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TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION OF MIDWESTERN PUPIL PERSONNEL WORKERS.

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AN ANALYSIS OF CATALOGS AND OTHER PUBLISHED MATERIAL OF MAJOR MIDWEST INSTITUTIONS AND MATERIALS PROVIDED BY STATE DEPARTMENT AGENCY CONTACTS REVEALS THE FOLLOWING ABOUT THE TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION PATTERNS OF THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST, GUIDANCE COUNSELOR, SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKER, SPEECH CORRECTIONIST-AUDIOLOGIST, PUBLIC HEALTH WORKER, SCHOOL NURSE, AND SCHOOL PEDIATRICIAN--(1) INTERPROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS ARE NOT STRESSED, (2) EXPANSION OF PUPIL PERSONNEL SCHOOL SERVICES INCLUDES WORK WITH COMMUNITY AGENCIES AND PROVISION OF INSERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMS, (3) STANDARDS IN MOST PUPIL PERSONNEL PROFESSIONS ARE BEING RAISED BY UPGRADING PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION, (4) DIMENSIONS OF THE PUPIL PERSONNEL SHORTAGE MUST BE VIEWED IN TERMS OF THE QUALIFICATIONS SPECIFIED BY THE VARIOUS PROFESSIONAL POLICIES, (5) TRAINING IN EDUCATION IS BEING MINIMIZED, (6) THE STATUS OF SPECIFIC TRAINING IN THE SCHOOL IS REFLECTED IN STATE CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS, (7) GRADUATION AND CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS VARY, (8) LEVELS OF TRAINING REQUIRED VARY FOR EACH PUPIL PERSONNEL PROFESSION, AND (9) INTERNSHIPS ARE A FAIRLY UNIVERSAL REQUIREMENT. (PS)

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TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION OF MIDWESTERN PUPIL PERSONNEL WORKERS

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Research Report #2

IRCOPPS MIDWEST RESEARCH CENTER
FOR PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICE

Training and Certification of Midwestern Pupil Personnel Workers

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
1967

PREFACE

This report is part of a series of reports dealing with the activities of the IRCOPPS Midwest Research Center. A summary of these activities, along with a brief synopsis of the more significant research findings will be published in the Center's 1967 "Summary Status Report".

The present study was initiated by Dr. Richard Cutler in the spring of 1964. At that time, Dr. Cutler drew together a team of Research Assistants representing the various specialty areas. The Research Assistants and the areas for which they were responsible were:

Lora O'Connor -	School Psychologist
Ann Lyons -	Guidance Counselor
Albert Yonas -	School Social Worker
Darlene J. Maurer -	Speech Correctionist-Audiologist
Carol Lamphier -	School Nurse
James F. Haring -	School Pediatrician
	Public Health Worker

Each person was responsible for the collection and preliminary analysis of the data pertaining to his particular field. After the data were analyzed, each prepared a rough draft of results. The present report is based on those early materials.

Those who have also had a hand in preparing the report are: Sarah Lawser, Patricia Shanks, Carol Smith, and Barbara Stovall.

This study, then, is the work of no single person. Each made a significant contribution to the effort and thus each should share in the credit.

James A. Dunn, Director
Midwest Research Center

March, 1967

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
LIST OF TABLES		vi
	CHAPTERS	
I.	THE NATURE OF THE CERTIFICATION AND TRAINING STUDY	1
	A. Purpose of the Study	1
	B. Research Design	2
	C. General Trends Among the Pupil Personnel Professions	3
II.	THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST	12
	A. Introduction	12
	1. The Role of the School Psychologist	12
	2. A Summary of Recent Certification and Training Trends	15
	B. Training and Certification Patterns	16
	1. Research Design	16
	2. Problems Encountered in the Study	17
	3. Results: The Thirteen PhD Level Programs	19
	4. Results: The Twenty-four Sub-doctoral Level Programs	25
	5. Results: The Internship	31
	6. Results: State Certification Requirements	33
	C. Issues, Trends, and Implications	38
	D. References	41
III.	THE GUIDANCE COUNSELOR	42
	A. Introduction	42
	1. The Counselor's Role	42
	2. The Training and Certification of Counselors in the Past	45

		Page
	B. Training and Certification Patterns	46
	1. Research Design	46
	2. Results: Training Patterns	47
	3. Results: Certification Patterns	54
	C. Issues, Trends, and Implications	56
	1. The Influence of the 1958 National Defense Education Act	56
	2. Issues in Counselor Training and Certification	59
	3. Trends in Training and Certification	61
	D. References	63, 64
IV.	THE SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKER	65
	A. Introduction	65
	1. The Role of the School Social Worker	65
	2. Training of Social Workers in the Past	66
	B. Training and Certification Patterns	67
	1. Research Design	67
	2. Results	68
	C. Issues, Trends, and Implications	76
V.	THE SPEECH CORRECTIONIST-AUDIOLOGIST	79
	A. The Role of the Speech Correctionist-Audiologist	79
	B. Training and Certification Patterns	81
	1. Research Design	81
	2. Results: Training Patterns	81
	3. Results: Certification Patterns	84
	C. Issues, Trends, and Implications	86
	1. Trends in Training and Certification	86
	2. Issues in the Profession	87
	D. References	89

		Page
VI.	THE SCHOOL HEALTH WORKER	90
	A. The School Nurse	90
	1. Training and Certification Patterns - Research Design (90); Results: Training Patterns (91); Results: Certification Patterns (96).	90
	2. Issues, Trends, and Implications	97
	B. The School Pediatrician	100
	1. The Role of the Pediatrician	100
	2. Training and Certification Patterns - Research Design (101); Results (102).	101
	C. The Public Health Worker	106
	1. Training and Certification Patterns - Basic Coursework (107); Coursework in Public Health Practice (107); Subspecialty Coursework (108); Elective Coursework (108).	106
	2. Issues, Trends, and Implications	109
	D. References	111, 112

LIST OF TABLES

Page

Table 1. Distribution of PhD Requirements in School Psychology of Thirteen Schools and of the APA in Four Major Areas of Study and in Internships. 20

Table 2. Distribution of Semester Hours and Practicum Hours Required in Psychological Methods and Techniques Skill Areas in Thirteen Doctoral Programs of School Psychology. 23

Table 3. Distribution of Sub-doctoral Requirements in School Psychology of Twenty-three Schools and of the APA in Four Major Areas of Study and in Internships. 26, 27

Table 4. Distribution of "Semester Hours And Practicum Hours Required in Psychological Methods and Techniques Skill Areas in Twenty-three Sub-doctoral Programs in School Psychology 29

Table 5. Comparison of the Amount of Coursework Which must Be Taken in Specifically Required Courses in Thirteen Doctoral and Twenty-four Sub-doctoral Programs in School Psychology. 31

Table 6. Comparison of Internship Requirements of Thirteen Doctoral and Twenty-four Sub-doctoral Programs in School Psychology. . . 32

Table 7. Distribution of State Certification Requirements for School Psychologists and School Psychometrists 36, 37

Table 8. Summary of Teaching Experience and Certification as Requirements in Fifty-eight Secondary School Counselor Training Programs. 49

Page

Table 9. Distribution of Fifty-eight Schools' Master's Degree Requirements for Secondary School Counselors in Nine Basic Areas of Study. 51

Table 10. Distribution of Master's Degree Requirements in Fourteen Areas of Study Basic to the Casework Curriculum at Eighteen Midwestern Schools of Social Work 69

Table 11. Summary of Certification Requirements for School Social Workers in the Mid-western States. 72, 73

Table 12. Distribution of Requirements for a Bachelor's Degree in Speech Correction-Audiology in Forty-six Schools. 83

Table 13. Distribution of Courses of Study Offered for the preparation of School Nurses by Fifty-six Training Institutions. 95

Table 14. Distribution of Percent of Total Training Devoted to Basic Courses and Clinical Courses of Study in Twelve Medical Schools. 103

I. THE NATURE OF THE CERTIFICATION AND TRAINING STUDY

The Purpose of the Study

This study, initiated by Dr. Richard L. Cutler and completed under the supervision of the present Center Director, was a Center effort aimed at the clearer understanding of similarities and differences in the training and certification patterns for various pupil personnel workers--the school psychologist, guidance counselor, school social worker, speech correctionist-audiologist, public health worker, school nurse, and the school pediatrician. Priority was placed on this type of activity in order that the information derived from these efforts could be used in subsequent Center operations and research undertakings.

One of the aspirations of the Center is the development of a cooperative training program in which multiple disciplines would be represented. The program may then serve as a model for other universities contemplating revision of their pupil personnel service training programs. The Center's progress report of Spring-Summer, 1964, indicated, "We anticipate drawing together two major sources of data--namely, the study of present training patterns and philosophies, state

requirements, professional issues, etc. and the material on field functions--with a view to the group's utilizing this data for an extended consideration of field and institutional needs and activities." While the actual implementation of idealized training programs is formally beyond the bounds of the proposal on which the Center was established, preliminary work has already been conducted regarding the possibility of developing an integrated training program which would involve counselors, social workers, and school psychologists. The basic information source for the development of this experimental cooperative training program will be the present study on the preparation and certification of the various pupil personnel services.

Research Design

The study involved, first, a literature review and abstraction operation, and secondly, direct contact with State and University agencies. Catalogues, time schedules, and other published material of the major institutions in the Midwest area[1] were analyzed to ascertain the general

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[1]Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

training patterns for the various specialties. Later, the appropriate State Department agencies were contacted regarding certification of particular specialties. Whenever state certification programs existed in a field, certification policies were collected from the appropriate departments in the several states and were summarized and related to the actual training programs.

General Trends Among the Pupil Personnel Professions

Although unanimity was scarce, there were several trends to be noted in the pupil personnel professions themselves and in their training and certification patterns.

(1) Professional association policy statements did not strongly support interprofessional relationships. With the exception of the policy statement of the American School Counselor Association, in which the issue of interprofessional cooperation was specifically mentioned, the importance of this issue was inferred from statements not directly related to this issue.

(2) As the pupil personnel professions have become more independent, each has exhibited a tendency to expand. They are becoming active in working or consulting with vari-

ous community agencies and in directing in-service training programs. Expansion by any or all of the pupil personnel services is constrained, though, since many school personnel and parents believe the school's major concern should be the intellectual development of the child.

It is possible that, as a result of offering more comprehensive services, if the various pupil personnel professions perceive a diminished need for the support and aid of the other personnel services, the professions might move in a direction opposite to that of interprofessional cooperation. If cooperation is lacking, there may result further overlapping of services offered. Thus, the movements within each profession tending toward greater competency may result in diminished efficiency of the total pupil personnel team.

The trend toward expansion of services is not universal, though. Some members of at least one of the pupil personnel professions have recently been arguing in favor of further specialization--e.g., school mental health consultant, social psychologist, or specialist in school learning--rather than in favor of encompassing an increasing number of functions. The school psychology, counseling, social

work, and nursing professions recommended increasing their developmental-preventive roles and functions and decreasing their emphasis on diagnostic-remediation functions.

(3) A movement to raise standards in the pupil personnel professions by upgrading professional preparation requirements may be noted; this movement, however, is in force throughout most professional associations today. Within the pupil personnel professions it has generally been the case that changes in state certification requirements are prompted by recommendations and urgings of the professional organizations. Most state requirements were geared to, but fell behind, the recommendations of the major associations and organizations of the pupil personnel professions; the graduation requirements of the training institutions within a state generally paralleled the certification requirements for the state. Most of the reports included in the present study noted that the schools didn't match the requirements of the professional associations, however.

Some of the professions, i.e., counseling and guidance as well as speech correction and audiology, recognized what they hoped would be an additional benefit of any increase of training and certification requirements. They cited the

upgrading process as one of the major means by which they hoped to raise the status of their professional workers.

There is, however, a paradox inherent in this move toward increasing the professional preparation requirements of the pupil personnel services--as the professions raise their requirements, they are, in effect, restricting the number of specialists and professional workers. These restrictions are aggravating the supply problem; i.e., there is already a shortage of personnel in all the pupil personnel professions. Some members of these professions argued that increasing training requirements may lead to even more severe shortages than now exist.

(4) The dimensions of the pupil personnel shortage must be viewed in terms of the qualifications specified by the various professions in their respective statements of policy. For example, in one report it was noted that most persons operating in schools today, although they may generally go by the title School Psychologist, would not be considered psychologists by the definition of the American Psychology Association. Most, however, meet qualifications for Psychological Examiner or Psychometrist. The members of the school psychology profession recommended the provisional em-

ployment of semi-trained individuals as a measure to help minimize the adverse effects of the shortage of fully trained, qualified school psychologists. This recommendation was made not only as an emergency measure, but also because the members of the profession felt there are some psychological services that can be provided satisfactorily by people with less training than that considered essential for a school psychologist.

(5) In most of the reports there were indications of a tendency to minimize training in education. The National Association of Social Workers, for example, does not require teacher training and teacher experience as necessary prerequisites for school social work. It was argued that training in social work is applicable to any setting, including the schools. Many schools of social work don't offer specific programs preparing students for employment in public schools. Similarly, the American Speech and Hearing Association stated that the speech correctionist's specific responsibilities include diagnosis and therapeutic service, not the teaching of curricular materials and therefore, a speech correctionist does not need a teaching certificate for employment within a public school.

(6) The status of specific training in the school setting is reflected in state certification requirements. The trend seems to be toward requiring <u>either</u> teacher training (experience) <u>or</u> training that leads to an understanding of how the professional worker best functions in schools. For the most part, states included alternative means for satisfying general requirements intended to insure familiarity with schools and the education process. For example, only one of the Midwestern states included in this study required school experience of any sort as a prerequisite for certification as a school social worker.

The report on nursing training and certification pointed out that few course requirements or elective course offerings have been related to <u>school</u> health practice in the institutions that train the members of the public health and nursing professions. The recent recommendations of the public health and nursing professions to offer training preparatory to possible employment in a school setting will enforce the emerging consultant role the school nurse is beginning to have on school health practices.

Within the pediatrics profession, the implication seems to be that general medical preparation and specialty training in pediatrics insures adequate functioning of a pediatrician,

regardless of the setting in which he practices. Only one instance of the inclusion of education coursework in the training of pediatricians was cited in the pediatrics report, and that was mention of a short in-service training period required of all newly employed pediatricians by the New York City school system.

(7) There was a wide variation in the graduation requirements of the various schools. Some schools seem to have patterned their requirements after the state certification requirements; whereas other schools seem to have established their own standards of training. Although specific data were not included for all the pupil personnel reports, it seems fairly clear that the state requirements were as stringent and comprehensive as the requirements for graduation or completion of a program in the schools located in that state. The variation among the programs qualifying the school nurse included Bachelor of Science degree (four years of study required), a nursing diploma (three years of study required), and a nursing certificate (two years of study required).

(8) Certification requirements among the Midwestern states exhibited wide variation. Only seven of the thirteen Midwestern states, for example, had any certification re-

quirements for their school social workers. Two of these states, Illinois and Pennsylvania, had only one level of certification. Four of the states--Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Indiana--had upper and lower level certification. Ohio's certification requirements included three levels of certification--provisional, professional, and permanent. Variation may exist, aside from those standards published in state documents, within university training standards or within exceptions occurring in the temporary certification programs. Such a divergence of requirements among the Midwestern states was reported for the other pupil personnel professions as well.

(9) Not only was there a wide variety of state certification requirements within a single profession, but there was also a wide variety among the various pupil personnel professions in the levels of training required. Within speech correction and audiology it was possible, and generally the case, that the level of training required for certification was a baccalaureate degree. On the other hand, certification as a school psychologist required a PhD in psychology in many states. Most state requirements for social workers, guidance counselors, and public health workers

specified a master's degree. The school pediatrician, although not certified by the state boards of education, was required by state medical boards to have about six years of medical training beyond his undergraduate degree. There were no states requiring state board of education certification for school nurses.

(10) Some school requirements, e.g. Trinity University (Texas), were more stringent than state requirements.

(11) Fairly prevalent among the school requirements and policy statements of the pupil personnel professions were changes (or recommendations there be changes) in required as well as elective coursework in "related" fields. There seems to be a general movement toward broadening the base of training, toward including coursework in the behavioral sciences, particularly in psychology.

(12) Internships or practical experience training seemed to be a fairly universal requirement of the training institution of the various pupil personnel professions. Practical experience did not, however, seem to be as universal a requirement among the various state certification requirements.

(13) Finally, it may be observed that those states currently lacking certification requirements seem to be moving toward establishing requirements.

II. THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST

Introduction

The Role of the School Psychologist

School psychology had its beginning in the United States in 1893 when Witmer established his Psychological Clinic at the University of Pennsylvania (Gray, 1963b). The primary source of referrals for the clinic was the Philadelphia Public School System and, indeed, the Clinic was established, in part, because of the direct need of that system for psychological service. Detroit, Chicago, Cleveland, New York, and several other major cities soon followed suit so that by the early part of the twentieth century psychological clinics, attached to major metropolitan public school systems, were quite common (Dunn, 1965a). Historically speaking, then, school psychology has been and still is primarily concerned with child-clinical psychology. There is, however, a new trend in contemporary education in general, and in school psychology in particular. With the increasing affluence of our society and with the growing public awareness of the importance of education, educators are now turning more and more to psychology for help not only in the areas of diag-

nosis and remediation, but also for help in program development, preventive mental health service, curriculum improvement, public relationships, personnel practices, and much more. As a result many systems which now use the services of clinical school psychologists are also beginning to utilize the services of developmental, experimental, and social school psychologists (Dunn, 1965b).

The general image of school psychology today, however, still remains that of clinical school psychology, which has as its focus, diagnosis and remediation or remedial consultation.

In 1964 the APA Thayer Conference on School Psychology (Cutts, 1955) defined a school psychologist as "a psychologist (PhD) with training and experience in education." His purpose was to use "his specialized knowledge of assessments, learning, and inter-personal relationships to assist school personnel, to enrich the experience and growth of all children, and to recognize and deal with exceptional children." The major functions of a school psychologist, according to the conference, were 1) the measurement and interpretation of intellectual, social, and emotional development of children, 2) the identification of exceptional children and

collaboration in the planning of educational and social placements and programs for those children, 3) the development of ways to facilitate the learning and adjustment of children, 4) the encouragement and the utilization of existent research findings for the solution of school problems, 5) the diagnosis of educational and personal disabilities, and 6) the planning of remedial and re-educational programs.

Most persons operating in schools today, although they generally go by the title School Psychologist, would not actually be considered psychologists by the above definition. The general APA position is that the title School Psychologist should be used only for those individuals pcssessing a valid Doctor's degree in pscyhology or educational psychology. The title of "Psychologist Assistant" was suggested for those with less than provisional status but who have more than 45 semester hours of graduate training plus 350 clock hours of supervised experience. The APA recommendations were that Psychological Assistants should be employed only under the supervision of qualified school psychologists.

In summary, it should be noted that: a) the need for psychologists and/or psychometricians is great, b) the ma-

jority of people generally called school psychologists are really in fact psychological examiners or psychochometricians, c) their general role is still one of diagnosis and/or psychological assessment, and d) their primary function is one of consultation and referral rather than on-line remediation.

A Summary of Recent Certification and Training Trends

The APA Division of School Psychology committee on training and certification standards has recently published its recommendations (APA, 1963). Recognizing that graduate programs tend to be geared, at least minimally, to the respective state requirements, the committee recommended its suggestions be viewed as standards for state certification of psychologists working in public schools. Briefly,

1. School psychologists are dually oriented professionals whose training needs to be well founded in both education and psychology.
   A. These competencies require at least the education represented by a doctoral degree of three years graduate training.
   B. Either teacher training or a program of training in school psychology can provide an understanding

of how the psychologist best functions in schools.

2. Individuals who have completed two-thirds of their doctoral work might be provisionally employed.
3. There are psychological services that can be provided satisfactorily by people with less training than that considered essential for a school psychologist.

For provisional certification the committee recommended at least 24 semester hours of theoretical-experimental psychology (Psychological Foundation) of which 6 hours may be undergraduate, 27 hours of clinical psychology (Methods and Techniques) of which 6 hours may be undergraduate, 18 hours of education (Educational Foundations and School Organization) of which 6 hours may be undergraduate, and 9 hours of electives at the graduate level; plus one semester of full-time supervised field experience (525 clock hours), at least 50% of which must be in a public school system.

Training and Certification Patterns

Research Design

The task of this investigation was to explore the training facilities and certification practices in fourteen Mid-

western states. So that the programs could be evaluated in terms of existing norms, the areas of study and distribution requirements suggested by the Division of School Psychology's report were used as the comparative criteria.

Information regarding the various training programs in these states was obtained from colleges and universities offering training programs in school psychology. Information regarding the certification requirements of teachers and school psychologists were obtained from state certification agencies. Doctoral and sub-doctoral programs were examined separately. The final sample included thirteen doctoral and twenty-four sub-doctoral programs.

As it was not possible to ascertain what courses were specifically labeled "electives," this category was not coded. This may be an unfortunate dicision, since the other four major categories account for only 85% of the total program suggested by the APA.

Problems Encountered in the Study

Certain difficulties quickly became evident. Some schools, for example, did not state specific requirements. Although these schools may have had many courses available

in all areas of study, and although it is highly likely that students follow plans of study similar to those in schools where specific requirements are spelled out, it was not possible to arrive at any conclusions regarding the degree to which they did or did not meet the recommended standards. For example, perhaps it can be assumed that a person planning to work in the field of school psychology will choose to take a course in intelligence testing; however, five universities did not list this course as a specific requirement in their doctoral programs.

In some instances, it was necessary to translate quarter hours into semester hours. This process may have resulted in a loss of accuracy.

Whereas some schools provided detailed mimeographed descriptions of their program's requirements, others did not. This made it necessary to collect the necessary information from the general college bulletins. In these cases, information, such as total number of hours required for the degree, had to be inferred from possibly incomplete or imprecise information.

Names and descriptions of courses varied from school to school. Decisions regarding the coding of courses in the

four categories were necessarily based on somewhat subjective interpretation.

Some school bulletins listed courses in areas pertinent to school psychology, but when contacted by letter, they either stated that they had no programs in these areas or they failed to respond. These omissions left some doubt about the completeness of the final sample.

Finally, it was impossible to evaluate variations in the quality of the programs, though an attempt was made to assess the breadth of the programs by examining the number of course hours available in the four major areas.

Results: The Thirteen PhD Level Programs

In some instances the brochures stated a general philosophy and set of goals which a given university hoped that its program would fulfill. Although there were differences, the goals set for these programs tended to be comprehensive. In general, they hoped to produce competent psychologists who are knowledgeable about educational theory and practice. They expected their graduates' skills to enable them to exert influence in all areas of education, through the application of psychological principles and through research. An evaluation of the degree to which the various school attain their

TABLE 1

Distribution of PhD Requirements in School Psychology
of Thirteen Schools and of the APA in Four Major Areas of Study and in Internships

School	Semester Hours Required in the Four Major Areas of Study				Total Sem. Hours Req. in the Maj. Areas of study	Semester Hrs. of Specif. Required Courses[a]	Total Sem. Hr. Required for a Degree	Clock Hours Req. in Intern.
	Psych. Foundat.	Meth. & Technique	Educat. Foundat.	Sch. Org. & Program				
Chicago, U. of	0	0	0	0	0	0	60	500
Illinois, U. of	24 (35)[b]	32 (47)	4 (06)	8 (12)	58 (100)	88 (44)	68	1000
Indiana St. U.	11 (17)	17 (25)	0	7 (11)	35 (53)	47 (70)	67	-
Indiana U.	11 (17)	24 (39)	12 (20)	15 (24)	62 (100)	47 (76)	52	1000
Iowa, U. of	30 (33)	32 (35)	6 (05)	18 (20)	86 (93)	0	90	-
Michigan St. U.	11 (17)	11 (17)	0	6 (09)	28 (43)	18 (27)	66	-
Michigan, U. of	24 -	0	2 -	2 -	28 -	8 -	-	-
Minnesota, U. of	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1000
Nebraska, U. of	18 (32)	24 (37)	0	17 (31)	56 (100)	56 (100)	56	-
Northwestern U.	10 (14)	4 (06)	6 (08)	0	20 (28)	20 (28)	72	-
Ohio St. U.	13 (14)	18 (20)	0	4 (04)	35 (38)	30 (33)	90	1000
Penn State U.	18 (28)	27 (42)	0	0	46 (77)	45 (70)	64	1000
Wisconsin, U. of	0	9 (15)	0	0	9 (15)	9 (15)	60	-
Mean[c]	15 (19)	18 (26)	-[d] -[d]	7 (10)	40 (58)	38 (42)	69[e]	-[d]
Standard Dev.[c]	8 (12)	11 (15)	- -	7 (11)	23 (37)	19 (35)	11	
APA Minimum	18 (30)	21 (35)	4 (7)	8 (13)	51 (85)	- -	60	500

[a] This column represents only the number of hours in specifically required courses. Other courses must be elected to fill out the appropriate distribution.

[b] Figures in parentheses refer to the percentage of effort required to be devoted to each particular area of study. Percentages are not computed for the University of Michigan, since there is no requirement regarding the total semester hours required for a degree.

[c] Universities of Chicago and Minnesota are not included in the tabulation.

[d] Insufficient number to compute a mean.

[e] Universities of Minnesota and Michigan are not included in the tabulation.

goals was not a purpose of this study; however, some discrepancies between these goals and the requirements established to implement the goals will be noted.

An examination of Table 1 will show the percentage of total work required in the four basic areas of study, as classified by the APA (See Page 20). The courses listed are those minimally required for obtaining a degree. The Universities of Chicago and Minnesota had no distribution requirements at all; four universities (31%) required that less than 50% of the coursework be taken within these four areas; and four schools (31%) required that 90% or more of the student's total program be selected from among these four areas of study.

It should be noted that only two of the schools included in the study actually enumerated more than 75% of the specific courses to be taken. Over half of the schools stated less than 50% of the specific coursework to be taken for a PhD in school psychology.

Disregarding the two schools with no distribution requirements, one can see in Table 1 that the average requirement of these thirteen doctoral programs fell slightly short of the APA recommendations in the basic areas.

Thirty-eight percent of the programs were at or above the APA recommended requirements in the areas of Psychological

Methods and Techniques and Psychological Foundations; and, thirty-one percent of the programs were at or above the APA recommended requirements in the areas of Educational Foundations and School Organization and Program.

Despite the fact that three of the schools (23%) required the student's total program of studies be within the four major areas, it is very possible in the other schools, where students have more choice, that they do take more work in each of the four areas than is minimally required. Of the eight schools having requirements in School Organization and Programs, only three schools (23% of the sample) had very extensive requirements. In these schools the requirements in this area almost double the APA recommendations, and, in one instance the requirements were more than double those of the APA recommendations. This seems to indicate that in some schools the study of problem areas encountered on the job (e.g., the education of handicapped children, remedial classes, the general school curriculum) is considered to be a very vital part of the preparation of school psychologists. Despite the frequently stated goal of "competency in educational philosophy and techniques" it was interesting to note that only five of the thirteen schools (38%) required work in the area of Educational Foundations. Four of the schools' requirements were at or above those suggested by the APA.

TABLE 2

Distribution of Semester Hours and Practicum Hours Required in Psychological Methods and Techniques Skill Areas in Thirteen Doctoral Programs of School Psychology

	Intel. Testing	Personal. Testing	Couns. & Psychoth.	Stat. & Res. Meths.	Special Testing	Total
Chicago, U. of	-	-	-	-	-	0
Illinois, U. of	8 (4)[b]	4 -	4 -	12	4	32
Indiana State U.	9 (3)	3	-	-	2	14[a]
Indiana U.	8 (2)	8 (2)	2 -	6	-	24
Iowa, U. of	-	-	-	-	-	0[a]
Michigan State U.	-	-	4 -	7	-	11
Michigan, U. of	-	-	-	8	-	8
Minnesota, U. of	-	-	-	-	-	0
Nebraska, U. of	6 (3)	-	9 (3)	6	3	24
Northwestern U.	-	-	-	4	-	4
Ohio State U.	6 (2)	-	4 (2)	6	-	16[a]
Penn State U.	12 (6)	3 -	9 -	3	-	27
Wisconsin, U. of	6 (3)	3 -	-	-	-	9
APA Minimum	3	3	6	3	3	21[a]

[a]Although more semester hours were recommended in Psychological Methods and Techniques, not all courses were required to be within these specific areas.

[b]The practicum hours required are included in parentheses.

Since Psychological Methods and Techniques are of prime importance in the practice of school psychology, this area was divided into sub-headings showing the exact requirements for school psychologists in the various skill areas. Table 2 shows the number of hours required in doctoral level programs in these skill areas. For the most part, if a school had any requirements whitin the area of Psychological Methods and Techniques, the requirements were at or above those suggested as minimal by the APA. Comparison of the thirteen programs with the APA minimums showed that seven schools (53%) required three or more semester hours of coursework in intelligence testing; five schools (38%) required three hours or more in personality testing; two schools (16%) required six or more hours in personality testing; two schools (16%) required six or more hours in counseling, guidance or psychotherapy; eight schools (68%) required three or more hours in statistics and research methods; and two schools (16%) required three or more hours in special tests.

Again it should be mentioned that although all of the thirteen universities offered extensive lists of courses available in these areas, only the data from those schools which specified course requirements in these areas could be coded. It is quite likely that an informal system operates in cases where require-

ments were not specifically stated, and that "requirements" are set up and enforced by academic advisors within the framework of their contacts with their graduate students.

Results: The Twenty-four Sub-doctoral Level Programs

Gray (1963b) pointed out that most non-doctoral training programs for school psychologists tend to center around the meeting of state certification requirements. She also noted that most states will certify, at least at some level, a person with an MA or two years of graduate work. The state requirements at this level reflect a view of the school psychologist's job as being primarily concerned with the testing and placement functions. The nature of the twenty-four programs included in this study appear to substantiate these opinions.

An examination of the goals stated in the brochures of some of the sub-doctoral programs showed, for the most part, the schools quite frankly stating that they prepare students to meet state requirements for certification. In instances where a more detailed statement of objectives was given, it did tend to emphasize the testing and placement functions. In contrast to the comprehensive, broadly-defined objectives described by the PhD programs, statements describing the sub-doctoral programs in this sample recognized the limitations of the training provided. For example, although there was a considerable

TABLE 3

Distribution of Sub-doctoral Requirements in School Psychology
of Twenty-three Schools and of the APA in Four Major Areas of Study and in Internships

School	Semester Hours Required in the Four Major Areas of Study				Total Sem. Hours Req. in Major Areas of Study	Semester Hours of Speci. Required Courses	Total Sem. Hr. Required for a Degree	Clock Hours Req. in Intern.	Teach. Cert Req.
	Psych. Foundat.	Meth. & Techn.	Educat. Foundat.	Sch. Org. & Prog.					
Akron, U. of	13 (30)	15 (34)	0 (20)	7 (16)	44 (100)	44 (100)	44	1000	Yes
Ball St. Teach. Col.	9 (26)	18 (51)	0	00	27 (77)	13 (37)	33	1000.	Opt.
Bowling Green St. U.	12 (32)	15 (40)	0	6 (16)	33 (88)	20 (53)	38	1000	Yes
Butler Univ.	6 (16)	18 (50)	9 (25)	3 (08)	36 (100)	36 (100)	36	Req.[c]	No
Cincinnati, U. of	8 (33)	14 (58)	0	2 (09)	24 (100)	15 (63)	24	1000	Yes
Ill. St. Normal	3 (11)[b]	15 (54)	0	0	18 (65)	18 (64)	28	-	-
Indiana St. Col.	8 (22)	14 (38)	0	4 (11)	26 (71)	26 (70)	37	0	Opt.
Indiana Univ.	6 (15)	18 (46)	6 (15)	9 (24)	39 (100)	21 (54)	39	0	No
Iowa, State U.	17 (30)	19 (35)	2 (05)	11 (20)	49 (90)	0	55	-	No
Kent State U.	15 (34)	15 (34)	0	14 (32)	44 (100)	44 (100)	44	1000	Yes
Miami Univ.	9 (25)	18 (50)	0	3 (08)	30 (83)	12 (33)	36	1000	Yes
Michigan State U.	8 (22)	22 (60)	0	6 (18)	36 (100)	14 (39)	36	500	Opt.
Michigan, U. of	16 (44)	12 (33)	0	0	28 (77)	12 (33)	36	500	Opt.
Minnesota, U. of	22 (34)	23 (35)	2 (03)	18 (28)	65 (100)	40 (63)	63	0	No
Nebraska, U. of	12 (33)	18 (50)	0	6 (17)	36 (100)	36 (100)	36	0	Yes
Ohio State U.	8 (27)	15 (60)	0	4 (13)	27 (100)	20 (67)	30	1000	Yes
Ohio Univ.	8 (25)	16 (50)	0	2 (06)	26 (81)	14 (44)	32	1000	Yes
Omaha, U. of	6 (17)	9 (25)	0	0	15 (42)	15 (42)	36	0	No
Purdue Univ.	15 (43)	11 (31)	0	9 (26)	35 (100)	15 (43)	35	0	Opt.

TABLE 3 (Cont'd)

Distribution of Sub-doctoral Requirements in School Psychology of Twenty-three Schools and of the APA in Four Major Areas of Study and in Internships

School	Semester Hours Required in the Four Major Areas of Study				Total Sem. hours Req. in Maj. Areas of Study	Semester Hours of Specif. Required Courses	Total Sem. Hr. Required for a Degree	Clock Hours Req. in Intern.	Teach. Cert. Req.
	Psych. Foundat.	Meth. & Techn.	Educat. Foundat.	Sch. Org. & Prog.					
Toledo, U. of	8 (24)	14 (44)	10 (27)	2 (05)	34 (100)	10 (29)	34	1000	Yes
Wayne State U.	26 (43)	20 (33)	0	14 (24)	60 (100)	60 (100)	60	0	Opt.
Western Michigan	8 (27)	12 (40)	0	6 (20)	26 (87)	26 (87)	30	250	Yes
Wisconsin, U. of	0	9 (88)	0	0	9 (38)	9 (38)	24	Req.[c]	No
Mean	11 (27)	16 (48)	-[d]	5 (13)	33 (87)	23 (59)	38	-[d]	
Standard Dev.	6 (11)	3 10		5 10	13 20	14 28	10		
APA Minimum	18 (30)	21 (35)	4 (07)	8 (13)	51 (85)				

Note.—The University of Chicago was included in the survey but was not included in the table since no course requirements were stated.

[a]This column represents only the number of hours in specifically required courses. Other courses must be elected to fill out the appropriate distribution.

[b]Figures in parentheses refer to the percentage of effort required to be devoted to each particular area of study.

[c]Internship is required, but the number of clock hours that are required was not ascertainable from the available information.

[d]Insufficient number to compute mean.

range within each area, even among schools preparing students for certification in the same state, Table 3 shows that, on the average, the twenty-three sub-doctoral programs (University of Chicago omitted) conformed quite closely to the percentages of the APA recommended schema. These sub-doctoral programs placed a great deal of emphasis on the Methods and Techniques area. A greater proportion of the total sub-doctoral program was study within this area than in either the APA recommendations or the PhD programs. In skill areas specifically associated with the school psychologist's work, certain minimum requirements seem fairly universal. In theoretical backgroumd, however, requirements varied from one or two courses to as many as six or seven. Great variations can also be seen in the area of School Organization and Program. Ten of the twenty-four schools (50%) required three hours of coursework or less, while only six of the twenty-four schools (25%) required more than eight hours (APA minimum). Only six of the schools (25%) had any requirements in Educational Foundations; however, ten (42%) required a teacher's certificate as aprt of the training for school psychology, while a teacher's certificate was optional in an additional six schools (25%). Figures indicate that twenty (85%) of these schools did have a provision that insures some background in Educational Foundations.

TABLE 4

Distribution of Semester Hours and Practicum Hours Required in Psychological Methods and Techniques Skill Areas in Twenty-three Sub-doctoral Programs in School Psychology

	Intel. Testing	Personal. Testing	Couns. & Psychoth.	Stat. & Res. Meths.	Special Testing	Total
Akron, U. of	4 (0)[a]	3	5 (3)	0	3	15
Ball St. T. Col.	6 (3)	0	9 (3)	3	0	18
Bowling Gr. S.U.	9 (0)	0	3 (0)	3	-	15
Butler Univ.	6 (3)	0	3 (0)	6	3	18
Cincinnati, U. of	8 (2)	0	2 (0)	2	2	14
Illinois St. U.	3 (0)	0	6 (3)	6	0	15
Indiana St. C.	9 (3)	0	0	0	5	14
Indiana U.	6 (3)	0	0	3	9	18
Iowa, St. U. of	0	0	0	0	0	19
Kent St. U.	3 (0)	3	4 (2)	3	2	15
Miami U.	6 (0)	0	3 (3)	3	6	18
Michigan St. U.	12 (6)	2	2 (0)	0	6	22
Michigan U. of	6 (3)	0	0	3	3	12
Minnesota, U. of	13 (5)	4	2 (0)	4	0	23
Nebraska, U. of	6 (3)	0	3 (0)	3	6	18
Ohio St. U.	6 (2)	0	4 (2)	3	2	15
Ohio U.	6 (0)	6	2 (0)	2	0	16
Omaha, U. of	3 (3)	0	0	3	3	9
Purdue Univ.	8 (3)	0	3 (0)	0	0	11
Toledo, U. of	8 (4)	0	2 (0)	2	2	14
Wayne State U.	8 (4)	7	2 (0)	0	3	20
Western Mich. U.	4 (2)	0	4 (2)	0	4	12
Wisconsin, U. of	6 (3)	3	0	0	0	9
Mean	6 (2)	1	3 (1)	2	3	16
APA Minimum	3	3	6	3	3	21[b]

Note.—The University of Chicago was included in the study, but it was not included in the table, since no course requirements were stated.

[a]The practicum hours required are included in parentheses.

[b]Although 21 semester hours are recommended in this area by the APA, only 18 were specified within these skill areas.

In Table 4 the number of hours required in the skill areas of Psychological Methods and Techniques can be seen in detail. In intelligence testing, stated requirements ranged from three semester hours to thirteen semester hours, and the mean number was more than twice the minimum suggested by the APA. Sixteen schools (67%) have a practicum course accompanying classwork in intelligence testing. It was surprising to note that, despite the usually stated testing and placement functions of sub-doctoral psychologists, seventeen programs (70%) had some requirements in the area of counseling and psychotherapy. Seven of these seventeen (41%) had a practicum course in counseling and psychotherapy as a requirement. By contrast, however, only seven (29%) of the schools required at least one course in personality testing. On the whole, there was less emphasis on statistics and research methods than at the doctoral level, although fifteen (62%) of these programs required one or more courses in this area.

An attempt was made to evaluate the degree of freedom a student was given in choosing his own schedule of study. As can be seen in Table 5, the sub-doctoral programs tended to have more rigid requirements than the PhD programs. More than one-third of a student's program was prescribed by nineteen of the twenty-

four (80%) sub-doctoral programs and by only six of the thirteen (46%) doctoral programs. One of the thirteen doctoral programs (7%) prescribed all of the student's work, while this was the case in five of the twenty-four (21%) sub-doctoral programs.

TABLE 5

Comparison of the Amount of Coursework Which Must Be Taken in Specifically Required Courses in Thirteen Doctoral and Twenty-four Sub-doctoral Programs in School Psychology

Percentage of work specifically required	Number and percentage of schools Sub-doctoral		Doctoral	
0	2	(8%)	3	(24%)
1-33%	3	(13%)	4	(31%)
33-66	11	(46%)	2	(15%)
67-99	3	(13%)	3	(2%)
100	5	(21%)	1	(7%)

Results: The Internships

The recommendations made in the APA Division 16 report of November, 1963, included 525 clock hours of supervised field experience for persons trained at the doctoral level, and 350 clock hours for the sub-doctoral Psychological Assistant level. Table 6 summarizes the internship requirements of the thirteen doctoral and twenty-four sub-doctoral programs included in this

study. Six PhD programs (46%) of this sample, were at or above the APA recommendations for training at this level. Eleven (46%) of the sub-doctoral programs equalled the amount of supervised experience which the APA recommended for PhD programs. Nine of the sub-doctoral programs (38%) required twice the length of internship suggested by the APA for PhD graduates. This seems to suggest that the schools training school psychologists at the sub-doctoral level place considerable importance on the internship experience.

TABLE 6

Comparison of Internship Requirements of Thirteen Doctoral and Twenty-four Sub-doctoral Programs in School Psychology

Number of Internship hours required	Number and Percentage of Schools	
	Sub-doctoral	Doctoral
0	8 (38%)	4 (31%)
250	1 (4%)	0
500	2 (8%)	1 (8%)
1000	9 (38%)	5 (38%)
Required[a]	2 (8%)	2 (5%)
Not ascertainable	2 (8%)	1 (8%)

[a]Internship is required; however, the number of hours required was not specified.

The Peabody Conference held in March, 1963, revised the earlier recommendations regarding internship requirements by stating that ideally one full academic year of internship (1000

hours) should be required at the PhD level. No recommendations were made for sub-doctorally trained psychologists (Gray, 1963a). At present, Ohio is the only state which requires and provides this ideal. One thousand hours of internship is required of all psychologists working in Ohio schools, at both doctoral and sub-doctoral levels of training.

Internships were required by some states in which there are schools that did not list an internship requirement. It seems possible that these schools may require internship, but do not consider it to be a part of the academic program and therefore did not list internship as a requirement. It was not ascertained to what extent internships were required to be in public school settings, how adequately the students were superivsed, or how closely the training institutions were involved in overseeing their students' internships.

Results: State Certification Requirements

A recent study by Steegman (1963) has direct bearing on the question of state certification. In 1963, she contacted the Superintendents of Public Instruction of all of the 50 states and the District of Columbia and conducted an analysis of existing certification patterns. Although the present study was primarily concerned with the Midwest region only, it is in-

teresting to note Steegman's findings prior to discussing the specific results of the Midwest study. Steegman's report was based on data obtained from 48 of the 51 departments contacted. Thirty-five states reported having officially recognized programs of psychological services. Those states were: Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming, and North Dakota. Sixteen states reported having two or more levels of certification status. The doctorate, or all but the thesis, was required for top certification in nine states, and all of those states with the exception of Hawaii also reported hiring persons with the Master's degree for lower level positions. Nine states also reported provisions for hiring persons with less than a Master's degree. While a number of states offer the choice of either Psychology or Education as the graduate major, most states stipulate that the major focus of graduate work be in Psychology.

Steegman also found that 15 states required the School Psychologist to hold a teaching certificate.

All 35 states required supervised field experience for certification, although some States made provision for the fulfillment of that requirement while the trainee was under temporary certification.

As far as the present study is concerned, 12 of the 14 states in the Midwest region had certification requirements. They were: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

As Table 7 indicates, there was considerable variability among the certification requirements. Four of the states certified at two levels, with the requirements at the lower level ranging from twenty-four hours of graduate work to sixty hours of graduate work. Due to the somewhat vague manner in which requirements were often stated, it seemed apparent that many persons who are not products of school psychology training programs could qualify for certification as school psychologists in most of these states. In some cases internship requirements did not exist or were so negligible that, for example, a person with an MA in general psychology who happened to have a course in measurement, could, in a very few weeks, become a certified school pyschologist. The APA recommendations in academic train-

TABLE 7

Distribution of State Certification Requirements
for School Psychologists and School Psychometrists

State	Psych. Foundat.	Meth. & Technique	Educat. Foundat.	Sch. Org. & Program	Length of Internship	Total Hours and Degree Required	Teacher Certificate Required
Illinois							
Psychologist	12	9	0	3	1000 hrs	MA 24 hrs	No
Indiana							
Psychometrist		-			185 hrs	MA	Yes[a]
Psychologist		-			1000 hrs	PhD	
Iowa							
Psychologist						MA	Yes
Kansas							
Psychologist	30	15	0	15	200 hrs	MA 60 hrs	No
Superv. Psy.	30	21	0	39	200 hrs	PhD 90 hrs	
Kentucky							
Psychometrist						MA	Yes
Michigan							
Psych. Diagn.	15	18	0	12	500 hrs	MA 36 hrs	Yes[a]
Minnesota							
Psychologist	12	20	4	4	-[b]	MA 60 hrs	No
North Dakota							
Psychometrist	11	17	0	0	none	MA 28 hrs	Yes
Psychologist	17	41	0	0	none	PhD 58 hrs	
Ohio							
Psychologist	8	14	0	2	1000 hrs	MA 24 hrs	Yes
Pennsylvania							
Psychologist	0	18	0	0	500 hrs	MA 54 hrs	
South Dakota							
Psychologist	12	18	0	0	none	MA 45 hrs	No
Wisconsin							
Psychometrist	18	18		6	135 hrs	- 24 hrs	No
Psychologist		30		18	135 hrs	MA 48 hrs	

TABLE 7 (Cont'd)

Note.—There are no certificates in either Missouri or Nebraska for school Psychologists or for School Psychometrists.

[a]Although a teacher certificate is required, substitution is possible.

[b]Internship is required, but the number of clock hours that are required was not ascertainable from the available information.

ing and in supervised field experience requirements for sub-doctoral training in school psychology were not met by the certification requirements of most of the Midwestern states.

Considerable variation could also be found in the different states' requirements for teacher certification as a prerequisite for certification as a school psychologist. Only four states required a regular teacher's certificate before a person could be considered for certification as a school psychologist. Almost twice as many states either did not require teacher training at all or permitted some alternate plan. In Indiana, course-work could be substituted, and in Michigan membership in either the APA or Michigan Psychological Association sufficed.

Issues, Trends, and Implications

At present there is a controversy within the profession regarding the optimum and minimum training that is necessary for school psychologists. It is usually assumed that a psychologist has completed a doctoral program; however, there are many states that certify sub-doctoral psychologists.

Raimy's opinion (1957) regarding the two levels of training was that two year training programs (sub-doctoral) were very similar to doctoral level training programs. The difference was simply that there was less training in the sub-doctoral

programs. Thus, he visualized the person with sub-doctoral training as a less-trained invididual, not as one trained in a different manner. The school psychology profession has accumulated little evidence on the effectiveness of different kinds of training programs.

Gray (1963b) suggested that the psychologist in schools be a specialist in some particular aspect of pscyhology, rather than a specialist in school psychology in general. At the doctoral level, these programs might be for specialists such as school mental health consultant, social psychologist, specialist in school learning, or school measurement specialist. Suggested specialties for non-doctoral persons were psychodiagnostician, elementary guidance specialist, and specialist in group work. Such an approach, in Gray's opinion, would provide expert service in all areas and at all levels.

Opposition to "specialty" training was presented by Golann and Wurm (1963) in a paper given at the APA meetings in September, 1963. Focusing on the school psychologist's role in community aspects of mental health services and research, they found in their sample of training institutions that twenty percent of the departments questioned placed some emphasis on this area in their curriculum, twenty percent gave it no attention

at all, and the remaining sixty percent provided only incidental attention. These investigators concluded that, rather than produce a new type of specialist, efforts should be made to encourage students to develop new skills in a wider variety of settings. They also felt that in doctoral level programs preparing psychologists to work in schools, more emphasis should be placed on gaining a more comprehensive view of community health problems. The controversy continues.

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III. THE GUIDANCE COUNSELOR

Introduction

The Counselor's Role

Role definition is one of the major issues confronting school counselors today. It is often argued that it is impossible to identify a common role of school counselors because of variations in individual counselors, schools, and administrative expectations. However, it is clear that without consensus as to counselor roles there is little basis for the standardization of counselor training and certification.

Two recent statements on counselor role and function (ASCA, 1963; Wrenn, 1962) seem to have had substantial impact on the counseling profession. Both statements are comprehensive and unique, in that the former is almost entirely supported by the members of the major professional assoication for school counselors (ASCA) and the latter represents a concentrated effort by a committee appointed by the major professional association of the total personnel and guidance profession (APGA).

The American School Counselor Association conducted its study of counselor role and function and published a statement of policy that was later accepted by approximately ninety per-

cent of the Association members. The ASCA statement of policy included an enumeration of nine secondary school counselor functions (p. 44):

1. To provide counseling relationships with pupils for the purpose of helping each pupil to understand and to accept his aptitudes, interests, attitudes, abilities, opportunities for self-fulfillment, and the interrelationship among these .

2. To provide counseling relationships with pupils conducive to developing personal decision-making competency.

3. To provide consultative assistance and, through studying children, provide information to all members of a school staff for the purpose of understanding the individual child.

4. To provide information (and conduct research) for program development to staff members, information about pupil educational and psycho-social development, in addition to significant changes in the school and non-school environments which have implications for instruction and the psycho-social well-being of pupils.

5. To provide consultative assistance to parents for the purpose of helping them understand the developmental progress of their child, his needs, and environmental opportunities, for purposes of increasing their ability to contribute to their child's development.

6. To interpret to the community the importance of consideration for the individual and the contribution of the school counseling program to that end.

7. To promote in the community non-school opportunities necessary for pupil development.

8. To use and/or promote community resources designed to

meet unusual or extreme needs of pupils which are beyond the responsibility of the school.

9. To coordinate his efforts with other pupil personnel specialists.

The other recent, comprehensive study of school counselors and their roles and functions was conducted by Wrenn (1962). The APGA asked Wrenn and a Commission on Guidance in American schools, composed of twelve other leaders in the counseling profession, to look into the future of the role and preparation of the professional counselor. The Wrenn Report claimed to be a blueprint for school counseling that reached into at least the next decade. This blueprint was written within the context of social forces, social changes, and the total educational process. The projected roles seem more definitive than those included in the ASCA statement of policy. Wrenn recommended (pp. 109-110):

> That the counselor recognize . . . the primary and most unique function of the school is that of the development and use of the intellect; that he ally himself with this intellectual core effort as he works with both students and staff.
>
> That primary emphasis in counseling students be placed on the developmental needs and decision points in the lives of the total range of students rather than upon the remedial needs and the crisis points in the lives of a few students, with the major goal of counseling being that of increased self-responsibility and an increased maturity in decision-making upon the part of the student . . .

> That vocational choice be seen as process extending over years and not as an event, that the student be helped to make a series of choices as he becomes increasingly realistic about himself and the occupational world, that urging a student to "make up his mind" in the sense of a final settlement may be considerably more harmful than helpful.
>
> That the school counselor's understanding of human behavior and of the other person's need for acceptance and encouragement be at the disposal not only of students but of teaching colleagues, administrators, and parents.

There seem to be a few ommissions in the ASCA statement that are included in the Wrenn report; Roeber (1965) cites two: Although the ASCA statement of policy gives lip-serivce to the concept that a school counselor is an educator, ASCA does not align itself with the intellectual development of students; whereas Wrenn does. The ASCA statement also omits a stand on the issue of "crisis counseling". Wrenn clearly positioned himself on this issue.

The Training and Certification of Counselors in the Past

Much has been written about counselor training; however, it was not until 1948 that any professional group attempted to study counselor qualifications. The first group to study selection criteria was the Eighth National Conference of State Supervisors of Guidance and Counselor Training (Roeber, Smith & Erickson, 1955). Since that time there have been two in-

teresting studies of counseling training (Roeber, 1963; Wrenn, 1962). Most of the studies of counselor training, however, have been more concerned with identifying and describing the ideal counselor and ideal counselor training, rather than summarizing actual conditions. The present study was an attempt to describe the present training and certification patterns for school counselors in the Midwestern states.

Roeber (1963) stated it has only been within the past ten years that a majority of states have begun to differentiate between a counselor certificate and a teacher certificate. The first school counselor certification plans were adopted in New York in 1926. There were five states with counselor certification plans by 1940, fifteen states by 1950, and thirty-nine states (including the District of Columbia) by 1960.

Training and Certification Patterns

Research Design

The original list of schools to be included in this study was drawn from Lovejoy's College Guide (Lovejoy, 1961). All these schools were contacted from one to four times. Information regarding training was collected from college catalogues, from mimeographed explanations prepared by various colleges and

universities and from correspondence and personal interviews with faculty members. Within the thirteen Midwestern states there were ninety-two schools offering degrees in counseling and guidance. Sixty of these schools provided enough information to be included in the tabulations. Letters requesting state certification information were sent to the State Departments of Education of the thirteen states and to the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. With the exception of three states (Iowa, Nebraska, and Kentucky) information regarding certification requirements was provided. Information secured from the U.S. Office of Education was used for the three states of Iowa, Nebraska, and Kentucky.

Results: Training Patterns

Recently, Roeber, (1963) has identified two assumptions regarding counselor training that are becoming increasingly accepted in professional circles: one, that counselor preparation should be at the graduate level, and two, (without quite as much unanimity) that a school counselor should have a strong core of training in psychology and in other behavioral sciences. The first assumption was clearly supported by data obtained in this study. Of the fifty-eight schools included in the final tabulation in this study, none offered programs in guidance and coun-

seling at the undergraduate level. A variety of graduate degrees were offered, however.

The assumption that a counselor should have a strong core of psychological and other behavioral sciences seems to be supported by the nature of program requirements.

At the Specialist and Doctoral Degree levels, although the programs were often not described in very great detail, there seemed to be a greater variety of, and more advanced courses in, the basic areas of study. At these two levels there seemed to be more emphasis placed on preparing directors of guidance, counselor educators, and college counselors than at the Master's degree level, where the emphasis was most frequently on the preparation of secondary or, in a few cases, elementary school counselors.

At the Master's degree level the length of time required to complete a program in counseling and guidance varied from one to two years of full-time study. The majority of the schools included in the study, however, (53%) required on year. Only 2% of the schools required two years, and none of the universities required more than two years of study. The number of credits required for a Master's degree varied from thirty to forty-four semester hours of study. However, 31% of the schools

TABLE 8

Summary of Teaching Experience and Certification as Requirements in Fifty-eight Secondary School Counselor Training Programs

Amount of Teaching Experience Required	Schools Requiring Teaching Experience for Admission to Graduate School and/or Candidacy		Schools Requiring Teaching Experience for the Master's Degree	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Not Mentioned	30	52	41	71
Certification Only	17	29	7	12
1 Year	1	2	0	
2 years	3	5	0	
3 or more Years	2	4	0	
Experience Required, Unspecified Amount	2	4	10	17
Either Experience or a Contract to Teach	3	5	0	

required 30-34 semester hours of study. Courses were usually arranged so that part-time study would be possible. Some schools specifically arranged their programs so that teachers could finish the required sequence through evening, Saturday and/or summer session study. Other degree requirements included written and oral examinations, teacher certification, and teacher experience.

Admissions requirements mentioned requently by the various schools included in the study were teaching experience, teacher certification, and special examinations (e.g., Graduate Record Examination, Miller's Analogies, National Teacher Examination, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory). Table 8 presents a comparison of the schools on the issue of teaching experience as a requirement for admission to graduate school, for candidacy for the Master's degree, and as a requirement for the Master's degree.

Table 9 presents a summary of courses required for secondary school counselor preparation at the Master's degree level at the universities included in the study. Making the assumption that course requirements reflect the thinking of counselor educators about the areas of study considered to be the most important and valuable for prospective counselors, one can draw several conclusions from the data:

1. Two of the counselor preparation areas were given such high priority that 99% of the schools require one or more courses in one of these areas (Philosophy and Principles) and 94% of the schools required one or more courses in the other (Methods of Studying Individuals). Nine percent of the schools required between three and five courses in the area of Philos-

ophy and Principles and 13% required three or more courses in Methods of Studying Individuals.

TABLE 9

Distribution of Fifty-eight School's Master's Degree Requirements for Secondary School Counselors in Nine Basic Areas of Study

Area of Preparation	Number of Schools Requiring-									
	0 Courses		1 Course		2 Courses		3 Courses		4-5 Courses	
Philosophy Principles	1	(02)[a]	32	(55)	20	(35)	4	(07)	1	(02)
Counseling Theory and Techniques										
Groups	39	(67)	19	(33)	0		0		0	
Individuals	4	(07)	52	(90)	2	(03)	0		0	
Methods of Studying Individuals	4	(07)	28	(48)	19	(33)	6	(11)	1	(02)
Occupational and Environmental Information	9	(16)	47	(81)	2	(03)	0		0	
Supervisory Experience	11	(19)	45	(78)	2	(03)	0		0	
Growth and Development	18	(31)	23	(40)	14	(24)	1	(02)	2	(03)
Administrative and Community Relations	24	(41)	27	(47)	3	(05)	2	(03)	3	(03)
Research and Evaluation	11	(19)	31	(53)	11	(19)	5	(08)	0	
Seminar	51	(88)	7	(12)	0		0		0	

[a]Figures in parentheses refer to the percentage of schools requiring the various amounts of coursework.

2. A course in Counseling Theory and Techniques for Individuals was given high priority (93% of the schools required at least one course), while Counseling Theory and Techniques for Groups was not. (Only one-third of the schools required any courses in this area).

3. Almost 85% of the schools required at least one course in Understanding and Using Occupational and Environmental Information.

4. Despite the trend toward recognizing the importance of supervised counseling experience, almost 20% of the schools did not report a required course in Supervisory Experience and only 3% of the schools required more than one course in this area of study.[1]

5. Since almost one-third of the schools did not require even one course in Growth and Development, it might seem that this was one area of preparation which was not considered by most schools to be of great importance in the training of counselors. However, it is interesting to note that almost 40%

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[1] This data may be somewhat inaccurate because of coding problems. It is difficult to be specific about the kind and amount of Supervised Experience because of incomplete information and because of the ambiguity of terms (Practicum, field experience, and internship are terms often used interchangeably.), and because the schools used a variety of methods in recording the amount of time devoted to actual counseling practice.

of the schools required one course, that almost 25% of the schools required two courses, and that three schools required three or more courses in this area of study. It seems that this is one area about which there is a wide variance of opinion.

6. Although 11% of the schools included in the study required two or more courses in Administrative and Community Relations, over 40% of the schools had no requirement in this area. As is the case in the area of Growth and Development, it seems there is no real consensus.

7. The majority of the schools (80%) required at least one course in Research and Evaluation.

8. Eighty-eight percent of the schools had no requirement for a seminar, and no schools required more than one seminar.

Since making changes in policy is a notoriously slow process, it is quite possible that these requirements do not reflect the current thinking of the counselor educators at these schools, but rather the thinking of the personnel at some earlier time.

Only five schools of those included in the tabulation reported having separate elementary school counselor preparation. An EdSp degree was required for elementary school counseling

in one of these schools. The general course requirements in these five schools were the same as those outlined above, but where applicable, the emphasis was on counseling in an elementary school setting.

Some colleges and universities had a set pattern of required courses for a Master's degree in counseling and guidance. Others required a core of guidance and counseling courses and, in addition, specified a minimum number of courses or credits to be taken within a certain group of courses related to guidance and counseling.

Results: Certification Patterns

Of the forty-nine states and territories having counselor certification plans[2], only Kentucky did not require teaching certification, school experience, or work experience. Indiana, Massachusetts, and Montana required only a certificate for teaching. Vermont required work experience outside education as well as certification for teaching. Twenty-nine states and territories required one, two, or three years' teaching

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[2]Alaska, Kansas, Michigan, Oregon, and Washington reported having no counselor certification. In Oregon, counselor certification has recently been enacted into law to become effective July 1, 1965.

experience; and fifteen states required work experience outside education as well as teaching experience.

Looking more closely at the counselor certification requirements of the thirteen Midwestern states included in this study:

1. Of the Thirteen Midwestern states, only Michigan had no certification plan.

2. Of the Thirteen Midwestern states, five states had the same requirements for certification as the certification plan included under the NDEA Title V-A qualifications for government aid.

3. In seven states the Title V-A qualifications were somewhat less stringent than certification requirements, though the certification requirements of the states were recommended.

Of the twelve Midwestern states having certification plans:

1. Missouri offered separate secondary and elementary school counselor certificates. Minnesota and North Dakota indicated they are in the process of developing elementary school counselor certificates.

2. Illinois, Iowa, and South Dakota offered separate certificates for teachers and counselors.

3. For the school Director (Supervisor) of Guidance position, Illinois and Indiana required a separate recommendation

or endorsement. Both states required the Director of Guidance have at least a Specialist in Education degree.

4. Other states required regular teacher certification with an endorsement that the person certified has met educational qualifications in counseling and guidance as well as certifictaion as a teacher.

Excluding the one state that had separate certification for elementary counselors:

1. The educational content requirements for secondary school counselor certification varied from specification of definite areas in education to no specifications other than "courses in guidance and counseling".

2. Six states required supervised experience, three recommended it, and two states did not mention supervised experience in their certification plans.

Issues, Trends, and Implications

The Influence of the 1958 National Defense Education Act

A description of counselor preparation would not be complete without mention of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 and its influence on the counseling profession. Recently ("5 years of NDEA," 1963) it was reported that with

the help of NDEA funds the number of full-time counselors in local schools had increased from 12,000 (a 1:900 ratio, counselors to students) to 27,000 (1:540) in 1963. More directly affecting the preparation of counselors is the section of the Bill which supports the guidance and counselor training institutes, whose purpose it is to improve the qualification of secondary school counselors or teachers preparing to become counselors. From the initial establishment of the guidance and training institutes in 1959 through the 1963-64 school year, funds from the U.S. Office of Education in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare have supported a total of 328 summer institutes and 88 academic year institutes with a total enrollment of 13,784 ("National Defense Education Act, 1964"). In 1964-65 the Office of Education supported twenty-five full academic year sessions for 750 counselors and thirty-nine summer sessions for 1,200 counselors ("1964-65 NDEA Counseling and Guidance Institutes," 1964). These institutes were conducted by colleges and universities under contract with the U.S. Office of Education.

Ninety percent of the full academic year session institutes offered the Master's or EDSp degree. They were

generally oriented toward the standards set for certification within the state. Most of the summer institutes were for post-Master's degree training. There were no blanket requirements demanded of the institutes by the Act; however, the American Personnel and Guidance Association Standards were used by the U.S. Office of Education committee in evaluating institute proposals, from the universities.

Dugan (1960) has discussed the impact of the National Defense Education Act upon counselor preparation and has identified the following five positive influences of the institutes.

1. Strong supportive influence of national professional leadership.

2. Increased cooperative interacti . of related academic disciplines in the development and operation of counselor preparation programs.

3. Provision of rich opportunities for experimentation and development of new approaches to counselor preparation.

4. Development of plans for professionally supervised counseling experience.

5. Increased attentiveness to selective admission and continuing review of candidates for counselor preparation.

Recent studies in Illinois and California (Belanger, 1963; Niehaus, 1964) have reported that Title V-A of the National Defense Education Act has encouraged the expenditure of local funds as well as federal funds, thereby leading to an acceleration in school provisions for guidance services and an increase in the quality and quantity of cousnelors.

Issues in Counselor Training and Certification

A current concern of counselor education is the resolution of several questions. Such resolution will help shape future trends in counselor training and certification, and will remove, at the same time, one of the main stumbling blocks in the attainment of professionalization.

It has already been pointed out that the counselors are still struggling to identify the social services which they provide that are unique to their profession so that their services may be differentiated from the services more suitably provided by other school staff. Many counselors recognize this as the most important issue.

The ASCA policy statement (1963) does not include a stand relative to crisis (crisis-counseling) versus developmentally-oriented counseling. This omission indicates another un-

resolved issue: to what degree does a counselor become involved in counseling pupils who have crisis needs? Or, to what extent does a counselor emphasize helping all students with their long-term developmental needs and decision-making processes (e.g., educational and career development)?

Some counselor educators will argue that counselor preparation in academic year Institutes is superior to preparation secured through part-time study. They point out that staff resources and students are typically of a higher quality than those in regular programs and that there are many benefits to be derived from full-time, concentrated graduate study.

There seems to be an issue emerging as a result of the drive toward consensus on the counselor functions and the standardization of counselor training. Can counselor preparation programs be sufficiently standardized so that graduates are universally recognized as school counselors? Yet at the same time can those programs maintain optimum flexibility? Counselors have yet to decide who should establish, alter, and administer these certification standards.

A summary of issues concerning standards for counselor certification in Roeber (1963) is applicable to other pupil

personnel professions. Is there too much emphasis on general education courses in counselor training programs and not enough on professional education (or on related disciplines in the behavioral sciences)?

Similarly, is there too much emphasis on psychology and not enough on other related disciplines in the behavioral sciences? Or, is there too little emphasis on psychology?

Can school counselors be adequately trained if they have a broad undergraduate preparation with a very limited background in education and in psychology?

Is there too much emphasis in counselor training programs on course preparation and not enough emphasis on the prospective counselor's personality development?

Is (successful) teaching experience a necessary prerequisite to (successful) counseling?

Trends in Training and Certification

A limitation of cross-sectional research is that the identification of trends is necessarily limited. Nevertheless, it seems there are several identifiable trends in counselor training and certification in the Midwestern schools and states included in this study:

It seemed fairly clear that the few states not already requiring certification of their school counselors were moving in the direction of state certification of counselors.

Supervised practicum or counseling experience is becoming an increasingly important part of counselor training. It seems likely certification standards will follow the same trend.

Full-time graduate study is increasingly being preferred over part-time, long-term studies. The funds made available through the National Defense Education Act seem to have accelerated this trend.

New programs designed specifically for training elementary school counselors are rapidly emerging.

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IV. THE SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKER

Introduction

The Role of the School Social Worker

The school social worker provides help to children who have social or emotional problems which interfere with their functioning and achievement in school. In carrying out this function, the school social worker engages in two types of activities: one pertaining to particular children, and the other pertaining to the welfare of children in general. In working with individual children, the school social worker may provide individual and/or group work services to children and their parents, collaborate with teachers and other school staff, and consult with various school personnel and other groups in the community concerning particular children's problems. In focusing on the welfare of children in general, the school social worker's activities may include, among other things, serving on curriculum and other committees, conducting educational programs with parents and/or teachers, and serving as liaison personnel between school and community. The school social worker may be called one of a number of other titles such as visiting teacher, home and school counselor, etc.

The Training of Social Workers in the Past

There has been constant development in the professional education of social workers since the first school of social work was founded in 1898. In 1932 the American Association of Schools of Social Work adopted that organization's first recommended curriculum for social work schools. Twelve years elapsed between the recommendation of 1932, which applied to the entire curriculum, and the 1944 amendment which recommended that the generic program be revised to include instruction in eight basic areas: Public Welfare, Social Administration, Medical and Psychiatric Information, Social Casework, Social Groupwork, Community Organization Administration, and Research. In addition to these areas of study, it was also recommended the curriculum include directed Field Work.

Since 1949, striking changes have occurred in social work curriculum. Current curriculum is usually developed as a unified whole, composed of three major areas of study: Social Welfare Policy and Services, Human Behavior and the Social Environment, and Methods of Social Work Practice. Students pursue the three curriculum areas of study within the context of a particular method of social work practice

(i.e. Social Casework, Social Groupwork, Community Organization, Administration, or Research). The Master's degree requires four semesters of full-time work. In most schools field experience is concurrent with classes throughout the four semesters. Increasingly, the curriculum is designed to teach concepts and principles of application of those concepts in any setting.

Training and Certification Patterns

Research Design

Nineteen schools of social work[1] (most of them in the Midwest) were sent requests for catalogues and other information pertinent to the training required for a Master's degree in social work. Selected faculty members of various schools of social work were also sent a questionnaire re-

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[1]The University of Chicago, The University of Illinois, Loyola University, Indiana University, State University of Iowa, The University of Louisville, Michigan State University, The University of Michigan, Wayne State University, The University of Minnesota, The University of Missouri, Saint Louis University, Washington University, The University of Nebraska, Ohio State University, Bryn Mawr College, The University of Pennsylvania, The University of Pittsburgh, and The University of Wisconsin.

garding their opinions about optimum training programs and about trends and issues in the preparation of school social workers. Information on curriculum requirements was obtained for the nineteen schools. Eleven replies to the questionnaire were received.

Information on certification requirements for school social workers was secured from the various state departments of instruction.

Within the social work field there are three main methods of social work practice--Social Groupwork, Community Organization, and Social Casework. Within the schools included in the study, the average number of students specializing in the first two methodologies was quite small (4.5% and 2.5% respectively). Differences among the three curricula tended to be only differences in degree of emphasis within the methodological specialization. For these two reasons, it was decided only to include in this study curriculum and training data that refer to the Social Casework curriculum.

Results

Three of the schools of social work included in the study had no graduating students known to have become school social

TABLE 10

Distribution of Master's Degree Requirements
in Fourteen Areas of Study Basic to the Casework Curriculum
at Eighteen Midwestern Schools of Social Work[a]

Area of Study	No. of Schools Req. Casework in the Area of Study	Aver. No. of Credit Hrs. Req. by those Schs. Req. Coursework[b]
Social Welf. Policy & Services	18	6.9
Hum. Behav. & Soc. Envir.	18	8.4
Casework	18	8.8
Research Projects; Thesis	18	4.4
Groupwork	16	2.4
Research Methods	16	3.1
Community Organization	14	2.3
Administration	14	2.2
Field Instr. in Sch. Settings	12	16.0
Psychopathology	7	3.7
Medical Aspects	66	2.6
Field Instr. in Other Agencies	6	15.8
Electives	6	3.5
Seminar	5	2.0

Note.—The average number of hours required for a degree is 57.4. This figure excludes those three schools that did not state a specific number of required hours for a degree.

[a]The University of Pittsburgh was included in the study but was not included in this tabulation. Courses in the basic areas of study were taught at University of Pittsburgh; however, the number of hours required in each area of study was not made available.

[b]Averages were computed on the basis of the number of schools having course requirements within the basic area, rather than on the total number of schools included in the study.

workers. The remaining sixteen schools had an average of five graduating students who were planning careers in a school setting. As was to be expected in view of the emphasis of professional education in social work upon generic education in the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed in all settings, none of those sixteen schools had a program that prepared students specifically for work in a school setting. Almost all of the schools had at least one faculty member active in school social work and had students placed in public schools for part of their field experience.

Table 10 summarizes the requirements of the schools of social work that were included in this study.

Three schools of social work in Michigan cooperate with the schools of education in their Universities to give the courses required for minimal state approval in the Michigan School Social Work Program (Visiting Teacher Program). This work is included in but is not sufficient to complete the MSW program. It is not known whether similar programs are in effect elsewhere.

Of the thirteen Midwestern staets, North Dakota, South Dakota, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri, and Nebraska had no certification requirements. Illinois and Pennsylvania have only one level of certification. A complete analysis of the certification requirements for school social workers in states studied is included in Table 11.

On the questionnaire each respondent (faculty member of schools of social work) was asked to identify and discuss the current trends, as he saw them, in the preparation of school social workers. Their responses are summarized in the following paragraphs, in order of the degree of agreement between respondents.

A. There was greatest agreement among respondents regarding a trend toward increased generic training in social work and less training related specifically to the school setting (i.e., courses in education, teaching experience, teaching certificate). As is indicated in Table 11, only two of the Midwestern states required school experience of any kind--teaching or social work--as a prerequisite to lower level certification as a school social worker. Most of the states provided alternative ways to gain familiarity with educational systems. Pennsylvania certification requirements, for example, allow substitution of teacher experience for social work.

B. As fewer and fewer states require teacher training for certification as a social worker, the respondents felt more states were requiring the MSW degree. While some coursework about the school as an institution was considered to be

TABLE 11

Summary of Certification Requirements for School Social Workers in the Midwestern States

State	Lower Level of Certification			Upper Levels of Certification		
	Type of Certif.	Training	Experience	Type of Certif.	Training	Experience
Mich.	Tempor. Approv.[a]	15 hrs. grad. credit in 1) analysis of behav.; 2) environ. infor.; 3) applica. & implica. (field work and prac. in soc. wk.); 4) mse-ment (in school sit.); and 5) research methods.		Perman.	1) Teach. Certif. & 2) 30 hrs. grad. Cred. in areas listed under Mich. tempor. Approval	3 years teaching OR 3 years appro-priate experi-ence
Ohio	Provis.	1) Ohio Teach. Cert. 2) 20 hrs. grad. cred. in: a) human growth & devel.; b) com. org.; c) gen. pupil person. services or guid.; d) Sch. Adm.; & e) Orient. to soc. casework	1 Yr. Teaching	Profes.	30 hrs. of grad. credit in areas listed under Ohio Provis. Train. req.	2 yrs as visit-ing teacher
				Perman.	MA degree in areas of grad. credit listed under Ohio Provis. training req.	7 years as visiting teacher
Minn.	Provis.	1) MSW EITHER 2) 4 credits in educ. courses (not teach. training).	OR 2 yrs in any soc. work agency	Stand.	MSW	1 yr. field work in school setting OR 1 yr. in soc. work

[a]Michigan requires a teaching certificate and approval--not certification for the visiting teacher program at the temporary level.

TABLE 11 (Cont'd)

Summary of Certification Requirements for School Social Workers in the Midwestern States

State	Lower Level of Certification			Upper Levels of Certification		
	Type of Certif.	Training	Experience	Type of Certif.	Training	Experience
Wisc.	Junior	1) 18 hrs. of prof. educ. (teach. train) 2) 1 yr. in a school of Social Work		Senior	1) 18 hrs. of prof. education (teach. training); 2) MSW	3 yrs. in school setting or social work agency
Ind.	Provis.	EITHER 1 year in a school of social work	OR 2 yrs. in a child welfare agency	Profes.	MSW	3 yrs. experience in a sch. setting
Ill.					A complex set of req. includ. extensive teacher training OR MSW	
Penn.		EITHER 1) 18 hrs. of undergrad. wk. in educ. psych.; 2) 2 hrs psych., & soc.; 3) 2 hrs. in child welf. legal provis.; & 4) 1 yr. in a school of social wk.	OR 1 year of social work OR 1 year of teaching			

desirable, the respondents felt that social work training was presumably applicable to a variety of settings, including schools.

C. The respondents also indicated what seemed to be a small trend toward providing training for all school social work students in all three of the primary methods of social work--Social Casework, Social Groupwork, and Community Organization. However, the schools included in the present study offered students specializing in Social Casework methods an average of only two credit hours in Social Groupwork and two credit hours in Community Organization.

D. A trend toward the inclusion of courses dealing with the social institution in general was indicated. The rationale expressed was that if the social worker can understand how groups and organizations in general operate to fulfill their needs, he should be able to apply this knowledge to all groups and organizations, including the school. A major emphasis in social work education is the team relationship between various professions in any setting.

E. The respondents also recognized a movement during the last ten years toward increased behavioral science content in all social work methods, and away from a heavily

psychoanalytic orientation. The increased use of theories primarily attributed to social psychology (e.g., role theory) has been especially noticeable in Social Groupwork. This development was not seen to be a universal one, for some schools were viewed as more receptive of certain behavioral approaches than others.

F. The respondents identified consultation as an increasingly important part of the school social worker's role. Through the use of knowledge of the behavioral sciences, the school social worker could help other school personnel in understanding and working with socio-emotional factors which underlie student learning difficulties.

G. Although the ultimate goals of schools and social agencies were seen to be identical (i.e., the adjustment of the child), the respondents felt many people view the school as being primarily interested in teaching a specified body of necessary knowledge to children in groups, and not as an agency also interested in student psychological adjustment. It was pointed out that, where prevalent, this attitude impedes cooperative work among the various school departments and between schools and social agencies.

In considering these trends, however, it should be clearly borne in mind that they are products of spontaneously

written comments provided by only ten faculty members from various schools of social work who took the time to write down their views. It is not known how intimately these ten knew school social work. Consequently, considerable caution should be exerted in interpreting what thus far have been called trends. They may, in fact, represent wishes, goals, and aspirations of those selected faculty members and may not represent actual trends.

Issues, Trends, and Implications

The most significant trend in schools of social work appears to be the attempt to conceptualize the nature of institutions and of the helping process so as to enable social workers to be effective in all settings. When this is accomplished, social work believes a social worker can be effective in the schools without teacher training. To illustrate, in 1960 the School Social Work section of the National Association of Social Workers adopted the following statements regarding professional qualification for school social workers:

> ...The Master of Social Work degree from an accredited graduate school of social work is the basic requirement for beginning practice in social work, regardless of setting.

The NASW recognized:

> ...the necessity for school social workers to have an orientation to a knowledge of the school as a social institution. This understanding need not necessarily be acquired prior to employment as a school social worker. It may be obtained in various ways such as the following:
> 1. Courses in the curriculum of the graduate school of social work which related to the philosophy and structure of American Education.
> 2. Relevant courses in education.
> 3. Field work placement in a school setting.
> 4. Orientation and in-service education provided through the employing school system.

The NASW pointed out that:

> ...the recruitment of such workers is hindered if other training is required in addition, since <u>the supply of social workers is limited</u>.
>
> To train social workers exclusively for work in a social setting, as some states require, aggravates the shortage. Many states, however, do find that social work training provides adequate background for work in several multi-disciplinary settings such as medical and psychiatric hospitals and clinics, correctional institutions and courts.

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V. THE SPEECH CORRECTIONIST-AUDIOLOGIST

The Role of the Speech Correctionist-Audiologist

The function of the speech and hearing specialist in the public school is to help children overcome impairments or defects in speech and hearing (Eisenson and Ogilvie, 1963). Disordered speech and impaired hearing may inhibit an individual's social adjustment, minimize learning, and restrict economic capacity.

The largest part of a speech and hearing clinician's time is spent in therapeutic work with children. While the duties of speech and hearing clinicians may vary slightly from school to school, the major job is diagnosis and therapy. At present, the clinician's case load varies from fifty to four-hundred and fifty children. The average caseload, however, is approximately one-hundred children. In 1961, ASHA, the American Speech and Hearing Association, reported that ninety percent of the children in speech therapy were in groups of four to five children, which met once or twice a week. There was a limited amount of individual work conducted with children who had more serious defects. Group

sessions lasted ten to fifty minutes, the average being twenty-five minutes (ASHA, 1961).

These figures reflect one of the major problems in speech and hearing work--too few specialists and excessive case loads. This problem is often compounded by an administrative concern for serving as many children as possible, rather than for the quality of service provided. Some states add to this difficulty by providing financial reimbursement on the basis of the total number of children seen (ASHA, 1962). Other states, however, have established case load limits.

Sixty-four percent of the speech correctionists and audiologists claimed they use the "survey method" for identifying students. This method places the major responsibility of identification on the speech and hearing specialist. But 63% of the clinicians said they use the "referral method" which places the responsibility of the identification of speech and hearing defects on the classroom teacher (Eisenson & Ogilvie, 1963). The referral method makes the assumption that the classroom teacher is able to recognize speech and hearing defects. In schools where the referral method is used, it is usually the job of the speech and hearing

clinician to help teachers, other school personnel, and parents learn to detect speech and hearing defects.

Training and Certification Patterns

Research Design

The duties of a school speech and hearing clinician are reflected, to a certain extent, in the training programs established by universities and in state requirements for certification. To study the speech correction and audiology programs in the Midwest, the 1958 edition of the National Directory of Schools and Vocations (Miller & Brown) and the American Speech and Hearing Association Journal of December, 1963, were used to compile a list of schools offering study in speech correction and audiology. The list of 67 schools was shortened to include only the 46 schools for which catalogues were available.

Results: Training Patterns

The fields of study and training for the speech correctionist and audiologist are so closely related they are often combined into one speech correction-audiology sequence. Twenty of the forty-six institutions offered such a combined pro-

gram. Another twenty-four schools offered a program primarily devoted to speech correction. The remaining two institutions offered two distinct bachelor's degree programs, one in audiology and the other in speech correction. Specialization in these fields is usually at the graduate level, however.

To give a general idea of the courses required and the amount of time devoted to each course area, data from the schools were organized to show the average number and range of semester hours required in each of the eight areas of study. This information is summarized in Table 12. The number of semester hours in speech correction and audiology required of a major varied from twenty-one to fifty-four; thirty-eight was the average.

It was difficult to determine the number of clock hours spent in Clinical Practice and/or Student Teaching, since some institutions gave credit in semester hours rather than in clock hours. For schools that assigned clock hours and semester hours on an equivalency basis, 45 hours was the average number of clock hours assigned per semester credit hour. A conversion from semester credit hours to clock hours was made for those schools giving Practicum and Teach-

ing credits only in semester hours, using 45 clock hours per semester credit hour for conversion.

TABLE 12

Distribution of Requirements for a Bachelor's Degree in Speech Correction-Audiology in Forty-six Schools

Area of Study	Average Number of Semester Hours Required	Range of Semester Hours Required
Basic Courses	6.5	0-9
Speech Correction:		
Methods and Principles	12.6	6-18
Audiology:		
Methods and Principles	6.7	3-13
Psychology	10.2	2-17
Statistics and Testing	2.2	0-6
Education	19.2	0-52
Pre-professional:		
General Education	665.5	40-102
Clinical Practicum and Student Teaching	218.0 clock hours	80-335 clock hours

The type of student teaching and clinical practice also varied from university to university. Most institutions required clinical experience or practice teaching in special education classes. This experience gives the students an opportunity to work with children having speech and hearing disturbances. Eleven of the 46 schools specifically required that students work with normal children as well as those with im-

paired speech or hearing. The amount of student teaching required varied from twelve semester hours to only two semester hours. The majority of the teaching was done in the elementary grades. Of the 46 colleges and universities included in this study, 41 required work in professional education. The number of education courses required or recommended varied from complete educational certification to a minimum of methods and principles courses, intended to give a general educational background.

The relatively high mean number of semester hours of required psychology courses was indicative of the relative importance of psychology in the training of a speech and hearing clinician.

Results: Certification Patterns

There are two kinds of certificates for speech and hearing correctionists. Most public school systems require state certification or endorsement of the prospective speech correctionist or audiologist. These certification requirements are usually met by graduating from a college or university that has an approved program in speech correction or audiology. The second type of certification, that given by the American Speech and Hearing Association, is not required by most school systems

but presumably has influenced many state and university programs in speech and hearing. The important difference between these two certification plans is that the ASHA does not recommend or require training in education for certification, while most states require at least some background in education courses.

Most of the states required that a student meet the college requirements for a general teaching certificate and also receive a special endorsement to teach speech and hearing. A few state certification boards specified a minimum number of hours in education courses; however, a majority of the states left this to the discretion of the college or university.

The number of hours required in psychology courses varied from four to fifteen. Only one state did not stipulate a minimum requirement in this area of study. The number of hours required in professional speech and audiology varied from ten to thirty-two hours, and the average number of hours required was twenty-two. Only six states specified a minimum number of clinical clock hours required for certification. The minimum was 200 clock hours for each of these states. Student teaching of normal children was required by only two states. This summary would seem to indicate that the majority

of the states included in this study leave a great deal of responsibility for the establishment of certification criteria to colleges and universities.

Issues, Trends, and Implications

Trends in Training and Certification

A number of the states reported their standards for speech and hearing personnel were being revised. The trend in certification seems to be in the direction of more stringent certification requirements. This new trend may be a result of the recent upgrading of standards for ASHA professional membership. It is the hope of the American Speech and Hearing Association that upgrading its professional standards will help increase the training and professional status of speech and audiology personnel.

ASHA standards required a minimum of twelve semester hours in professional speech pathology, a minimum of three hours in audiology, a minimum of six hours in the basic areas, and nine hours in psychology. The ASHA, however, revised its certification standards, as of January 1, 1965. The minimum requirement is now a Master's degree (60 semester hours).

Issues in the Profession

That a speech and hearing specialist works in the public school and is so closely integrated with the school personnel and curriculum frequently raises questions about his educational training. Should a speech and hearing specialist be well-versed in the principles and methods of the professional educator as well as in his own therapeutic, clinical profession? The ASHA (1962) took the stand: "The educational preparation of these specialists must equip them to carry out a clinical service program which does not involve the teaching of curriculum materials. His specific responsibilities remain those of diagnosis and therapeutic service although he must possess the orientation, knowledge, sensitivities, and attitudes which reflect his employment environment (p. 99)."

The ASHA gave several arguments to support this position (1963). First, in view of the nature of the clinician's work, many of the education certification requirements are not necessary or appropriate for the work of the clinician. Secondly, it is difficult for speech and hearing clinicians to become competent in both fields within the usual degree program. Thirdly, there is a shortage of well-trained speech and hearing clinicians, and the additional time required for

students to succeed in two fields may discourage many from entering this field. Lastly, in school systems where speech and hearing specialists are viewed as instructional personnel, they are usually required to have primary professional affiliation in a general education organization rather than in a speech and hearing professional association. When such a situation occurs, there generally results a neglect of the current trends and literature of the speech and audiology profession.

Within the speech and hearing profession the opposing view has been presented by Eisenson and Ogilvie (1963): "The speech correctionists and audiologists who work in school situations should be expected to know how the children whom they will be treating are educated. Both must necessarily understand the professional obligations and the multiple aspects of the classroom teacher . . . (they) must have an appreciation of the language arts program in our schools . . . and an awareness of how . . . specialized educational and therapeutic efforts take place in the classroom (p. vi-viii)."

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VI. THE SCHOOL HEALTH WORKER

The School Nurse

Training and Certification Patterns

Research Design. A school nurse may gain training and certification in any one of three ways. She may receive a diploma after three years of study at a hospital school, and associate certificate after two years of study at a community sollege, or a Bachelor of Science degree after four years of study at a university.

To study the various programs of nursing education in the Midwest, a list of schools was compiled from a combination of every fifth diploma or associate certificate-granting institution listed in the Registered Nurse section, 1958 edition of the National Directory of Schools and Vocations (Miller & Brown); and of every degree-granting institution listed in the same cource, or in the June, 1964 issue of the National League of Nursing Magazine, Nursing Outlook. Because of time limitations, the resulting list of 137 schools was further shortened to include only the first 56 schools whose

catalogues were made available. The final list contained twenty-eight diploma-granting hospital schools, one school that offered an associate certificate, and twenty-seven nursing schools that offered baccalaureate degrees.[1]

Results: Training Patterns. The hospital schools graduate 80& of all registered nurses. Their educational philosophy was initially founded on the importance of service, for they were originally intended to supply the demand for staff and clinical nurses. They have traditionally operated on the assumption, "Practice makes perfect" (Peterson, 1964). In recent years, however, hospital schools have tried to give equal emphaiss to classroom education.

Associate certificate schools are relatively new in nursing education. Started on an experimental basis twelve years ago, they now graduate 5% of all registered nurses (Lewis, 1964). The emphasis in these schools is on theory, with the idea that, given a broad theoretical background, the graduate can quickly perfect the techniques of clinical service once she begins nursing practice. The faculty of the associate school generally includes a larger percentage of baccalaureate graduates than does the faculty of the diploma school;

and associate graduates score slightly higher on licensing examinations than do diploma graduates.

Baccalaureate programs graduate 15% of all registered nurses (Newton, 1964). The types of Bachelor's degrees in nursing are quite varied. Two common designations are the basic nursing and the general nursing programs. The basic program offers nursing instruction to the high school graduate, and the general program offers further education to the registered nurse. The "best" baccalaureate preparation is generally considered to be the basic nursing program that presents an integrated liberal arts and nursing curriculum during the entire four to five years of study. Another type of basic program offers two years of liberal arts education and then two or three yares of concentrated nursing courses, allowing no opportunity for the student to study upper-level liberal arts. The general nursing program is the opposite of the latter type of program, but has the same effect: the general program admits registered nurses and offers them two to three years of liberal arts courses. Some schools allow students in either basic or general programs to take a minor

in education and to receive a B.S. degree in nursing education. However, this graduate typically becomes a teacher of nurses, rather than a school nurse. Graduates of degree-granting institutions tend to enter the administrative field or the teaching field (Newton, 1964). A greater number of public school nurses hold baccalaureate degrees than do other nurses in public health (Bryant & Hudson, 1962).

The number of hours of nursing courses required for graduation from each program reflects the philosophies of the various programs. The average number of credit hours of nursing courses required by the baccalaureate program was 50; the diploma programs required an average of 88 nursing credit hours; and the associate program required 38 nursing credit hours. The great difference between the degree and the diploma programs in required nursing hours is probably due to the greater emphasis given to clinical practice by diploma schools. Table 13 shows how many of the institutions included in this study offered courses designed specifically for nurses preparing to work in schools.

It was difficult to compare credit hours, since many nursing schools showed credit hours by actual clock hours, while others were on a quarter or semester system. An attempt was

made to equalize the comparison by assigning one credit hour for 18 clock hours, 2 credit hours for 36 clock hours, 3 credit hours for 50 clock hours and so on.

There were few education courses offered to baccalaureate degree nursing students; and only one of the diploma schools included in the study offered any education courses. There were a few courses that might prove useful to the school nurse, but these courses were taught primarily as preparation for clinical service, with little content of specific value to the nurse preparing to work within a school. The journals, however, are constantly offering new ideas in health education; they suggest, for example, lessons via television (Borgers, 1963) and pointers on teaching safety education (Mantz, 1962). It is becoming increasingly popular to have the school nurse teach courses in sex education (Shima, 1962). School nurses included in one study encouraged the schools of nursing to offer practice in School Nursing and to offer courses related to public health education ("The Functions and Qualifications of School Nurses," 1961).

Table 13 provides distribution information to which several notes might be added. One or two psychology courses were usually offered by diploma-granting schools; degree-granting

TABLE 13

Distribution of Courses of Study Offered
for the Preparation of School Nurses by Fifty-six Training Institutions

Areas of Study	Number of Institutions Offering Course			Average Number of Credit Hours Offered		
	Degree N = 27	Diploma N = 28	Assoc. N = 1	Degree	Diploma	Assoc.
ducation						
Indiv. & Grp Teach. in Nurs.	2(07)[a]	1(04)	0	2.5	2.0	0
Educational Principles	5(19)	0	0	3.0	0	0
Educational Meths. and Techn.	4(15)	0	0	2.8	0	0
Educational Psychology	8(30)	0	0	4.1	0	0
sychology						
Psychological Processes	21(78)	24(86)	1(100)	4.1	2.8	3.0
Abnormal Psychology	2(07)	1(04)	0	3.0	5.0	0
Mental Hygiene	7(26)	8(29)	0	6.0	3.0	0
Developmental Psychology	8(30)	8(29)	1	11.6	3.4	3.0
Interviewing & Counseling	9(33)	0	0	4.4	0	00
ociology						
Principles of Sociology	25(93)	24(86)	0	5.3	3.8	0
Social Problems	10(37)	4(14)	0	5.1	2.5	0
Social Work	6(22)	0	0	2.3	0	0
rofessional Orientation						
History & Trends in Nursing	24(89)	27(96)	1(100)	3.8	3.8	3.0
Introduction to Research	7(26)	1(04)	0	3.6	3.0	0
Fundamentals of Pub. Health	18(67)	9(32)	0	2.9	2.1	0
Public Health Experience	25(93)	3(11)	0	7.2	2.5	0

[a] Figures in parentheses refer to the percentage of institutions of the same type (e.g., degree granting) that offer courses in a given area of study.

schools usually offered, and required, more. When more than an introductory course was required, the second course was usually either in Mental Hygiene or Developmental Psychology. Psychology courses were sometimes offered in combination with

a standard nursing course, The Nursing of Children. Generally, an attempt is made in this course to introduce the student to the well child and to normal physical, emotional, and social developments in infancy, childhood, and adolescence. Typically, however, this course is not primarily about school age children or about the detecting and prevention of diseases in children. Psychology courses are expected to be useful to the school nurse in counseling students.

There seemed to be no concept of the school nurse being involved in sociological problems. In the few schools that offered more than an introductory course in sociology, very little was usually said about the school nurse's role in the community.

A course in the history and/or trends in nursing, and a course in public health were included in almost every school of nursing. Experience in public health nursing was a common requirement; however, only one of the 56 schoools studied offered experience in school nursing.

Results: Certification Patterns. State licensing and employment requirements are varied; most states in the Midwest required little beyond the initial registration as a professional nurse. South Dakota, however, recently instituted

a program of continuing certification to be based on continuing advanced study ("Certification of School Nurses," 1963). Local boards of education have sometimes established other qualifications for employment. The national nursing associations have urged the state boards of nursing registration to demand higher and higher minimum standards for their school nurses ("Functions and Qualifications for School Nurses," 1961).

Issues, Trends, and Implications

The school nurse frequently evaluates her individual or district school projects and programs and often suggests new methods of performing nursing duties. Mantz (1963) has called the school health curriculum situation "terrible, but not hopeless" and has suggested ways that school nurses can become more effective health resource contacts for teachers. It seems to be agreed that the school nurse can be of value as a resource person, but there has been a great deal of controversy concerning how many of the simple health functions the school nurse should perform. Some think the nurse should press on every band-aid, while others think even vision-testing is more properly a function of the teacher (Berg & Berg, 1962).

Nurses, and school nurses in particular, not only appear to be aware of the problems generated by the lack of specific education and by the conflicting views regarding the functions of the school nurse, but also appear willing and eager to do something about these problems. Three statements about the training and certification of school nurses have recently been formulated. One statement by school nurses themselves, already mentioned in this paper ("Functions and Qualifications for School Nurses," 1961), included the recommendation that prospective school nurses should first obtain a baccalaureate degree from a school with a well integrated basic program that includes courses in education, and then obtain graduate level specialization and experience in school nursing. A follow-up study was designed to identify existing school nurse preparation (Troop, 1963). Florentine prepared a short booklet that summarized the preparation and role of nurses employed in school health programs (Troop, 1963). The problem now facing the profession seems to be that neither a Bachelor of Science degree in nursing, nor a Public Health Nursing degree, nor a degree in Nursing Education prepares the nurse for performing duties that are unique to school settings. Courses and field work specifically in school

nursing are just beginning to appear in the programs of the schools included in this study. One school offered registered nurses a curriculum in public school nursing under its education department; and only one other school offered a course specifically in school nursing.

Dement (1963) suggested in-service training as a possible solution to this problem. However, Christian (1963) pointed out that the functions of the school nurse and problems of adjustment are to a large extent unique to the political and geographical community. She concluded that continued education would be most appropriate and useful to the school nurse in training her to identify and to resolve those needs.

The School Pediatrician

The Role of the Pediatrician. By definition, a pediatrician is a physician with special training in the area of child health. As such, he is responsible for they physical health and emotional welfare of his patients, the majority of whom are school children. The school pediatrician, or in most cases the school physician, has specific tasks to perform within the schools. He is usually responsible for the routine physical examination of pupils, required by most boards of education. Such examinations are given throughout the primary and secondary levels, usually in grades one, seven, and ten. In addition, a qualifying examination is usually given to all children who enroll in school for the first time. The physical examination of students involved in school athletic programs is usually taken care of within the school. Special referrals are also made to the pediatrician on occasion when psychological evaluation is needed, or when problems of vision, hearing, or speech arise. The pediatrician is often responsible for providing the routine vaccinations and immunizations for his patients. These services are almost always taken care of in the physician's private office, although the majority of

the school systems keep records of the children's physical examinations and vaccinations. In special cases, or in deprived areas, these tasks may be handled within the school itself. In order to reach more children, mass immunizations are also often handled through the school system. The pediatrician often serves in an advisory capacity on the establishment of policies regarding school health education programs and the control of contagious diseases.

Training and Certification Patterns

Research Design. Letters requesting information pertinent to the training programs of pediatricians were sent to the heads of the departments of pediatrics at twenty-eight Midwestern medical schools. Only twelve schools[1] responded. Since there was a relatively small sampling and a relatively high degree of similarity among the various medical schools' requirements, few statistical analyses of the data could be made. Thus, summary descriptions of the programs are given instead.

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[1] University of Chicago, Hahnemann Medical College, University of Illinois, University of Indiana, Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia, Loyola University, University of Michigan, University of Nebraska, Northwestern University, University of Pittsburgh, St. Louis University, and Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania.

Results. None of the Midwestern states included in the study had any certification requirements for school pediatricians, other than those required of all pediatricians.

Medical education usually consists of two parts. The first portion, generally completed by the end of the sophomore year, is composed largely of the basic physical and biological sciences; and the second portion is devoted primarily to clinical study in which emphasis is placed on the various specialty areas of medicine. The second portion is largely a period of clinical internship, during which the student works with patients in both in-patient and out-patient facilities. The internship program is designed to provide experiences in examination, diagnosis, and treatment. Correlated lectures are generally given during this phase of training.

Table 14 summarizes the average percentage of total training time spent in the various areas of study at the twelve Midwestern medical schools.

Fifteen percent of the total time spent in pediatrics and twenty-five percent of the time spent in psychiatry was devoted to attending lectures, and the remainder of this time was spent in the internship programs. Courses in pedi-

atrics included Growth and Development, Nutrition, Infant Care and Management, Pediatric Medicine, and Communicable Diseases. Psychiatry courses included the study of Personality Development and Psychopathology.

TABLE 14

Distribution of Percent of Total Training Devoted to Basic Courses and Clinical Courses of Study in Twelve Medical Schools

Basic Courses	Percent of Total Training	Clinical Courses	Percent of Total Training
Anatomy	10.1%	Anesthesiology	-
Biochemistry	4.6%	Dermatology	-
Genetics	-[a]	Electives	2.8%
History-Philosophy	-	Medicine	21.1%
Microbiology	3.6%	Neurology	1.0
Pathology	6.7	Obstetrics-Gynecology	8.3
Pharmacology	3.1	Opthamology	-
Physiology	4.6	Otolaryngology	-
Public Health & Epidemiology	1.0	Pediatrics	8.2
Med. Econ., Jurispr. & Ethics	-	Psychiatry	5.2
		Radiology	-
		Surgery	15.7
		Urology	-
Sub Total	34.2%	Sub Total	65.8%

[a]Those courses for which no percents of total training are listed comprise less than one percent of the total training period.

If a medical student wishes to specialize in Pediatrics he must, after completing a year of postgraduate internship,

take up a term of residency in this specialty. The prospective pediatrician must complete a two year residency training program in order to be certified by the medical profession. The basic residency experience consists of graduated clinical responsibilities. The doctor works with patients in a variety of hospital settings--in-patient care (clinic and private), general out-patient care, and specialty clinics. Following completion of the residency term and successful completion of board examinations, the pediatrician registers in a community as a specialist in pediatrics.

There is little, if any, specific training to prepare the physician or the pediatrician to work in a school system. Other than a few courses in the area of public health taken during his early training and perhaps some experience during residency, there are no courses offered which would give a pediatrician special qualifications in this area. New York City, however, does have a pre-service training program for MD's employed in the School Health Service. The training program included the study of topics such as the relationship between educator and physician in the school (consultant aspects); the physical examination with reference to its value as a learning experience for parent and child;

physically, emotionally and mentally handicapped children; and administrative aspects of the school health service (Culbert & Jacobziner, 1964).

The Public Health Worker

There are three major programs under the auspices of the Schools of Public Health that are relevant to Pupil Personnel Service. These three sub-specialties are Public Health Nursing, Public Health Education, and Maternal and Child Health.

Training and Certification Patterns

Within the Midwestern states included in this project, there are only three universities that have schools of public health: The University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, and Johns Hopkins University. Since there is such a small number of schools of public health, no statistical analyses were made of the data collected. Instead, summary descriptions of the programs are given.

In the program of studies for each sub-specialty, there are courses basic to public health as a science, courses relevant to the practice of public health, and more specific courses which place emphasis on the particular sub-specialty of study. The courses related to basic sciences and to public health practice are fairly standard throughout all programs within the field of public health. It is in the third area of study that the public health worker is given training

appropriate to his particular area of interest in the public health field.

There are no state certification requirements for Public Health Workers employed in the schools.

Basic Coursework. The basic courses are mostly scientific in their orientation and include such topics as Epidemiology, Environmental Sanitation, Vital Statistics, Public Health Administration, and Elements of Public Health--Occurrence and Prevention of Communicable Diseases, Sanitation, and Evaluations and Solutions of Representative Community Health Problems.

Coursework in Public Health Practice. Those courses related to public health practice are oriented more toward the actual techniques involved in the implementation of public health knowledge but also cc..tain some courses pertaining to other public health sub-specialties. That is, the person specializing in Public Health Nursing will receive training in other fields such as Health Education for Public Health Workers, and Maternal and Child Health Problems, Programs, and Services. Likewise, someone going into Pulbic Health Education will typically take one or two credit hours in Public Health Nursing. Elective courses in Group

Work Methods and Social Psychology are offered as well as courses in Mental Health or Mental Hygiene Practices.

Sub-specialty Coursework. The third area of study is coursework directly related to the various sub-specialties. Public Health Nurses take credits in Administration and Foundations of Public Health Nursing, in which the role of the public health nurse is explained and current rends in the field are examined. In addition, Field Work Placements and Clinical Seminars involving actual practice are required.

Students specializing in Public Health Education study the Principles of Public Health Education concurrently with required field work placements and related seminars. Courses in education, such as Audio-Visual Materials and Methods and Human Learning, are listed but not required.

Finally, students of Maternal and Child Health study health programs for mothers and young children and survey health programs for schools, handicapping conditions, and child welfare. There are also required field placements and seminars.

Elective Coursework. There are opportunities to take elective courses in related fields. Public Health Nurses are offered courses in adult education, counseling tech-

niques, social psychology, and human learning and development. The total number of elective hours varies from school to school, but an average of approximately four semester hours credit in education and three hours in psychology is offered to Public Health Nurses. Students of Public Health Education are offered similar education and psychology courses. Approximately six hours of elective education courses and eight hours of elective psychology courses are offered those in Public Health Education. Students of Maternal and Child Health are usually offered two or three hours of elective psychology coursework in their program.

Issues, Trends, and Implications

A survey of recent literature revealed a growing concern among the profession that there should be written school health policies (Bland, 1964). The World Health Organization has published a report (1960) which outlined health education training for teachers, as well as several pointers for the improvement of existing health education programs. The report recommends: (1) The stimulation of interest in school health problems by parent-teacher associations and similar groups; (2) the initiation of new studies about ways

of adapting health education to the needs and interests of children and youth; and (3) the formation of joint committees of government agencies, public health officials, and educators to study the problems encountered in the public health field.

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