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ABSTRACT

Assimilation through acculturation is a central aim of education within all societies. If the society is over-assimilated, and if education fails to preserve individual creative powers, it will perish. The school, the institutionalized educational process, is assigned two central tasks: (1) the assimilation by acculturation of the neophytes within the society, and (2) the preservation of the autonomy of the individual in a mode reflective of the ideal of individualism. Two forms of alienation can thus occur: (1) alienation resulting from the failure of assimilation or sociological alienation, and (2) alienation resulting from the loss of an individual's autonomy or psychological alienation. Sociological alienation may be found in immigrants, the American Indians, the American Negroes, the poor, and possibly those physically or emotionally handicapped; artists, and intellectuals. Sociological and psychological alienation cannot always be separated. Among those who might be psychologically alienated is the worker, due to possible fragmentation of self and a search for stability. For some of the psychologically alienated, the schools attempt special programs to work with these maladjustments. (KJ)

Education for Relevance

THE SCHOOLS AND SOCIAL CHANGE

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TO

EARL S. JOHNSON

Colleague, scholar, great teacher, and friend

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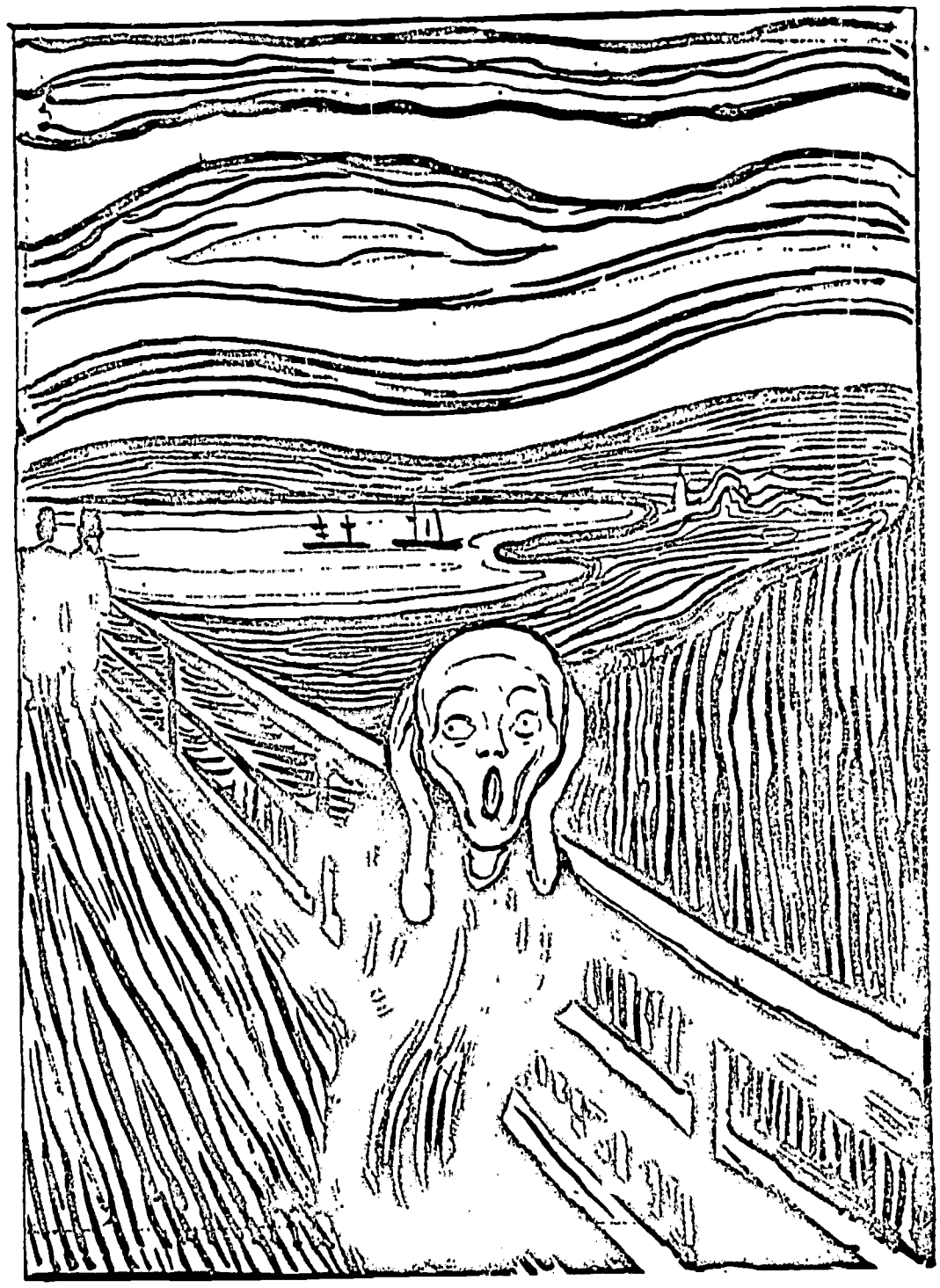


The Cry (lithograph by Edvard Munch)

Chapter Five

THE STRUGGLE AGAINST ALIENATION

As was pointed out in Chapter Four, man resembles all other living organisms in that he is an open biological system in a continuous state of interchange with the physical environment. Through a constant process of inflow and outflow of energy an organism sustains its life. Man, unlike other living organisms, is also an open, "non-organic" system. He must feed upon an interchange of cognitive and affective energies to survive. Without aesthetic, spiritual, intellectual and emotional stimulation from his fellow human beings he cannot become or remain human. Thus, man depends upon groups to achieve his unique form in the hierarchy of life. Indeed, his humanness can be determined solely within a societal context.

Man, the most complex social animal, is also identified by his remarkable and quite perverse propensity for unsocial behavior. Lacking the instinctual characteristics necessary to ensure the preservation of order within his societies and yet dependent upon the survival of societies for his own existence, he creates culture. Culture, the cement that maintains order within societies, is in fact the personality of social systems. It is because of culture that

societies can survive the perpetual onslaught of death which eventually immobilizes each of its members.

The knowledge required for survival by a generation of men is not transmitted to his progeny through organic heredity as it is in the case of other animals. Man deliberately and continuously must struggle to ensure that the elements of his cultures which preserve his societies will not perish. Education is his unique way of dealing with the fact that *nature* "tricked" him by providing him with a somewhat ineffective genetic system. *Nurture* furnishes man, a rather physiologically fragile creature, with the "survival kit" needed to preserve the existence of his species.

Social Assimilation and Education

The primary aim of education in all societies is to transmit a "selective brand of civilization" to its members. Each individual within a society must be able not only to identify and describe the personality of his culture but also to internalize it. All aliens, the newly arrived by birth or migration, or those who do not reflect the culture by choice or circumstances must either be rejected or assimilated. Thus, education is primarily the process by which individuals are assimilated through acculturation.

If the process of assimilation is ineffective and the society disintegrates, man must reconstruct a new social order upon different cultural elements. If he fails to perceive the disintegration or inadequately deals with the problem, the personality of the society will suffer from severe psychosis and the society will cease to function. The reader will remember from history that the inability of the individuals within the Holy Roman Empire to develop a communicable culture resulted in a series of internal upheavals which eventually led to the creation of new social orders based upon divergent cultural elements. (In this connection, it may be prudent to recall the old cliché that the Holy Roman Empire was not truly an empire, nor was it Roman, and by no standard could it be labeled holy.)

It has been previously stated that man creates cultures in order to survive. It is important to emphasize that the creator of culture is man and that the life of a society is rooted in its members. The previous remark that a society possesses a personality does not

mean to imply an organismic conception of society. The society does not exist as an entity separate from its members. It is its members. If the personality of the culture suffocates the personalities of the individuals within its boundaries, it will cut itself off from the very source of its life and will die. The history of the Spartan society after the "Great Refusal," when Spartan leaders began developing a "barracks state," is illustrative of this phenomenon of societal suicide. Cutting itself off from the dynamism of continuous regeneration by stifling creativity and innovation, the Spartans were unable to preserve the "life" of their culture. Atrophy set in and the death knell announced the demise of an already rigid corpse.

Two important conclusions relevant to an analysis of the educational endeavor can be drawn from the previous discussion. First, assimilation through acculturation is a central aim of education within all societies. If the formal or informal educational endeavor fails to bring about assimilation, the society will disintegrate. Second, if the society is over-assimilated and if education fails to preserve individual creative powers, it will also perish. The key to man's survival, therefore, is to discover the "happy mean" between sociological assimilation and the preservation of the individual's autonomy. The reason for the plethora of disagreements and discussions concerning major social, political, economic, and educational issues during the twentieth century, and indeed throughout man's brief history on this planet, is due to the fact that the "happy mean" between sociological assimilation and the preservation of individual autonomy cannot be readily identified. That which is identified by one man as "disintegration of society," another labels "individual freedom," and conversely, what is viewed by some as "assimilation," others identify as "destructive collectivism or groupism." When such conflicting views become the ideologies of warring factions, reason oftentimes cannot salve the resultant wounds.

The Birth of the School

As discussed in Chapter Three, in primitive societies the process of education is simple and informal. Aboriginal parents, assisted by the frequently disenchanted tribal priest, carry the burden of ensuring that their children will acquire the correct behavior

traits. What the young fail to learn about their culture from the parents and the priests they learn by observing and participating in tribal activities. In ancient times, the knowledge the tribe accumulated formed the aboriginal curriculum. As the pool of knowledge deepened and broadened, men, in their persistent search for order, developed a categorical system and the disciplines were born. As the categories of knowledge increased and as men acquired diverse and sophisticated ways of knowing, the task of educating was shared by an increasing number of specialists.

It is worthy of note that the development of knowledge is exponential in nature. Not only does the discovery of new knowledge increase the possibility of creating more knowledge (e.g., the discovery of systems of optics and the resultant discovery of the worlds hidden from man's limited perception), but it also is accompanied by an increase in the division of labor within social systems. The reader will remember from the discussion of roles in Chapter Four that as individuals assume more specialized roles, a growing complexity of behavioral expectations related to these roles are included within the body of knowledge to be transmitted to the individuals within the society. To illustrate the latter assertion, in the tribal society individuals who assumed roles related to political functions, such as members of tribal councils, were required to learn behavior patterns associated with their specialty. Not only did they generally have to wear distinct clothing, as do our court justices, but they also had to deal with individuals within the tribe according to specified rules and regulations. The well known "rites of passage" usually were followed by specified behavioral expectations. Some societies, such as the pre-communist Chinese society, developed extensive and detailed ceremonial patterns. Although modern societies lack these ceremonial expectations, they are characterized by an increase in specialization and a plethora of specific behavioral expectations due to roles and status. Individuals are expected to behave according to their roles and resultant normative expectancies. A successful librarian, for example, generally behaves according to different norms than does an airline stewardess. Although general behavioral expectations are not necessarily verbalized to the degree that are the norms of specified roles, every society has an unsung Amy Vanderbilt.

As social systems and systems of knowledge grew more complex, the informal educational process became inadequate and was

institutionalized through the creation of the school. Although the informal educational system continues to operate, the advent of the industrial revolution, the creation of nation-states, the migration of large groups of individuals from one society to another, the replacement of the extended family by the nuclear family, and the explosion of knowledge has caused the school to assume a more vital and central role in the process of acculturation. Yet to be resolved is the delineation of the educational responsibilities of the family, social and religious agencies, the school, and the recent arrival upon the educational scene, mass media. Whether the family's role in the educational endeavor will continue to decline as the culture becomes more homogenized will depend upon the nature of the evolving social structure and culture. What is evident, however, is that the school, the offspring of society, is assigned the major role in the task of acculturation. The school exists to teach the culture to the young so that they will "fit" within the society. It will be judged successful if the individuals attending it behave in a manner that reveals that they have internalized the essential elements of the culture. If they behave differently from the expectations determined by the cultural norms (the conscience of the society), they will be viewed as "criminal intruders" and the school's ability to perform its assigned task will be questioned. The teachers will have to successfully explain the *raison d'etre* for the school's apparent failure, reeducate their masters, migrate, or drink hemlock.

A question often cited and worthy of note is whether the school has a responsibility to change the social order. It is a moot question in a homogeneous society, for such a society preserves the life-sustaining umbilical cord between itself and the school by placing the school under the control of successfully acculturated individuals and by selecting teachers who reflect the cultural norms. The question is relevant, however, in a pluralistic society with a heterogeneous culture. In such a society, exemplified by the United States, the school may become the center to which divergent societal impulses may be focused. The Progressive Movement in American education, for example, reflected the progressive impulse that existed within certain segments of the society. Whether the school "ought" to assist in changing the social order is another matter, and the reader must arrive at his own conclusion.

The School As a Mirror of the Personality of the Society

As previously mentioned, assimilation through acculturation is an integral aspect of education in all societies. Each society, however, has a plethora of cultural ideals which are unique to it, as Kluckhohn has succinctly stated:

> Some of each child's wants are those common to all human animals. But each culture has its own scheme for the most desirable and the most approved ways of satisfying these needs.[1]

Each culture reflects central ideals which become the guiding principles for all societal activities. The previously mentioned Spartans, for example, prized physical rigor and obedience to the state, while the early American colonists in the New England Bible states valued spiritual rigor and obedience to the "Word of God."

Before taking a look at some twentieth century American ideals, the reader should be alerted to the fact that the "happy mean" between assimilation and the preservation of individual autonomy is usually located within a zone on a continuum that is determined by the culture. A totalitarian state emphasizes the assimilation factor, while a democratic state stresses the preservation of the autonomy of the individual. Also, not all societies have the same degree of integration. Modern industrial societies generally are more extended in size, include a greater diversity of peoples, and are based upon a variety of cultures. To deal with the phenomenon of "loose integration," assimilation assumes diverse forms and characteristics. The concept of nationalism, for example, was a significant factor during the emergence of modern mass societies, and its emotional expression of patriotism continues as a vital element in the process of assimilation.

The American Ideal of Individualism

Any attempt to identify specific cultural elements within a society as complex and pluralistic as the United States is filled with pitfalls. The following is solely an attempt to identify some general principles which follow from the ideal of individualism.

[1] Clyde Kluckhohn, *Mirror for Man* (New York: Fawcett World Library, 1965), p. 171.

Rather than attempting to provide a brief definition of this concept, a task comparable to the search for the philosopher's stone, the following essential elements are provided to assist the reader in an understanding of the nature of individualism:

1. Groups are the sum total of individuals, and individuals are the primary agent, not the group *per se*.
2. Individuals are expected to deviate from adjusted patterns, although such deviations may be partially controlled by existing patterns.
3. The feelings, potential, and limitations of the individual are recognized and respected.
4. The individual is a source of creativity — the ability to discover meaningful ways to relate reality.
5. An individual's right to privacy and solitude is not abridged or denied.
6. Loyalty to a group must be derived from a desire to be part of a group and not from a desire for unity for its own sake.
7. Inner values and ideals that conflict with those of the majority of individuals within a group must be respected without threat of coercion for the purpose of assuring group cohesion.
8. The freedom to select friends and values cannot be abridged by forced "gladhandism."
9. A mature individual must be prepared to assume the responsibility of choosing his own goals.
10. An individual finds his own meaning within a group without being dependent upon it for security.

The "democratic creed" is rooted in the concept of individualism. Society enhances man's ability to become human. A basic American tenet which flows from the ideal of individualism is that the individual should be provided with the maximum opportunity to realize his potential. The social, political, and economic systems within the American society are defended on this basis.

In a political sense, individualism means that the individual is superior to the state and that the individuals who govern the state obtain their right to govern from the governed. The right of the majority is avowed, but, in order to protect the minority from the possible perfidy of the majority, the minority's rights are protected by law.

In the social sphere, individualism rests upon the concept of class mobility within a class society. The Marxist ideal of a classless society is rejected because it is thought to inhibit the individual's chances to achieve and be rewarded according to his ability and determination. Thus, the opportunity for migration from one class to another provides the rationale for the defense of the class structure. The often cited examples of "poverty to riches" reflect the conviction that a class society differs markedly from a caste system. The dominant middle class in American society sets the general patterns of behavioral expectations and, indeed, is the source of the essential elements that make up the culture. To be American in the fullest sense is to reflect middle class values.

The American democratic creed is expressed in the economic system labeled "capitalism." The right of the individual to earn according to his "ability" and to "gather to himself the goods of the earth" is viewed as the basis of an economic democracy. The right of private property belongs to both consumer and capitalist. As the industrial revolution progresses, the stock market is gradually replacing the small town market place as the symbol of a democratic economic system in action.

The above description of individualism as an American ideal is not intended to imply that the ideal is necessarily reflected in practice. Discrepancies often occur, and if they persist, they cause social crises. An illustration of such a pattern of unrest is the great labor upheaval during the decade following World War I. The widespread labor strikes resulted in part from the failure, and apparent inherent inability of the existing capitalistic system to provide equality of economic opportunity. While the rich were increasing their wealth, the poor remained in poverty, and the workers demanded that the ideals upheld by the society be put into practice. Eventually, alterations were made in the existing capitalistic system, accompanied by an extension of federal government activity in the economic domain.

The Negro sit-ins and marches of the sixties provide another vivid example of the crisis that results when a social system fails to implement the ideals that are integral to its culture. Because a significant segment of the populace, led by the august Supreme Court (the institutionalized conscience of the society), realized that our avowed devotion to political equality and equality of

opportunity was ludicrous in comparison with current social practices, the implementation of much-needed reforms was demanded.

The dilemma concerning whether "American democratic ideals" can indeed be implemented in a modern mass society has been the source of diverse tracts and tomes. A study of the concepts of economic freedom, social class, and political equality, when placed in juxtaposition, presents various perplexing questions. Can economic freedom, with its obvious correlate that some will be richer than others, exist simultaneously with political equality whereby each man has an equal voice in the process of operating his government? Indeed, more basic questions are: Can the ideals implied by sociological assimilation and the preservation of individualism be realized simultaneously? and Can equality exist in any sphere of human activity when nature appears to have been rather remiss in distributing assets and liabilities? The advocates of the "democratic creed" generally answer these frustrating questions in the affirmative. The ideals are not only viewed as theoretically compatible but also capable of being effectively implemented. This American faith is derived, in part, from a belief in our capacity to affect our future and the concurrent rejection of the concept of an overpowering *destino*. Our faith in nurture overshadows our fear of the limitations imposed upon us by nature. Indeed, we can reflect upon man's past journey and argue that he is ornery enough to succeed. From the day when he arose from the primeval muck to the present hour, he has confounded the gods.

This American faith in man's eventual success is also based upon our conviction that education is the panacea that will overcome his organic limitations. It is reflected in Thomas Jefferson's letter to George Wythe in 1786. He asserted: "I think by far the most important bill in our whole code is that for the diffusion of knowledge among the people. No other sure foundation can be devised for the preservation of freedom and happiness."[2]

The Tasks of the School

The school in American society is assigned two central tasks: (1) the assimilation by acculturation of the neophytes within the society, and (2) the preservation of the autonomy of the indi-

[2] Gordon C. Lee (ed.), *Crusade Against Ignorance* (Richmond, Va.: The William Byrd Press, 1962), p. 99.

vidual in a mode reflective of the ideal of individualism discussed above. The assertion that assimilation by acculturation is a central task of the school does not mean that the school rejects the goal of education for world society mentioned in Chapter One. The nation-state is linked with the world community. Nationalism and internationalism are not mutually exclusive. Acculturation will include elements which relate to the world community. As assimilation in the American nation-state implies an acceptance of the social unit labeled *family,* it also may include the goal of integrating the young into the world community.

The remainder of this chapter will deal with the difficulty of accomplishing these ends in twentieth century American society; it will also identify some difficulties encountered by the schools in their attempts to fulfill their two central tasks. The failure to bring about effective sociological assimilation will be viewed in reference to ethnic and social class differences. The failure to implement some of the ideals of individualism will be analyzed by focusing upon the social forces that threaten the autonomy of individuals by fragmenting their identity. Individuals who are thus sociologically non-assimilated and/or psychologically fragmented may be said to be suffering from alienation.

Alienation in American Society

The meaning of the word "alienation" is elusive; a cursory examination of its use shows that a variety of definitions abound. For the purpose of this chapter, however, it will be defined as a separation or a sense of separation from one's "real self" or from other human beings with whom the individual interacts. An individual is alienated if he cannot fathom his own "within" or his identity as a person. He is also alienated if he is unable to effectively communicate with other human beings within his environment. Both forms of alienation prevent the individual from being or feeling "human"; they keep him from becoming an integrated whole capable of interchanging cognitive and affective energies with other persons in his environment. The two forms of alienation that will be focused upon are (1) alienation resulting from the failure of assimilation, which will be labeled *sociological alienation,* and (2) alienation that results from the loss of

an individual's autonomy, that is, the fragmentation of the self, which will be called *psychological alienation*.

These two forms of alienation have diverse causes, but two basic causes can be identified. First, alienation that results from *nature* (e.g., congenital mental retardation), and secondly, that which results from *nurture* (e.g., cultural deviation).

Sociological Alienation

In order to be assimilated within the American society, a foreign-born individual must not only effectively adjust to the general American cultural patterns and ideals but he must also be integrated within the dominant social class, the middle class. Thus, to be assimilated within the American society, an individual must successfully perform inter-societal migration by adopting the cultural norms of his new native country, and he must also successfully migrate from the lower socio-economic class to the dominant middle class. The success of intra-societal migration towards the middle class is due in great measure to the degree in which an individual internalizes the general cultural norms (e.g., the democratic creed). Unless he completes both forms of migration, he remains an alien. The schema shown in Figure 2 represents the phenomenon of assimilation.

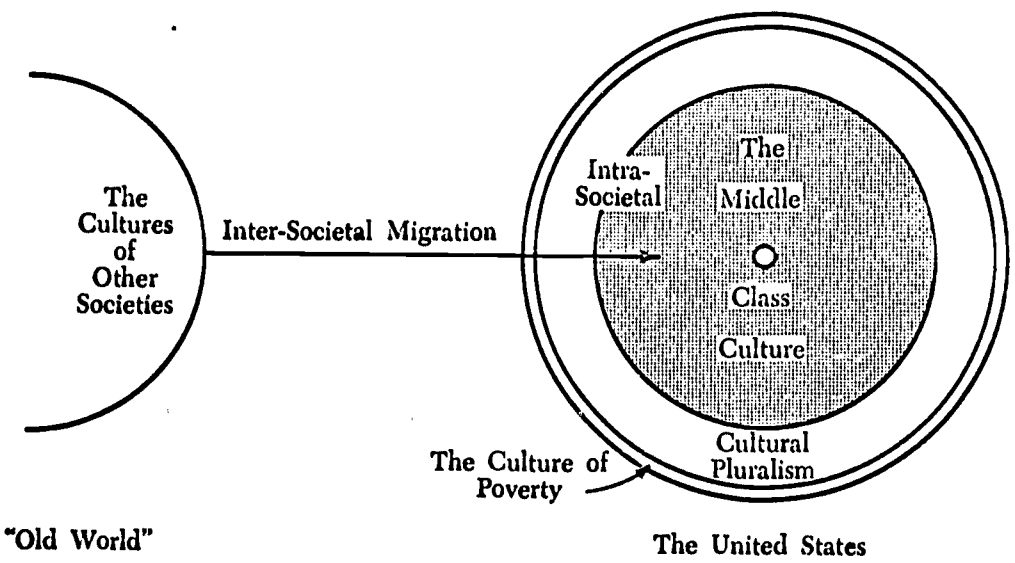


FIGURE 2

The Process of Cultural Assimilation

Successful assimilation implies that an individual migrating from an "Old World" society eventually becomes an acceptable member of the middle class. In other words, in order to become "an American," an immigrant must often migrate through the lowest, poorest social class, through a society composed of separate but not equal ethnic groups, and eventually assume a somewhat stable position within the middle class. Thus, many individuals must divest themselves of a variety of normative elements and expectations derived from the "Old World" culture, accept and eventually reject the culture of poverty, sustain a transformed ethnic culture, and ultimately internalize middle class values and behavioral expectations. Not all aliens need pass through all of the areas identified in Figure 2, however. The speed and nature of assimilation within the middle class society rest in part upon the similarity and dissimilarity between the original and the adopted culture. An Englishman, for example, may migrate directly from the "Old World" culture into middle class American society. Also, an individual may be native to the American society and yet remain within the outer core of the middle class societal milieu. Although assimilation can be obtained by extending the middle class culture to include subcultural elements by diversifying acceptable normative elements and modifying behavioral expectations, the process generally rests upon a conscious attempt to acculturate the aliens to existing patterns.

The Immigrants. As far back as the founding of the American Republic the problem imposed by inter-societal migration has been of central concern to the schools. The United States, being a nation composed of immigrants and the progeny of immigrants, faced a somewhat unique struggle to achieve assimilation. Unable to develop a sense of attachment to the elusive concept, "fatherland," the cohesive force which was to unite the American people was the religion of democracy. As the immigrants arrived on the American shores from diverse lands and cultures, they were gathered into the educational ladle, the public school system, and dipped into the great Melting Pot. Thus, a form of nationalism, rooted in the democratic creed and taught in the English language, was the unifying agent. The American form of assimilation was based upon the assumption that as ethnic differences disappeared

the "American type" would be generated. The school was assigned the task of amalgamating and Americanizing the peoples of the "New Jerusalem." It is important to note that the so-called "American type" (a term reflective of the middle class culture) was not truly an amalgam but rather a microcosmic mirror that reflected the "evolved" culture introduced by the earliest immigrants. Could it be that the Melting Pot was to produce a fuzzy replica of an Englishman?

The offspring of many of the immigrants, especially those of second and third generations, with assistance from the public school, successfully overthrew the subcultures of the ethnic ghettoes and entered the middle class society. Though the public school watched with deep satisfaction the Americanization of the neophytes, there was often a conscious and unconscious opposition

Inter-societal migrants. An Italian family at Ellis Island; 1905.

to such a process on the part of the immigrants. The ethnic ghettoes the immigrants frequently established reflected their understandable fear of becoming isolated aliens within the yet-to-be-internalized adopted culture. The family social unit often became the focal point of the pressure to resist acculturation.

In recent years a new concept appeared which challenges the Melting Pot idea of assimilation. The advocates of this concept, "cultural pluralism," want to preserve ethnic differences. Cultural pluralism implies that the diverse cultures which are represented by the variety of ethnic groups who settled on the American soil should be preserved and protected from the process of cultural diffusion. Thus, as oil and water placed within one container do not mix, the diverse cultures would be contained by one nation but would not be adulterated by each other.

Although cultural pluralism continues to exist for a limited period after the arrival and settlement of immigrants, it rarely endures beyond the third generation. When it does exist, it usually does not permeate the middle class society. The values and behavioral expectations reflected by the members of the middle class are remarkably similar. Although minor ideological differences often result in controversy, these differences result primarily because the middle class culture is a hybrid culture.

Although cultural pluralism appears to be more suited to a pluralistic and democratic society, its workability in twentieth century America is questionable. Would members of the diverse ethnic groups have equal access to the rungs of the socioeconomic ladder, or would those individuals whose cultures more closely resemble that of the individuals who have already reached the top have a better chance of economic success? Would such an approach to the assimilation process result in centers of highly homogeneous subcultures, preventing the development of a suitable all-encompassing culture that would be adequate to sustain order within society? Also, the problem of cultural suitability is of central concern. A culture that has evolved within environmental conditions radically different from those found in America and within a different historical context cannot be "transplanted" without significant alterations. The colonists who arrived in the seventeenth century, for example, although dedicated to the preservation of the culture of their fathers, were forced to transform

integral elements to adjust to the frontier environment of their adopted homeland. Although the culture of the nascent American society was quite similar to its English antecedent, it was also significantly different from it, because of the pressure of environmental factors. Illustrative of this assertion is the breakdown of the apprenticeship system in the early colonies.

In spite of the diverse approaches to an understanding of assimilation, however, the fact is that assimilation must occur if the society is to be preserved. It is only the form the assimilation should take which remains in dispute.

The American Indians. The original inhabitants of the land, the American Indians, are in the rather paradoxical position of being aliens in their own land. During the early years of colonization by the Europeans, sporadic yet zealous missionary attempts to assimilate the Indians were made. The names of early agencies dedicated to the task of assimilation, such as the Anglican Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, betray the commitment to Christianize the red man. Because of the Indians' courageous stamina in resisting the pressures to destroy their cultures, and because of the federal government's policy of segregating the Indians under the guise of federal protection, however, they continue to be sociologically alienated from the "American" culture. Under the government's policy of *de facto* apartheid, our aborigines remain outside the middle class culture and often outside the economic structure. Whether the Indian eventually will obtain the recognition he deserves for his unique status and ways remains to be seen. The pseudo-recognition he receives by visitors on holiday when he is encouraged to display the exotic aspects of his culture is an American tragedy.

The American Negro. The American Negro, involuntarily brought to these shores shortly after the arrival of the first settlers, remained in slavery throughout the early centuries of our history. Treated as property and deprived of control over his own destiny until the mid-1860's, he was unable to preserve his African cultures or to develop an American Negro culture, since slavery inhibits the development of culture. Once freed, he was prevented from being assimilated into the middle class society and forced to

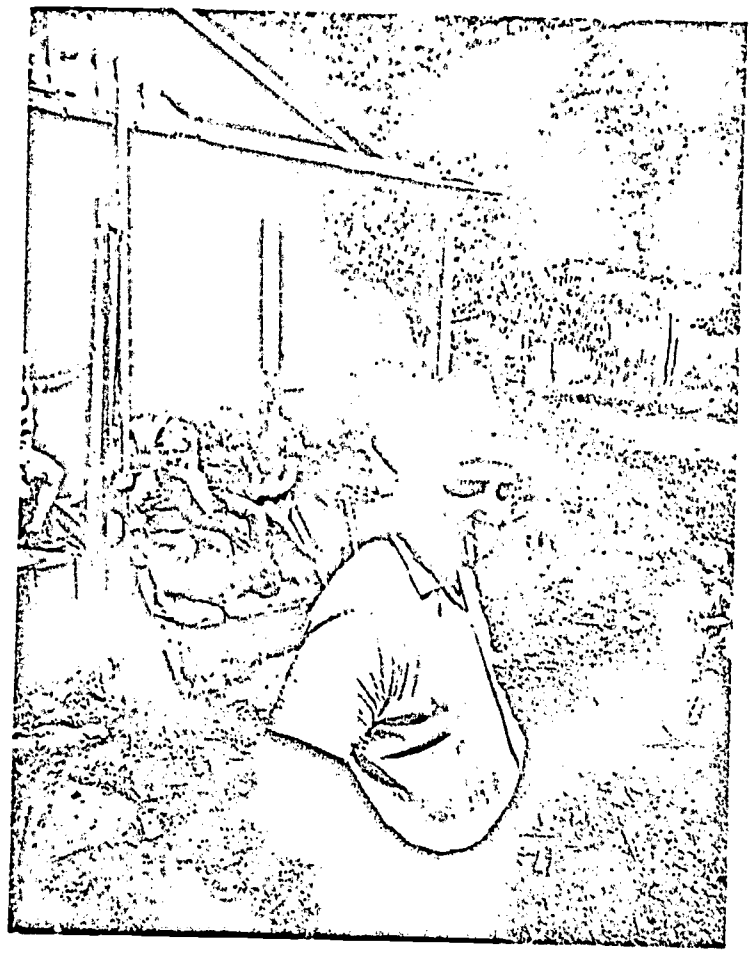
become a part of the social class which reflected the culture of economic deprivation.

The assertion that there does not exist an American Negro culture is not meant to imply that Negro citizens have not contributed significantly to the American culture. It merely means that the shading of one's skin cannot be the cause of the creation of a culture. Admittedly, the behavioral expectations that result from the perception of "color" as a significant factor may result in *some* shared ways of behaving. However, such shared ways, unless combined with various other factors, do not bring about the creation of a culture. The poor Negro who inhabits an agrarian southern community more closely resembles his white brother living in similar circumstances than other Negroes living in a more affluent environment. (The reason that the American Negro is "different" is not because of nature but rather because of nurture. He is different solely because nurture has caused some individuals to *perceive* color as a relevant determiner of human patterns of interaction. Thus, an insignificant but visible characteristic has forced *some* Negroes to remain within the lowest socioeconomic class.)

Recent developments seem to indicate that certain Negroes, deprived of middle class status and forced to live within a class identified by economic deprivation, are seeking to establish a subculture which, indeed, would serve as a protector in a hostile world. Thus a minority of Negroes have adopted the Muslim faith, along with selected elements from African cultures. That this new lifestyle will free them from the culture of poverty is questionable.

The Poor. The most readily identified as alienated because of social class are the poor. (One could argue that the very rich [see Figure 2], are equally alienated from the middle class as the members of the American international jet set have demonstrated. But the society in general and the members of that subgroup are not about to make their alienation an educational issue.)

Often deprived of political equality and frequently prevented by circumstance from moving out of the lowest socioeconomic class, the poor have failed to implement the concept of assimilation. John Steinbeck's vivid descriptions of the poverty of the inhabitants of the Dust Bowl during the thirties and the recent exposés of the plight of the peoples of Appalachia and of the migrant



A poor white family of Appalachia.

Farmer and son await relief check.

Negro child in slum.

workers of California, Florida, and other fruit- and vegetable-growing areas offer moving accounts of the appalling suffering imposed by poverty.

The culture of poverty is fashioned with its own set of values and behavioral expectations. As the values of all cultures represent methods of survival in a hostile environment, the values of the poor are designed to enable them to survive in a sociologically hostile world.

Because of the nature of technological change which increasingly creates a demand for skilled workers, and the need to make effective use of the formal educational process, the poor have been stratified within a class that closely resembles a caste. The school has become the agency which may best serve to liberate the individuals involuntarily enslaved by economic deprivation, but, unfortunately, it includes elements which inhibit its attempt to successfully accomplish the task of assimilating these individuals. As an agency of the middle class society, the school sets middle class goals and expectations for the students, and achievement and external reward depend upon the degree to which these values are learned and internalized. The problem goes beyond that of learning to read, write, and compute, as Talcott Parsons has observed:

> The criteria of the achievement are generally speaking, undifferentiated into the cognitive and technical component and the moral or 'social' component. But with respect to its bearing on societal values, it is broadly a differentiation of levels of capacity to act in accord with these values.[3]

The road to advancement within the societal milieu increasingly depends upon the school's capacity to provide the maximum educational opportunity for all its students. As pointed out in Chapter 2, the goal of equalizing educational opportunity cannot be easily achieved. The problem is being tackled by an increasingly active federal government and by many educators committed to unearthing the roots of the dilemma. The recent increase in federal monies for education is due, in part, to the desire to assist the poor in becoming assimilated into the middle class. Whether

[3] Talcott Parsons, "The School as a Social System," *Harvard Educational Review* (Fall, 1959), p. 300.

a similar attempt will be made to develop a more heterogeneous culture which will include the values of groups peripheral to the middle class remains to be seen. According to Horatio Ulibarri,

> The schools have been complacent to a large degree in presenting only a small aspect of the American culture, namely, the middle-class values and orientations, as the sum total of the curricula in the schools.[4]

The effectiveness of the school in assimilating the children and youth of lower socioeconomic classes will depend upon the empathy of the teachers and the opportunity for cross-cultural contact. Teachers must also be prepared to accept prescribed innovations which are not solely based upon sound analyses of existing situations and needed reform, but also based upon a courageous attempt to remove the middle class "tunnel vision" of reality.

Other Sociologically Alienated Groups. The school, of course, must also continue its task of assimilating all of the neophytes for, indeed, all children are born alien to society. Even the task of assimilating children of middle class parents into the middle class society is difficult and frustrating. As the culture evolves with increasing rapidity and as the institutions within the society are altered to "fit" technological advances, the task of assimilation requires greater wisdom and finesse. Assimilation in twentieth century America implies that an individual must not only fit into the existing society but must also be capable of fitting himself into a society which, as yet, does not exist and cannot be accurately described.

Before turning to the problem of psychological alienation which follows, the reader should be aware that there are various other types of sociological alienation that are relevant to the educational endeavor. Those individuals, for example, stigmatized by a physical or emotional handicap, often unsuccessfully struggle to be assimilated within the society, while artists and intellectuals must perpetually struggle to feel a sense of belonging in a society characterized by a reward system based upon static norms and rigid

[4] Horatio Ulibarri, "Teacher Awareness of Sociocultural Differences in the Multicultural Classrooms," *Sociology and Social Research* (October, 1960), p. 49.

determinants of achievement. Although the special problems of handicapped and gifted children have received increasing recognition among educators in recent years, they are still given too little attention in many school systems.

Psychological Alienation

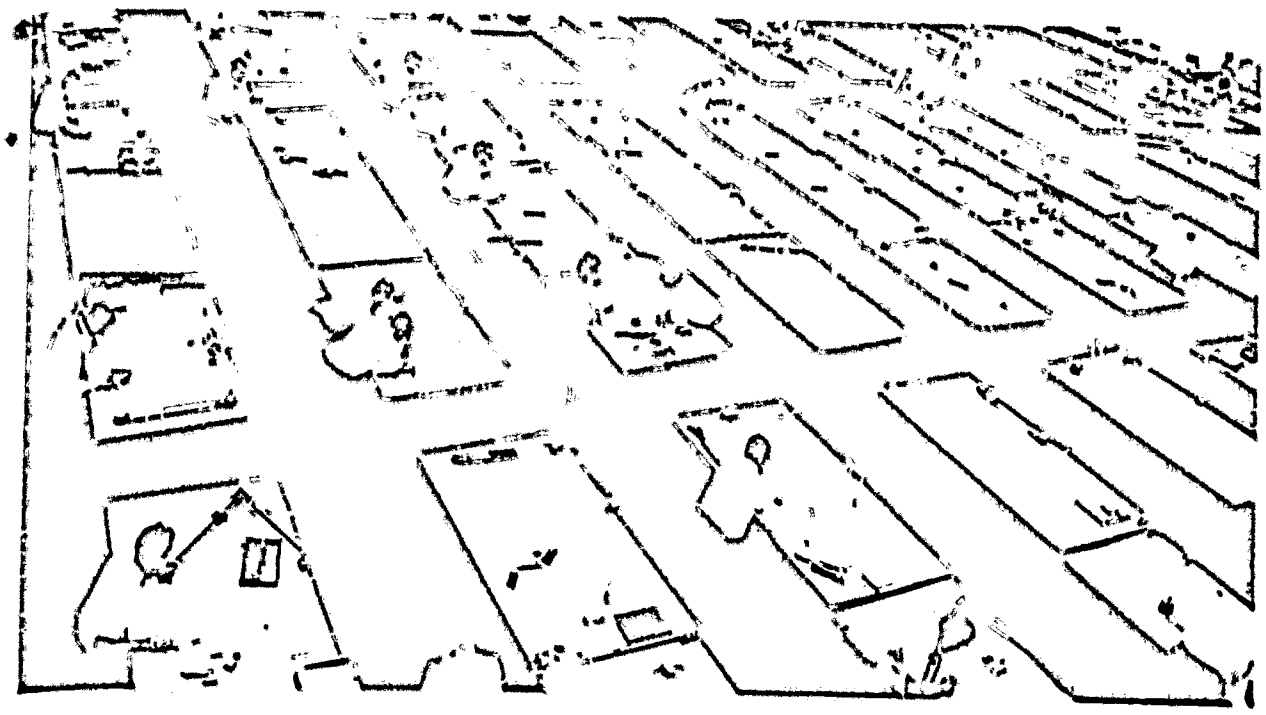
We must point out at the outset of this discussion of psychological alienation that sociological alienation and psychological alienation cannot, in fact, be readily separated; often they are concomitant.

Psychological alienation exists when an individual fails to preserve or to develop his autonomy. He becomes solely a conditioned reactor rather than a free actor within the societal milieu; he cannot internalize the elements of individualism listed in an earlier section of this chapter. Psychological alienation results, in part, from the inability of an individual to cope with the mass, corporate society. Indeed, the fragmentation of identity often results from the demands imposed upon an individual by a society revolutionized by technological advances. As Fromm says, "Man has created a world of man-made things as it never existed before. He has constructed a complicated social machine to administer the technical machine he built."[5]

In the following pages we will describe briefly some of the aspects of twentieth century American society which have encouraged the development of psychological alienation.

The Isolation of the Worker. The nature of our industrialized society has greatly limited the individual's opportunity to share cognitive and affective energies with other human beings (a vital factor in developing and sustaining an awareness of one's identity). The centralization of the giants of the industrial world has generated the megalopolis and isolated industrial parks. Thus, the worker, a veritable gypsy, is forced to migrate perpetually between the suburban community where he lives and the great cities of Babel surrounding the industrial towers of the twentieth century where he works. As a result of this phenomenon, he frequently

[5] Erich Fromm, "Alienation under Capitalism," in *Man Alone: Alienation in Modern Society*, eds. Eric Josephson and Mary Josephson (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1962), p. 59.



Drafting engineers. Even highly trained men can seem insignificant in a large company like this one.

cannot develop meaningful interactions with other human beings. Indeed, he cannot communicate. Max Lerner, in describing the character of the American city dweller, writes:

> It has been psychologically hardened by innumerable brief encounters — in public schools, on subways and buses, in restaurants, in the course of shopping — which would become intolerable if one did not sheathe oneself against them with a constricted response.[6]

Thus, the modern urbanite-suburbanite often cannot discover meaning within his fluid community. He encounters his family for brief interludes; his home often resembles a boarding house; and his neighborhood, with its well-paved streets and well-mowed lawns, seems to lack the movement and feeling of "real life."

As he moves to the suburbs to regain contact with nature, he shortens his days by increasing the "lost hours" enroute between home and office or factory. Eventually, the tentacles of the ravenous megalopolis will reach out and encompass his new haven. Indeed, in his sense of alienation, the modern American resembles Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden. He, however, differs from

[6] Max Lerner, *America as a Civilization* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1961), p. 168.

his ancestors who consumed the "forbidden fruit" because he suffers from the realization that he has chopped down the "tree of life" and replaced it with a parking lot.

A highly industrialized society is also characterized by an increase in the division of labor. Both the white-collar and the blue-collar worker are required to perform a highly specialized and often monotonous task, and instead of working cooperatively with others in a joint endeavor, each works alone, separated from the opportunity for meaningful interaction with fellow workers. He is also deprived of the satisfaction of releasing his creative urge; unlike the skilled worker-artist of bygone days, the modern worker seldom experiences the joy of seeing the results of his special, individual labor in the finished product. He realizes, too, that the product will soon be obsolete and, even more discouraging, that his job may become obsolete — that automation may soon invade his domain and replace him.

The Fragmentation of the Self. As the role relationships within the corporate structure become more complex and static, the worker must assume a pattern of behavior which is determined by the needs of an efficiency-oriented sub-social system. Indeed, the autonomous, inner-directed individual so vividly described by David Riesman is often viewed as a liability in the corporate world. The mass society appears to rest upon the shoulders of the other-directed man, who is willing to perform in accordance with the variety of behavioral expectations of the corporate society. Eventually, however, this individual begins to see himself only through the roles he plays, and his identity becomes fragmented. He may be an industrial worker, a union steward, a member of the bowling league, but never an integrated whole — a man.

Besides having his name replaced by his social security number as the badge of his identity, the worker's integrity and his right to privacy are curtailed by a barrage of "psychological" tests which he is required to complete in order to assure that he will find his "proper place" in the complex maze of a bureaucratic, industrial complex.

The Search for Stability. Since man is a moral agent who can transcend himself, he perpetually seeks guidelines for his judgments and actions. In order to "be," he must be free to make

choices, but to make choices, he must have alternatives from which to choose. In twentieth century America, however, as the culture has become more homogenized, and as diverse normative elements have become integral to the culture, values have become increasingly nebulous. Without identifiable values or norms, the quest for identity becomes more chaotic and frustrating.

The prevailing social philosophy of relativism also tends to increase psychological alienation. The ancient Aristotelian search for truth, the scholastic search for truth, and the Newtonian search for natural laws have been replaced by a relativistic concept of reality, which has as its focus the process of critical thinking. Although this development has led to a more rational understanding of reality, it often results in destructive skepticism.

Another factor which, in some ways, has led to a diminishing sense of self is the growth of science. As we probe into the universe, our search for identity is confounded by the realization that we are microscopic creatures within our own galaxy. We can but muse over the possible psychological effects of our sojourn into space and the resultant realization that we are but specks upon a speck within a gargantuan complex ocean.

The School and Alienation

The school must ensure that the ideal of individualism be sustained while adequately preparing individuals to fit into the modern mass corporate society. The manner in which it will meet its task will determine, in part, the nature of the future social order. The way in which the school has tackled its tasks in the past has been generally reactive rather than initiative; it has usually awaited cues from the society. The rest of this section provides a possible pattern by which the school could (not necessarily "should") deal with the two basic forms of alienation.

The present educational endeavor contains the threads of this pattern: (1) the integration of individuals within the schools who are alienated because of *nurture* so that they will be assimilated into the adult society, and (2) the segregation of individuals within the schools who are alienated because of *nature* for the same purpose — social assimilation. Thus, when society is responsible for the alienation, the aliens may be integrated within the school. The development of the comprehensive school, for example, results in the integration of individuals from diverse eth-

nic groups and social classes. Also, the recent Supreme Court rulings in which the "separate but equal" approach to race relations has been reversed implies the concept "integration in school for assimilation in society."

Individuals who are alienated because of nature, on the other hand, may be separated from their non-alienated peers in order to become a part of special programs for their benefit. The development of the field of exceptional education is an example of this practice. Thus, by specializing the instruction of the exceptional child, he is being assisted in dealing with a "maladjustment" imposed upon him by nature.

The above pattern for dealing with alienated children and youth, needless to say, is not clearly defined, nor is it universally accepted by educators. It has been introduced here solely as a point of departure for further analysis and discussion. The problems presented by such a scheme are many. First, the differences between nature and nurture cannot be clearly distinguished. Second, the ideals of the society must be reflected in practice. For example, should the gifted child be sectioned within the school? If one answers in the affirmative, he may be labeled anti-democratic for advocating an elitist concept of education. On the other hand, if his reply is negative, he can also be labeled undemocratic, for the integration of a gifted child with "normal" children could imply that the former would not be granted an opportunity to make maximum use of his special abilities.

Conclusion

A final word should be added concerning the nature of the dilemma of alienation. Although the previous assertions may seem to indicate that modern man is a failure, the opposite is, perhaps, closer to the truth. The very fact that he can ask himself questions dealing with his own identity and his place within the universe is evidence of success in other areas of life. The reader may recall that man's journey through history has involved a persistent struggle to meet his most basic needs in a very hostile physical environment. Today, in twentieth century America, because most of us have succeeded so well in providing for our primary physical wants, we are now free to search for greater fulfillment. The

malaise of this age may therefore be attributed not only to our complex social order, but also to the increase of leisure time during which we can ask ourselves the questions a great majority of our ancestors were not able to formulate.

In other words, though we cannot deny that modern man is maladjusted, we must agree with M.V.C. Jeffreys that

> It is because man is maladjusted that he is unique in Nature. From his maladjustment — evident in the chasm between aspiration and capacity, vision and performance — spring all the distinctively human activities; scientific inquiry, artistic creation, philosophical speculation, and — the supporting condition of them all — historical experience.[7]

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

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ABSTRACT

Coordination of counselor education and supervision is one of the major issues demanding immediate attention. Various background aspects are discussed: (1) the need for counseling supervision, (2) the function of counseling supervision, (3) the goals of supervision, (4) the status of supervision, and (5) the purposes of this study. Included in this last point are the congruence of supervision in practice now and the ideal, and the articulation between supervision in counseling preparation and on-the-job counseling. While much has been written on supervision, there is little agreement on function and technique. Various research studies are cited. Instruments were developed by a Committee on Counselor Effectiveness and sent to 2,000 members of the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision. Of the 2,000 sent, 613 were returned. After analyzing the data, six recommendations were presented, including: (1) the qualifications of supervision competencies be made more explicit, and (2) that supervisors be required to have training in supervision. Complete data is included, as well as bibliographies at the end of each section. (Author/KJ)

COMMITMENT TO ACTION IN SUPERVISION:

REPORT OF A NATIONAL SURVEY OF COUNSELOR SUPERVISION

Association for Counselor Education and Supervision

Committee on Counselor Effectiveness

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Las Vegas, Nevada

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I am transmitting herewith report of a national survey of counselor supervision, prepared by the ACES Committee on Counselor Effectiveness, established in 1968 to identify ways by which improvement in counselor education and supervision might be achieved. The committee elected to limit study to supervision, considered to be one of the most critical variables relating to ultimate attainment of counselor effectiveness.

The report includes a statement of the problem of counselor supervision, survey of related literature dealing with counselor supervision, description of methodology employed in conducting the survey of counselor supervision in the fifty states, elucidation of findings of the survey, and recommendations for action. Committee members working with me on the report were Ronald D. Baker, Iowa State University, Garland M. Fitzpatrick, Connecticut State Department of Education, and Ray E. Hosford, University of Wisconsin.

T. Antoinette Ryan

T. Antoinette Ryan, Chairman
ACES Committee on Counselor Effectiveness

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Introduction

T. Antoinette Ryan
University of Hawaii

Purpose of ACES Committee on Counselor Effectiveness

Since its beginning nearly thirty years ago, ACES has been seeking ways to increase effectiveness of counselors. At the 1968 American Personnel and Guidance Association convention in Detroit, ACES President, Gil Moore appointed a Committee on Counselor Effectiveness. The committee was given the charge of studying the situation with regard to effectiveness of counselors, as a basis for producing guidelines for improving counselor education.

Translating the broad charge given to the committee into study objectives, was guided by consideration of constraints and limitations. Two uncontrollable constraints, time and money, led to the conclusion that the study would of necessity have to be limited to a specific variable related to counselor effectiveness, rather than a large-scale total assessment project comparable to the teaching effectiveness studies (Ryans, 1960; Flanders, 1960).

The ACES Committee on Counselor Effectiveness was comprised of T. Antoinette Ryan, Professor, Committee Chairman, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii; Ronald D. Baker, Assistant Professor of Education, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa; Garland M. Fitzpatrick, Connecticut State Department of Education, Hartford, Connecticut; and Ray E. Hosford, Ass't Professor, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

The committee acknowledged the need for research aimed at idenitfying and defining, experimentally manipulating variables relating to counselor effectiveness (Swain, 1968), and recognized the need for finding out what conditions and combinations for learning "how-to-counsel" result in what kinds and quality of experiencing by trainees; what kind and quality of experiencing lead to what behaviors on-the-job as counselors; and what behaviors on-the-job as school counselors result in what outcomes in behaviors of counselees. The initial task of the committee was to decide which aspect of counselor effectiveness would be the object of investigation. The committee elected to study counselor supervision.

Selection of supervision as the object of study was based on two considerations: (1) There appeared to be little empirical information on counselor supervision; and (2) Supervision was unique among variables related to counselor effectiveness in that it theoretically at least extended over both preparation and practice.

Lack of information on counselor supervision

In reviewing programmatic research, Strowig and Farwell (1966) concluded that few studies had been reported which would give a basis for deciding how counselors could best be educated. Cash and Munger (1966) in reviewing research relating to counselors and their preparation pointed to a special need for research dealing with methods of supervision of counselors on-the-job, and noted lack of studies of changes in trainees related to specific supervision variables. Appleton and Hansen (1968) in analyzing status of supervision in guidance, concluded that supervisory relationships in guidance had received little if any attention, observing that most guidance departments had not instituted on-the-job supervision. Whether departments had failed to implement supervision or dimply had failed to report supervisory practices appears to be a moot question. Wrenn (1965) in taking a second look at the counseling situation pointed to coordination of counselor education and

supervision as one of the major issues and challenges demanding immediate attention. Of the published information on counselor supervision, apparently little basic or empirical research concerning problems associated with supervision of counseling practicum, internship in the school, or role of supervisor has been reported. Cash and Munger (1966) concluded that "the scarcity of investigations in this area indicates the need for study of this important area of the counselor education program."

Counselor supervision during preparation and practice

Of all the variables relating to counselor effectiveness, supervision appears to be the only one which in theory, at least, extends over the entire time span from preparation through practice. Supervision is held to be part of the program of studies in counselor preparation (American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1967; Ohlsen, 1968). Historically, on-the-job supervision has been implemented by local district or state department personnel, at least for beginning counselors. The Standards for counselor preparation prescribe supervision by qualified school personnel during internship and first and/or second year counseling.

Selection of counselor supervision as object of study

In light of the apparent lack of information on counselor supervision, and the potential for influencing counselor effectiveness because of the long time span during which supervision is implemented, the committee selected supervision as the object of study. The first task was to define parameters of the supervision problem. Essentially the committee was interested in looking at the relationship between supervision and counselor effectiveness. To accomplish this mission it was necessary to establish a rationale for the study and to identify gaps in knowledge.

PROBLEM OF COUNSELOR SUPERVISION

T. Antoinette Ryan

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study of counselor supervision was twofold: (1) to determine degree of congruence between supervision as it was being implemented and as it would be implemented under a concept of ideal supervision defined by counselor edcuators, counselors, local district and state department supervisors; and (2) to determine extent of articulation between supervision in counselor preparation and on-the-job supervision.

Background

Supervision is defined as a process of "seeing over", that is, overseeing through direction, inspection, critical evaluation, assistance, and decision-making to achieve implementation of intentions. Historical antecendents of counselor supervision are rooted in ancient times. Existence of the overseer in biblical days is documented in the Old Testament. Throughout the ages supervision has been implemented in military and governmental operations, and is practiced today in business, industry, and the professions. Throughout the ages, a primary function of supervisory intervention has been to implement intentions of the operating unit or organization, by achieving increased efficiency and productivity of supervisees.

Need for Counseling Supervision

Considerable support has been given to the position that there is need for supervision of counselors. "The importance of supervised counseling practice is seldom questioned. It has rapidly become accepted as an integral part of counselor education" (Hansen and Moore, 1966). As the practicum has come to play a central role in counselor education, supervision has emerged as one of the most critical phases in preparation of counselors (Davidson and Emmers, 1966).

The need for counselor supervision is implicit in the standards for preparation of counselors (American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1967; Ohlsen, 1968). The Standards for elementary and secondary counselors include supervised experience as one of the recommended requirements of adequate programs of counselor preparation. The Standards stipulate that supervised experiences must be provided as an integral part of the total counselor education program, including laboratory experiences in first and/or second years, and practicum in first and/or second years, with internship optional. The Standards specify that supervision is to be by well-qualfied staff, with adequate time and appropriate setting provided. According to the Standards supervised experiences should include observation and direct work with learners, parents, teachers, administrators, and others in the community, with all experiences satisfying ethical requirements.

Functions of Counselor Supervision

In the helping professions, supervision implements a protective function, as well as aiming to achieve operating efficiency. McCully (1963, 1966) pointed out that a profession entails a basic core of knowledge in some department of learning or science, specialized techniques, and application of knowledge and techniques to affairs of others to meet a social need. This carries a mandate for accountability, and prescribes that the welfare and wellbeing of the profession's beneficiaries will be preserved. Supervision in the helping professions is aimed at satisfying obligation for accountability as well as achieving professional goals. In education, supervision is implemented not only to increase teacher effectiveness, and thereby achieve improvement in pupil performance, but also to insure protection of learners from damage or threat to their wellbeing through teaching failures or faults.

Counseling supervision seeks to increase counselor effectiveness thereby increasing student educational, vocational, personal and social development,

and to protect the wellbeing of counselees. Counselor supervision is conceptualized as a process of overseeing counselor trainees and counselors to improve their competencies and enhance their professional growth, thereby implementing intents or goals of counseling and satisfying professional obligations for accountability.

The purposes of supervision are implemented in tractive and dynamic consequences (Harris, 1964). Tractive outcomes are reflected in achievement of program continuity, maintenance of desirable level of program operation, promotion of minor changes, and resistance to pressures for major change. Dynamic outcomes are implemented in experimentation to achieve improved counseling through new and modified techniques, content, materials, and activities.

Goals of Supervision

The extent to which tractive and dynamic outcomes are realized depends in large measure on the extent to which counselors are afforded an opportunity to realize primary goals of supervision, that is, improvement in competencies, and enhancement to professional growth.

Counselor supervision contributes to professional growth

Altucher (1967) observed that counselors frequently need help in remaining open to their own experiences if they are to achieve professional growth. It often happens that early difficulties in implementing a counseling role derive from inexperience. Sometimes, this is a problem of moving from the reinforcing training environment to a work setting in which others on the staff do not reinforce "new ideas" of the neophyte counselor. Support must come from outside if the program of studies just completed by the beginning counselor is to be implemented in counseling practice. The supervisor is in a unique position of being able to give reinforcement for

the counselor's behaviors. Without support from the outside, beginning counselors often tend to revert to "teaching roles" or take the line of last resistance and imitate ongoing patterns of behavior in the school, even though these may be contrary to the model of counselor behaviors promulgated by the training institution. Support from supervisors is especially critical in cases where counselors are assigned to inappropriate functions or their fellow counselors are reinforcing "noncounseling" behaviors and attitudes. Examination of purpose of counselor education indicates that the program is organized to help counselors separate themselves from institutionalized or formal learning and arrive at a point of professional self development and continual learning which can be carried on independently (Ekstein and Wallerstein, 1958).

One of the functions of counselor supervision to help the counselor learn to live a counselor's role, Olsen (1963) concluded that fulfilling this expectation requires supervised counseling experiences. Commenting on problems attendant upon trying to implement a new professional role, Olsen (1963) and Ohlsen (1967) looked to supervision as essential to the inexperienced counselor trying to cope with these issues. Olsen (1963) remarked that when counselor educators ask prospective counselors to give up certain attitudes and behaviors which were satisfying to them as teachers, the counselors must be helped to recognize and learn to cope with reinforcers of old behaviors and attitudes.

Ideally, prospective counselors should have reached a point of conceptualizing a counselor role by the time they are placed in a school. The chances for implementation of this role concept will be enhanced if they can be helped to get acquainted with other counselors in the system who are trying to implement similar roles, or receive direct reinforcement from

the supervisor for role implementation. The more reinforcement the counselor receives, the more likely he is to internalize the behaviors and attitudes to which he was introduced in the counselor education program. Follow-up visits by the practicum supervisor can help a beginning counselor face and resolve problems he meets during early efforts to establish his professional role (Ohlsen, 1967).

Counselor supervision contributes to improvement of competencies

Supervision should lead to clarification and integration of principles and methods, achievement of a high degree of differentiation and integration of processes, improvement of attitude and skills, and an increase in knowledge of counseling (Clark, 1965). These outcomes can be obtained as the supervisor implements responsibilities for instruction, consultation, evaluation, and management (Arnold, 1962; Patterson, 1964; Peters and Hansen, 1963). One of the major outcomes to be expected from supervision is the integration of concepts learned in the classroom. It has been noted that counselors frequently have learned "about counseling" but not "how to counsel." Learning how to counsel means being prepared to implement responsibilities for appraisal, information, dissemination, placement, follow-up, evaluation, and counseling. It means being prepared to work effectively with parents and teachers (Appleton and Hansen, 1968).

Through supervision the counselor can be introduced to new sources of occupational information and new resources in the community. He can be helped in learning how to interpret test data and construct expectancy tables. He can learn how to develop new uses of tests and become familiar with innovative counseling techniques, media, and materials. Counselor supervision can help prepare counselor trainees for the practical tasks of the counselor role. One of the central purposes of counseling practicum

and internship has been defined as development and application of generalizations to guide practice (Clark, 1964).

Counselor supervision contributes to Improvement of Counseling and Guidance Programs

An indirect outcome of supervision is improvement to the counseling and guidance programs. As supervisees grow professionally and become more competent in implementing their counseling roles, more effective program planning, im plementing and evaluating are achieved. As supervisors fulfill consultative responsibilities, the total program can be expected to benefit through improved planning and organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying procedures and materials, and relating guidance to instructional goals of the school.

Status of Counselor Supervision

The concept of counselor supervision has been defined; the need for supervision has been justified, and functions and goals of supervision have been identified. To determine the status of counselor supervision requires consideration of four aspects of the supervision process: (1) objectives implementing process aims; (2) personnel involved in supervisory activities; (3) procedures and materials of supervision; and (4) outcomes of supervision.

1. Objectives of counselor supervision. The literature points to the primary purposes of supervision as developing improved competencies and enhancing professional growth of counselors, and secondarily, achieving improved counseling and guidance programs.

   Although purpose and basic aims give general directions to supervision functions, there appears to be a need for determining consensus on terminal performance behaviors of supervisees to implement supervision aims. The lack of behavioral objectives has been pointed up

(Schoch, 1966) as one of the problems in finding out if counselor preparation programs are providing kinds of experiences appropriate for improving ability of trainees to implement the counselor role.

2. Supervisory personnel. Review of literature indicates little in the way of current information about counselor supervision personnel. The most complete statement on responsibilities for supervision in counseling is contained in the recommendation carried in the Standards, that primary responsibility for all supervised experiences should be assigned to counselor education staff members, qualified school counselors, and/or graduate students. The Standards identify two characteristics of well-qualified supervisory staff: (1) having an earned advanced degree, preferably doctorate, in relevant academic field from an accredited institution; and (2) having had experience in counseling and related guidance activities. The Standards describe qualifications of school staff members supervising counselor candidates as two years graduate work in counselor education. Doctoral students supervising practicum experiences are to have "appropriate graduate work" and experience with school students. No provision is made for supervisors to have either training or experience in supervision.

The Standards present guidelines for supervision during the formal training years. No account is taken of the desirability nor of the kind or amount of supervision which should be implemented in on-the-job situations. Historically, the responsibility for on-the-job supervision has rested with local school district and state department personnel. There seems little evidence of objectives and procedures of on-the-job supervision, and little organized information on qualifications of personnel implementing this responsibility.

The behaviors for achieving effective supervision in counseling are not identified. In describing qualifications of supervisors, the Standards failed to take note of education or experience in supervision. By limiting supervisory qualifications to education and experience in counseling, an implicit assumption is made that "knowledge of and experience in counseling" makes for effective supervision. It is assumed that a graduate student, with no special knowledge of supervision theory and techniques, can implement effective supervision over his peers. This assumes the graduate student supervisor is competent in instructing, evaluating, administering, and consulting. It further assumes that he has acquired the behaviors requisite for effective supervision. On the face of it, these assumptions appear untenable.

There is no reason to believe that being employed for two years as a counselor or having a graduate degree in counseling is sufficient unto preparation of an effective supervisor. Research in industrial and military psychology clearly documents the thesis that supervision is characterized by a unique set of behaviors including specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to the act of supervising (Bales, 1950, Bass and Coates, 1952; Bavelas, 1942; Benne and Muntyan, 1951; Borgatta, Couch, and Bales, 1954; Campbell, 1953; Fleishman, 1952; Gekoski, 1952; Guetzkow, 1951; Halpin, 1954; Kahn and Katz, 1953; Roff, 1950; Schein, 1954; Davis, 1964; Penfield, 1966). The concept of officer candidate training is predicated on the belief that supervisors are made, not born, that knowing about military maneuvers and equipment is not sufficient unto efficient supervision of men.

Studies of supervision have demonstrated that effectiveness, in terms of supervision objectives, is related to the degree to which supervision behavior variables are implemented. Studies have pointed to

effectiveness of supervision as related to understanding human behavior (Guetzkow, 1951); knowledge of cultural, societal, and value factors and understanding principles of management (Bavelas, 1942; Benne and Muntyan, 1951; Fleishman, 1952; Campbell, 1953; Kahn and Katz, 1953; Schein, 1954); skill in utilizing principles of group dynamics (Schein, 1954; Halpin, 1954; Gekoski, 1953; Bales, 1950); using principles of behavior modification (Schein, 1954); and attitudes reflecting concern for the individual (Bavelas, 1942; Campbell, 1953; Fleishman, 1952).

Industrial research has revealed relationship between supervision approaches and productivity. Bales (1950) found that results of research do not consistently confirm the hypothesized superiority of democratic style over authoritarianism, but rather are qualified by situational factors. Mitsumi and Shirakashi (1966) in an experimental study of supervisory behavior on productivity found productivity to be a function of goal achievement and process maintenance variables, which, in turn, were related to supervision strategies. Yee (1967) studied the student teaching triad and found in study of interaction of attitudes between s tudent teachers, college supervisors, and cooperating teachers that there was need for chesiveness and interaction in the student teaching relationship. The wealth of research on student teaching (Davis, 1964) points to the conclusion that effectiveness in supervision demands more than knowledge of the subject matter. Effective supervisors, in terms of behaviorally defined supervision goals, must be able to implement strategies and techniques of supervision, as well as knowing content of the subject in which they are supervising. Andrews and Farris (1967) in a study of ninety-four research scientists in twenty-one teams found that greatest innovation occurred under supervisors who knew technical

details of their subordinates' work, and could critically evaluate and influence work goals. In view of the increasing pressures and demands being placed on counselors, it seems essential to implement continuing supervision if competent counseling skills are to be maintained, refined, revised, and integrated with new knowledge. Clearly, the Standards point to some desirable qualifications for some of the supervisory personnel in counseling, but fall far short of being adequate in identifying knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for effective supervision, and fail completely to take note of on-the-job supervision and the need for articulation between preparation and practice.

The picture of who is implementing the supervisory function during counselor preparation and in on-the-job counseling is not clear. Guidelines concerning qualifications of personnel during the preparation period, fail to cover on-the-job counselors, and preparation guidelines do not include supervision competencies among the qualifications. Finally, there is no indication of the extent to which the guidelines are being implemented, nor any indication of the extent to which supervisors are implementing supervision behaviors.

3. Procedures and activities of supervision. The literature refers to specific supervisory practices, such as videotape, confrontations, sensitivity training, instruction (Poling, 1964; Walz and Boeber, 1962; Johnston and Gysbers, 1966); and position papers on psychological orientations to supervision (Gysbers, 1963; Roeber, 1963; Waltz, 1963). However, as pointed up by Schoch (1966) the information on supervision techniques and procedures generally is not presented in relation to behaviorablly defined outcomes.

Four kinds of supervisory activity have been descirbed: (1) instruction, involving instruction of trainees and counselors on student appraisal, occupational information and dissemination, counseling, evaluation, research, and staff relationships; (2) consultation, involving support and counseling with trainees to help them develop and grow personally and professionally; (3) evaluation, involving assessment of weaknesses and strengths of counselor trainee and counselors; and (4) administration, involving program management, procurement of materials, assigning and selection of trainees, preparation of reports, making of management decisions (Arnold, 1962; Patterson, 1964; Peters and Hansen, 1963). The rationale for selection and use of these activities in terms of supervision goals is not clearly set forth in the literature. The conclusion reached by Walz and Roeber (1962) that there appears not to be an underlying rationale for supervision appears valid.

Research and development in counseling psychology, industrial and military science, and educational technology have produced a number of innovations in supervision, both in techniques and methods and in materials and media. There are videotapes, films, film-slideclips, film-tape synchronizations and simulation materials. Role-playing, group dynamics, and communication games have been tested. Interaction analysis, content analysis, and self evaluation have been demonstrated to be effective. The extent to which these techniques and materials were being used in supervision was not known.

There appears to be little information comparing the strategies of supervision implemented during training with those of on-the-job supervision. Information concerning the degree to which supervision in preparation is articulated with on-the-job supervision is lacking.

There is a need to find out the quantity and quality of supervisory activities, to determine the extent to which activities and materials of

supervision are derived from a sound rationale. There is a critical need to determine the degree of articulation between supervision during training with on-the-job supervision.

4. Outcomes of supervision. Reports on outcomes of counselor supervision point to gaps in information. Studies have been reported on changes in attitudes and personality variables before and after supervised experiences (Baker, 1962; Webster, 1967; Dahmen, 1967). However, there is little along the lines of Schoch's (1966) study to indicate achievement of behaviorally defined goals through planned supervision intervention. The literature suggests that counselor supervision should lead to improved competencies and professional growth. It would be assumed that these outcomes would be implemented in changes in supervisee behavior, as manifested by increased knowledge, improved skills, and more favorable attitudes. There should be some kind of evidence of program improvement. It would be expected that acquisition of new knowledge or reorganization of knowledge, development of skills, integration of concepts and application of principles would be measurable. However, the literature is noticeably lacking in evidence of these kinds of outcomes. For the most part reports have concentrated on outcomes such as development of favorable attitudes or personal characteristics to implement counselor role.

   There is a need for outcomes to be related to behaviorally defined objectives, and for quantitative information to describe extent to which supervision goals are being achieved.

Lack of information on counselor supervision

Review of the literature reveals that supervision has been described in terms of broadly stated purposes and aims, functionally identified personnel,

discrete techniques and procedures, and generally stated outcomes. However, major gaps in information on counselor supervision exist. The objectives of supervision were not clearly defined. Aims were not implemented in behaviorally defined objectives. There was no indication of who actually was implementing supervisory roles in counselor preparation and on-the-job counseling. There was some indication of "recommended qualifications" but it was not known to what extent these were being implemented. There was no evidence to suggest that recommended qualifications, in fact, were sufficient. Despite research evidence to document the need for supervisors to have specialized knowledge and skills of supervision, there was no indication that behaviors of supervisors implemented the needs for specialized knowledge and skills of supervision. There was lack of information on extent to which supervisors implemented a rationale in selecting materials and methods. The relationship between strategies and outcomes were not determined, and there was little information on the relation between outcomes and objectives. The extent of articulation between supervision during training and on-the-job supervision was not known.

The literature gives general ideas of purpose, but did not define behavioral objectives. The Standards state that there must be supervision by well qualified staff but do not stipulate supervisory qualifications. The literature does not tell who is supervising, how much supervising is being done, nor how competent in counseling and supervision the supervisors are. Research points up strategies and techniques, but there is no information to point to the extent strategies and techniques are being implemented generally in supervisory behaviors. Finally, status reports and position papers identify expected outcomes as improved competencies and enhanced professional growth, but the literature does not tell to what extent these are being implemented.

Clearly, there was a need for determining the "why," "who," "how," and "what" of counselor supervision. The importance of supervision in relation to achieving counselor effectiveness has been pointed up by the Standards for preparation of counselors, position statements of authorities in the field, and results of surveys and studies of counseling and counselors. The extent to which supervision is implementing its potential for contributing to counselor effectiveness needs to be determined. This study was undertaken in an attempt to satisfy this need.

Objectives and Purposes of Counselor Supervision Study

Rationale for the Study of Counselor Supervision. The rationale undergirding the plan for this study was derived from two assumptions. It was assumed that to determine the extent to which something is fulfilling its potential it is necessary to have baseline data describing what is going on, having a quantified picture of what would be happening under optimum conditions, and comparing what is taking place with what should be transpiring. It was assumed that the evaluation of the supervision process involve quantitatively comparing supervision practice with a yardstick of ideal supervision on four variables (1) purposes; (2) personnel; (3) procedures, and (4) outcomes.

1. Purpose and Objectives of the Study of Counselor Supervision. The purposes of this study were (1) to determine the degree of congruence between supervision as it is being implemented and a concept of ideal supervision as defined by counselor educators, counselors, local district and state department personnel; and (2) to determine extent of articulation between supervision in counselor preparation and on-the-job counseling.

In implementing the major goals, answers were sought to the following questions in relation to "actual" and "ideal" supervision under preparation and on-the-job conditions:

1. What is the purpose of supervision?
   a. What knowledge, skills, attitudes are expected to result?
   b. What program improvements are expected?
2. Who carries out supervision?
   a. What competencies do supervisors have in counseling and supervision?
3. How is supervision conducted?
   a. What techniques, materials, mdeia are used in supervision?
   b. To what extent is preparation and on-the-job supervision articulated?
4. What are the outcomes of supervision?
   a. What changes in counselors and programs have occurred?
   b. Are the changes related to objectives?

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RESEARCH RELATED TO COUNSELOR SUPERVISION

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A sparsity of research in the area of counselor supervision probably best describes the current situation. Little information exists as to the goals and activities of supervision and who is responsible for this important aspect of counselor training. This has been due, in part, to researchers in counseling focusing their efforts almost exclusively on counselor and client behavior giving little attention to the important role of the counselor supervisor. Counselor educators are generally left to their own devices in developing methods, procedures and techniques employed in the supervision aspects of counselor training.

Counseling practicums and internships have long been the pivotal and crucial areas of the counselor trainee's education. Considering the importance of this aspect of counselor training, it is ironical that so little research has been reported in the literature. Although many writers in counseling and guidance (e.g., Clark, 1965, 1967; Dreikurs and Sonstegard, 1966; Ekstein, 1964; Gysbers and Johnson, 1965; Hansen and Moore, 1966) have discussed the need for innovations in counseling supervision, few have employed research models to determine adequately the present situation. Studies are needed in which commonalities and differences in supervisor characteristics, goals of supervision and activities used in the process of supervision are assessed.

Supervisor Characteristics

Optiminal and minimal determinants of counselor supervisor status, experience, and the extent and type of training are yet to be determined.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association committee on professional training, licensing and certification (APGA, 1958) recommended in 1957 that counselor supervisors have the equivalent of a doctorate in counseling or a related area. The American Psychological Association (APA, 1963) suggests that the supervisor be a counseling psychologist with a strong background in psychology and with several years of on-the-job counseling experience.

Too many supervisors, Truax and Carkhuff (1967) contend are academicians, researchers and theoreticians rather than clinicians. Supervisory competencies have not been important criteria for selecting university faculty members who have assignments of supervising counselors' practicum and field experiences. By hiring professors without regard to their supervisory training and skills, university counselor education programs subordinate training and supervision to a minor part of the total program. In many universities supervision of the practicum experiences is assigned to doctoral students with no training or experience in supervision.

Roeber's (1962) report on the standards in counselor education suggests counselor supervisors can be divided into five groups. The top one would be that of counselor education staff members with earned doctorates, counseling experience, and active involvement in professional organizations. Full time supervisors with a minimum of two years of graduate study, part time staff members with two or more years of graduate training, advanced graduate students supervised by a staff member and advanced graduate students working without supervision were listed as the other main categories in which most supervisors might be placed.

Whether having a doctorate degree in counseling is necessary for performing supervisory duties has not been determined. Smith (1962) argues the assumption that a doctorate is necessary for supervision is not tenable.

Having knowledge of and experience in counseling does not insure competency in supervision. He implies that supervision requires skills other than instructing, consulting, and evaluating.

The amount of actual counseling most supervisors have and the total amount of experience needed as a prerequisite for supervision similarly has not been determined. Walz et al. (1963) suggest that counseling and supervising are not necessarily the same. They contend that because one can develop a good counseling relationship it is not necessarily true that he can also develop a good supervisory relationship. Harren (1967) as did Roeber (1963) questions whether the supervisor's counseling behavior can be transferred directly to the supervision situation.

On the other hand, Truax and Carkhuff (1967) contend that counseling supervisors have too little therapeutic competency. They point out that supervisors tend to favor areas other than supervision. This observation is supported by Riccio's (1965) ACES members' major interest areas survey. The 746 respondents reported greatly more interest for other counselor training categories than for practicum. This fact implies that supervisors' other interests lead them away from extensive involvement in practicum and counselor field experience.

Among other supervisory attributes receiving attention in the literature are the importance of relevant teaching experience (Houghton, 1967), prior training in supervision (Boy and Pine, 1966; Hansen and Stevic, 1967), and the theoretical orientation of the supervisor (Clark, 1965; Rogers, 1956; Dreikurs and Sonstegard, 1966). While Dreikurs and Sonstegard (1966) contend that supervision, as counseling, must be based on a theoretical model, others (e.g., Boy and Pine, 1966; Lister, 1964; Shaw 1961) question whether adherence to specific counseling orientations, e.g., Adlerian, does not bias the supervisor's behavior.

Assumptions from which many writers have based their postulations on the need for specific kinds of counselor supervisors' training and experience are not always clear. Nor are they formulated from any momological network of research findings. Two recent extensive reviews (Congram, 1968; Gross, 1968) conclude that while the practicum and field experience are the most important aspects of the counseling training program, little research is available from which any qualifications for supervisory personnel can be formulated. Congram (1968, p. 66) concludes:

> The publications concerning the qualifications of supervisory personnel suggest that this area is in a stage of critical inquiry. It seems likely that more explicit delineation of supervisor qualifications will not be possible until the supervisory process has been investigated more systematically to identify germane qualification-related variables.

Activities of Supervision

Because a science of supervision does not exist, little is presently known as to which types of supervisory activities promote which types of outcomes. Nor are commonalities and differences in supervisory activities known between university, state and community supervisory programs. It appears from the literature that supervisors share little agreement as to which procedures should be employed in the supervisory process. Of the many supervisory techniques used, few are included because of any empirical research findings. The only area of agreement, and that for which some research is available, is the consensus that the supervisory process is a learning experience in which principles of learning apply. Beyond this, Gross (1968) points out, every supervisor must "fend for himself."

Among those conceptualizing supervision as a form of therapy have been Rogers (1956), Ekstein (1964), Ekstein and Wallerstein (1958) and Arbuckle (1963, 1965). Although Arbuckle does not view the supervisory relationship as that of psychotherapy, he does suggest that the supervisor should develop more of a counseling relationship rather than a teaching

relationship with the supervisee. He does acknowledge that the counseling relationship model is insufficient for the total supervisory process. Patterson (1964) similarly views the supervisory relationship as one closer to that of counseling and psychotherapy than didatic instruction. He contends, however, that supervision is a learning situation in which the relationship is one of non threat; one which promotes student growth similar to that a client experiences in counseling.

Others (e.g., Kell and Mueller, 1966) describe supervision as an interaction process between the supervisor and counselor in which the supervisor aids the achievement of goals the counselor wishes to achieve. In this sense supervision is unstructured and proceeds much the same as many counseling relationships.

Helping the trainee acquire and implement knowledge into practice is viewed by several as one of the main aspects of supervision (Beier, 1965; Hansen and Moore, 1966; Levy 1967; Sanderson, 1954; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). Facilitating the counselor's progress in self evaluation as well as providing supervisor feedback and appraisal were seen as crucial supervisory procedures by Bonney and Gazda (1966), Evraiff (1963), and Wolberg (1954). Included in the teaching aspect of supervision are administrative procedures of arranging for adequate practicum settings, orientating the counseling trainees to practicum and changing within the on-going program policies which retard effective supervisory functions.

Specific Techniques

Various supervision techniques have been suggested by some writers as means for accomplishing specific kinds of supervisory outcomes. Rogers (1956) for example, suggests the use of tape recordings, role playing, films and the creation of a counseling relationship by the supervisor as

means of introducing the supervisee to the counseling process. Observation of group and individual therapy are suggested to acquaint the supervisee to therapy.

The use of role playing and psychodrama, demonstrating interviewing, case studies, tape recordings, multiple therapy, real client counseling, interpretation of test data, and occupational surveys of the community are listed by Burnett (1954) as the most common supervision procedures reported in the literature. Videotape recordings (Kagan, Krathwohl and Miller, 1963), programmed instruction material (Dunlop, 1968) and peer ratings of performance (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967) are also suggested supervisory training techniques. Of all the procedures discussed in the literature, listening to the supervisee's interview tapes is cited most often (Rogers, 1956; Anderson and Brown, 1955; Peters and Hansen, 1963; Wolberg, 1954; Patterson, 1964; Sorenson, 1966; Gross, 1968; Congram, 1968).

A growing number of writers have discussed the implications of T-groups and other group procedures as techniques for promoting supervisory outcomes. Foreman (1967) for example, utilized both supervisors and counselor trainees in two weekend T-group encounters at the beginning of the practicum as a means of improving supervisor-counselor and counselor-client relationships. The author reports the supervisors found the T-group experience more beneficial than did the students. In addition, the supervisors expected supervision to be a continuance of the relationships formed in the group encounter. Other studies in which group experiences have been used in supervision include semester-long group experience (Seegars and McDonald, 1963), quasi-group therapy initiated in the sixth week of practicum (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967) and group experiences to

augment regular on-going supervisory practicum procedures (Gazda and Ohlsen, 1961; Bonney and Gazda, 1966).

Although many supervisory techniques and procedures are reported in the literature, many others are no doubt in operation. Many effective procedures remain unknown because supervisors, lacking any research model or findings, hesitate to report activities they find useful. On the other hand, far too many techniques are reported for which any sound research findings exists.

Goals of Supervision

Little agreement exists among writers in counselor education and supervision as to the formulation of primary goals of supervision. While some counselor supervisors discuss supervision goals in terms of self understanding on the part of the supervisee (e.g., Altucher, 1967) others, e.g., Krumboltz (1967) relate that change in client behavior must be the primary goal of counseling and supervision. It appears from the review of the literature that the goals of supervision can be categorized into five types of outcomes: (1) gaining greater awareness and understanding of one's own personality; (2) building and maintaining a counseling relationship; (3) refining past learning, incorporating theoretical constructs into counseling practice; (4) understanding the dynamics of one's own behavior and their effect on the client, and (5) integrating research findings with counseling practice. Several writers have commented on the growth of the supervisee as supervisory outcomes. Altucher (1967) and Hill (1962) refer to self-awareness and self-understanding; Arbuckle (1962) to self-evaluation; Walz et al. (1963) to openness to change and Ekstein and Wallerstein (1958) to professional self-development.

The provision of a facilitting relationship as the primary goal of supervision has been supported among others by Patterson (1964; 1967), Rogers (1962), Boy and Pine (1966) and Levy (1967). Cognitive learnings such as knowledge of human development (Truax, 1967; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967); client change in behavior in which client feedback is used as a criterion of counseling success (Krumboltz, 1967); communicative skills, e.g., test interpretation (Walz, 1963) and helping the supervisee to participate in and/or develop his own research program (Krumboltz, 1967) have all been supported as goals for which counselor supervision should be is directed.

Gross (1968) points out that little research exists to support or refute any main goal or means of evaluation in supervision. Gross says "...there is no clearcut set of principles which elaborate what s an effective counselor and how he is distinguishable from an ineffective counselor. It is somewhat incongruent, therefore, to attempt to base evaluation (on goals) on such undefined principles." (Gross, 1968, pp. 78-79). Is it possible Gross asks to measure goals such as self-understanding, self-growth, and self-awareness. Some type of operational definitions (i.e., behavioral objectives) are needed before such goals and objectives of supervision are tenable.

Summary

It is apparent from the literature that much has been written relative to the importance of supervision in general, specific elements in particular. It is evident that little agreement exists among writers relative to the importance of various supervisor characteristics, goals of supervision or teaching-learning activities used in supervision. For the most

part the literature deals with the ideal of what should be in the supervision program. Not known is what actually exists. Whereas some writers suggest the goal of supervision should be that of enabling the counselor-trainee to develop greater awareness of self, others believe the goal of supervision must be that of helping the trainee to learn ways to bring about change in client behavior. Similar differences exist in ideal supervisor characteristics and activities used in supervision. Studies are needed to determine both the ideal and the actual situations and the degree of relationship between the two.

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STRATEGY OF EVALUATING COUNSELOR SUPERVISION

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The procedures implemented in carrying out the purposes of the Committee on Counselor Effectiveness essentially were those of survey research. An evaluation instrument was developed around the concept of supervision defined in Chapter II. The basic premise implemented in this definition is that supervision consists of four basic elements: (1) purpose, (2) personnel; (3) procedures; and (4) outcomes. The instrument was designed to elicit responses relating to these four elements of supervision with regard to (1) current practice of counselor supervision; and (2) practice as it would be under ideal conditions.

Development of the instrument was achieved by pooling items relating to each of the four elements of supervision, refining items, combining refined items in a trial instrument, subjecting trial instrument to experts for reactions, revising and testing revised instrument. Following testing and subsequent modifications, the survey was conducted.

Instruments were sent to a total of 2,000 members of Association of Counselor Education and Supervision, representing the following respondent categories: counselor educators, guidance directors and supervisors, state department of education personnel, university administrators, university counselors, school administrators, and employment counselors. Table 1 shows the number and precent of questionnaires distributed by respondent category:

Table 1

Distribution of Questionnaires Returned by Respondent Category

Respondent Category	Questionnaires Returned Number	Percent
Counselor educator	900	45
Guidance directors and supervisors	300	15
State Department of Education personnel	200	10
University Administrators	160	8
University counselors	160	8
Employment counselors	160	8
School administrators	80	4
Other	40	2
Total	2,000	100

Instruments were mailed on December 10, 1968. A total of 613 returns was received by March 1, 1969.

RESULTS OF THE SURVEY OF COUNSELOR SUPERVISION

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Introduction

The reader should keep in mind three important considerations while examining this description of survey findings. First, the survey was a pilot venture conducted by mailing questionnaires to a sample of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision membership. Non-members of the Association could not have been included in this survey, irrespective of their functioning in roles comparable to Association members.

Second, resources available to the committee responsible for performing the survey precluded site visits to responding institutions and individuals to verify by observation the reports submitted by respondents. The information reported may have been influenced by selective perceptions and recall.

Third, all of the questionnaires that were distributed were not returned. The effect of this selection factor is unknown; at this time it is not possible to identify what differences, if any, may exist between the responding and non-responding groups.

The value of this survey data, even though potentially influenced by various factors of response selectivity, resides in its heuristic and hypothesis-generating qualities. To date, supervision has been largely unexamined and unstudied as a training or professional event. No study comparable to this has taken place at a national level. The responses to the questionnaires suggest that there are discrepancies between preparation

for supervisory roles and actual on-the-job supervision. There are differences, in opinion at the least, between current supervisory methods and goals versus ideal or desired directions. Furthermore, these differences seemingly vary according to the type of organization or agency responding to the inquiry. Supervision, by this preliminary sketch, is not a monolithic institution in its own right, but apparently varies according to the agency and its mission, qualities of the supervisor and supervisee, and available resources and activities which mediate the supervisory processes. These differences in supervision lead logically to follow-up examinations of more objective character and certainly of greater relevance to specific agencies and organizations.

The organization of this section of the report is the following: (1) a general description of the findings from schools and school districts, state departments and regional service agencies, and higher educational institutions; (2) a comparision among these general groups; and (3) a description of detailed findings reported in the Appendix. Information from state departments of education and guidance is examined separately from that obtained from federal and local service agencies. Originally, the two groups were surveyed as a unit, because of their similar administrative and service functions.

Certain differences in responses appeared which led to separate descriptions of results. Too few responses were obtained from service agencies to apply statistical analysis with acceptable confidence. Agency responses were pooled with those from state departments according to initial plan.

The Returns

Two thousand questionnaires were distributed to a random sample of Association for Counselor Education and Supervision members. Five hundred, fifty-six questionnaires were returned in time for scoring. Overall, 28 percent of the questionnaires were returned. Of the 556 questionnaires returned, 361 were from colleges and universities, 133 were from schools and school districts, 52 were from state departments and 10 were from service agencies. Seventy-five percent of the questionnaires were mailed to college level members. This percentage reflects the general Association composition. (At the time this report was written 33 percent of questionnaires were returned.)

Approximately one-fifth of the total number of responses came from professors in higher educational settings concerned with counselor education. Directors of guidance services, counseling centers and pupil personnel services accounted for one-third of the returns. Another third of the responses were from state level guidance offices and services, consultants and service agency directors. The remaining responses came from counselors working at secondary school and college levels. This description suggests that the desired population was tapped for the pilot survey. That is, individuals responsible for training of counselors or supervisors and administrators or supervisors of supervisory programs constituted the major portion of the sample.

Important Descriptive Terms

Throughout the discussion of results several terms will be used for convenience in writing. The term "school" hereafter will refer to responses received from individual school counselors, counseling or guidance directors or from school district guidance offices. "State" will refer to state

departments of guidance, state supervisors of guidance or counseling or state offices of pupil personnel services. "Agency" will denote any federal, state, county or municipal service agency. Such agencies as Veterans Administration facilities, employment offices or vocational rehabilitation services occur in this category. Finally, the term "college" will refer to junior college, college and university responses. Among these responses will be those from counselors, counselor educators and pupil personnel offices.

Data Reduction

Response frequencies, noted in percentage values, for each questionnaire item are reported in the Appendix. Chi-square tests of differences between the distributions of responses about existing and ideal conditions were performed for all appropriate items. A .05 level of significance was applied to each test. Differences in response distributions were examined only within major groups investigated: schools, state and agency units and colleges. Comparisons were not made among groups, because the numbers of respondents in each group differed widely. Further, qualitative differences among the organizations, their personnel and operations suggested that the data be viewed as if separate surveys were conducted for each group.

Schools and School Districts

Supervisor and Supervisee Characteristics

Present supervisory position. The majority of school supervisors reported that they have less than five years experience in their present roles. A small percentage, eight to 16, have more than ten years experience in their current work. About half of the supervisors spend less than 50 percent of their time in supervision; one-quarter of them spend all of their time in supervisory activities exclusive of teaching, counseling

or administrative assignments. The number of persons supervised is generally 20 or fewer, but one-third of the school supervisors are responsible for 50 or more supervisees. The bimodal distribution concerning the number of persons supervised probably reflects the individual school versus the school district supervisory personnel contained in this category.

Responsibility for on-the-job supervision generally resides in the local districts; approximately 12 percent of the supervisors, however, report that this responsibility is held by a combination of state departments of guidance and higher educational institutions. Supervisory activities are usually conducted by school supervisors in work settings, but occasionally in the supervisor's office. A minor amount of supervision is cited as being performed by state level personnel or college professors. Concerning their immediate colleagues, supervisors in the schools indicate that over 85 percent of their fellow workers have Masters Degrees, about eight percent have Bachelors Degrees and the remainder hold Doctoral Degrees. The graduate training in counseling and guidance of the supervisors is evenly distributed among one, two or more years of post-Bachelors Degree experience. Major emphasis in this training has been in counseling and guidance for about one-half of the supervisors and in education for one-third. Psychology was a major field of study for ten percent or fewer of the supervisory personnel.

The work backgrounds of the school supervisory staffs reflect an emphasis on teaching experience. Supervisors report that one-third of their colleagues have ten or more years teaching at various educational levels. Forty-two percent have between two and ten years experience; only four percent have no teaching experience whatsoever. The majority

of the supervisors have two to five years counseling experience. One-third have more than five years counseling experience, eight percent having more than ten years of such work background. In terms of supervisory experience, two-thirds of the staffs have worked two to five years in various school settings. About one-fourth have more than five years experience, half of these having over ten years in supervision.

Educational Backgrounds of the Supervisors

None of the school supervisors reported having an educational degree below the Masters level. Forty percent hold Masters Degrees; 24 percent have specialist credentials or graduate work beyond the Masters level. The latter figure is likely to be a minimal percentage. It is based on information volunteered by the respondents and not specifically asked in the questionnaire. A third of the supervisors hold doctoral degrees: Ed. D. or Ph. D. The course work of primary and secondary importance in the training of the supervisors was in education and psychology, respectively. However, only a relatively small percentage of the school supervisors actually received training in supervision. Sixty-four percent report no courses in supervisory practices or concepts; 72 percent report no practicum experiences in supervision.

Supervisory responsibilities for the supervisors' counseling practicum experiences in the school settings were generally held by the higher educational institutions. Actually supervision was conducted by professors or doctoral students. Twelve percent report supervision by school supervisory staff.

Work Experience of the Supervisors

About 70 percent of the supervisors have fewer than ten years experience in supervision. A small proportion of the respondents report more than

20 years of supervisory work. Work at the secondary school level accounts for most of the reported supervisory backgrounds. Generally, school supervisors have had between five and nine years secondary school experience. Non-academic work and background events most frequently cited as being beneficial to supervisors in their current positions were: (1) business and industrial work, (2) social service activities, (3) counseling in non-educational and educational settings and (4) supervising in non-educational and educational settings. These were areas that were described by more than 15 percent of the school supervisors.

Educational Backgrounds of the Supervisees

Sixty percent of the supervisees in the school setting have acquired Masters Degrees. The remainder have Bachelors Degrees. The academic majors center upon counseling and guidance, 44 percent, and education, 36 percent. Graduate educational backgrounds tend to be one year beyond the Bahelors Degree. Twenty percent have two years post-Bachelors Degree experience.

Work Experience of the Supervisees

The supervisees teaching and counseling backgrounds are fairly similar in terms of years of experience. Teaching experience tends to predominate. Most supervisees have had between two and five years of work in teaching and counseling. Twenty percent have more than five years in teaching; 12 percent have less than two years teaching backgrounds. The reverse proportions hold for counseling experience. Further, eight percent of the supervisees have had no prior counseling experience, whereas all have had teaching backgrounds to some degree.

Ideal Conditions Among Supervisor and Supervisee Characteristics

Significant differences between existing and ideal characteristics of supervisors and supervisees relate almost entirely to educational and experiential backgrounds. Supervisors describe as ideal increased educational attainment and counsel experience among their co-workers. Although 88 percent of the school supervisors noted that most of their colleagues held Masters Degrees, half of that number would like to see the supervisory staff achieving doctoral degrees. More than two years post-Bachelors Degree training in counseling and guidance is also seen as desirable. Further, 92 percent recommend that the major field of study should be counseling and guidance. None recommended psychology or

education as being the best backgrounds for school supervisory functions. Over 70 percent of the supervisors would like to see staff members have more than five years supervisory experience and have on-the-job supervision conducted by local districts and colleges jointly, not by local districts alone.

Concerning their own educational and work backgrounds supervisors would like to have had course work in supervisory concepts and methods, as well as a practicum in supervision. They would prefer the practicum to have been jointly supervised by school districts and higher educational institutions. Many cite more courses in counseling theory and methods as being desirable in relation to their present activities. In particular, 20 percent would like to have had training in group dynamics and methods in group counseling. A similar number would have benefitted from classes in student services administration. At least 15 percent would like to have had the experience of field work in student services and supervision. Many would have gained by more teaching experience in schools. Establishing or improving professional communications by way of conferences, symposia and workshops was noted also as desired experiences.

Similar to their views about themselves and their colleagues, supervisors see ideal supervisee backgrounds as having more educational and counseling experience. Eighty-four percent would prefer to see supervisees having Masters Degrees. Some would prefer trainees with doctorates. Generally, supervisors would like their trainees to have two years post-Bachelors Degree experience in counseling and guidance, and the major area of academic study should have been counseling and guidance.

Supervision Activities

How do supervisors spend their time? To inquire into this matter five general categories of supervisory activities were given. These were: (1) teaching activities in supervision, (2) counseling or therapeutic activities, (3) evaluation, (4) administration and (5) research. Each of these categories was further reduced to more specific tasks, methods or operations. As an overview, one-third to one-half of the supervisors spend ten percent or less of their time teaching supervision, counseling and evaluating the work of trainees. Few spend more than 20 percent of their time at these activities. Over 70 percent spend ten percent or less of their time in research. None spend more than 20 percent of their time in research. Administrative duties appear to occupy most of the school supervisors' time. Sixty percent of them cited administrative activities taking 20 to 50 percent of their time.

The kinds of teaching activities used in supervision are mostly lectures and organized discussions, demonstrations and audio-visual aids. Lectures and discussions about techniques, theories, ethics, etc., are the most widely employed teaching method. The average amount of time at this activity was 40 percent, but time commitments ranged from no lecture-discussion time, eight percent, to nearly 100 percent such time usage, 16 percent. The use of audio-visual aids involving auditing tapes of supervisee counseling session and observing video tapes or films accounted for 20 percent or less of teaching activities for the majority of supervisors. A similar distribution of time allotments was given for demonstrations, such as observations of counseling, role playing, modeling, etc. Two modes of counseling and therapeutic activities were posed in the questionnaire, individual and group counseling. The therapeutic efforts referred to

counseling the supervisee in personal and social matters which may directly or indirectly influence his counseling performance. More time is reportedly employed in individual counseling than in group counseling. Sixty percent of the supervisors indicated that they spent more than 40 percent of their therapeutic activity time in individual counseling with their trainees. Forty percent spent equivalent time in group counseling, including sensitivity training. Trainee evaluation activities were specified as direct or indirect supervisor appraisals and peer or self-evaluations. Direct supervisor appraisals by means of observations, audio or video tapes, etc., and indirect appraisals, such as discussions with individuals who supervise or work with trainees, occupy about 20 percent of evaluation activity time each for approximately two-thirds of the supervisors. Supervisee evaluation of his own performance accounts on the average of 10 to 20 percent of evaluation time. Peer evaluations of others' performances take generally 10 percent of the time. No supervisors reported self or peer evaluations to take more than 30 percent of the evaluation time. On the other hand supervisory appraisals range over the entire array of time categories.

Administrative activities in supervision were defined as: placement activities, orientation activities, program evaluation, public relations and certification activities. Some supervisors volunteered other administrative tasks. Among these were program administration planning and administrative evaluation, staff meeting and conference direction, and research administration. Of the five administrative operations given in the questionnaire, orientation, program evaluation and certification take more supervisory time than public relations or placement. Over half of

the supervisors spend 10 percent or less of their administrative time placing supervisees in schools or other agencies. Public relations activities received similar responses.

Supervisee orientation activities, supervisory program evaluation and certification or licensing activities each account for 20 percent or less of the major percentage of supervisors' administrative time. Although a small number of supervisors reported spending almost all of their administrative time in orientation and program evaluation, few indicated that they spent over 40 percent of their time at any of the other administrative tasks.

Research activities in supervision concerned the use of counseling research and research literature for developing counseling procedures or methods, required supervisee participation of on-going research by the supervisor and required supervisee-initiated research projects as part of his supervised experiences. Twenty to 28 percent of the supervisors reported that no research time was being spent at these activities. About 50 to 70 percent said that 20 percent or less of the research activity time was given to each of these areas. The distribution of time allotments for research activities was scattered over the entire array of time units; about 10 percent of the respondents stated that more than 60 percent of their time was involved in one or more of the research activities.

Ideal Conditions in Supervision Activities

In terms of overall time allotments to teaching, counseling, evaluative, administrative and research activities in supervision, no significant differences occurred between descriptions of existing versus ideal conditions. Non-significant trends that appeared were that ideally somewhat more time than at present would be spent in teaching counseling, evaluative and research activities. Less time would be spent in administrative duties.

Within two of the activity areas, teaching and research, significant differences between existing and ideal procedures were found. In teaching activities in supervision more time ideally would be spent in the use of audio-visual aids and devices, and more in demonstrations, role playing and modeling, but less in lecture and discussion. Ideal conditions for research activities in supervision would permit more time for supervisee participation in on-going research projects of the supervisor and more time allowed for the supervisee to initiate and conduct his own research as a part of his supervised experience. A strong trend appeared for the increased application of research findings to the development of counseling procedures and methods, but this was not a significant trend.

Goals of Supervision

What goals or objectives guide the supervisory operations at the school level? Five general goals were offered for ranking of relative importance by school supervisors. These five were: (1) stimulation of personal growth and development: helping the supervisee gain greater awareness and understanding of his own personality; (2) development of a facilitative relationship with clients: helping the supervisee establish, build and maintain a counseling relationship; (3) development of cognitive learning and skills: refining past learning and incorporating theoretical constructs with counseling practice; (4) integration of personal growth with cognitive learning: helping the supervisee understand the dynamics of his own behavior and their influence on the client; and (5) integration of research findings with counseling: helping the supervisee participate in or develop his own research programs as part of his learning experience, as well as use existing published articles.

School supervisors generally gave the development of a facilitative

relationship with clients the highest ranking. Rating secondary importance were the stimulation of supervisee personal growth and development and integration of personal growth with cognitive learning. Of lesser importance was the development of cognitive learning and counseling skills, and finally, the integration of research findings with counseling practices. This description reflects the general trends in responses from the supervisors. Tests for differences in the rankings were not performed.

Ideal Goals for Supervision

Supervisors ranked ideal goals nearly the same as the current operating goals. No significant differences occurred between existing and ideal rankings. The relative status of the objectives remained about the same in the two ratings, but helping the supervisee understand the dynamics of his behavior and its influence on the client shifted to highest importance ideally.

State Departments and Service Agencies

Supervisor and Supervisee Characteristics

Present supervisory position. State and agency supervisors report a wide range of supervisory experience at their present jobs, number of individuals under their supervision and amount of time spent in supervisory practices. Eighty percent of the supervisors have spent less than 10 years in their current positions; over half have been at these jobs less than five years. About 10 percent have between 15 and 19 years experience at their positions. A majority of the state supervisors oversee the work of about 20 or fewer persons. Forty percent supervise 50 or more individuals; 24 percent supervise more than 200 others. Agency supervisors reports reflect a similar distribution of numbers of supervisees, but fewer agency supervisors are responsible for very large numbers of persons. At the

state level one-quarter of the respondents to the questionnaire indicated that they supervise no other persons. These individuals tend to reflect state level administrators or directors of guidance programs. A bimodal distribution comparable to that for number of persons supervised occurs in responses to the amount of time spent in supervision exclusive of teaching, counseling and administrative assignments. Over 40 percent of the state supervisors spend 75 percent or more of their time in supervision; an equal proportion spend less than half of their time supervising. Twenty-four percent of the state respondents spent all of their time supervising; 24 percent also report spending no time at supervisory tasks. Agency personnel report that half of them conduct supervision 50 percent or less of their time. Thirty percent spend no time in supervision.

Most, 80 percent, of the supervisory staffs in the state and agency settings are described as having primarily counseling and guidance educational backgrounds and, secondarily, education backgrounds or majors. Ten percent or less majored in psychology. Most of the supervisors have acquired Masters Degrees, about 10 percent have Bachelors Degrees and none report doctorates. (It is important to recognize that this description refers to four-fifths of the supervisors in a given setting. As a result, some state and agency respondents may hold doctorates, but the major proportion of the staffs do not have doctoral degrees.) The graduate training in counseling and guidance of the staffs tend to be equally divided between one and two years post-Bachelors counselor education. Ten to 15 percent of them have more than two years such training.

The teaching, counseling and counselor supervisory backgrounds of the state level supervisors show similar amounts of experience in each activity. Fifty to 60 percent have between two and five years experience at these

positions. Twenty percent or more have worked six to 10 years in teaching, counseling and supervising. Although minor percentages of supervisors in state settings have no teaching experience, all have some counseling backgrounds. Forty percent of the agency supervisors have no teaching experience, but again all have counseling experience. Most agency personnel have had two to five years in counseling roles, as well as in counseling supervisory positions.

Responsibility for on-the-job supervision of counselors in state and agency units generally rests with local districts or individual agencies. Sixteen percent of state offices and 30 percent of agency on-the-job supervision is performed by a combination of local districts and state level departments. Higher educational institutions play no role in on-the-job supervision in agencies, but function in combination with state departments and local districts in 12 percent of state units. First-year supervision is actually conducted by school supervisors, 68 percent, and by state supervisors, 20 percent, in the state system. Professors supervise about eight percent of the first-year counelors in this setting. In contrast, professors perform no supervisory actions in agencies. First-year supervision is conducted by local agency supervisors or state level supervisors. Supervision in state and agency units customarily takes place in on-the-job locations. About 30 percent of the supervision activities occur in a supervisor's office.

Educational backgrounds of Supervisors

In describing their own training state supervisors report that they generally have Masters Degrees, 52 percent; 28 percent report having specialist credentials or academic work beyond the Masters Degree. Sixteen percent of these supervisors have doctoral degrees: 12 percent, Ed. D.s and

four percent, Ph. D.s. None report having a Bachelors Degree alone. In agency settings 30 percent have doctoral degrees, 50 percent have Masters Degrees or work beyond the Masters Degree, including special credentials, and 10 percent have Bachelors Degrees. The major emphases in academic backgrounds for both state and agency groups were in education, primarily, and in psychology, secondarily. Eighty-four percent of the state supervisors and 70 percent of the agency supervisors had no courses in supervision during their formal educations. Eighty and 60 percent, respectively, had no practicum in supervision. In the state supervisory situations counselor practicum supervision is principally a function of higher educational institutions conducted by professors and doctoral students. About 20 percent of the supervisors report that counseling practicum supervision is a function of both colleges and local districts: school supervisors performing about 12 percent of the supervision. Agency supervisors describe counselor practicum experience in service settings as being a responsibility of higher education in 40 percent of the situations, of local units in 20 percent of the settings and of a combination higher education and local agencies on another 20 percent of the settings. Those persons, professors, doctoral students and local supervisors conducting the supervision in agency settings are about the same in proportion as those in state settings.

Work Experience of Supervisors

State and agency supervisors have approximately equal distributions of years of supervisory experience. About 60 percent of them have fewer than ten years of supervisory experience; most of this group having less than five years in such roles. Twenty-eight percent more of the supervisors have up to 20 years experience. A small number have 25 years or more of experience. In terms of counseling experience, agency supervisors