are abusive. Many offer wonderful opportunities for development and fulfilment. An organisation that does so is seen to have a 'thriving culture'. Thriving organisations manage rather than are managed and problems are perceived as opportunities not as crises. Thriving cultures are ones where individuals and companies are in partnership together through the vagaries, uncertainties and brutalities of modern-day commercial life. They seek success for themselves and for their organisations.

Counsellors working remedially should consider the features of thriving organisational cultures and what it is that makes people happy and productive at work. Some examples of a thriving culture are when staff have a sense of purpose and there is a high level of initiative. They are supported, encouraged and feel secure about sharing their thoughts and feelings. Their views are valued and there is a respect for difference. Communication is direct, clear, specific and honest and there is a willingness to negotiate. Staff stress levels are productive and there is respect for the organisation's objectives. Leadership coalitions are complementary and there is an appropriate sharing of roles. The world of work is changing and Handy (1993) urges organisations to give more freedom to individual employees, to maintain a balance of commitment and creativity.

## The Individual in the Organisation

Clients might present with a range of issues regarding their role at work and their relationship with the organisation. To understand what lies beneath presenting problems such as bullying, anxiety and stress, you might consider the psychological contract that an individual has with their organisation. A psychological contract is a term used to describe the less formal expectations and the nature of the relationship between the individual and the organisation. Some of those expectations are explicit and others are implicit. The psychological contract can have a powerful effect on people's behaviour, including their degree of motivation, commitment, affiliation and how they expect to be treated.

Jaques (1961) suggests that there are three factors that need to be in balance if a person is to be in a state of 'psychological equilibrium'.

These are equitable payment, the content of the work itself and the capacity of the individual. In addition Handy (1976) suggests that where a fit exists between the prevailing culture and the individual's personal, cultural preference, this should lead to a fulfilled psychological contract with the organisation and to satisfaction at work. If this contract is broken, for example where individuals perceive their value system is being violated, people can react strongly, behaving quite fiercely.

The nature of changing work contracts is another aspect to consider regarding clients' presenting problems. Organisations are increasingly offering jobs rather than careers. The experiences of recession, downsizing and restructuring in the 1980s and 1990s led to a new reality for employees. A job is no longer a job for life. The emphasis is placed on being employable rather than being employed. Short- or fixed-term contracts, career breaks, being multi-skilled or acquiring transferable skills are phrases which highlight this shift. People are retiring earlier and there is a move towards job portfolios, where people are self-employed with more than one job. We are witnessing a major change in the way in which work is interpreted, signifying a shift from dependency to being independent, taking charge and control of one's own career path within a changing world.

Changing work practices present other challenges. For example, accompanying the attraction of working from home is the potential for isolation and lack of opportunity to learn from others through regular human interaction. Some of the more structural work changes are, for example, open-plan offices, job sharing, flexitime, hot-desking, information technology, call centres, E-talk or detached duty where people are away from home for long periods. All these changes have implications for client work and wider counselling interventions. Whilst some individuals seek change and thrive on it, others find it stressful. People who find transition to a new working culture difficult may need counselling to help them adapt or move to a function in which they can continue to contribute and to feel valued.

Role ambiguity and role conflict can feature highly as a source of workplace stress. When a person's role in an organisation is clearly defined, understood and where the expectations placed upon the individual are also clear and non-conflicting, then stress can be minimised. This is particularly relevant for counsellors in organisations.

## **Role stress**

Handy (1976) differentiates between beneficial stress, calling it 'role pressure', and harmful stress, which he calls 'role strain'. Potential areas for

role stress leading to strain are:

<b>Expectations</b>	Lack of clarity about scope and responsibilities of job Lack of clarity of objectives for a role
<b>Role conflict</b>	Between different departments Between the organisation and the outside world Contradictory instructions from superiors Inter-role conflict – two sets of competing pressures Personal values versus organisational values Professional values versus organisational values
<b>Role ambiguity/ inadequate information</b>	Uncertainty about evaluation Promotion prospects Extent of power Others' expectations Poor communication
<b>Role load</b>	Overload or underload

The effects of the above are numerous. Some of these include low job satisfaction and motivation, aggression, depression or a decline in self-confidence and self-esteem. Clients present with 'general dissatisfaction', 'a sense of futility', 'mental and physical health problems' or 'an intention to leave the job'.

Role underload results from people occupying jobs that do not allow them to make full use of their skills and abilities. Promotion is an interesting example. Where employees with specialist technical abilities, e.g. a nurse or scientist, are removed from a job with which they particularly identify they can be vulnerable to role stress, despite the increase in status. Too often it is assumed that because they are effective in their areas of expertise they will make good managers.

Increases in workload, arising from the desire for cost-effectiveness and increased throughput in organisations, can in turn lead to stress. In this context emotional and physical strength are taken for granted. Often stress and uncertain emotions are regarded as personal weakness and are not recognised as being a result of organisational structures and pressures.

## Stress at Work

*Stress? You don't believe in all that fashionable mumbo jumbo – much too much is made of it.*

The above comment was made to me by a chief executive of a large company. I partly agree with him. Stress is a popular word much overused. When trying to understand a colleague's forgetfulness we might lightly use the phrase 'she [or he] is under a lot of stress at the moment' or we might attribute our own varied reactions to 'work is stressing me out of my mind right now'. In the current economic climate it can be considered fashionable to be in a 'high-stress job' and even to suffer from it, proving that you are conscientious and in high demand! Stress can easily become as addictive as alcohol or other drugs.

What is lacking is a clear understanding of the distinction between 'healthy stress' and 'distress', which can lead to illness if not addressed. Stress means arousal or stimulus, which we need as part of everyday life – to get up, to catch trains, to complete deadlines, to play sport and to perform. We need healthy stress to achieve, feel motivated and satisfied. What we do not need is strain. Too much stress is as bad as too little. I think it would be helpful if organisations were more informed about stress, and encouraged to look at the way their systems operate, to see if they are robust enough for staff to work creatively and productively.

From my work with teams of staff and management, I have come to believe that stress usually begins at the top. Often it is kindled by a straight denial that stress could possibly exist in the organisation. This is expressed in a variety of ways, from a completely blank stare to a trivialising of the whole subject. Senior managers are not superwomen and supermen, but by the time they get to the top they do have secretaries and assistants to help them and perhaps they have learned the art of delegation. This may be one of the reasons they achieve their high status. Perhaps the fact that it appears that they are less vulnerable to stress could be a form of defence, which manifests itself as lacking a degree of sympathy with those who are. Stress does exist at senior levels, even if it is not talked about. For the most part, people in senior positions have autonomy, which helps them to cope with stress more effectively.

### **Case example: pressures and possibilities**

Simon was a trial lawyer in his mid-forties working in a city legal firm. He had progressed well and was known for his meticulous methods. Low in self-confidence and sensitive to criticism, he was involved in a high-profile trial and the media coverage with which it was accompanied. Were he to make a mistake and 'get it wrong' he would not only be vulnerable to criticism from his management, but also exposed to the press and the general public's criticism. Working in a culture, which

was 'rife with criticism' and where, because of the nature of the task, the emphasis was understandably on facts and evidence, he felt he must keep his worries to himself. Simon as a trial lawyer was struggling with whether or not he had disclosed information inappropriately. A tough management style was perceived as 'lacking in support' (of individuals' professional judgements) where little concern or praise was demonstrated. This, combined with a macho culture where emotions were trivialised, reinforced his prior life experience.

He feared that if he were to talk about his professional concerns he would be criticised harshly and therefore he found it difficult to talk about his anxieties at work. His manager was newly appointed and was himself feeling under pressure having just been promoted; therefore he in turn did not realise that there was a problem. The lawyer continued to worry about whether or not he had made a mistake and spent sleepless nights, compulsively checking every detail until his anxiety level rose to the point where he had panic attacks. At this stage the situation had deteriorated to the point where it became clear to his colleagues that he needed help. Simon went off sick with stress and the organisation referred him for counselling.

The relief he experienced was striking, as was his scepticism, when he first entered the counsellor's room. The counsellor, after initially helping him on a practical level to reduce his immediate stress levels, began to help him talk about his low self-esteem and his response to criticism. Part of the work involved exploring Simon's work environment, his background and how it affected him in his current life. He was able to see that he had always found it difficult to turn towards authority figures and, as an experienced lawyer, himself responsible for managing a staff team, he felt he 'should be able to cope'. Having found his senior management supportive, his perception of both how he and others could be managed changed. From the knowledge he personally gained he changed his approach to the way he managed his own staff, thereby improving his own team's ability to communicate more openly. This in turn created a mini culture where individuals could raise professional concerns and obtain constructive support. Simon's own resentment towards the organisation turned to appreciation of the help they gave him and he returned to work both motivated and committed to trying to change his immediate work environment.

This case illustrates both the opportunities and the limitations of the counsellor's role. The initial contract with the organisation was quite clear: to help Simon with his anxiety attacks. However, through the counselling process, Simon was able to influence a small part of the organisation, although there were clearly other issues that could have been (and, some would argue, should have been) addressed if similar situations were not to re-occur. For example, what happened to the new manager, left feeling quite

guilty about his management style and who was under pressure for quite different reasons? What about other members of staff in the organisation who felt similarly to Simon? What would happen to them in the future? Although there were further opportunities to become involved, the staff counsellor himself was influenced by the enormity of the task of addressing the overall climate within the organisation, and he too feared that a larger organisational intervention would not be heard and might be perceived as being critical.

### Causes of workplace stress

The assumption that death, divorce and moving house are the three biggest causes of stress was challenged by a 'Mind' survey conducted in 1992, which shows that the office has replaced the home as the principal focus for stress. The biggest contributing factors to stress were:

Pressure to perform	31%
Fear of redundancy/job uncertainty	29%
Recession	28%
Change/pace of change	15%
Personal/home life	12%
Increased job load	6%
Excessive hours	3%
Maintaining quality	2%
Other	7%
Don't know	6%

(Sample group of 109 UK companies)

Over half of the respondents (52 per cent) were at director level or above. One-third were managing directors, partners or chairmen, while 19 per cent were human resources personnel or medical directors.

Organisations are currently under pressure to implement strategies that will ensure that they are doing all they can to fulfil their obligations as employers. Counsellors may well be involved in preventative work as well as remedial work, for they frequently pick up cases of stress-related illness.

Various provisions in legislation are in place to ensure the health and safety of all the organisation's employees. In addition, the employer owes a duty of care under common law to ensure the health and safety of its employees. Stress in the workplace is gaining a higher profile, perhaps as a result of recent legal test cases, but is legislation enough? There is a view

that, in reality, organisations pay stress awareness ‘lip service’ and the counsellor may, under the therapeutic/psychological contract with the organisation, wittingly or unwittingly become the ‘lip service’ in the organisation’s attempts to deal with stress. One employee in a city firm suggested a ‘name and shame’ policy:

Perhaps commercial organisations would only start to take it seriously if, say, *Company Magazine* or the *Financial Times* published a ‘league table of nervous breakdowns’ identifying the number of employees/directors in various industry sectors ... or better still naming national companies who had suffered over a specific time period. (Anon.)

When problems are presented as occupational stress overload it is often difficult to assess how much of the emotional distress is to do with the individual’s own personality and how much is to do with the conditions at work, demands of the job and taking little or no time off. Some organisations do take work stress seriously and in recent years we have seen the growth of various techniques in industry which have at their heart the control of stress. These include job-enrichment programmes and more generally improvements in job design. In some Swedish companies a great deal of job design is left to the individual worker. They claim it produces more effective working patterns and allows for the optimum fit between an individual and their job.

## **Organisational structures and culture**

Causes of stress in the organisational culture include lack of communication, consultation and participation in decision making, and unjustified restrictive behaviour as described earlier in the section on bullying culture. Without policies there will be no clear standards for the behaviour that is expected and no system for individuals to challenge discrimination or harassment. This cultivates a message that people should just cope alone. Organisations that operate on fear, or interpret stress as individuals not coping, will just generate more stress.

It is tempting for me to go further into the whole area but there are many excellent books written on the subject, for example, Sutherland and Cooper (2000). So far as workplace counselling is concerned, providers are reporting an increase in casework with stress-related illnesses, which then go to industrial tribunals. The reason for this trend remains open to interpretation. Some interpret this as employees ‘jumping on the bandwagon’ following

recent test cases, and seeing legislation as a remunerative way out of work. A cynical or realistic view, I wonder?

## **Stress management**

The old maxim ‘prevention is better than cure’ is simple but true: finding the right person for the right job is the first step in reducing the potential for stress in an organisation.

Warr (1987) identified job features that are considered as being responsible for reducing employee stress:

- utilisation of skills and ability to make decisions about work;
- balanced work demands;
- work variability, challenge and adequate training;
- environmental clarity – organisational information and feedback;
- fair and adequate pay;
- working conditions that are pleasant, safe and secure;
- interpersonal support;
- sense of making a contribution to society.

Sick absence, together with other indicators, has for a long time been seen as a symptom of organisational illness. Identification and recognition of stress within the workplace helps to address effective interventions. Implementing stress audits using a range of techniques – questionnaires, psychometric measures and focus groups – it is possible to assess the levels of stress experienced in a particular organisation. This information can be used to influence and change work practices.

Whatever the causes of workplace stress, whether it is the organisational culture, changing psychological contracts, role ambiguity or the way the job is organised, for many there still remains a stigma attached to this area of work. Many struggle on without seeking help until what started out as healthy stress – the desire to get up in the morning and achieve satisfaction in work life – begins to manifest itself in serious mental and physical problems. It is at this point that the workplace counsellor is likely to be involved.

## **Summary**

An organisation has a will and life of its own; it is an organic being with a unique personality. Often people view the organisation as a single entity – ‘the

company' or 'the department' – as though it were separate from them, disconnected from them as human beings. It is essential for counsellors to recognise the culture and dynamics of the organisation with which they work in order to be aware of its potential impact on their ability to perform their role.

Opportunities for intervention in organisations are abundant but counsellors are not immune to changing work practices, particularly when counsellors, like many of their clients, face increasing uncertainty. This could undermine their sense of autonomy and leave them feeling less convinced about the impact of their interventions. It is important therefore for workplace counsellors to be aware of the potential for parallel processes to occur.

In this opening chapter I have attempted to acknowledge the internal, often hidden, demands of organisations, which place constraints on how staff counsellors operate and can add extra pressure onto their role. I have also sought to acknowledge the external forces, such as technological, social and political change, which affect the way organisations behave. The next chapter will look at some of the issues to consider in organisations and their implications for a counselling role.

# INDEX

- absence: as stress indicator 25  
Adams, J. 185  
addiction 202  
Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) 202  
age: discrimination 144  
Aldrich, H. E. 13  
alienation 193  
anger: corporate anxiety 192  
authority: problems dealing with 30  
anxiety: corporate-level 192–3; and defence mechanisms 191; structured 193
- Bain, A. 193  
Balbernie, R.: 'Inadmissible Evidence' 130  
Bamforth, K. W. 7  
Beck, A. T. 109  
behavioural approach: transference 117, 118  
Bell, C. H. 172  
Bell, G. D. 3  
bereavement: cultural differences 152; time-limited counselling 200  
Biestek, F. P. 62  
bioenergetics approach 118  
Bion, W. R. 129, 194  
Blackler, F. 5  
Bond, T. 93  
Bowlby, J. 82; transference 113; using intuition 225  
brief therapy 200–1; solution-focused 201  
British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy (BACP): confidentiality 39; power relations 139; on record keeping 71; supervision of counsellors 235; task of counselling 28
- Brodsky, A. 237  
Brown, D. 121  
Buddhism 152  
bullying: challenging organisations 24; conditions 15; survival culture 12, 13–15; vulnerable groups 14  
burn-out: of counsellors 236–9  
Butcher, J. 199
- Carroll, M. 70  
change management: attitudes and communication 182–3; coping with innovation 7–8; reactions to 185–6; stages of experiencing 187–91; stifling 184; and stress 23; tensions and energies of 183–4  
Children's Act (1989): and confidentiality 37  
Clarkson, P. 137, 229  
Cleese, John: *Families and How to Survive Them* (with Skinner) 111–12  
*Client Centered Therapy* (Rogers) 117  
client-centred counselling: transference 117, 118  
clients 31–3; cancelled appointments 93; common needs of 57; diagnosis and assessment 72–3; disclosure and defence 90–3; domiciliary visits 67–8; ending the relationship 97–100; first contact with 68–9, 77–9; groups 76; interaction with counsellor 60–2; motivations of 57–9; planning and tasks 94–5; resistance 59–60; seeking help 55–7; *see also* employees; individuals; transference and countertransference  
cognitive behaviour therapies: goals 94; transference 118  
Cohen, M. 214

- communication: with difference and diversity 160–3; facilitates tasks 7; in groups 209, 210–11, 212–14
- confidentiality 174, 177; changing concepts of 37; contracts for 41–2; disclosure 39–40; and evaluation 70; interaction in therapy 61; and the law 37–9; reports 89
- conflict and confrontation: challenging projection 133–4; group confrontation 210; professional role of counsellors 33–6; and roles 20
- consultancy and advisory services 174
- continuing professional development (CPD) xiv
- contracts: with clients 73–6; and confidentiality 41–2; as counsellors 73
- Cooper, C. 24, 70
- corporate abuse 16–17
- corporate anger 192
- corporate defense mechanisms 192
- corporate level anxiety 192–3
- Corsini, R. J. 224–5
- counsellors: attitudes and motivation 52–5; burn-out 236–9; characteristics of 55; contribution to process 78; co-working 206; development of 177–8; emotional involvement 105–8; equilibrium and perspective 239–40; experience and development 230–2; as group facilitators 206–8, 213–14; interaction with clients 60–2; matching for gender and culture 164–6; and the outside world 228–30; as people 223–4; personal development 232–4; personal therapy 236; professional role 33–6; recruitment and selection 219–20; roles of 46–7; as scapegoat 194–6; self-awareness 222–3, 224; self-disclosure 134–7; setting limits 108–10; supervision 234–6; training 87–8, 220–2; *see also* transference and countertransference
- crisis counselling: time-limited counselling 200, 205–6
- Critical Incident Stress Debriefing (CISD) 205–6
- culture: cross-cultural differences 151–3; matching counsellors and clients 164–6; of organisations 10–13; questioning 12; survival 12–18; thriving 18
- D'Ardenne, P. 153
- Dare, C. 73
- DASIE model 65
- Data Protection Act (1988) 71, 87
- Davies, D. 154
- De Board, R. 30
- De Shazer, S. 201
- De Vries, E. R. 11
- debriefing 205–6
- decision-making: of clients 61; clients' needs 57; groups 209
- defence mechanisms 91–3; bewildered organisations 193–6; of counsellors 223; dependency 192–3; fight or flight 192; of organisations 191–2; projection 127–34; reactions to change 187, 189, 190; wishful thinking 193
- depression 192
- disability 151, 155–6
- Disability Discrimination Act (1995) 37, 155, 200; disclosure 40
- Disability Rights Commission 151
- discrimination 142; and confidentiality 37; counsellors' responsibilities 150–1; disability 155–6; historical context 143–5; legislation against 143–4; prejudice 149–50; and religion 156–8; sexuality 153–5
- diversity: context of 146–9; counsellors' own backgrounds 158–60; cultural differences 151–3; issues of 142–3; language of difference 160–3; managing 144–5; matching counsellors and clients 164–6; in therapeutic relationship 160; transference 163–4; *see also* discrimination; ethnicity and race; harassment
- Dryden, W. 201
- Durkin, W. G. 70
- E-listening 205
- Edelwich, J. 237
- education and training: of counsellors 220–2, 225; as organisational experience 5; for organisational

- staff 174–5; personal development for counsellors 232–4
- Egan, G. 64–5, 223
- Eleftheriadou, Z. 147, 151, 165
- emotions: within organisations 4–5
- empathy 55; balancing 106–7; working with diversity 161
- Employee Assistance Programmes (EAPs) xiv, 2, 166, 174; counsellors' reports 36; external provision of counselling 29; telephone counselling 203
- employees: flexible employment 19; and identity 6; legal aspects 241–2; organisational problems 175–6; *see also* clients; individuals
- Employment Rights Act (1996) 242
- employment tribunals 24–5, 241–2; counsellors as witnesses 35
- Employment Tribunals Act (1996) 242
- Erikson, Erik H. 232
- ethics: confidentiality 37–42; diversity 150–1; roles of counsellors 33–6
- ethnicity and race: bullying 14; challenging discrimination 24–5; counsellors' own 158–60; definition and cultural context 146–9; three potential reactions to 163
- European Union 151
- Fairbairn, W. R. D. 89–90
- families: cultural norms 149; organisations as 179–80; religious conflicts 157
- Fay, A. 96
- Feltham, C. 201
- Fernando, S. J. M. 146
- Fincham, R. 44
- Fineman, S. 4, 6, 194; culture of organisations 10
- Firth, J. 30
- Foulkes, S. H. 108
- French, J.: types of power 44
- French, W. L. 172
- Freud, Sigmund: analyst as mirror 135; countertransference 119; super ego 4; transference 111
- George, E. 201
- Gershenfeld, M. K. 210
- Gestalt approach 118
- goals: of groups 209; process-based contract 75–6; setting with clients 93–4; short-term therapies 199–202; visualization 96–7
- groups: attributes of success 208–9; emotions and intervention 214–18; facilitating 206–8, 213–14; stages of 209–12; structural components 207; termination of 212
- Handy, Charles: freedom for employees 18; stress and strain 19–20
- harassment 142; legal obligations 150–1
- Harrison, R.: types cultures 11
- Hawkins, P. 107
- Hawthorne Experiment 29
- Helman, C. 147
- helping process *see* intervention; therapy
- Highley, J. C. 70
- homosexuality 153–5, 158
- humanistic existential approach 64; therapists' self-disclosure 135; transference 117
- identity: and work 6
- individuals: *versus* community 152; influence of organisations 5; life stages 30; and organisational culture 11; within organisations 18–19; personhood of counsellors 223–4; reactions to change 185–6, 187–91
- industrial tribunals *see* employment tribunals
- Ingham, Harry 222
- insecurity 29
- internet: E-listening 205
- intervention: bewildered organizations 193–6; in burn-out 238–9; change management 182–91; defence mechanisms 191–3; listening to the organisation 171–2; organisational opportunities 172–3; organisations as clients 175–8; systems approach 178–82
- interviews: types of 30–1
- Investors in People (IIP) xiv
- Islamic cultures 152

- Jacques, Elliott 18–19  
 Jewish culture 152  
 job development 30  
 Johari Window 223–4  
 Jung, Carl G. xiii, 131  
 Juran, J. 173
- Kagan, N. 69  
 Kanter, Rosabeth Moss 154;  
   organisational change 184  
 Kareem, J. 140, 151; on transference 164  
 Karpman triangle 146  
 Kelnar, J. 111, 114  
 Kennedy, E. 107  
 Klein, Mavis 146  
 Klein, Melanie: projective identification  
   128  
 knowledge: objective and subjective 53–4  
 Koss, M. 199
- Lago, C. 159  
 Lawrence (Stephen) enquiry 143  
 Lazarus, A. 96  
 legal aspects: confidentiality 37–9;  
   contracts for counsellors 42; diversity  
   issues 150–1; individual and collective  
   241; record keeping 70–1; tribunals  
   241–2; witnessing at tribunals 35  
 life skills 65  
 Limentani, A. 165  
 listening 61; art of 62–4; and disabled  
   clients 155; later reflection 85; to the  
   organisation 171–2; theory *versus*  
   practice 225; and transference 126–7  
 Littlewood, R. 147  
 Lowen, A. 137  
 Luft, Joe 222
- McClellan, K. 70  
 McLeod, J. 28  
 Mahtani, A. 153  
 Majoro, S. 184  
 Malan, D. H. 200–1  
 management: as clients 32; source of  
   stress 21  
 Marsella, A. 163  
 Masson, Jeffrey M. 140  
 mediation 202–3, 242  
 Medical Report Act (1998) 89
- Menzies, I. E. P. 193  
 Miller, Alice 139  
 Miller, E. J. 7  
 Mind survey on stress 23  
 Montagu, Sir Nicholas 149  
 Moorhouse, S. 147  
 motivation: of clients 57–9; and survival  
   culture 13  
 Murgatroyd, S. 164
- Napier, R. W. 210  
 Nelson-Jones, R.: DASIE model 65;  
   interviews 31  
 non-judgemental attitudes 55, 61  
 Noonan, E. 67
- objectivity: as therapeutic issue 105–8  
 Ogden, T. 129, 130  
 organisations: bewildered 193–6; as  
   clients 175–6; corporate abuse 16–17;  
   cultures of xv, 10–13, 24–5; defining  
   3–4; development 172–3; economic  
   uncertainty 17–18; emotions in 4–5;  
   as family system 32; influence on  
   individuals 5; internal problems 30;  
   long- and short-term systems approach  
   178–82; perceptions of counsellor  
   228–9; reactions to change 187–91;  
   and systems 6–10  
 organisational change 184
- Parkes, C. M. 82  
 Parkin, W. 5  
 Pedder, J. 121  
 Pedersen, P. 163  
 person-centred approach 94  
 personal development: of counsellors  
   232–4  
 personal life: and stress 23  
 personality development: psychodynamic  
   theory of 61  
 Peters, T. J. 11  
 Pincus, L. 73  
 Pokorny, M. 137, 229  
 politics: systems of 9–10; types of  
   power 44  
 Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)  
   205

- power relations 230; counsellors' role 42–5; culture of 11; political systems 9–10; in therapy 138–40; types of 44
- Prevention of Terrorism Act (1989) 37
- Proctor, B. 117
- projection: analyst as mirror 135; and bewildered organisations 194; challenging 133–4; containment 129–30; examples 126–7; identification 128–9; returning client's experiences 130–2; 'stuckness' 132–3
- psychodynamic approach 64, 118; analysis for therapists 236; in counselling xiii; family relations 82; personality development 61
- publicity: for counselling services 45–6
- Raphael, B. 206
- Raven, B.: types of power 44
- reality therapy: transference 116
- reflection: group reassessment 211
- relationships 33; in groups 209–12; organisational development and 172–3; organisational 'family' 179–80; personal 29
- religion: and discrimination 156–8
- respect 55, 230
- retirement: and work identity 6
- Reynolds, Bertha 230–1
- Rhodes, P. S. 44
- Rice, A. K. 7
- risk: domiciliary visits 68; in relationships 107
- Rogers, Carl R.: *Client Centered Therapy* 117; resistance 59–60; risk in relationships 107; unconditional positive regard 55
- roles: ambiguity 19, 20; of counsellor 33–6; culture of 11; modern ambiguity 19; stress and strain 19–20
- Rosenfield, M. 205
- Rowan, J.: and countertransference 126; on self-disclosure 135; transference 117
- safety 23
- Salter, Mary D. 186; secure base 225–6
- Salzberger-Wittenberg, I. 125–6
- Samaritans: E-listening 205
- Sanderson, C. 202
- Schein, E. H.: on organisations 3–4
- self-determination 61
- self-esteem: low 56
- sexism *see* discrimination; harassment
- sexuality: abuse 202; counsellor–client relations 139; diversity and discrimination 153–5, 158; harassment 14; matching counsellors and clients 164–6
- Shimmin, S. 5
- Shoet, R. 107
- Siebert, A. 58
- Skyner, Robin 228; *Families and How to Survive Them* (with Cleese) 111–12
- Smith, R. 214
- Storr, Anthony: on self-disclosure 135
- stress: causes of 23–4; counsellor burn-out 236–9; debriefing 205–6; management of 25; and strain 19–20; understanding 21–2
- Sue, D. W. and Sue, D. 165
- suicide: and confidentiality 40
- supervision: of counsellors 234–6
- Sutherland, V. 24
- systems theory 178–82; open 8–9; within organisations 6–10; socio-technical 7–8
- tasks: culture of 11; planning and 94–7
- teamwork: organisational development and 172–3; *see also* groups
- telephone counselling 203–5
- terrorism 185
- therapy: brief 200–1; for counsellors 236; counsellors' self-disclosure 134–7; debriefing 205–6; developing the relationship 89–90; different approaches 64–5; disclosure and defence 90–3; end of process 97–100; ending sessions 82–5; evaluation 70; expectations 81–2; first session of 77–80; frequency and duration 76–7; goals 93–4; interaction of 60–2; Karpman triangle 146; listening 62–4; monitoring progress 69–70; notes and recordings 85–8; planning and actions 94–7; power relations 138–40; reflection 85; reports 88–9; a 'secure base' 225–6; short-term 198–202; subjectivity and objectivity 105–8;

- therapy – *continued*  
 telephone counselling 203–5; theory  
*versus* practice 224–8; therapeutic  
 alliance 51–2, 114; time-limited  
 199–200; and touch 137–8; *see also*  
 groups; intervention; transference and  
 countertransference
- Thompson, J. 159
- time-limited counselling (TLC) 199–200
- Total Quality Management (TQM) 173–4
- touch 137–8; cultural differences 152
- transference and countertransference:  
 being aware of 110; ‘classical’  
 countertransference 118–20; in  
 counselling relationship 112; cultural  
 diversity and 163–4; definition and  
 concept of 110–12; and listening  
 process 126–7; message in  
 countertransference 120–1; other  
 approaches to 116–18; positive and  
 negative 113–14, 125; process of  
 transference 114–16; self-monitoring  
 125–6; working with  
 countertransference 121–5
- traumatic events 205–6
- Trist, E. L. 7
- uncertainty: economic conditions 17–18;  
 source of stress 23
- visualization 96–7
- waiting lists 59
- Walton, M. 70
- Warr, P. 25
- Waterman, R. H. 11
- Wedding, D. 225
- Weiner, M. F. 76
- Wilson, J. P. 206
- Winnicott, D. W. 227
- wishful thinking 193
- women: bullying 14
- Worden, J. W. 200
- workplace: conditions for stress 23;  
 dynamics of 116; workload 20;  
*see also* employees
- workplace counselling 27–9; cancelled  
 appointments 93; client contracts  
 73–6; contracts and legal status 42;  
 development of xiii–xv, 2;  
 discrimination issues 145–6, 150–1;  
 external and internal 166; first  
 contact 68–9; influence and power  
 of counsellors 42–5; initial  
 referrals 80–1; internal and external  
 provision 29, 34; by other  
 professionals xvi; publicising  
 services 45–6; range of problems  
 29–30; record keeping 70–1; setting  
 for 66–8; theory *versus* practice  
 224–8; *see also* clients; counsellors;  
 organisations; therapy
- Yalom, I. D. 240