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Counselor education emerged from the period 1965-1968 with a more professional status. As with any developing professions, however, some areas have advanced faster than others. For example, areas such as the evaluation of counselor education programs, problems of professional ethics, and the counseling of children with special problems received proportionally little attention. Other areas, such as standards, content of counselor education programs, use of subprofessional support personnel, and problems in selection and role, received considerable attention. The organization of this paper, presenting a critical review of literature from January 1965, through September 1968, is as follows: (1) selection and role of the counselor, (2) content of counselor education programs, (3) approaches to supervision, (4) evaluating effects of counselor education, (5) standards and accrediting, and (6) special issues, including use of subprofessional support personnel, and ethical concerns. (Author)

COUNSELOR EDUCATION: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, 1965-1968

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Counselor Education emerged from the period 1965-1968 with a more professional status. As with any developing profession, however, some areas have advanced faster than others. For example, vital areas such as the evaluation of counselor education programs, problems of professional ethics, and the counseling of children having special problems such as the ghetto child, received little attention. Other areas, in contrast, such as standards, the content of counselor education programs, the use of sub-professional support personnel, and the problems in selection and role, received considerable attention.

The organization for this paper presenting a critical review of the literature from January of 1965 through September of 1968 is as follows: (1) the selection and role of the counselor; (2) the content of counselor education programs; (3) approaches to supervision; (4) evaluating the effects of counselor education; (5) standards and accrediting; and (6) special issues including the use of sub-professional support personnel and ethical concerns.

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review: Thomas Allen, Gail Farwell, Rita Kragler, James Lister, Susan Sherwood, Carl Thoresen, and Garry Walz. In addition, the 1968-69 members of the seminar on Research in Counseling within the Graduate Institute of Education at Washington University provided a number of critical comments which were of considerable assistance in revision, as were those of the issue editor for the Review of Education Research, Professor Carl Thoresen of Stanford University.

THE SELECTION AND ROLE OF THE COUNSELOR

The role of the counselor frequently has been considered apart from the problems in selecting counselors. Historically, the justification for this is to be found in the f[illegible]y that as an emerging profession, counseling has needed to focus on its relationship to teaching, and to the educational process. Mosher (1967) outlines the conceptual difficulties which result when the issues are not considered together:

> The issues of who to select and how to train them are inseparable from the conceptual issue of what effects the counselor is to produce. As I see it, it is this issue: What Is Counseling (to accomplish)? that is <u>crucial</u> and which must direct studies of selection and training. For example, the objective of counseling may be defined as facilitating instruction in the school, as psychotherapy, or as direct action to change family or community conditions. Depending on what effects the counselor is to produce, the person selected (and his training) could be as different as Carl Rogers and Saul Alinsky. (pg. 114)

Mosher goes on to say that "if this issue of counseling objectives is not kept continually in the forefront, then research on selection and effectiveness can become conceptually unrelated or unimportant."

Regrettably, the bulk of the literature on problems of counselor selection has been divorced from what the counselor is to accomplish,

and how he is to accomplish it.

THE SELECTION OF COUNSELORS

Writing in 1960 Review of Educational Research, Hill and Green found no "major" longitudinal study of selection, training, and evaluation. Their statement could be repeated today with accuracy. Most studies of the selection of counselors may be classified under four different headings: (1) those describing the differences between counselors and non-counselors; (2) those concerned with differences between effective counselors and ineffective counselors; (3) prediction studies, and (4) trait and characteristic studies.

DESCRIPTIVE STUDIES

Descriptive studies of the differences between counselors and some norm groups of non-counselors have proven popular, if of marginal value. Scores on paper and pencil personality tests have typically been employed in these descriptions. Hence, we have the Barron Ego Strength Scale and the F scale used by Patterson (1967c), the California Personality Inventory used by Morelock and Patterson (1965), the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule used by Kemp (1962), Patterson (1962), and Foley and Proff (1965), the Allport-Vernon Lindzey Study of Values used by Wrenn (1952), the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey by Wrenn (1952) and Cottle and Lewis (1954), the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory used by Wrenn (1952), Cottle and Lewis (1954), Patterson (1962), and Foley and Proff (1965), the Strong Vocational Interest

Blank by Foley and Proff (1965), Kriedt (1949), and Patterson (1962), and the Kuder Preference Inventory by DiMichael (1949).

Patterson (1967b) in reviewing these studies, summarized their utility in selection in the following manner:

1) The differences, though statistically significant, are so small as to be of little practical significance or use;

2) when compared to scores of other college graduate students on some of the instruments, such as the MMPI, the scores of counseling students are little different;

3) although it is suggested that scores of students at the advanced practicum level of training are higher than the scores of beginning students, probably through a process of selection, it cannot be assumed that these students are better counselors, or better potential counselors than the beginning counselors;

4) there is some evidence (Mahan and Wicas, 1964) that some counseling students do not appear to possess characteristics usually considered desirable in counselors. This suggests that there are differences in the concept of the nature and function of counseling and of the related characteristics of the counselor. (pg. 72)

EFFECTIVE AND INEFFECTIVE COUNSELORS

Another popular, if equally unproductive approach, has been to describe the differences between effective and ineffective

counselors. Again, paper and pencil personality tests have proven to be the typically employed instruments. These particular studies *have been reviewed elsewhere by Patterson (1967b, pp. 69-101) and the interested reader is referred there for a detailed evaluation. The limitations in this type of study are several. The most serious were delineated by Sprinthall, Whiteley, and Mosher (1966):

> What is a valid yardstick for measurement of success in counselor training? Usually an overall "global" judgment has been used in which a group of counselor educators, after observing counselor candidates, rank orders them. The major shortcoming with this approach is simply that bases for judgment are almost entirely intuitive (for example, see Blocher, 1963). No specification is given as to what kind of behavior distinguished those subjects adjudged most competent from those conisdered least competent. It is necessary, in terms of possible replication, to have some explicit guide lines which indicate how students were rated. (189-190)

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*Arbuckle, (1957); Betz, (1963); Brams (1961); Cahoon (1962); Carson, Hardin, and Shaws (1964); Combs and Super, (1963); Demos, (1964); Demos and Zuwaylif (1966); Dispenzieri and Balinsky (1963); Kemp (1962); McDaniel (1967); Milliken and Paterson (1967); Mills and Mencke (1967); Russo, Kelz, and Hudson (1964); Sattler (1964); Stefflre, King, and Leaftren (1962); Whitehorn and Betz, (1960); and Wicas and Magan (1966).

Patterson (1967b) specified some additonal limitations of the studies of effective and ineffective counselors. The differences found between them which are statistically significant are too small to be important in selection. Also, whether the differences existed prior to training is not clear.

PREDICTION STUDIES

Another approach to counselor selection has been prediction studies, normally using admission criteria as the independent variable and practicum ratings on a semester's supervised experience as the dependent variable. These studies typically lack a theoretical rationale for their independent variables. Or if one was employed, it was not explicated. This lack of specification of any theory may account for failures in replication.

A more serious deficiency is the lack of attention to the complexity of what is being (or attempted to be) predicted. Is there any reason to suppose that academic achievement in courses like tests and measurements or the psychology of personality is in any way related to effectiveness in one-to-one counseling? Whether or not a student can pass the courses in a counselor education program of a didactic nature is an important consideration in choosing candidates for graduate study. Reading comprehension as a variable (Callis and Prediger, 1964) may be a useful inclusion when justified on academic grounds.

But the problem in predicting success is two-fold. First, a candidate must have intellectual ability sufficient to passing courses in testing, vocational development etc. Second, given this minimal level (whatever it is - and it undoubtedly varies from institution to institution) of intellectual ability, what are the personal qualities associated with effective counseling?

These problems must be studied together. Academic potential needs to be partialled out first. Research can then be done on personal qualities as they relate to effectiveness in counseling free from the question of academic potential.

While the focus of prediction studies has been on "performance" in counseling,* the studies have been predominately with counselors in training. This group is obviously convenient to research. They normally constitute a "captive" population. As the profession is just beginning to learn the intricacies of predicting effectiveness,

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*Patterson (1967b) has reviewed the small number of prediction studies in the literature: Blocher (1963); Callis and Prediger (1964); Dole (1963, 1964); Ohlsen (1967); Rank (1966); and Wasson (1965). He noted major problems with the criterion. Since grades are not acceptable, most studies use ratings, but ratings are strongly influenced by who is doing them, as the Dole (1964) study showed. And counseling defined within the one-to-one relationship means different things to different raters (interpreting tests, vocational placement, etc. Krupfer, Jackson, and Krieger, 1959).

this is a useful place to start. It should be kept in mind, however, that "success" in training - and its prediction - represents at best only a proximate criteria. The ultimate goal is prediction of effectiveness in subsequent performance as a school counselor in on-the-job performance.

CHARACTERISTICS AND TRAIT STUDIES

A traditional area for research in counsel selection has been the use of counselor characteristics or traits. The assumptions are explicit. Personality traits such as sociability or friendliness are conceptualized as relevant dimensions with in the personality organization of the counselor. The assumptions of this approach are questionable. Certainly the research evidence is equivocal. Cottle (1953) notes that, "It seems obvious that most of the attempts to evaluate the personal characteristics of counselors are sporadic and unrelated" (1953, p. 450).

There is little in this research that attempts to relate a specific rationale for particular traits to a theory of counseling except in the most general sense, i.e., if counseling includes working with people then the counselor ought to score high on a trait of "liking" people. Descriptions of the counselor as a person range from qualities such as "Belief in each individual" and "Commitment to individual human values" (ASCA 1964) to the counselor "as a woman" (Farson, 1954).

Bowler and Dawson (1948) distinguished such "traits" as objectivity, respect for the individual, self understanding,

mature judgment, ability to listen and keep confidences, resourcefulness, reliability, sense of humor, constructive criticism, and personal integrity. For Oaz (1954) among 24 salient "traits" were fairness, sincerity, health, personality, a sense of mission, good character, and whole philosophy. Graves (1944) distinguished such features as integrity, vitality, judgment, health, industriousness, high personal standards, adaptability, training, and experience.

It seems rather fruitless to continue this line of inquiry. Human qualities may indeed be relevant to counseling. The consideration of traits per se is not going to reveal the relationship of human qualities to effective counseling. It is necessary to shift the focus from what the counselor <u>is</u> in terms of a static model to an evaluation of what the counselor actually <u>does</u> that is effective. By assessing what he is to <u>do</u> - how he is to <u>behave</u> in the role of the counselor - it will be possible to develop criteria of competence in terms of which counselor behaviors assist which types of clients and client problems. These criteria may then be related to higher order personality dimensions for use in selection.

By attempting first to specify the behaviors which are desirable on the part of the counselor, it is then possible to relate these behaviors to higher order personality factors with a systematic rationale. Such an approach has been made with the higher order personality factors cognitive flexibility (Sprinthall, Whiteley, and Mosher, 1966; Whiteley, Sprinthall, Mosher, and Donaghy, 1967; Allen and Whiteley, 1968) and psychological openness (Allen, 1967; Allen and Whiteley, 1968).

The use of a theoretical framework incorporating specific counselor behaviors with personality constructs may help eliminate the deficiencies of the simple bivariate studies using paper and pencil personality tests which characterize the research literature.

THE ROLE OF THE COUNSELOR

As Mosher (1967) pointed out, it is vital to keep in the forefront the conceptual issue of what effects the counselor is to produce. Phrased differently, the concern should be what the counselor is to accomplish, and how he is to accomplish it. Addressed to these topics are the ASCA (1965) statement of policy for secondary school counselors and the related ASCA (1965) guidelines for implementation of the statement of policy. The purpose of the statement of policy was to identify and clarify the role of the secondary school counselor. The guidelines were intended to provide a foundation for the daily work of the school counselor as it relates to responsibilities and working environment.

It is beyond the scope of this particular review to survey the literature on counselor role. It is necessary, however, to relate the role of the counselor in particular settings to problems in counselor selection. Of fundamental importance are the outcome or goal issue of what effects the counselor is to produce, and how he is to behave in order to accomplish his purposes. Counselor educators must consider these issues together, and work toward their resolution before substantive progress can be made on either the role or

selection problems.

In terms of the effects that the counselor is to produce, there is lively debate centered on the question of goals. Patterson (1964) stated that, "The client centered counselor does have the same goal for all clients-essentially maximizing freedom of specific choices of behavior to allow maximum self-actualization (pg 125)". A different position was offered by Krumboltz (1966) when he said, "The goals of counseling should be capable of being stated differently for each individual client (pg 154)". And Berger (1965) can charge that:

> For a while it bothered me that behavioral counselors seemed to have no interest in relating to the client as a person. But then it occurred to me that their attitude toward the client is quite consistent with their goals, just as the client-centered -- "humanistic", emphasis on the relationship, feelings, is consistent with their broad goals. The behavioral counselor and the client work out a "contract" as to what the client wants to change about himself and the behavioral counselor then changes that by way of operant conditioning methods. What need is there for mutual interest, for a relationship, for any concern about the feelings, attitudes, or philosophy of life, of the client? (pg 819)

And so the battle is joined.

Blocher (1965) sharpened another area of disagreement which

affects counselor educators when he said that two distinct alternatives were open to counseling:

> The existentialist position seems a philosophically attractive but scientifically unclear path. The Skinnerian-behavioristic road is scientifically rigorous, but philosophically frightening. Can or should counselors specify th · outcomes of counseling in rigorous behavioral terms and proceed to shape them by conditioning processes? Do they instead deal in such quasi-behavioral ccmmodities as self-awareness, immediate experience, and self-actualization? (pg. 799)

Critics of behavioral counseling feel it is too manipulative and controlling; that it results in loss of client freedom; that it does not deal with the whole person; that in treating the symptom it may overlook the real problem; that the client's expressed goal may not be his underlying goal.

Advocates of the behavioral approach deny that it removes client freedcm. It is presented as allowing the client to select his own goals, and as flexible in the method of helping the client reach these goals. They feel it is practical, effective, relevant, and scientifically based on "well-established laws of learning". Appropriately used, moreover, it should not fail to deal with the "whole person", and includes a warm, understanding relationship.

These controversies underlie the profession. We are far from resolved on the issues. Counselor educators continue to profess

to be training counselors. At best they specify "counselor" into elementary counselor or high school counselor. In so doing, they avoid the basic issues encompassing what the counselor is to accomplish, and how he is to accomplish it. What is needed is further specification of the desired outcomes of a training experience, and of how to demonstrate them. Problems of selection and role will be less troublesome if this is done.

THE CONTENT OF COUNSELOR EDUCATION PROGRAMS

In the past three years, the content of counselor education programs, specifically in relation to coursework innovations and practicum innovations, have received considerable attention.

COURSEWORK INNOVATIONS

The introductory guidance course was the subject of an Association for Counselor Education and Supervision program at the 1965 American Personnel and Guidance Association convention. In the published version, Scott (1968) provided an overview of the issues subsequently presented by Joslin (1968), Tiedeman (1968) and Farwell (1968). The papers covered a variety of issues including the importance given to counseling as a guidance function, the role of philosophy, the proper emphasis on research, approaches to self understanding, and the relationship of the introductory guidance course to the practicum. Tolbert (1966), considered the basic guidance course in terms of such issues as whether it is really necessary, what it should contain, how it should be

presented, who should take and teach it, and the research which is necessary on it.

Woody (1968) reviewed approaches to teaching behavior therapy in England as well as in the United States. He took the position that behavioral modification is compatible with the insight oriented approaches to counseling and psychotherapy. He stated that "it appears that the most effective approach (to helping clients) is to use both behavior modification techniques and counseling or psychotherapeutic techniques; this eclectic position might be labeled psycho-behavioral or integrative counseling or therapy" (pg. 360). Counselors should be educated in "comprehensiv counseling services which would include behavioral counseling" but there should be no specialty as a "behavioral counselor". (pg. 360)

A more explicit and differentiated approach to counselor preparation has been provided by Krumboltz and Thoresen (1968). They called for the training of a "new breed of specialists" who would recognize that while no current approach constitutes the sole answer, "it is time to draw upon the propositions and findings of a variety of approaches and experimentally test specific techniques for helping a great variety of clients achieve a multitude of goals" (pg. 1).

Important components of this training program which distinguish it frcm traditional training include:

a. The frank acknowledgement that the goals of counseling must be stated in terms of behavior changes;

b. Flexibility in specifying counseling goals for different clients on the basis of a contract agreed upon by both client and counselor;

c. The application of learning principles such as reinforcement, modeling, and counter-conditioning in helping clients achieve the goals that they themselves desire;

d. The emphasis upon assessment of changes through measuring the relevant incidents of improved behavior;

e. The emphasis upon experimental methods in determining the efficacy of different counseling procedures

(pg. 30)

A central concern of this approach is to "revamp our basic conceptualizations about counseling and counselor training" so that "counselors are to be prepared to cope effectively with the complexities of human problems" (pg. 3).

Using a system approach, they would integrate all existing approaches within a empirically functioning system that would create evidence of what works. Further, they propose to eleminate the present configuration of courses and practicum experiences as now conceptualized.

Central to their approach would be such questions as: What are the performance goals of the program? What experiences will

"best" (in terms of efficiency of resources and effectiveness) produce these performances? What are the possible interactive factors (trainee characteristics, initial skills, certain client problems, particular environmental settings) which lead to differential training programs? Emphasizing that no one training package would be envisaged for all trainees, evaluation would be related to the effectiveness of a variety of empirically validated experiences for different trainees. This approach whould go a long way toward eliminating that state of affairs which made it possible for Carkhuff et al. (1968) to cite the negative effects of traditional training programs.

Lister (1967) outlines the difficulties which accrue to counselor educators and subsequently to the profession from the phenomenon of "theory aversion". Theory aversion refers to the "counselor candidates' distaste for content emphasizing the principles, assumptions, objectives, philosophy, or ethcis which constitute the general conceptual framework for counseling and guidance practice" (pg. 91). Lister outlined several approaches for counselor educators which would minimize theory aversion.

including "improving selection; providing opportunities for examination of personal attitudes and values; researching the question of how theory and practice are integrated; emphasizing the interdependence of theory and technique throughout the program; and by helping the counselor to conceptualize his work environment within an appropriate theoretical framework" (pg. 96).

With the centrality of theory to almost all introduction to counseling courses, Brammer (1966) is pertinent to the problem Lister outlined about teaching counseling, and the necessary steps to developing a theory.

A number of innovative approaches to coursework appeared in the literature. Meek and Parker (1966) described a method designed to improve the efficiency of instruction, and to coordinate an academic course in counseling with a course in supervised practice. Classwork was divided between informal lectures, discussions, and role playing followed by small group work. The small groups were formed to provide practice in client centered interviewing, to clarify personal problems connected with learning to interview, and to present a combination of learning through practice connected with therapeutic experience.

Group counseling work was considered by Bonney and Gazda (1966) and Foreman (1967). Bonney and Gazda focused on the question of expecting or requiring students in counselor education programs to accept personal counseling for themselves with a view toward

increased self-understanding. They reported an experiment with the use of group counseling. Foreman discussed the approach to group counseling of the National Training Laboratories. The emphases of these group experiences were on the expression of feeling, listening, and helping others to express themselves.

PRACTICUM INNOVATIONS

Innovations in practicum have focused primarily on changes in structure, and on the proper balance between on-campus and off-campus experiences with identification of the special contributions of each.

Patterson (1968) raised important issues about what effects practicum experincces have on trainees as well as on their clients. Such consideration has been regrettably lacking in other contributions to the literature. He began by citing the accumulated evidence (Barron and Leary, 1955; Cartwright, 1956; Cartwright and Vogel, 1960; Rogers, 1961; Truax, 1963; Truax and Wargo, 1966; Bergin, 1963, 1966; Fairweather, et.al., 1960; Mink, 1959; Powers and Witmer, 1951; Rogers and Dymond, 1954) that counseling or psychotherapy even when practiced by experienced counselors or therapists may lead to client deterioration. As Patterson notes:

> It is no longer possible to say, as many of us have said in the past, that student counselors may not help their clients, but they cannot hurt them. They certainly can hurt them! (pg. 323)

He went on to elaborate his concern about the trend toward

earlier practidum, which he felt raised a substantive ethical issue. The problem for the profession, still largeley unsolved, is how to assure that the experience of counselors in training through practicum is not at the expense of students in schools. It is insufficient to rely on the fact that most school clients are not seriously disturbed.

Hasely and Peters (1966) outlined two recurrent problems with practicum: securing appropriate clients for the on-campus counseling experience, and providing a school setting which realistically relates counseling to the total guidance program. In an effort to minimize the differences between practicum and practical experiences, Hasely and Peters established three separate programs: a pre-practicum involving case studies, role play, critiqued tapes etc. followed by terms in both off-campus and on-campus practicums. This balanced experience had the advantage of providing a closer coordination between school and university experience, and a broader spectrum of work with students. Disadvantages were in the frequent shifting of the counselor-in-training, and the difficulty in getting counselees to the on-campus practicum.

Hansen and Moore (1966) elaborated the potentialities in off-campus practicum, including: (a) first hand exposure to the actual school setting, (b) a wider variety of counselees than is possible with an on-campus experience, (c) a clearer perspective on the relationship of theory and practice, and (d) more than one kind of supervisory relationship. They state, however, that the

off-campus practicum is construed as supplementary to an on-campus experience, not as a replacement for it.

Boy and Pine (1966) have drawn attention to the need for coordination between the counselor education institution and the school systems providing the field-work setting. As they see the problem, a meaningful practicum experience is based upon a field setting in which there is a congruence between theory and practice, since an important problem for the counselor-in-training is to learn to translate counseling theory into practice. The responsibility for orienting the field-work schools to the goals and necessary conditions for an "effective practicum experience" is placed with the counselor education institution.

Aubrey (1967) drew attention to the critical importance of the first two weeks of practicum. Though oriented to the concerns of elementary school counseling, the points he raises have broader applicability. The intent of the first week of practicum is primarily information gathering. Time should be spent observing classes at all grade levels, in all curricular areas, and conferring with teachers and other members of the school staff. Every effort should be made to assure the school staff, particularly the teachers, that their cooperation is vital.

The focus of the supervisory sessions becomes one of assessing the problems of different students, and the counselor's competency in dealing with them. The intent of the second week is a structured introduction to actual counseling. The concentration of supervisor

time is on monitoring every aspect of counselor functioning using such approaches as the playing of tapes with both supervisor and counselor present, observation through a one-way glass, anecdotal records, a weekly counselor log, and feed-back from clients and teachers. The focus is on finding as many ways as possible to help the counselor learn to be effective.

A practicum experience wherein the counselor-in-training has the opportunity to accept the responsibilities of a practicing school counselor while under the supervision of both school and university personnel has been developed by the Program in Counseling of the Graduate Institute of Education at Washington University. The counselor-in-training serves as a half time staff member of the cooperating school for the entire academic year. Being a staff member makes the learning experience more realistic and meaningful, and eliminates the artificiality of simply seeing a few clients, but not being an integral part of the education team.

The other half-time is spent in relevant coursework at the University. For his service to the school, the intern receives a stipend of $3000. The stipend makes it possible to admit students regardless of their financial resources. Acceptance into the internship program is contingent upon approval of both school and University personnel.

During the summer prior to beginning as an intern, all candidates are required to take four theory courses in

counseling: guidance, counseling, testing, and vocational. This provides the student with a theoretical background from which to draw upon under supervision as he begins his practical work experience. Further, it qualifies him for a temporary counseling certificate so that he may receive the stipend from public school operating funds.

This approach to providing counselors-in-training with the opportunity to accept the role and responsibilities of the practicing school counselor is in its third year. The cooperating schools continue both to hire the graduates, and to keep the internship slots open. The counselors who graduate have had the benefit of careful school and university supervision with a year of experience on-the-job.

APPROACHES TO SUPERVISION

Concern with approaches to supervision has too frequently led to a discussion of whether counseling or teaching is at issue. This has regrettably served to artificially narrow the focus of concern, and to obscure the differences in the definitions of supervision, counseling, and teaching which are being implicitly employed by the authors (again, regrettably, among counselor educators there seems to be reluctance, at least when they write, to be explicit in their definitions).

Mosher (1968) provides a perspective on the problem of defining supervision in teaching:

> The difficulty of defining supervision stems basically from underlying and unanswered theoretical problems in regard to: an understanding of the process of formal instruction, theory of learning, criteria for teaching effectiveness and philosophical disagreement over what knowledge and curriculum is of most worth. No agreement, for example, currently exists as to what teaching is, or about how to measure its effectiveness. The systematic improvement of classroom instruction, and the place and practice of supervision in such improvement, is ultimately dependent upon basic research on such curriculum and instruction issues. Put very directly, when we know much more about <u>what</u> to teach, <u>how</u> and with what <u>specific</u> effects on students, we will be much less vague about supervision (pp. 1-2).

Let us undertake a direct translation of Mosher's statement into the problems in definition of supervision in counseling. There are deep conflicts within the profession about what constitutes the important dimensions of counseling process and how to measure them, what it is in counseling that facilitates client change, and what are the appropriate criteria of counseling effectiveness. There is clear philosophical disagreement over what knowledge and curriculum is of most worth. It holds for counseling, as for teaching, that the systematic improvement of counseling, and the place and practice of supervision in such improvement, is

dependent upon progress being made based on research and improved theoretical formulations in the critical areas in which the profession is currently in such disagreement.

When we know more about what the counselor does and how he does that which facilitates client change, problems in defining supervision will be much more readily approached. Such understanding will allow a clearer perspective on the desired counselor behavior which the supervisor is attempting to develop in his supervisees. In the meantime, an oversimplified concern with whether supervision is teaching or counseling merely serves to direct attention from the critical issues.

By way of restatement, several key questions about counseling relate directly to problems in supervision. What constitutes effective counseling? How can effective counseling be measured? What are appropriate criteria of counseling effectiveness? What can supervisors specifically do to help counselors-in-training act in such a way as to maximize their behavior in terms of the behavioral criteria of counselor effectiveness? Without answers to these questions, it is unlikely that current disagreements about what is supervision and how it should be carried out will be resolved.

Several different approaches to studying supervision have appeared in the recent literature. One line of inquiry has centered on supervisors' expectations or perceptions of their role. Walz and Roeber (1962) studied the current orientations and procedures in the supervision of counselor trainees. Using the typescript of

a counseling interview, they asked supervisors to respond as they would to a supervisee. They found that supervisors focus more on the counselor than the client, using primarily instructional statements implying error, and to a lesser degree raising questions, also implying errror. Usual supervisory statements were depicted as "cognitive and information giving, with negative overtones". (pg.6)

Gysbers and Johnston (1965) found a diversity of opinion among supervisors on what their role should be, particularly on

how specific or directive they should be with enrollees. In a related study, Johnston and Gysbers (1966) found that supervisors expressed a preference for democratic relationships with counselor candidates, deeming inappropriate paternalistic or laissez-faire relationships.

The methodologies developed in the Walz and Roeber (1962) and in the Gysbers and Johnston (1965) and Johnston and Gysbers (1966) studies provide useful beginnings for systematic studies of the relationship between supervisor behavior and counselor change. Davidson and Emmer (1966) have provided a beginning toward understanding this complex and important topic. They found that nonsupportive behavior by supervisors causes the counselor-in-training to focus more or himself and away from the client. Further research is needed to identify how other supervisor behaviors affect counselors-in-training.

Another line of inquiry has centered upon the perceptions and expectations counselors-in-training have of their supervisors. Delaney and Moore (1966) found that supervisors were perceived before supervision began as primarily instructors in a role analogous "to the traditional role of any instructional relationship, i.e., planning of duties and tasks, evaluation and selection (pg. 16)".

Gysbers and Johnston (1965) found that counselors wanted their supervisor to be a person who would supply extensive help in dealing with initial counseling contacts, as well as detailed.

factual information such as counseling techniques, test information, and relevant reading assignments. They expect their supervisors both to evaluate them and to provide personal counseling for themselves. These varied expectations were found to change with the development of the supervisory relationship.

Hansen (1965) used a relationship inventory based on Rogers' necessary and sufficient conditions of personality change to assess supervisees' expectations of their supervisors. Supervisees expected a high level of regard, moderate genuineness, fairly low conditions of empathetic understanding, and very low conditions of unconditional regard. As the authos notes, a limitation of this study is that he obtained no outcome data relating supervisee counseling skill to expected supervisory relationship.

Miller and Oetting (1966) studied the characteristics of supervision which were identified as important by counselors-in-training. They classified the responses obtained under four headings: supervisor's personality, attitude toward the supervisee, professional competency, and the ability of the supervisee to communicate his feelings to the supervisor. Not surprisingly, personality characteristics perceived as good in supervisors included being non-threatening, tactful, and warm as opposed to biased, rigid, domineering. A good supervisor attitude was seen as being supporting, reassuring, and understanding as opposed to finding

fault, or making no positive comments. Professional competency in the good supervisor was assessed by whether he was able to provide an opportunity for learning, including his having the ability to recognize and call attention to specific detail. Two-way communication was seen as essential. By way of summary, the authors said:

> The student needs to feel that the supervisor values him as a person and as a counselor. He feels a strong need for active and continuing support. He also feels a need for structure. He wants the supervisor to be clear and specific, to evaluate the counseling effort and make recommendations that he can follow. Students resist and resent the supervisor who approaches them as a therapist, and they find it difficult to accept criticism from someone that they do not respect professionally (pg. 74).

As the authors note in identifying their study's limitations, students' attitudes do not necessarily define the benefit that they derive from the supervision experience in terms of increased professional competency, though they do affect personal satisfaction.

The importance of relating change in supervisee behavior to approaches to supervision has been discussed earlier. One of the most promising approaches to this problem has been developed by Ivey (1968), Ivey et. al. (1968a, 1968b, 1968c) and Normington et.al. (1968a, 1968b) in their studies of "micro counseling".

Micro-counseling refers to a method of video instruction of counselors in specific basic skills within a short period of time. The authors have developed micro-counseling training procedures for three different skills: attending behavior (Ivey, et. al. 1968a, 1968b, 1968c); reflection of feeling (Normington et. al. 1968a, and Ivey et. al. 1968c); and summarization of feeling (Normington et. al. 1968b, and Ivey et. al. 1968c).

Ivey et. al. (1968a) found that "attending behavior and its related concepts of reflection and summarization of feeling may be described in behavioral terms meaningful to beginning counselors (pg. 3)." They found that beginning counselors can learn the skills readily in a short time period.

This is just the beginning of the development of the micro-counseling method. It appears particularly promising in the development of specific counselor skills. Further research is needed to assess what other skills may be imparted through this method, and how micro-counseling compares to other supervisory techniques in developing the same skills.

STANDARDS AND ACCREDITING IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION

STANDARDS

Standards for the counselor education profession refer to problems of content and quality. The past several years have resulted in significant progress toward the formulation and adoption of standards. This period marked the culmination of nearly a decade of persistent effort by both counselor educators and school

counselors under the general sponsorship of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

ACES began its work toward development of a statement of standards for the preparation of secondary school counselors in 1959. In 1964, ASCA adopted a statement on the role of the school counselor. The same year, ACES (ACES, 1964) adopted a set of Standards recommended by their committee which were intended for voluntary use on a three year experimental basis. Based on the trial period with the initial Standards, revisions were suggested and incorporated into a set of revised Standards. In 1967, the revised Standards were adopted by ACES (Hill, 1967a; ACES, 1967a) for use in counselor education. Ohlsen (1968) describes the work of several committees in adapting the secondary school standards for use in the related training of elementary school counselors.

The Standards themselves are intended to be used in the following manner (ACES, 1967a):

1. For institutional self-study by counselor education staffs and their school colleagues.
2. For the evaluation of counselor education programs by state departments of education which determine what programs will be recognized as adequate to prepare candidates for certification.
3. For the evaluation of professional counselor education by appropriate accrediting bodies.
4. For use by agencies and persons conducting research in

the field of counselor education (pg. 96).

Also prepared was a manual (ACES, 1967b) designed to assist in the use of the Standards and to provide suggestions for institutional self-evaluations.

The Standards themselves cover such issues as philosophy and objectives, program of studies and supervised experiences, necessary support for the counselor education program including administrative relationships and institutional resources, and suggested procedures for the selection, retention, endorsement, and placement of students.

Reactions to the Standards have been varied. Swain (1968) said, for example:

> Counselor educators will find the Standards useful in determining minimum requirements for adequate programs. They may also find, as many fear, that the influence of the Standards will discourage experimentation or change in the programs, allowing complacency to result from the very efforts that sought improvement. Quality and effectiveness is not necessarily assured when a program meets all aspects of the Standards. The Standards only specify minimum conditions under which a staff has the opportunity to accomplish at a high level the objectives of the program as shown in the work of its graduates as school counselors and in the lives of the counselees served. The minimum condtions described,

> furthermore, represent only agreements reached by persons whose expertness lend some authority to their opinions. (pg. 169)

She notes that counselor educators are still required to work on curriculum design interms of the student's experiences which result in learning and on research as it relates to what specific training results in particular behaviors as a school counselor.

Mazer (1967) offered an analysis of the possible reasons for what he considered to be poor participation in the Standards project. The Standards are a "compendium of opinion", and are "empirically indefensible" when some felt they should have had an empirical base. Many counselor educators have entered the profession since the project was initiated. Designed to "raise the prestige or status of the profession", the Standards are not compatible with a "social service orientation". The Standards may encourage an "unjustified sense of finality", stifling and restricting "creative counselor education", and denoting "inflexibility". He felt that some may see the Standards as presumptive in light of present knowledge about counseling, and as coercive. Finally, they may be seen as discouraging innovation. Hill (1967b), in a subsequent issue, said that he had been encouraged by the extent of participation in the Standards project. He felt participation had run higher than was usual for professional association matters.

Patterson (1967a) took sharp issue with the 30 hour practicum requirement for the first year, feeling that the statement was too specific for standards which were likely to become the basis for accreditation. Strowig (1967) replied by saying that such a

literal interpretation of the 30 hour requirement was not in the spirit of its intent. He stated further that he hoped the Standards would become "guidelines" for accrediting bodies.

Hill (1967a) provided a highly useful perspective on the Standards and on the developments based upon them which are needed. He said there needs to be a continued promotion of institutional self-study. Recognized accrediting procedures are desperately needed. A statement of criteria for counselor education programs which won't throttle creativity need to be established. Standards don't represent a ceiling: the goal should be higher qualifications. There needs to be closer working arrangements between elements in the profession (ACES, ASCA etc). University administrators need to be more fully involved. Their acquaintance with and sympathy for professional graduate education including counselor education is frequently limited. Finally, he said that the committees who worked on the Standards "emphasized their belief in the need to view any set of standards as flexible and subject to change (pg. 181)".

ACCREDITATION

While progress in the development of standards for counselor education has been a significant accomplishment of the profession in the past several years, accreditation procedures are far from satisfactory at this time. An important task for the immediate future is the establishment of a more orderly and qualitatively sound system of accreditation.

At the present time, the overwhelming majority of counselor education programs are offered within the education faculties of colleges and universities. As a consequence, many counselor education programs fall under the perview of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The situation with NCATE, according to Stripling (1968), is that "no specific criteria for accrediting counselor education have been developed; and, in many cases, no qualified supervisor, counselor, or counselor educator, is on an institutional visiting committee (pg. 201)".

As a beginning step toward solving this problem, the ACES National Committee on Standards for the Preparation of Secondary School Counselors raised a number of questions with NCATE representatives:

Item 1: Counselor Education programs (and APGA) are concerned with the preparation of counselors for all educational settings (elementary through college) and for all areas closely allied to education, such as Rehabilitation Counseling Agencies and Employment Agencies.

Question: Is NCATE's interest in standards this broad?

Item 2: Counselor Education programs are graduate level programs.

Question: Does NCATE have the authority to evaluate graduate level programs?

Item 3: While the great majority of Counselor Education

programs are under the direct control of divisions of education in institutions of higher learning, a few are under the direct control of other divisions of colleges and universities.

Question: Does NCATE have the responsibility for evaluating programs that are not directly under the supervision of divisions of education?

Item 4: APGA is concerned over the fact that NCATE is evaluating Counselor Education programs even though standards in this area have not been developed by NCATE. Visiting committees, in many cases do not include qualified Counselor Educators.

Question: Can working relationships be agreed upon that would protect the interests of APGA in these and similar matters relating to Counselor Education?" (Stripling, 1965).

Stripling (1968) said that while these questions have not been directly answered, NCATE has "expressed a willingness to assist APGA in the development of working relationships which would lead to a more satisfactory accrediting procedure (pg. 202)". While nominal progress toward developing working relationships has been made, much needs to be done. With the importance of accreditation to ultimate quality of professional service, this must be assigned a high priority.

EVALUATING THE EFFECTS OF COUNSELOR EDUCATION

Despite the importance of this topic, and its centrality to the profession, very little was available in the literature. Published work was of generally low quality, superficial, and so narrowly defined as to be misleading in the implications which might be drawn from it. Regrettably, evaluation as currently does not appear to be a term with any substance in counselor education programs.

How is one to account for this state of affairs? Arnold (1962) said that counselor educators "simply do not know what they are doing, nor how to evaluate it" (pg. 189). Meyering (1964) offered an opinion as to why: "Counselor educators are basically an uncreative lot. For the most part, we are intellectually lazy, inefficient, egocentric, and have a real commitment to maintenance of the status quo" (pg. 37). We have done little to disprove these allegations judged by the quality and frequency of our evaluations of the effects of counselor education.

The current stage of professional development in counseling suggests one reason why the above holds. The American School Counselor Association (1965a) has only recently developed a role statement for secondary school counselors. And even more recently, the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (1967a) completed the development of their revised Standards. For the purpose of evaluating of the effects of counselor education, these documents should provide initial guidelines for a beginning consideration of what is to be accomplished. These documents do not provide sufficient detail, however, in regard to performance criteria by which to conduct program evaluation, if by evaluation you are attempting to assess counselor performance and client change. An outline of what a "good" program ought to provide is a very limited type of "evaluation".

Another reason for the current state of affairs is to be found in the same issues which continue to plague research on the selection of counselors. It is not possible to study with any precision the effects of a training program until it is clearer what effects the counselor is to produce, and how he is to accomplish his purposes. When the desired outcomes of training programs are further specified, and more is known about what it is counselors do that is worth training them to do, evaluation will be a more valid and useful undertaking.

Those studies which have been completed to date are limited in scope. Demos and Zuwaylif (1962) studied the changes in counselor attitudes in relation to the theoretical positions of their supervisors. Attitude change was also the subject of previous studies by Hopke (1955); Demos and Zuwaylif (1963); Jones (1963); Webb and Harris (1963); Wrightsman, Richard, and Noble (1966); and Munger and Johnson (1960). These studies, however, did not assess what effects in actual counseling behavior occurred from attitude changes on the part of the counselor-in-training.

Schoch (1966) studied the effects of a summer counseling practicum on how counselors behaved in a counseling relationship. The hypothesis he tested was whether "practicum counselors' behavior in a counseling relationship would change in the direction prescribed by the perceptual orientation of "good" counselors as

defined by Combs and Soper (pg. 58)". Using an instrument developed by Combs and Soper (1963) to define "good" counselors, he found in essence that the counselors became "better" on the relevant dimensions as a result of the practicum experience. Schoch raised a number of pertinent questions unanswered by his study such as the effect on the finding of the statified nature of his sample, the short length of the program, the permanency or lack thereof of the changes, the need for a follow-up study, and need for replication with other groups.

One approach to evaluating the effects of counselor education was employed by Peters and Thompson (1968) in a survey of how school superintendents view counselor preparation. The superintendents rated individual counseling, testing, college guidance, and information dissemination as areas with the strongest preparation as far as their counselors were concerned. Remedial work was seen as needed in the development of professional attitudes, and better academic preparation in the following areas: group procedures, curriculum, vocational counseling, utilization of community resources, and research methods. Superintendents also felt that counselor educators needed to do a better job in the selection of trainees.

Obtaining the impressionistic evaluations of superintendents is useful as they represent one of the counselor's most influential constituiencies. The deficiencies of such an approach are several. While it is interesting to learn that superintendents value their

counselors' preparation in individual counseling, they are not in a position to really evaluate it. The questionnaire format apparently did not assess on what the superintendents based their impression. In the area of individual counseling assessment, this information is essential. A further weakness of the approach is the failure to control for different professional backgrounds, training experiences, and specialization. By considering counselors as a homogenous group, the evaluation of effects of different preparation backgrounds is lost.

Another approach to evaluating the effects of counselor education programs is provided by Shertzer and England (1968) in their post-training study of counselor opinions about their preparation. The questionnaire survey asked graduates of their counseling program for descriptive information about their current employment, preparation, satisfaction, and important training experiences. A number of limitations are to be found in this approach. Counselor effectiveness is not considered. It would seem important to know whether effective counselors differed from ineffective counselors in their judgments about preparation. Lumping the information together for all graduates eliminates consideration of whether specific preparation experiences are more helpful to people employed in different counseling positions. Exploratory student follow-ups like this, however, represent a potentially useful approach to the ultimate development of a comprehensive design for evaluating counselor education programs.

Seamen and Wurtz (1968) reported a study on evaluating the practicum. As the authors present it, the purpose of their study was to discover:

> Is there a relationship between scores on a test of counselor sensitivity and success in a counseling practicum? It may be, however, that the answer in this case may be an important question, "Can the effects (if any) of a practicum be evaluated?"

The authors approach to this critical question was to administer a test of sensitivity before and after the practicum experience. The dependent variables consisted of peer and staff ratings.

The deficiencies of this study are illustrative of the research problems which continue to handicap investigations in evaluating counseling programs. The sensitivity test was the "Experimental Test of Counselor Sensitivity developed by Hood and reported on by Sundberg (1952)". There is no further reference to the characteristics of the test. The reader is not presented the relevant standardization data nor, particularly, the previous work on the instrument as an evaluation tool for assessing change. It may be a good test for the purpose, but it is relatively unknown; and the Sundberg reference turns out to be an unpublished doctoral dissertation.

The sample size is only nine students. Certainly with clinical research large sample sizes are not a necessity; nine seems too small, however, from which to be making generalizations

on critical issues. The dependent variables were so global as to make replication impossible. For the peer ratings, at the last practicum session "all students were asked to rank all members of the group, including themselves, in terms of perceived potential effectiveness as a counselor (pg. 282)". "All students", of course, refers to the sample of nine. The reader is provided no information about the characteristics of the "sample", nor of what they considered to be "perceived potential effectiveness". The criteria used by the three supervisors is no more specific. The reader is told somewhat ambiguously that the "three supervisors jointly completed a ranking of the nine students (pg. 282)". Did all three supervisors work with all nine students during the practicum? If not, what was their collective basis for making rankings? And what did the supervisors consider to be "potential effectiveness", or at least what was their orientation?

The point in reviewing this study was to illustrate several important areas of deficiency in conducting and reporting research concerned with evaluating the effects of counselor training programs. Seamen and Wurtz had some good ideas. The design of their study and the manner in which it was reported severely handicap its usefulness.

Thoresen (1968), offered a paper on the relevance of the systems approach to counselor education in conceptualizing problems, gathering information and devising solutions. He emphasized the futility of trying to evaluate counselor education programs without clearly stated objectives which are measurable, and the need for attention to the entire program, not just one piece. Thoresen presented eight specific implications for counselor education:

1. Making the goals and objectives of training programs explicit and concrete and stating them in ways which are measurable.
2. Using clearly stated program objectives as the sole determinant of what shall be included in training.
3. Viewing and defining counseling as a variety of procedures, not always involving one-to-one, face-to-face personal interaction.
4. Considering variables in the total environment, human and nonhuman, as potentially relevant components in counselor preparation programs.
5. Evaluating continuously through experimentation the effectiveness and efficiency of training programs, using explicitly established objectives as evaluation criteria.
6. Altering continually any and all facets, including training objectives themselves, on the basis of empirically derived data.
7. Creating training programs which routinely permit "programmed innovation" through the constant availability of specific data about change relevant to program objectives.
8. Moving counseling preparation toward the status of an applied behavioral science, one which may draw from all the fields of knowledge. (pg. 17)

If researchers were to reflect the substance of these eight implications in their research designs for evaluating the effects of counselor training programs, the deficiencies covered above would be largely eliminated, and a much more systematic and potentially more fruitful approach would be underway.

SPECIAL ISSUES IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION

In this section, two topics will be considered: the use of lay or support personnel in counseling, and ethical concerns of counselor education.

SUPPORT PERSONNEL

The use of support personnel represents an attempt by the profession to free the counselor from related activities so that he may spend more time on personal counseling, and to help meet the chronic shortage of guidance personnel. The reaction of the profession to the advent of support personnel has been a curious mixture of critical commentary and concern, lack of interest, and general endorsement of the need for sub-professional assistance.

Strong support for the Counselor Advisor University Summer Education (CAUSE) concept and its effectiveness has been provided by Johnson and Grosz (1967), who completed a follow-up evaluation of trainees. They concluded that "the program appears to have been successful in recruiting personnel to fill sub-professional counseling positions (pg. 100)". They noted, however, that further follow-up studies are required to determine if CAUSE graduates continue in the field, improve themselves, and serve in "actually facilitating the vocational development of disadvantaged youth (pg. 102)".

The topic of support personnel has been a concern of APGA which, through its committee on professional preparation and standards, issued a statement (APGA, 1967) on preparation for technical and non-technical roles. Yet Munger (1968), after participating in five regional ACES meetings, found that counselor educators "expressed little interest" in support personnel. He found them more concerned with the fact that they had not yet put "enough energy, time, and training personnel" into the preparation of professional counselors.

Despite the apparent lack of widespread interest, a number of people have been actively concerned with the problem. Gust (1968) raised some important issues surrounding the role of support personnel. He said he does not believe that schools and agencies can be expected to "effectively differentiate between

the roles and functions expected of support personnel and the counselor." He related his concerns to Hansen's (1965) outline of the role of autonomy with respect to the counselor's functions, as opposed to the supervised work of support personnel, and the fact that individual counseling must remain as the counselor's function alone.

Salim and Vogan (1968) outlined several functions which they felt support personnel could perform effectively. These included: working with groups, particularly in orientation activites; clerical counting, distributing, and administering tests (not interpretation); operating audiovisual equipment, and providing a screening function for the counselor. After a program designed to try out support personnel on these functions, the authors concluded that:

> There are many activities which contemporary counselors perform that can be assumed by individuals trained to function as support personnel in guidance. When counselors are freed from these many time-consuming, but necessary, activities they can use their professional attitudes, skills, and understandings more frequently and appropriately (pg. 235).

While the concern of writers like Gust (1968), Salim and Vogan (1968), and Hansen (1965), has been with defining support personnel away from doing personal counseling, there is an increasing body of literature concerned with the use of lay or minimally trained personnel in doing personal counseling (Rioch,

et. al., 1963; Pser, 1966; Beck, Kantor, and Gelineau, 1963; Carkhuff and Truax, 1965a, 1965b; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967; Carkhuff, 1966; and Golann and Magoon, 1966).

Golann and Magoon (1965), using carefully selected individuals who did not hold professional degrees, found that they could be trained to provide psychotherapeutic services in school settings. Carkhuff (1966), summarizing the literature, concluded that "the primary conditions of effective treatment are conditions which minimally trained non-professional persons can provide."

At this time, it is not possible to specify what contributions may be expected of support personnel in particular settings. Progress is being made in training approachs (Ivey, 1968; Ivey, et. al., 1968a, 1968b; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), but work is just beginning. With the need for assistance to the counselor as great as it is, this area merits careful attention in the coming years.

ETHICAL CONCERNS IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION

Ethical concerns are central to the role and responsibilities of any profession. Beck (1967) explored the ethical aspects of change in counselor education. Two parts of his paper merit the careful study of all counselor educators.

The first part concerned the expectations which counselors-in-training may reasonably have of their educators:

> In any profession the novices look to their predecessors for guidelines. Their assumptions are that their

> predecessors (a) have special skills useful in dealing with the usual problems, (b) have had experiences which can provide "patterns of approach" for investigating and acting upon unusual or exceptionally serious problems, (c) know the limits within which their expertise applies, (d) are searching for ways to improve their services, and, finally, (e) can pass on to others what they know and do. (pg. 216)

An ethical code gives not only "sanction but obligation to their members to meet all of these expectations".

The second part concerned the ethical questions which a counselor educator must ask himself:

1. Have I kept myself informed on new skills and new uses of older ones for dealing with the "normal range" of human problems?...
2. Have I tried to build into my students "patterns of approach", critical thinking, and cautions against gross errors in deciding what constitutes an unusual problem in counseling? Have I recently rethought the matter of what is now "unusual" myself?
3. Have I tried to define, and in behavioral terms whenever possible, the reasonable limits of expertise for my students as they enter their first position as counselors?...

4. Have I tried to "stay current" on legislation, information retrieval, new theories of counseling, socio-economic developments, industrial developments, race problems, important research, now-disproven assumptions, and new research techniques?...

5. Have I sincerely tried to improve my classroom presentation? Have I imposed too much and consulted too little with my students?... (pg. 218-219)

While Beck said that no one counselor educator can fulfill all of these obligations perfectly, he may be considered bound to work toward them constantly. For the profession to continue to grow, it is vital that the area of ethical concerns receive more extensive and detailed professional concern and coverage than was accorded it in the period covered by this review.

THE FUTURE IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION

This review of the research in counselor education has demonstrated that over the past three years there have been areas of notable accomplishment within the profession. But it is also strikingly clear that we have only the barest knowledge about some of the most central issues in counseling, particularly as they relate to problems in counselor education.

For major progress to occur, we are going to have to learn much more about the nature of the counseling process, most specifically what it is that counselors do that is helpful to particular clients and for different client problems. Recent theoretical advances in both client-centered counseling and behavioral counseling have been supported by careful empirical research. However, more work by proponents of both approaches is necessary, and is being carried out at this time. A major problem which remains concerns the goals of the counseling endeavor, the criteria by which those goals are measured, and the assesement of the extent to which they are reached with particular clients.

With regard to counselor education, there is the additional problem of translating this advanced knowledge about counseling into the teaching process. In the past, because of theoretical confusions in the field of counseling per se, counselor educators have proceeded by avoiding the central questions of what effects the counselor is to produce, and what he can do in the counseling sessions to accomplish his ends. The result of this avoidance practice has been to add to the confusion of counselors going into the field, to put an artificial

restriction on the structure of counselor education programs, to create teaching systems which have no feed-back mechanisms, and to make evaluating the effects of counselor education programs more art than science, and so seldom practiced and reported in the literature as to fail to serve the profession to any practical extent.

What, then, needs to be accomplished in the immediate future, and what are the long range needs?

Perhaps the most pressing need is to recognize that the service role of the counselor is paramount, and that our training must be organized around helping counselors learn alternate ways of assisting students fulfill their goals. Another need is to refocus the selection of counselors in terms of the question of what effects the counselor is to produce. In addition, further specification of the desired outcomes of a training experience and how to demonstrate them merit careful attention.

Progress has been recently made in terms of developing specific counselor skills through different training experiences. Further research is needed to assess what range of specific skills are resistant to this approach, but might respond to some other method of supervision.

Evaluating the effects of counselor education programs has received scant attention. As the objectives of total training programs are explicated, it will be possible to evaluate them in terms of their goals. Alternate approaches to the goals can be devised, and their effectiveness measured.

Achieving adequate program evaluation is going to take considerable

time. A set of minimal standards in counselor training has just been agreed upon. Accreditation lacks substance as currently practiced. And the state of understanding of the nature of counseling makes early closure on what should be included in a training program impossible.

The immediate future, if we are not to repeat the past, must include at least the following: a closer attention to the results of research on the counseling process in formulating curricula, a careful study of what supervisors can do that will enhance skill development in counselors-in-training, establishment of objectives which can be measured for counselor training programs along with a commitment to evaluate graduates in terms of how they meet those objectives, and the construction of a systematic method for modifying counselor education programs in terms of those evaluations.

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