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AUTHOR Herbert, David J., Ed.; And Others
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ABSTRACT

This "occasional journal" contains a collection of articles regarding the supervision of student counselors, written from the viewpoint of both students and supervisors. The articles, written by graduate students, focus on such topics as the student's emotional reaction to supervision, the use of videotapes in counselor education and supervision, the need for a continuity between the classroom and the field, and finally a review of the literature. (HMV)

PERSPECTIVES

ON

COUNSELING

An occasional journal devoted to the exposition of some of the significant writings of graduate students involved in the

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FOREWORD

The practicum or internship aspect of counselor training is undoubtedly the crucial phase in the development of professional counselors. It is with this in mind that the current edition attempts to add to the knowledge and understanding of counseling supervision.

Divergent views exist on what is the best process in supervising student counselors. There are supervisors who view their approach as involving minimal structure and open discussion in an atmosphere of "equals". There are supervisors who suggest the process is analogous to that experienced by subject matter teachers and students. In other words, the counterpoles are represented by a didactic teaching model and one which is nearer a counseling model. This paradigm which resorts to polemics may only be useful as an aid in conceptualization. In the actual practice of counseling supervision it is rare that one approach is used exclusive of the other. What usually occurs is a blending of the two approaches and emphasis on one or the other as a function of the situational specifics. I believe that herein may be found the crux of the supervisory process.

The supervisor generally has from five to ten (preferably five) students in counseling practicum. Each of these students incorporate varying thresholds of receptivity to criticism, compliments, and supervisor interventions into their counseling styles. These "receptivity tendencies" occur at various times for different students and are generally a function of confidence level and degree of perceived success with clients. Given the number of variables that must be contended with, it is not surprising that supervision is no mean task.

I have found the supervisory process to be more demanding psychologically than is the process of counseling with clients. There are certainly many similarities in the two processes. Perhaps it is merely the responsibility, engendered by the profession and society, to produce the very best therapeutic agents that increases the psychological burden. At any rate those who enter the supervisory process must be as aware as are counselors who enter the counseling process that it can be a drain upon their psychological resources. The supervisor must make conscious decisions about what the student counselor needs in terms of counseling methods, and when he is optimally predisposed to internalizing these variables.

I hope the readers of this journal will benefit from the truly outstanding articles found in this edition. I offer my personal thanks to the authors for their papers, and for engaging in a hopefully mutual satisfactory practicum with me. Symbiotic practicum relationships are somewhat rare -- this was one of them.

David J. Hebert, Editor
Associate Professor of Education
University of New Hampshire
Durham, New Hampshire

SUPERVISION - AN INTELLECTUAL AND EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCE

Kathleen Kirmil Gray

For better or for worse, most of us have experienced a counseling practicum at some point in our training. Typically, it represents a critical period in our professional growth process and influences both how we counsel and how we feel about ourselves as counselors. Yet, rarely do we sit back and examine the dynamics of the supervisory situation and think about the efforts the various cognitive and affective elements of practicum have on our practice, self-concept, and professional growth process.

What are the goals of supervision? Is there a method to the madness? Does learning to counsel have to be painful? Is there a most effective way to supervise new counselors? These issues inevitably confront anyone responsible for supervising new people and demand attention if the training of counselors is to be at all systematic and scientific.

This paper is my attempt to deal with these questions and to evolve a personal theory of supervision. Toward this end, I have examined the goals of the supervisory process, the methods being used to achieve these goals and the effects of the varying supervisory strategies. Further, I've tried to isolate the critical dynamics of the supervisory situation which seem to account for divergent approaches. The product of this review is a personal integration of the situational dynamics and a personal theory of how to best supervise.

A Question of Goals

What are our goals in supervision? What kind of counselor are we trying to produce? Everyone agrees that we want to turn out effective counselors, but what do we mean by effective?

If we assume that an effective counselor is someone who facilitates high levels of self-exploration in the client as Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) suggest, then our goal in supervision would be to develop high levels of core conditions in our trainees.

They posit that counselor effectiveness is directly related to the degree of empathy, non-possessive warmth and genuineness of the therapist, regardless of his theoretical stance. Such a view suggests that supervision ought to address itself to the development of the coounselor's attitude and relationship-building skills.

Unfortunately, not all theories of counseling define an effective counselor in the same terms as Carkhuff and Berenson. Different theories tend to emphasize different effects, and consequently implicitly value some counselor behaviors over others. This valuing of particular behaviors and modes of operating seems to result from divergent philosophies of man and how he learns. Thus, viewing man as self-determined versus determined by his environment profoundly influences which counselor behaviors are considered valuable and consequently, what the goals of a supervisory experience should be. Insofar as views of man and his learning process differ, so too will the goals and methods of supervision differ. Thus, because theories of counseling view effective counseling differently, supervisory approaches will differ, regardless of the validity of the position that core conditions are essential across theories. The goals of supervision vary with the philosophical and theoretical position of the supervisor.

Approaches to Supervision

Learning to be a counselor is both an emotional and an intellectual experience, and supervisory approaches vary in their emphasis on one or the other of these dimensions. The literature on supervision seems to divide itself into three camps, one emphasizing the experiential component of the student counselor's learning, one addressing supervision in a classic didactic manner and one attempting to integrate both the experiential and didactic elements of learning to counsel. Interestingly, those persons espousing either the experiential or the didactic side of supervision seem to be doing so both in reaction to the opposite emphasis and in keeping with their particular philosophical view of man and his learning process. Review of the literature has left me believing that counselor educators do value both the emotional

and intellectual components of learning to counsel. They only emphasize one more than the other.

Rogers (1957) likened the relationship between supervisor and the student counselor to a therapeutic relationship, believing a psychologically safe climate is necessary in fostering openness to experience and experimentation. By feeling understood and accepted in their training experiences, by being in contact with genuineness and absence of facade in their instructors, they (student counselors) will grow into more competent counselors. (Rogers, 1962) Thus, both in his theories of counseling and supervising, Rogers seems to be guided by his view of man as capable of determining his own growth when provided with the proper psychological climate.

Arbuckle (1963) went on to criticize the inconsistency between a counselor educator as counselor and as teacher. He urged counselor educators to model good relationship-building skills with their student counselors and stressed the supervisor's role as counselor rather than as educator. He further emphasized the importance of a non-evaluative climate in giving the student counselor freedom to grow.

Interestingly, both Rogers and Arbuckle tempered their views with a consideration of the didactic dimension of the supervisory relationship. Rogers (1962) asked that there be "as much focus in such training on the interpersonal experiences as on the intellectual level." Arbuckle (1965) went on to recognize the difference in function and responsibility of the supervisor versus counselor. As the purpose of the counselor educator is to teach counseling, as an educator, he has a responsibility to the profession to insure competence. Arbuckle grew to view evaluation as a responsibility to the student in prompting his learning as well as to the profession. He called for tackling evaluation head-on while searching for ways to reduce its threat. He saw learning as the primary objective of supervision and moved to humanize the learning process. Thus, while both Arbuckle and Rogers originally likened the supervisory relationship to a counseling relationship, over time both shifted their emphasis to the creation of an atmosphere where optimal emotional and intellec-

tual learning can take place. They called for viewing the whole person and his needs in learning to counsel.

Other writers similarly focused on the person in the process of learning to counsel. Chenault (1968) described a humanistic counselor education program which "focus(ed) upon the person as an organic entity rather than as a recepticle for learning." She called for minimal threat procedures in evaluating students.

In the same vein, Boy and Pine (1966) urged the practicum supervisor to evaluate with sensitivity, but to relate to students as a consultative-type counselor. They supported a supervisory relationship where the student can develop an awareness of himself, his interactiveness with his environment, the characteristics of a facilitative relationship and become involved in the process of developing a workable congruence between theory and practice. Such a relationship is designed to stimulate a student counselor to evaluate his own effectiveness and to recognize his own abilities.

Hansen and Steviz (1967) suggested that supervision ought to help the counselor to understand himself and the client in a way that facilitates client growth. They posited that supervision should help the student counselor to see his effects on the client and help him to develop his personality as an effective counseling instrument.

Gendlin (1962) stressed that the trainee be free to express and accept his own direct experience. He believed that the supervisor's role was to train the student to be himself in a helpful way.

The theme underlying these writings is that the counselor as a person is a critical element in counseling and therefore, ought to be addressed in supervision. The experiential emphasis in supervision calls for a consideration of the human element, both in supervision behavior and in supervision focus.

What's interesting in reviewing the literature is that while a few writers emphasize the didactic side of supervision and call for a more systematic approach to teaching, no one suggests that this learning take place without consideration for the counselor as person. Rather, these articles seem to be written in reaction to too

much emphasis on the relationship and self-determined growth. The focus on systematic learning does suggest, however, that philosophically and theoretically they view man as determined by environmental reinforcers and best taught by behavioral methods.

Winborn, Hinds and Stewart (1971) suggested that counselor educators make use of the new educational technology and sytematically identify the purpose of supervision and set behavioral objectives. They state that setting objective standards for counselor behavior makes the evaluation process understandable and up-front and allows student counselors to move at their own pace without competition.

In a more comprehensive approach Jakubowski-Spector et al. (1971) supported both making explicit the objectives and evaluation procedures of practicum and emphasizing the role of the supervisor as a model for student counselors and an agent for reinforcement. They seem to be suggesting that a supervisor's use of a systematic process with students can serve as a model for students working with clients (in keeping with their philosophical and theoretical view of man).

Thus, a didactic emphasis values the supervisory relationship for its modeling properties. It can be criticized, however, for its lack of consideration for the personal relationship between supervisor and students and for overlooking the emotional side of learning to counsel.

Perhaps the best statement of the student counselor's needs and expectations of a supervisory relationship is found in the research tapping student reactions to supervision. Miller and Oetting (1966) concluded

Supervision is a relationship between two people but one in which the student feels that he is, in some respects, at the mercy of the supervisor. The student needs to feel that the supervisor values him as a person and as a counselor. He feels a strong need for active and continuing support. He also feels a need for structure. He wants the supervision to be clear and specific, to evaluate the counseling effort and make recommendations that he can follow. Students resist and resent the supervisor who

approaches them as a therapist and they find it difficult to accept criticism from someone that they do not respect professionally.

A study by Delaney and Moore (1966) points out that student counselors actually expect that their practicum will be a didactic venture. They expect the training experience to be primarily didactic-instructive and view their relationship with their supervisor as one of consultation where they can learn to be responsible for themselves. In addition, they expect that their counseling abilities will be evaluated.

Students seem to be calling for a balance of experiential and didactic influences in their supervision. They want to learn as much as they can and accept evaluation as a necessary process. At the same time, they want to be supported as people in the process of growing. It is toward this synthesis that a couple of counselor educators have addressed their efforts.

"The educative process must integrate those elements which are most conducive to effective learning." (Carkhuff, 1967) Regardless of the definition of effective, this review suggests that both a didactic and an interactive process between supervisor and student counselor are important elements of learning to counsel. How might a supervisor integrate them?

Carkhuff (1967) suggested that a supervisor offer three elements to students in practicum: 1. Content that is taught and reinforced didactically in an attempt to shape student behavior; 2. An atmosphere that affords the student an experiential base calculated to nurture self-development; and 3. Himself as an identification model for effective functioning. This model, therefore, posits the systematic learning of counseling skills in the best behavioral tradition and within the context of a caring human relationship. "Effective people are a function of the quantity and quality of responses which they have in their interpersonal skills repetoire." (Carkhuff, 1972) This model is designed to develop both quantity and quality skills.

It's interesting to note that, for Carkhuff, effectiveness of counseling is the criteria against which to measure the effectiveness of a training program. His model

evolved from studies of effect, rather than from just a philosophical or theoretical view.

Expanding on Carkhuff's model, Truax (1970) cited structured feedback as the basic aspect of effective training and went on to further explicate the nature of experiential-didactic supervision. He described the relationship between supervisor and student as a therapeutic context in which the supervisor communicates high levels of accurate empathy, non-possessive warmth and genuineness to the trainees. (Other research has shown that the level of functioning of the supervisor on these core dimensions is related to the possible effectiveness of student counselors. Carkhuff, 1969; Pierce and Schauble, 1970) Didactic training is highly specific and uses research scales for shaping the trainees learning to communicate the core donditions. Feedback is built into this procedure. Finally, a focused group therapy experience is included in supervision in order to allow the emergence of the trainee's own ideosyncratic therapeutic self through self-exploration and subsequent integration of didactic training with personal values, goals, and life style. Thus, this experiential-didactic model seems to address the student counselor as both a unique and valuable person and as a student in the process of learning.

Many counselor educators seem to support the integrated experiential-didactic paradigm for supervision. Yet, as we can see from the reviewed studies, they tend to emphasize one component over the other. This model balances focus on emotional and intellectual learnings. By optimizing the chances of attaining each, the model becomes synergistic; that is, the emotional and intellectual learnings complement each other, and the learning accrued is more than the sum of the parts. Hopefully, the Carkhuff-Truax model can serve as a prototype for other comprehensive approaches to supervision.

The Effectiveness of Supervisory Approaches

Since my purpose in evolving a theory of supervision is to optimize the learning of counseling, then a look into the studies of the effects of varying supervisory

styles seems warranted. What do we know about the effectiveness of various approaches?

While different philosophical views dispose supervisors to emphasize some counselor behaviors over others, all the research I reviewed used some measure of empathy or the core conditions as measures of counselor effect.

Two studies strongly support a didactic emphasis in supervision. Birk (1972) found that when comparing the effects of an experiential versus didactic type supervision on the learning of empathy, the students who were supervised didactically rated higher. Further, she found that effectiveness was not contingent on receiving the type of practicum preferred. Whether students wanted a didactic practicum or not, they learned to communicate empathy more effectively.

Payne and Gralinski (1969) likewise found that students who were supervised with a systematic orientation scored higher on empathy than those who experienced a more counseling-oriented supervision. Interestingly, supervisors who used the structured didactic approach and included evaluation in their sessions were not perceived by students as more critical, less empathic or more tension-producing.

Carkhuff's research, isolating the variables of effective counselor training, likewise cited a systematic and behavioral approach to teaching facilitative skills as a critical dimension of effective supervision. The level of supervisor functioning and subsequent relationship between he and his students were also found to bear on counselor effectiveness, however. Carkhuff's most effective counselors were supervised by a counselor educator who offered high levels of core conditions (providing the trainee with the same experiential base as the helpee is to be offered) while also modeling a person who could sensitively share experiences and act upon them. (Carkhuff, 1968)

Other research by Pierce and Schauble (1970) substantiated this relationship between counselor effectiveness and supervisor's level of functioning. In addition, Blane (1968) concluded that the level of empathy a student counselor is able to offer to a client is directly related to the type of supervision experienced. Students

supported by their supervisors offered more empathic understanding to their clients while those experiencing a supervision which focused on their weaknesses did not significantly increase their empathic abilities.

It's interesting to note that despite support for the experiential side of supervision and emotional learning, no study substantiates its power to produce effective counselors in and of itself. The research seems to indicate that the didactic side of supervision is the most related to counselor effectiveness. A combination of this didactic emphasis with a focus on the student's experiencing learning to counsel and a supervisor who exhibits high levels of core conditions seems to optimize the trainees learning, both intellectually and emotionally. This dual focus seems to hold the most promise both theoretically and practically.

Evaluation in Supervision

If supervision encorporating didactic and experiential learning is defensible philosophically and practically, what disposes counselor educators to support an emphasis of one or the other?

As mentioned above, one's philosophical view of man as either self- or other-determined does influence a choice of emphasis. A counselor educator who is committed to viewing man as capable and free to determine his own direction would find it difficult to impose a systematic didactic structure on the student counselor. His role would instead be to help the student to make sense of his own experiences and to support him in his struggle to grow. A counselor educator taking a more determined view of man would be more disposed to systematically teaching counseling, in keeping with behavioral principles. He might also recognize the reinforcing and modeling potential of the supervisory relationship and therefore, value this interaction within the same philosophical view.

The outgrowth of these views of man which plays into the supervisory relationship is the role of evaluation. It seems to be a dividing issue. An implicit part of viewing man as capable and free of determining his own direction is provision of an

accepting and non-evaluative climate. The logical derivative of this philosophy in supervision is provision of a non-evaluative climate where the student can examine his experience and self-evaluate. The supervisor's role is to help to keep the student open to his own experience with support.

This position is diametrically opposed to both the classic educational and behavioral views of man and learning. Evaluation in light of particular goals and in the form of specific feedback is an integral part of a didactic approach to education. It is instrumental in guiding the student to more appropriate behavior and lets him know where he stands in his progress toward his goals. Indeed, evaluation is the kingpin around which a didactic approach to learning revolves.

Evaluation becomes a controversial issue in supervision because of the conflict between philosophical dictates and the responsibility of a supervisor to turn out competent counselors. Can a supervisor help his counseling students to stay open to their experience while simultaneously evaluating them? Can evaluation tap a student's growth as a counselor while also allowing him to develop his own style? Can a supervisor with a close relationship to his students be objective in his assessment of their performance? Obviously, evaluation of student counselors is no cut and dry matter.

Two articles studying the controversial issues in supervision cite the evaluation-non-evaluation conflict as a key issue. They attribute the controversy, however, to the presence of threat rather than to evaluation itself.

Johnston and Gysbers (1967) point out that while evaluation is a prescribed characteristic of the supervisory experience, the presence of threat is ascribed. They seem to be suggesting that counselor educators search for evaluative methods that minimize or eliminate threat. But is this possible?

Counseling students in practicum are putting to a test a newly-formed self-concept as counselor. In doing so, they expose both their technical competence and their person for critique. The student is vulnerable both professionally and personally. Un-

fortunately, there is a fine line between criticizing a person's competence as a counselor and his value as a person. To the degree that these judgements can be separated, threat might be minimized.

Differentiating criticism of professional competence versus personal value becomes more confusing, however, when debating whether counselor education ought to be aimed at mastery of techniques or at personal development. While various counselor educators hold both views, the large majority agrees that both technical and personal competence are important to effective counseling. Thus, criticism of personal style may indeed be warranted as a part of supervision. To the extent that personal competence is considered integral to effective counseling, there may be no way to eliminate threat. The issue becomes one of dealing with threat constructively within supervision.

Regardless of philosophical bent, supervisors are responsible for producing effective counselors. Therefore, evaluation and threat must be squarely confronted and integrated into a supervisory approach.

My Personal Theory of Supervision

Where do I stand the myriad of approaches to supervising? What is my approach to dealing with evaluation, threat, rates of growth, and varying counseling styles? Do I lean toward an experiential or didactic emphasis in supervision? What are my philosophical underpinnings?

My view of man does not coincide with either the humanistic or behavioral outlooks. Rather, it incorporates some principles of each.

Man is free only to the extent that he recognizes the forces that determine him. Thus, while I view man as responding to environmental contingencies, I believe that awareness of these influences allows him to change his behavior. How does this translate into my supervisory approach?

In keeping with a behavioral approach to learning, I believe in making the learning process explicit. Firstly, I believe it is the responsibility of the supervisor to integrate a consideration for effectiveness with his personal philosophy in formu-

lating his supervision model. Teaching students to counsel ought not to be based solely on philosophy. It ought to be practically sound as well.

I further advocate a supervisor's stating his goals for supervision and setting instructional objectives which represent the elements of learning to counsel. All supervisors value some counseling behaviors more than others. I believe a supervisor ought to define his view of effective counseling and explicate the behaviors that contribute to this effectiveness. This gives the counseling student direction in his growth process as well as some scale aginst which to measure his progress.

I recognize that in sanctioning the supervisor's setting goals and objectives, it looks like I'm giving a lot of power to him. Actually, I believe that a supervisor wields more power by not exposing his expectations and values. I see the explication of goals and objectives not only as more systematic but also as more honest.

Evaluation also becomes a more straightforward process when expectations and behaviors are clearly stated. Since no supervisor is without biases, explicating the behaviors that compose his view of effective counseling insures that he is at least objectively biased; that is, he uses the same criteria to evaluate everyone. In addition, explicit criteria allows individuals to progress at their own speed and in their own sequence, thereby individualizing the learning process. Competition among students is less likely to occur as evaluation is competency based rather than based on a normal distribution. Further, grades can be assigned on the basis of progress to competency as reflected in the behavioral objectives, and ideally, a person might continue in practicum until competency is reached.

The beauty of a model such as I'm proposing lies in its wide applicability. Regardless of your particular view of effective counseling, you can create behavioral objectives which explicate your expectations. Or a supervisor and a student can jointly evolve a set of objectives which represent competency in a particular style or philosophical view of counseling. Further, the student knows where he stands in his progress toward competence and can reference his growth to the objectives. The threat

and confusion of feedback should diminish as well as the objectives provide focus for evaluative comments.

The behavioral objectives approach is not meant to be limiting or reductionistic. It is based on my belief that there are specific skills and behaviors that make up effective counseling and that defining them clearly increases the likelihood of a student learning them. Yet, while I advocate this approach, I don't believe that simply being able to perform particular behaviors is all there is to effective counseling. I see these skills as the tools to implementing a personal philosophy of helping, and I see the supervisor as an agent in bringing about this integration of personal philosophy with skills.

My view of the supervisory relationship? I see it as critical to a counselor's growth process. I believe the supervisor needs foremost to be supportive of the student counselor in his process of growing. He needs to communicate empathic understanding of the student's vulnerability and struggle and needs to let him know that he is valued personally. At the same time, however, the supervisor needs to be honest about the student's counseling performance and how he might be effecting clients. Actually, by explicating objectives and evaluative criteria, the supervisor should be freer in critiquing counseling performance as his feedback has a clear referent. It should be easier to separate criticism of a counseling behavior essential to competence from devaluing of the person.

Sharing perceptions of how a student counselor uses his skills and integrates them with his personal attitudes and values is not as objective. This is where I see a supervisor's relationship with his students and his personal communication skills coming into play. In much the same way that a counselor works with his client, I believe the supervisor must maintain a delicate balance between being supportive and being genuine in his observations of a student counselor. Due to the unique time and success constraints of the supervisory situation, I believe the supervisor needs to lean more toward honesty and expressing his perceptions. He needs to be active in con-

fronting the student with how he might be coming across, hopefully setting a self-evaluation process into motion on the part of the student. Obviously, these interactions may be very threatening to the student counselor. They do reflect on him as both a counselor and a person. Shared amidst a caring relationship, however, I believe threat will be minimized. Payne and Gralinski (1969) project the student counselor's attitude to be "if he is really sensitive to my learning, he will give it to me straight and make me suffer a bit." I believe the supervisor can and must be honest.

An added advantage to the supervisor's using the relationship to prompt self-integration is that he can model the behaviors and attitudes that he's teaching. He can demonstrate the balance between support and confrontation and can fit his responses to the needs of individual students. Thus, the supervisory relationship can serve both as a model of interpersonal skills and as a vehicle to integration of skills with personal values and attitudes.

Obviously, such integration is an important element in a counselor's overall competence. As such, I believe it too should be included in the behavioral objectives. Specific criteria representing integration ought to be developed so that a student can assess his progress toward this goal.

I view behavioral objectives as reference points for growth along its many dimensions. They help to guage feedback and make evaluation more systematic. Evaluating counselors may never be objective. I only hope to identify what we're evaluating and to provide some scale to determine how well we're doing.

This is my supervisory approach. Both didactic and experiential in nature, it is somewhat similar to Carkhuff's model (1967); it offers content that is taught and reinforced, a relationship calculated to nurture self-development and integration and the supervisor as a model of effective functioning. It is unique in its emphasis on setting behavioral objectives in order to explicate what is to be learned and when we have learned it. Only when the learning and evaluation processes are clearly stated do we really understand what we're trying to teach. Only then can we guage our effectiveness and insure competence.

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SUPERVISION AND THE COUNSELING PRACTICUM

Theodore K. Rice, Jr.

In examining counselor supervisory practices it would appear that two crucial aspects exist in any training program that are essential to the production of counselors who will function effectively as human helping agents.

The first and most critical is the nature of the supervisor-supervisee relationship.

The second is the establishment of an operational practicum structure that is conducive to adequate supervision and peer evaluation via a constructive feedback and support system.

To a large measure the implementation of the second condition is a function of the first, but it would seem to be sufficiently differentiated to warrant special mention and this paper will examine the latter aspect as a separate but interrelated condition.

I. Supervisor-Supervisee Relationships

A basic question in counselor education is the nature of the supervisor-supervisee relationship. In short, should the counseling supervisor function in his relationship with supervisees in much the same fashion as he would operate with a client? If we adopt the premise that the ideal counseling relationship creates a situation where optimum growth, development and learning are facilitated, then it would seem that the supervisor should not respond to his trainees in a manner much different than he would in a counseling session. The obvious difficulty is that different counselors adhere to different theoretical orientations. If a supervisor is psychoanalytically oriented then he would logically require his students to undergo a fairly long-term psychoanalysis (hence, the requirement that all practicing psychoanalysts must have extensive personal psychoanalytic treatment). If a supervisor is wedded to the client-centered approach then he would offer the "necessary and sufficient conditions" to his supervisees in their relationship, firm in the conviction that he was creating a climate

that would promote maximum personal and professional expansion.

Arbuckle (1963) characterized this approach to supervision, although at a later date he reversed this stance. He argued that the counselor educator must function consistently with student counselors and with clients, i.e., the process cannot differ or the supervisor is not only ineffective and inconsistent, but also may lack integrity. In this view the counseling process is experienced by the supervisee as a situation providing maximum learning. Thus the counselor educator must be a counselor and in effect establish a counseling relationship with supervisees. This model of supervision necessarily dictates that the theoretical framework of the supervisor establishes and defines the nature of the supervisor-supervisee relationship. In Arbuckle's case this means a non-didactic, non-evaluative process that is consistent with his counseling philosophy. The process, if totally assimilated and experienced by the supervisee will result in effective learning if we assume that "learning is a process by which behavior is modified." He states: "The counselor educator must have the same non-evaluative relationship with the student counselor as he has with the client." (p. 166)

It would seem evident that such a model as Arbuckle (1963) proposed ignores several crucial elements in any learning situation. It is specious to assume that our own self perceptions of our behaviors is accurate. It minimizes the capacity of people for perpetuating delusions upon themselves. This position would not permit accurate feedback from peers and supervisors that allow the student counselor to recognize certain deleterious techniques and inappropriate behaviors in his counseling. Ironically, Arbuckle's counseling and supervisory philosophy, with its emphasis on the capacity of the individual to ultimately make that choice which is best suited to his own potential human growth and learning, would support my personal disenchantment with the supervisory model he proposes.

In a later article Arbuckle (1965) appears to have worked through his dilemma. He asks:

> Here, it would seem, the counselor as supervisor finds his first quandry. Can he function as a counselor when he is a supervisor? Is he the same person when he is either a counselor or a supervisor? Must he be the same person, but function in a different way because of the difference he may have in both function and responsibility? (p. 90)

He then proceeds to discuss the conflict between being genuine and congruent and honest on the one hand, and the seemingly contradictory posture on the other, of being non-evaluative and non-judgemental.

If the assumption is made that learning is maximally facilitated in a climate that is free from threat and psychologically safe then, it seems to me, we must ask: Is learning proportionately diminished to the extent that the counselor supervisor confronts the trainee with the inappropriateness of his counseling behavior in the practicum? If so, then the supervisor who accepts the postulate that any threat decreases real learning is faced with a dilemma. If he judges and evaluates the student counselor's performance and behavior, then the student counselor must perceive threat as an inherent component of the practicum process. Yet the assumption that learning is optimum under non-threatening conditions is not endorsed by all educators or counselors. For example, Glasser (1965) would certainly disagree, insisting that meaningful learning and change can best be engendered when a person is confronted by authority and peers with the irresponsibility of his behavior. This position would argue that to permit a student counselor to continue to function in ineffective ways is to say: "I don't feel you are capable of doing better and therefore will not critically judge you." Conversely, to confront the supervisee in a practicum with his shortcomings and deficiencies, both as to counseling method and personal style, is to say: "I respect you and care for you. I know that you're strong enough to absorb my criticism and are capable of behaving better both as a counselor and a person."

Arbuckle (1965) seems to resolve the dilemma he proposes by reversing his earlier posture. "The supervisor is a supervisor and as such he carries the weight and responsibility of judgement and evaluations on his shoulders." (p. 91) He has come to

terms with the question of honesty and genuineness. Under these conditions the practicum student is told by the supervisor that he will indeed be evaluated. This may inhibit learning if one sees learning as maximally occurring only in a free and non-threatening climate.

But I would feel, in this regard, that the life process is never free from risk. And certainly any valid learning must include the ability to learn to deal with risks. So, if evaluating and judging and confronting the student with what I as supervisor feel about my reactions to his performance in a counseling practicum introduces risk as perceived by the supervisee, then he must learn to deal with his own sense of threat because counseling and life are both fraught with threat and risk. Is it fair to expose a supervisee to a practicum that has no risks and expect him to some day perform effectively as counselor in a situation where a client may walk in and announce: "I think I'm going to kill myself." This is not an over-dramatization. Counselors deal with real life and real people and consequently, more than most professions, encounter risk. Can real growth and change ever occur where there is no risk involved? Does not the basic existential position of choice imply an inherent risk in every decision?

If the answer to these questions is yes, then the practicum supervisor, be he theoretically oriented toward reality therapy or existential humanism, must relate to his supervisees in an empathic manner, regard them positively, and also be honest enough with them and himself to inform them that he will exercise his best professional judgement in evaluating and criticizing their performance. This approach would seem more consistent, not only with good supervisory practice, but with the life process itself and all the risk it implies. If the supervisor is to make the practicum experience one of optimum learning for the student then that experience should be as true to life as possible. In this regard, Island (1972) writes:

> The learning environment that is best for producing professional consciousness in counselors is a practicum situation as close to everyday life as possible. The critical ingredients of this kind of situation are real

> clients, an efficient feedback system (such as videotape) and educators who have realistic expectations of themselves and their students. The major role for the educator is to ask his students incessantly, 'What are you doing?' and refuse to be satisfied by evasive responses...the challenge to counselor educators is to facilitate in students an understanding of what they are doing. (p. 766)

In support of the training process reflecting the life process Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) lay great emphasis on the supervisor offering high levels of facilitative conditions and also focus on the training experience as being analogous to the life experience.

> Counseling training, as well as counseling is another instance of living effectively, including especially the involvement in inter-personal learning processes which are facilitative of the development and growth of all in the persons involved. To sum, counseling is a way of life. This is the way it must be in training or not at all. (p. 213)

These two authors also stress the importance of the supervisor being a person whose goal in training, counseling, and living be one of continuous process toward becoming "whole", and this involves a functioning at high levels of facilitative conditions in all areas of one's life - in counseling, supervising, and living.

Pierce and Schauble (1970) attempt to empirically validate the "core of facilitative conditions" espoused by Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) as they exist in the practicum supervisor. Specifically, the authors sought to assess the degree to which "the supervisors level of functioning on the dimensions of empathy, regard, genuineness and concreteness serves to influence the development of the supervisee on these same dimensions." (p. 210) The results of this research confirmed the hypothesis derived from the model developed by Carkhuff (1966), to wit:

1. Supervisees, assigned to supervisors who themselves function at high levels of empathy, regard, genuineness and concreteness; will gain in their rated levels of functioning along these same dimensions.

2. Interns who have supervisors who function at low levels of facilitative conditions will not gain in these conditions unless they function initially at lower levels than the supervisor.

This study revealed that supervisees of low level supervisors tended to decline in their rated levels of facilitative functioning. The authors conclude that while there may be other variables that influence therapeutic growth of graduate school counselors in training, the impact of the practicum supervisor is a highly critical variable: only supervisees of high level supervisors showed positive change. If a student is unfortunate enough to be exposed to a practicum supervisor who is functioning at low levels of "facilitative conditions", and actually declines in rated levels along these dimensions during training, is it likely that he will continue to function ineffectively in on-the-job counseling after graduation?

In a follow-up study Pierce and Schauble (1971) re-examined nine months later 14 of the 15 participants in their original experiment. They found that those who had been exposed to high level supervisors were continuing to function at the same high levels of facilitative conditions in actual on-the-job counseling. The supervisees of the low level supervisors were indeed continuing to function at the same low levels they exhibited during graduate practicums. Neither the high level or low level groups changed significantly after being separated nine months from their original supervisors.

The dimension of empathy as an essential attitudinal ingredient in counselor effectiveness is well established in counseling literature (Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967; Patterson, 1966; Rogers, 1951, 1957, 1961; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967; and Truax, 1963). That empathy should also be a necessary component of the supervisor-supervisee relationship has been mentioned in this paper and documented. (Arbuckle, 1963, 1965; Carkhuff, 1966; Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967) An im-

portant question to ask in the supervisor-supervisee relationship is: Does critical feedback and judgemental assessments by the counselor educator diminish the trainee's perceptions of his supervisor's empathy and consequently impair the learning process? An interesting study (Payne and Grabinski, 1969) contrasted two styles of supervision on counselor trainees perceptions of empathy and learning. In this experiment two styles of supervision were evaluated. A "supervision-counseling type" style modeled itself on a totally non-directive relationship between supervisor and supervisee. The critical dimension of this supervisory style was the establishment of an empathic relationship between the supervisor and the counselor trainee. Supervisors were instructed to give no direct suggestions for improvement and to offer no negative evaluations of supervisee performance. The alternate style was termed "supervision-technique type". In this relationship the supervisor was also empathic, but in addition offered direct evaluation of the counselors empathy and also provided examples of more appropriate responses than the ones given by counselors in training. It was hypothesized that those supervisors who refrained from giving direct advice and constructive criticism would provide a more empathic example of empathy in operational process and this would in turn "teach" the supervisee to be more empathic by modeling the supervisor. Results indicate that, "although supervisors in the 'technique' conditions evaluated counselor performance and suggested specific techniques to be used, counselors did not perceive them as more critical, less empathic, nor more tension producing." ((p. 562)

One conclusion that may accurately be drawn from this study is that the two styles examined did not produce a significant difference in counselor-trainee perceptions of an optimal supervisor-supervisee relationship.

It is inferred that an optimal relationship along the dimension measured (empathy) is necessary between counselor and supervisor to produce effective counselors. This inference would need further evidence to support it as conclusive.

II. A Practicum Structure Conducive to Supervisory and Peer Evaluations

It would seem the responsibility of the supervisor to design a practicum experience wherein trainees could maximally benefit both from supervisory and peer evaluation and support. To achieve this end the supervisor must attempt to create a climate which engenders a high degree of interpersonal exchanges that facilitate the development of counselor skills and techniques, (Hurst and Fenner, 1969) designed a sixteen hour marathon group session for beginning counselor practicum students. Peer and leader evaluations of each participant on a rank order of effectiveness as counselors was done at the end of the marathon but prior to entering a counseling practicum. At the conclusion of the semester, supervisors and peers evaluated each practicum graduate student. It was found that significant correlations at the .05 level existed between pre- and post-practicum rankings of peers, group leaders, and supervisors.

In addition to being a valuable predictor of non-intellective counseling attributes this study would appear to suggest the desirability of structuring a practicum in a way as to achieve maximal interpersonal interactions between students and instructors. The overt behaviors can be observed that are usually associated with counseling competence (openness, acceptance, empathy, confrontation, genuineness, confidence). Furthermore, counseling skills rely on effectiveness of interpersonal communications and these can be assessed by peers and supervisors in a practicum designed to maximize the potential for such interaction. If supervisors and peers can detect deficiences in interpersonal functioning then these can be brought to the attention of the student during the actual on-going practicum process. The isolation and definition of certain undesirable attitudinal or behavioral traits enables the student to take corrective action and gain support from fellow practicum participants to this end.

Another study (Anderson, 1969) compared three approaches to counseling practicums: on-campus, off-campus, and role playing. It concluded that only those students engaged in on-campus practicum made significant advancements along three measured di-

mensions of attitude, personality, and counseling behavior. The off-campus and role playing practicums had no operational structure that provided for supervisory and peer assessments via supervisor observation through one way mirror and audio or video taping for replay and group feedback.

The importance of the supervisor's structuring of the practicum to maximize a system of constructive peer feedback and support is given additional credibility from the experience of a psychiatrist in residency (Fleckles, 1972). Describing the process through which fifteen resident psychiatrists struggled to achieve professional competency and personal development he comments:

> What most of us sought was not only the acquisition of knowledge with skills, but a relationship where we could develop such qualities as warmth, empathy, imagination, daring and resilience through an active alliance with supervisors and peers. The crucial factor seemed to be the supervisor's willingness and ability to engage in such an alliance, to act as a model by openly sharing attitudes and feelings about therapy and encouraging the resident to do the same. In those instances where such a relationship was established, the result for us was increased self awareness, which not only led to a deeper understanding of our patients and the therapeutic process but also contribued to the resolution of our own identity crisis. (p. 105)

This paper has focused on two areas of the supervisory responsibility. Some of the aspects of the supervisor-supervisee relationship have been explored. The creation of a practicum experience, that enhances facilitative interpersonal exchanges between peers and supervisors has also been examined.

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VIDEOTAPE PLAYBACK IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION AND SUPERVISION

Donald Sanborn

"O wad some Power the gifite gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us!"

Robert Burns

To see ourselves as others see us. That oft quoted phrase perhaps best epitomizes the surge of interest in videotape playback by the therapeutic community that has taken place during the latter half of the sixties and into the seventies. The crecive research in and implementation of videotape playback has ranged from such didactic learning situations as teaching foreign languages (Carroll, 1963) and training subjects for foreign service work (Haines and Eachus, 1965) to learning motor skills in trampoline (James, 1971), karate (Burkhard, et. al., 1967), and baseball (Watkins, 1963). A recent review of videotape playback in psychotherapy suggests that it is an efficacious adjunct to the psychotherapeutic process, whether the focus is on individual, group, marital, or family therapy (Sanborn, et. al., in press). The concept undergirding the use of videotape playback - whether the milieu is the classroom or the couch - is that the more the individual knows about his behavior, the more he is in a position to do something about it.

It is this issue, the bringing into awareness knowledge of one's own behavior, that is as crucial in the supervision of students engaged in counseling internships or practica as it is in the therapy sessions with clients. One of the many problems inherent in this feedback process necessary for self-awareness is the difficulty in obtaining objective, undistorted, unbiased data. Videotape is one alternative. The purpose, then, of this paper is to briefly review the literature pertaining to videotape playback and the supervision of counseling students, to describe various methods of implementing this technique, and to delineate certain aspects of the playback process.

REVIEW

Evidence gathered over the past two decades has indicated that self-judgements of one's own productions tend to be more intense, often favorable, and sometimes curative, whether it involves recognition of gaits, profiles, or handwriting (Wolf, 1943), or listening to audio recordings of therapy sessions (Freed, 1948; Epstein, 1955), or observing photographs (Cornelison and Arsenian, 1960). Gaviria (1966) demonstrated in a learning experiment that material presented in one's own voice was learned faster - at least initially - than material presented in another person's voice. While efforts continued in this direction with the recipients of psychotherapy, several investigators turned their attention to the purveyors of psychotherapy. If greater self-awareness appeared to be beneficial to clients, then would it not be helpful for students of counseling to learn more about themselves as well?

Walz and Johnston (1963) studied changes in self perception of thirty counselor candidates as a result of their viewing their interviews by videotape. The results suggested that the playback experience gave these counselors greater confidence in their interviewing, greater awareness of personal qualities, but less positive self-descriptions. After the playback experience the counselors tended to see themselves more as their supervisor did and less as the counselee did. Less positive results were found in a controlled study by Danet (1967) which indicated that the experimental group became more anxious and less positive in their self-evaluations than the control group. However, Braucht (1970) found evidence supporting the hypothesis that self-confrontation does not cause increased levels of anxiety. He also found that self-confrontation was extremely effective in improving the accuracy of self-descriptions. A study by Bailey (1970) using audiotape self-confrontation suggested that the experimental group was significantly more verbally productive per unit of time; however, he concluded that playback may have affected the process but not the outcome of psychotherapy.

Suess (1966, 1970) has noted that the use of videotape permits more accurate, objective evaluation of the student's strengths and weaknesses as a therapist and that this is evidenced more clearly and vividly from videotape than from written notes or the recollection of what happened in the "live" interview. Also, when this evaluation is accomplished by self-discovery through playback, it becomes more acceptable since it is a result of one's own experience and observation. The student can begin to comprehend how his total behavior affects the therapeutic process, positively or negatively. In his latter study (1970) Suess reported that his students unanimously related that videotape self-confrontation supervision was the most meaningful of their supervisory experiences.

From a psychophysical viewpoint Lamberd and others (1972) investigated the physiological arousal of ten psychiatric residents while they watched playbacks of interviews that they had just conducted. The result indicated that seeing themselves as less "active" was correlated with increased respiratory rate and in multiple linear regression analysis was associated as well with decreased respiration rate variability, decreased heart rate variability, and increased skin resistance during self-viewing. These findings may be noteworthy in that they would seem to have some bearing on another study (Burdick, 1972) which found that change in heart rate variability was significantly associated with attitude change while change in heart rate was not.

Persons and Persons (1973) have recently utilized filmed role models with undergraduate students and reported gains in their degree of sophistication in understanding problem-solving and in their acquisition of knowledge of psychological theory and dynamics. Similarly, Bodin (1969) has applied videotape playback in training family therapists and concluded that it may indeed be a valuable prognostic aid. Likewise, Threthowan (1969) has noted how the trainee psychotherapists may, with his supervisor, observe himself at work. He also noted another benefit of videotape in the training process: since the progress of psychiatric disorders is slow and stu-

dents may not be attached to a unit long enough to observe much change in the conditions of patients, videotape recordings can be shown to successive generations of students long after the patient has been discharged. Schiff and Reivich (1964) have reported on the advantages of videotape therapy hours during the supervision of therapists in training.

Two other studies (Watters, et. al., 1971; Gruenburg, et. al., 1967) have delineated protocols and procedures for videotape playback sessions for the students and their supervisors. The latter study points out that frequently the supervisor has no genuine sense of encounter with the patient. Videotape can change this. With the playback technique the supervisor can in effect, become a co-therapist, the students ally in insuring a therapeutic result.

The conclusions reached by the vast majority of these studies - although most were not controlled nor were they experimentally designed - find the playback technique to elicit favorable responses from both students and supervisors.

METHODS

There have been various methods and techniques utilized in the implementation of videotape playback in counseling supervision - superimposed images, camera angles, sequential presentation, which may or may not be combined with the technique and artistic qualities of production.

Perhaps one of the first issues to be raised is whether or not the student should attempt to conceal the camera and associated equipment. The consensus is against this. Several studies (Stoller, 1969; Wilmer, 1967; Alger, 1967; Alger & Hogan, 1969; Trethowan, 1968) are definite in the opinion that camera equipment should not be concealed. While Moore and his associates (1965) did conceal equipment, they fully informed their patients that they were being recorded. However, Wilmer (1967) is of the opinion that patients are usually not disturbed by the open camera unless it is brought close to them. Typically, they become absorbed in the therapy session and disregard the machinery. Stoller (1969) feels that regardless

of the purpose of its presence, videotape equipment seems less of a threat, less of an intrusion, when it is placed within the group than when efforts are made to hide it from the group's view.

How long a segment of the videotape should be replayed? Most of the evidence (Alger, 1969; Alger & Hogan, 1969; Goldfield & Levy, 1968; Moore, et. al., 1965; Resnikoff, et. al., 1970; Suess, 1970) indicate that relatively brief segments are adequate. Because of the vast amount of information captured on a videotape, Wilmer (1967) feels that only short vignettes should be replayed. Suess (1970) suggests that a fifteen minute segment of an interview contains sufficient information for adequate viewing and evaluation.

Should the playback confrontation experience be a solo experience or guided by the supervisor? When viewing the videotape, Suess (1970) notes that the student is an observer only, with the opportunity to concentrate fully on the objective data from either himself or the client. This permits the student to become more aware of his total behavior and expression of feelings as they are presented to others. This self-discovery becomes more acceptable when it is a result of one's own experience and observation. On the other hand, Geertsma and Reivich (1965) consider the activity of the supervisor to be a crucial factor in the salutary effects of the self-confrontation method. They (1969) point out that solo playback viewing the student must determine by himself what conceptual attributions to make to specific behavioral events and that it is likely that more effective learning from self-observation will occur when the student's attention is directed to particular aspects of his performance. They (Reivich & Geertsma, 1968) concluded that videotape self-viewing per se is not likely to effect an optimal response. Thus, the supervisor should be prepared to take an active role in relating to students significant aspects of the playback action.

Several studies (Alger & Hogan, 1969; Resnikoff, et. al., 1970; Wilmer, 1967) have advocated the use of split screen. Wilmer (1967) feels that when one sees himself all alone on the screen all the time, the narcissistic investment vitiates the

purpose of videotaping, namely to see ourselves as others see us. The solitary face is a familiar image to the viewer, one that he knows from any mirror, but the inclusion of the part of the other "mirror" person - the client - is a totally new psychological experience.

Similar to split-screen image is the concept of superimposing upon the screen a shot of the student's image over that of the client's image so that one may see both faces simultaneously - not separated as in split screening, but as a melding of the dyadic relationship. Wilmer (1967) has demonstrated this concept with groups and feels it to be fruitful.

How soon after the therapy session should the tape be replayed? Most of the evidence pertinent to this question has been focused toward the client and his therapy and not toward the student and his supervision. If one were to make the extrapolation, then most of the evidence (Alger, 1969; Goldfield & Levy, 1968; Kagan, et. al., 1963; Moore, et. al., 1965; Resnikoff, et. al., 1970; Stoller, 1969) suggests that immediate replay is the key to motivation. Obviously immediate replay between student and supervisor would frequently be impossible, therefore, what are the effects if the replay occurs several days later? Paredes and his associates (1969a) observed in a number of trial runs that if the time lapse between the recording and the replay was lengthened to several days, the subjects were more involved at the time of playback. However, it is interesting to note that in his formal study (Paredes, 1969b) he utilized immediate feedback. It has been the author's experience that videotape replay with a supervisor immediately following a therapy session is characterized by intensity and much personal investment. On the other hand, if the replay has been put off for a day or two the character of the playback supervisory session is modified to one of greater objectivity. A kind of personal distancing has occurred in which the student appears as much involved as in the former method, but somehow the distance through time tends to engender greater receptivity to criticism and suggestion.

PROCESS

What then are some of the elements characterizing the process of videotape confrontation? One might begin by noting what the individual's typical reaction is to seeing and hearing himself. Several studies suggest that this is best divided into initial and subsequent reaction. Berger (1971) reported that generally the initial playback elicited more positive than negative responses and that the majority of initial reactions indicated preoccupation with appearance and sex appeal in women and masculinity or its absence in men. Walz and Johnston (1963) also noted responses centering around physical appearance. On the other hand, Haggard and his colleagues (1965) reported that therapists characteristically experienced anxiety, especially at first, to the recording of the psychotherapeutic process. Moore (1965) found that patients viewed their initial playback experiences as uniformly unpleasant. However, after subsequent playbacks, they found it no longer unpleasant but meaningful. Gonen (1971) reported initial reactions mixed, but later on becoming meaningful.

Holzman (1969) feels that there is something intrinsic in the experience of being confronted with an image of oneself that produces certain effects and that one of the most important of these effects is the momentary deautomatizing of one's typical defensive stance toward himself. At this juncture of deautomatization, one is provided with the opportunity for advancing, retreating from, or maintaining the "status quo" of a function. Resnik and his associates (1973) have utilized videotape confrontation with suicide attempters as an effective means of disrupting their resistance and denial. Similarly, Silk (1972) has found videotape confrontation an efficacious adjunct to marital therapy in overcoming denial and rationalization.

While verbal confrontations by a supervisor may be insightful, they may also fall upon deaf ears. All too frequently resistance and denial render impotent what otherwise might be an impactful confrontation. To this end, Danet (1968) has said that for some individuals a visual image carries more weight than innumerable verbal confrontations. Thus, with videotape the individual is given something tangible to work with, which is not often supplied by the therapist (Silk, 1972).

Furthermore, the inherent nature of videotape permits it to present only what has been manifested, therefore, one sees at replay an objective record of events. Comparison of therapists' dictated notes on a session to the videotape recording of the same session reveals the limits, distortion, and personal bias in one person's observation and recall. Suess (1966, 1970) has pointed out that the use of videotape allows more accurate, objective evaluation of the student's strengths and weaknesses as a therapist and that this is evidenced more clearly and vividly from videotape than from written notes or the recollection of what happened in the "live" interview.

Bailey and Sowder (1970) point out another aspect of the playback process, which is that this technique represents a reformulation of the traditional therapeutic relationship. Instead of the person-to-person dyad there is now a person-to-person-to-object relationship. Thus, in formulating criteria for determining whether positive change has occurred following exposure to playback one should be cognizant of the following questions: a) are patients reacting to the novelty of self-viewing, b) are they really demonstrating something similar to the "Hawthorn effect", c) are they becoming more rather than less defensive, d) are they "play-acting" for the recorder, e) are they actually demonstrating "resistance" to insight on deeper levels. It is just as valid to substitute the term "student therapist" for patient in these questions. Fleischmann (1955) comments that he felt his patients were continually reminded of observers by the presence of a one-way mirror. In this vein Suess (1970) states that the mere physical process of the television recording of therapy sessions does interfere somewhat with therapy. Initially the student's and the patient's awareness that the interview material will be seen by others interferes with the free flow of feeling and material and tends to restrict their verbal and nonverbal activity. This gradually diminishes, but for the student therapist this occurs at a slower rate and is probably never completely absent for either participant. Suess ironically notes that this may be an advantage for the patient; for if the therapist's verbal activity is decreased, this may allow the patient more opportunity to communicate.

From a different perspective, one may view the videotape playback process as fitting within certain theoretical frameworks. For example, Boyd and Sisney (1967) used Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory and Sullvanian theory as a conceptual frame of reference within which to discuss the effects of self-image confrontation. They postulated that dissonance exists between the patient's confused self-image and the more accurate image provided by videotape playback. Positive therapeutic change was thought to occur when the patient's distorted self-image shifts toward the more realistic image of himself on the video recorder. Many theorists, particularly in the modern versions of psychoanalytic theory, have suggested that perhaps one of the aspects of psychotherapy that is useful to the patient is to see himself as others see him, without praise or blame. Patients who manifest bizarre or socially inappropriate ways of relating to others might benefit from an opportunity to observe their own behavior from "without". Bailey (1968) used Rogerian theory in a similar manner where audio playback was assumed to represent a method by which the patient's distorted self-perceptions became more congruent with reality through self-confrontation with verbal expressive behaviors. In light of the above, it may be of interest to note Malamud's (1973) comment, "I find that I am at my best using self-confrontation methods when I am most free of theoretical preconceptions, when my own cognitive machinery is operating minimally at translating what is happening into this or that psychological mechanism or dynamic, and when I am most able to adopt the risk taking attitude I encourage my patients to adopt."

CONCLUSION

The research in videotape playback as a method of supervision in the training and education of counselors presents a consensus as to its efficacy. Videotape has been clearly shown to be superior to notes taken of a therapy session and to the inherent bias in one person's observation and recall. It allows the supervisor and the student an undistorted and objective record of events. However, one may well take

heed of Holzman's (1969) cautionary note: "Just as a baseball player viewing a film of his batting behavior will be directed by his trainer to notice in the film his body stance and subtle motor movements which may be impeding the accuracy of his swing, so a patient (student therapist) will need the help of the therapist (supervisor) in focusing on and understanding that which the self-confrontation stimulates within him.

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SUPERVISORY PRACTICES: A UNIFICATION

Kenneth M. Brewer

All too frequently, the focus on counseling supervision and supervisory practices centers around the theoretical setting as opposed to the practical. As a result, carry-over between the university setting and the school setting is minimal. This should not be the case. Strong similarities should exist between what the practicum supervisor exhibits in the practicum and what the counseling supervisor practices in the field. Both types of supervisors have much to offer each other. The purpose, here, is to discuss these similarities and present my position with respect to supervisory practices.

Supervisory practices have two purposes in both settings: (1) to improve situations and (2) to keep situations from deteriorating. In the theoretical setting, the practicum supervisor is concerned almost solely with counseling practices; while in the practical setting, counseling is just one portion of the entire spectrum. Hatch and Stefflre (1965) label the first type as "dynamic supervision (-) designed to change a situation by up-grading, restructuring, and innovating (p. 330)"; the type of supervision designed to keep a situation from deteriorating is known as "tractive supervision (-) designed to maintain by codifying, enforcing and resisting undesirable changes (p. 330)".

The major purpose of supervisory practices is to determine the quality and effectiveness of a particular counselor's technique and/or of a certain counseling program. While believing as Kelz and Trembley (1965) do that, "In selecting course goals for a practicum (a supervisor must be) realistic with respect to their attainability by trainees (p. 5)" so must a supervisor in a practical setting be realistic with respect to the attainability of his goals by his personnel. He must have a keen sense of selecting goals that are attainable, yet require diligent effort on the part of the personnel to achieve. For both types of supervisors the fundamental bond is counseling improvement (Downing, 1968).

What is the need for supervisory practices? First and foremost, as Downing (1968) points out, weaknesses in not only counseling but the entire counseling program "are identified and needed improvements thus made possible (p. 383)". Indeed, he further observes, "As Riccio notes, evaluation is not intended to aid everyone to do his job better. Certainly it should be a threat to no one. Indeed, it should be an active, meaningful, integral part of the guidance service (p. 361)."

Boy and Pine (1968) identified the following as appropriate objectives of evaluation, and similarly, of counseling supervisors:

1. To increase the growth of those being evaluated.
2. To help the counselor gain new insights into counseling.
3. To improve counseling techniques.
4. To provide a basis for improving a personnel program.
5. To clarify and validate hypotheses underlying counseling and guidance activities.
6. To provide data upon which a sound program of public information and public relations can be built.
7. To increase the psychological security of professional staff by letting them appraise the results of their efforts.
8. To provide evidence to convince the critics of the value of counseling.
9. To facilitate smoother intra- and inter-institutional relationships.
10. To facilitate better pupil adjustment.
11. To persuade administrators of the value of counseling and guidance services so that additional services can be provided.
12. To help programs to gain recognition.
13. To determine the effectiveness of the counseling and guidance program as a process of assisting pupils to achieve social, emotional, and economic adjustment.
14. To help to effect larger institutional contributions to social progress.
15. To determine which technique or type of counseling will produce a given desired result and under what conditions. (p. 264)

All of the above are appropriate objectives for a counseling supervisor in a practical setting. Those numbered 1, 2, 3, 5, and 15 are also appropriate for a practicum supervisor.

Having defined supervisory practices, presented the purposes they serve, and listed raisons d'etre of the counseling supervisor, let us now turn to exploring the characteristics that a supervisor should possess. Hatch and Stefflre (1965) state, "In selecting a supervisor, attention is called to three central clusters of skill: human, technical, and conceptual. Human skills permit the proper integration of con-

cern for people supervised with the initiation of structure in their work situation. Technical skills are essential if the supervisor is to be able to identify problems in the program and conceive ways to alter the individual or the situation so that desirable goals may more nearly be reached. Conceptual skills - thought to be the rarest - enable the supervisor to understand the dynamic nature of the educational endeavor and correctly foresee the consequences of actions (pp. 330-331)." To function effectively a counseling supervisor, whether he be in the practical or theoretical setting, must possess human, technical, and conceptual skills.

Effective counseling supervisors must be guided by and constantly practice, in every possible way, the principle of human freedom. They must be willing to accept responsibility as well as possess the freedom of decision and action. In order for supervisors to provide the necessary creativity, flexibility, adaptability, and responsibility, they must search for the best possible ways to practice these qualities (Hill, 1965).

Effective counseling supervision appears to be a function of numerous variables: the supervisor's personal qualities, his skill in human relationships, perceptions his trainees or staff have of him, perceptions he has of his trainees or staff, his perceptions of the situation, the trainees' or staff's perception of the situation, and interaction among all of these (Johnson, 1968). In some way, the counseling supervisor must be a person who possesses the ability to evaluate growth in competence as well as in commitment to the profession and correspondingly provide opportunity for personal and professional growth (Hill, 1965).

The focus will now center around the practicum supervisor. However, the similarities between him and the practical setting supervisor will be apparent. For example, as Zeran, Lallas, and Wegner (1964) write, the practicum supervisor "must be cognizant of the kind of image or self-concept that the counselor wishes to have or to gain. This increased emphasis on the counselor as a person - his self-understanding, his self-acceptance, his values, and his attitudes - in addition to

emphasis on counselor competency is now recognized as of paramount importance in counselor education (pp. 289-290)". This also holds true for a practical setting supervisor.

What should practicum supervisors provide for their students? First, as Hill (1965) observes, "Experiences should include related tasks that are judged to be a part of the counselor's role in that setting. There should be provision for assistance to the counselor candidate in integrating theory and practice. The experiences and the time allotment should be sufficient to enable him to grow personally and professionally, to develop an appropriate level of counseling skill, and to acquire a more meaningful understanding of the nature of the counseling relationship (p. 390)."

Supervisors should also aid trainees in developing skills with respect to thinking realistically and precisely about counselee complaints and emotions, counselee environments, and the complexities of the counselee-environment interactions (Kelz and Trembley, 1964). As Kelz and Trembley (1965) note, practicum professors should also provide the opportunity "Through practice and supervision (for) trainees to develop skill in helping counselees examine problems and consider alternative solutions (p. 8)."

Additional developmental assistance that practicum supervisors must provide as pointed out by Kelz and Trembley (1965) includes: (1) the opportunity "for each trainee to develop his own communication skills, ones which he can use comfortably and effectively (p. 7)"; and (2) (consultations) "with trainees on a one-to-one conference basis one or more times a week; this provides an ideal instructional and supervisory medium (p. 18)."

All of the above noted assistance that practicum supervisors must provide their trainees can and should be provided by practical setting counseling supervisors.

The remaining responsibilities (Kelz and Trembley, 1965) can only be applied to practicum supervisors. In this setting, however, they are responsibilities which should be followed. They include:

> ...instruct trainees in the proper use of practicum equipment...and closely supervise its initial use... assist trainees in acquiring a clear understanding of their interview requirements...visit various classes and campus student groups for the purpose of obtaining students whom the trainees may counsel ...exercise a leadership role in the staffing groups ...and (operate) each staffing session to obtain maximum learning...function as discussion leaders and resource persons in the staffing sessions... write evaluations of each trainee at the midpoint and end of the practicum...evaluation (evaluate).., the trainee's behavior in all aspects of the counseling practicum...the most important specific area for evaluation being the trainee's counseling performance...maintains a running account of the strengths and weaknesses of the practicum as well as suggestions for its possible modification (pp. 21-29).

In Hill's (1965) book, he points out that "Walz and Roeber, in a study of practicum supervisors' reaction to taped counseling interviews, have discovered that 'the usual supervisory response would seem to be cognitive and information giving, with negative overtones'(p. 413)." This occurrence is one that both practicum and practical setting supervisors must guard against. Rather, use of an approach that Stern has described as noted in Hill's (1965) book with respect to supervision of school counselors in service should be applied. In essence, it is a " 'counseling approach' ...which seeks to broaden the bases for evaluation through group and individual conferences between supervisors and school counselors (p. 414)."

Like Kelz and Trembley (1965), I believe that "each trainee (or counselor) should develop the habit of self-evaluation and of subjecting his work to his fellow trainees (or counselors) for evaluation. Such habits enable trainees (or counselors) to become aware of their professional assets and liabilities, an awareness that competent counselors should possess (p. 9)."

Before turning to the practical setting supervisor, I feel that it is appropriate to take a brief glance at two university practicum programs that offer some significant concepts that all university practicum personnel might well consider. The first such program as described by Hendricks, Ferguson, and Thoresen (1973) is at

Stanford University where "The practicum teams are also used as teaching units. All team members function as teachers-learners investigating their problem area and designing learning experiences that teach the other trainees about it. For example, one team may present a four hour workshop to teach the other students the rudiments of systematic desensitization, a technique to help persons with fears and anxieties (p. 421)."

At Wisconsin State University-River Falls, Harmann and Lipsky (1971) describe the program whereby "In each quarter of the academic year, one person from the Counselor Education Department exchanges positions with a counselor from the Center. While an instructor from the Counselor Education Department is working in the Center, he is not involved in any teaching. The counselor educator who is practicum supervisor is not the supervisor during the quarter he is counseling (pp. 467-468)." Opportunity is therefore provided for a practicum supervisor to maintain his sharpness as a counselor as well as an instructor. As a result, his practicum contribution should be more fruitful and significant. Both of these university programs should develop more skillful practicum supervisors as well as overall counselor-educators. As a result, they are worthy of consideration.

It is now time to focus on the counselor supervisor in the practical setting. For want of a better description, from this point on, I shall refer to him as the coordinator of counseling. First, his characteristics will be described. Ideally, like Johnson (1968), I feel that the coordinator "must be flexible, imaginative, and able to inspire the guidance staff to openness to change and willingness to try new approaches. The guidance staff should perceive the coordinator as one who is helping them to fulfill their responsibilities more effectively; they should see him as someone in whom they can have confidence and who has unconditional positive regard for them as individuals (p. 16)." Likewise, the practicum supervisor should possess similar characteristics and a similar relationship with his trainees. Above all, as Hill (1965) highlights, "The most important of all guidance functions of the...super-

visor is the practice of consistent sensitivity to the needs of the children (p. 151)."

What should a coordinator provide for his guidance staff? Johnson (1968) answers this question well. The coordinator

> keeps in touch with guidance developments and trends and is alert to new and promising techniques; he collects and disseminates pertinent professional information, equipment, and material, and focuses on the professional needs of counselors. He encourages and creates opportunities, insofar as possible, for counselor self-improvement...; he holds guidance staff meetings, and with counselors plans workshops, conferences, orientation, and in-service education programs. He is interested in research and innovation...He is a resource person for counselors and plays a supportive role when necessary (p. 17).

Obviously, some of the above functions are applicable to the practicum supervisor as well.

Because little emphasis is placed on the coordinator's role regarding his responsibility to assist a counselor in improving his actual counseling skills, it was thought important to do so here. Boy and Pine (1968) provide a very extensive and significant list of minimal and necessary conditions that a supervisor must follow in order to supervise school counselors so that they will improve their counseling skills and approaches:

1. The use of appropriately designed evaluative instruments that include criteria reflecting the body of theoretical and empirical knowledge derived from professional literature and research.
2. The establishment of evaluative criteria flexible enough to encompass varied theoretical positions.
3. The establishment of criteria that would be applicable within varied school settings.
4. A statement of criteria understandable to counselors, administrators, and supervisors.
5. A plan of evaluation that includes judgments from both the internal and external frames of reference.
6. A continuous on-going process of evaluation with established monitoring points so that the counselor and the appropriate supervisory personnel have some specific time referents for gauging and discussing individual progress.
7. A plan of evaluation consistent with the democratic and psychological principles of supervision and counseling.
8. A clearly stated philosophy and rationale for evaluation and supervision derived from the contributions of counselors and supervisors.
9. A clearly defined but flexible methodological procedure for collecting data to test evaluative criteria for the evaluation of each counselor, such as

a. Counselor and supervisor listen to and analyze the tapes of the individual counselor's sessions.
b. Counselor and colleagues listen to and analyze the tapes of the individual counselor's sessions.
c. Supervisor observes the counselor through one-way observation mirror.
d. Counselor conducts personal research regarding his effectiveness and shares the results for critique with his supervisor and/or colleagues.
e. Counselor writes a self-evaluation, and supervisor writes an evaluation of the counselor periodically. Together, they discuss the results.
f. Counselors statistically keep track of their work by maintaining tally sheets and detailed statistics to let them know quickly and easily the types of problems that pupils are bringing into counseling; whether these pupils are coming in on their own (request) or counseling is initiated from other sources (referral and routine); the number of individual and group counseling sessions; the number of consultations with parents and teachers; the number of different pupils using the counseling service, etc.

10. A plan of evaluation that includes an annual review by counselors and supervisors of evaluative processes and criteria.
11. An annual orientation by supervisory personnel and counselors to inform school boards, teachers, and the public of how counselors are evaluated.
12. A plan of evaluation characterized more by a horizontal supervisory relationship between counselor and supervisor than by a vertical relationship.
13. A plan of evaluation that has been developed by counselors and supervisors working together, and which has evolved from a free and open discussion of the philosophical, theoretical, and empirical consideration that influence the work of the school counselor.
14. A plan of evaluation that takes into consideration local conditions, needs, and resources (pp. 261-262).

Again, many of these conditions should apply to practicum supervisors as well, namely numbers 1 through 9e and numbers 12 through 14.

Like Downing (1968), I share his thoughts about supervisory practices:

> As an integral part of the (counseling) service, (supervision) is an on-going, long-term activity with neither a beginning nor an end. It works hand in hand with all elements of the guidance service, involving a careful consideration of problems and questions associated with each phase of the service. As solutions to the prevailing problems are found, (counseling is) improved (pp. 383-384).

As stated in the beginning of this paper, a strong linkage exists between the practicum supervisor and the practical setting supervisor. Too often, this bond is

not explored or stressed. As a result, a breakdown in transference from the university setting into the field often occurs. The potential for carry-over is strongly present...just the catalysts must be found. It is hoped that this paper will serve as a catalyst to both practicum supervisors and those in the practical setting. As previously mentioned, both types of supervisors have much to offer each other. Summarily, as Boy and Pine (1968) write, "Counselors, supervisors, and counselor educators need to share models of locally developed evaluative instruments (and other significant) criteria so that more effective ways of evaluating (and therefore improving) counselors can be developed. This would be another step forward in the professionalization of counseling (p. 263)."

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COUNSELING SUPERVISION

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE WITH CONCLUSIONS

Patricia A. Rainey

A review of research on practicum supervision over a ten year period done by Hansen (1973) shows the research to be unclear on the point of how supervisory roles effect trainee performance.

Hackney (1971) has investigated a rationale for training counseling skills prior to practicum experience. There should be, he contends, a pre-practicum experience with the following objectives:

1. Reduce social behavior inappropriate to counseling.
2. Use silence as a tool.
3. Learn to listen.
4. Learn to identify feelings through verbal and nonverbal communication.
5. Develop a repertoire of counselor responses.
6. Develop a professional self image.

If this is accomplished, then students can accumulate experiences rather than skills, since skills will already have been acquired.

Research on the selection of graduate students for counselor training is an important area for study. Sprinthall (1966) studied a sample of counseling students who were candidates for the Master of Education degree at Harvard University. The study investigated cognitive flexibility as a function of counseling. Cognitive flexibility is the ability to think and act simultaneously and appropriately in any situation. Flexibility in counseling was predicted from the Rorschach, TAT, Personal Differentiation Test, case studies, and a simulated counseling case. Test scores from the GRE were included. The major finding was that cognitive flexibility-rigidity has a high positive relationship to supervisor ratings on the same dimension. A correlation coefficient of .78 accounted for one half of the variance in the performance of counselors in training by supervisors using the Counselor Rating Scale.

The second finding was that the scores on the critical incident case episodes were statistically significant when correlated with supervision ratings. The actual correlation was .73.

A third finding was that the use of Miller Analogies Tests, and the Graduate Record Examination, correlated only .09 with the supervisors ratings of competence as a counselor. They cannot predict counselor effectiveness although they may be used as a cut-off for college entrance.

Authors agree that the practicum is the most important phase of the whole process of training in counseling. The value of the practicum depends upon the number and variety of clients, the intensity of the work done with them, and the supervision the student counselor receives.

Waly and Roeber (1962) indicate that the counselor educator reacts to student counseling with a variety of responses. In a transcript of a student interview, forty-seven percent of the responses were instructional, twenty-six percent were questioning, five percent indicated errors, six percent were interpretive, four percent were suggestions and eleven percent were supportive. The concern was with the student counselor, rather than the client.

According to Patterson (1964), this study indicates that supervision is not only inadequate, but more harmful than helpful. Students become more concerned with techniques and content than with attitudes and feelings.

The question arises as to what the nature of the supervisor-student relationship is supposed to be. Patterson says it is not a therapist-client relationship although Arbuckle (1963) contends that the supervisor should function as a counselor and not an educator. Of course this imposes a counseling relationship on a captive student as Patterson points out. It should be a teacher-student relationship on an individual basis, judging from Waly and Roeber's study, as the emphasis is on techniques. Sanderson (1954) points out that this will not contribute to the student's personal growth. Supervision should be a relationship in which the student learns, yet is

therapeutic. It should fall between teaching and counseling. Patterson would see regular class sessions for practicum students. The same professor should have both the classes and the practicum, so that the supervisory sessions won't be lectures. The practicum should effect behavior changes in the student. The instructor should state his biases clearly and should not play the role of the unbiased.

Supervision should foster responsibility and independence in the student. To do this, a non-threatening atmosphere is needed. Threat cannot be entirely eliminated in a supervisory relationship, where a person is playing tapes for others. Evaluation cannot be eliminated.

Patterson feels that students should not grade each other because this is more threatening than being graded by the instructor. Evaluation should be discussed by the students with "S" and "U" used to determine grades. Students should be able to choose the instructor with whom they take the practicum.

Rogers (1961) says that an instructor cannot impose his feelings on his students, yet the instructor must also express his feelings, attitudes, and beliefs. If the class is based upon assumptions and not upon techniques the student will not be forced to conform to a rigid system. He can find his own style of counseling.

Anderson and Bown (1955) comment that technique orientation is fostered by comments such as "that was too much of an interpretation". It creates a threat to the student and fosters a dependency upon the supervisor.

Supervised practicum is the key to preparation of counselors for their careers. Supervision contains some of the same elements as counseling and psychotherapy (Althucher, 1967; Arbuckle, 1963). The factor common to both is significant personal relationship. Clients who demonstrate changes in counseling perceive empathy and congruence in their counselor (Barrett-Lennard, 1962). Therefore, the learning that occurs in supervision is the same as the learning which occurs in counseling.

Lanning's study (1971) of counseling attempted to determine the question as to the relationship between group and individual counseling using three relationship

measures. The measures were the trainee's perceptions of the supervisory relationship, the trainee's expectations of their own counseling relationship, and the client's perception of the trainee's counseling relationship. The perception of the relationships were measured by the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory. The subjects consisted of twenty-nine counselor trainees, three counseling supervisors and fifty-eight clients.

Analysis of variance for the relation between types of supervision and perceptions of the supervisory relationship show that the perceptions of the supervisory relationship between trainees who received group supervision and those who received individual supervision were different at only the .20 level of probability. Only about five percent of the variance in trainee perceptions could be accounted for by knowing the type of supervision received. There is little evidence that the two methods of supervision are significantly different. Trainees expected to achieve a relationship with clients similar to a relationship that they perceive with their supervisor. Group supervision can be used as an adjunct to individual supervision.

To study predictive value of counselors personal characteristics with counselors initial and terminal competency (Rosen, 1967), twenty-eight counselor trainees were rated on two counseling interviews at the beginning and two at the end of training. The following dimensions were rated: self congruence, unconditional positive regard, accurate empathy, and total competency.

The subjects personal characteristics were measured at the beginning of training with the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, Social Service Group of the SVIB for men, EPPS, the Dogmatism Scale D, the NDEA Examination in Guidance and Counseling, teaching and counseling experience, and age of counselors. The four best combinations of personal predictors were determined through multiple-regression analysis. It was found that there are no preferred characteristics in relation to competency.

Lambert (1972) compared the process of supervision with counseling by comparing the behavior of the same therapist in both situations. Five counselors at the University of Utah Counseling Service recorded sessions with ten clients and ten trainees. Empathy, respect, and genuineness were assessed. The Hill Interaction Matrix was used to compare verbal instructions in both situations. Levels of empathy and specificity were lower in supervision than in counseling. There were significant differences in the way counselors behave in the two situations.

Counselor educators have asked how to best train students who wish to become counselors. Lewis (1969) attempted to measure the effects of two methods of practicum training on the attitudes of practicum students. Lewis used six qualities of the effective counselor listed by The Personnel and Guidance Association in 1964. These are belief in each individual, commitment to human values, alertness to the world, open-mindedness, understanding of self, and professional commitment. Lewis used two approaches to practicum experiences. These were the experiential-introspective approach, and the didactic-behavioristic approach.

A study by Silverman (1972) grew out of Lewis' work. The author attempted to study which of these two methods bring about successful counseling. In the experiential-introspective group, the instructor provided an environment to stimulate self analysis. In the didactic-behavioristic group the counseling communication came from others. It was found that the experiential introspective training was more effective in fostering an affective relationship between counselor and client. The results, however, are not conclusive. Both groups were deprived of the experiences encountered by the other group.

Empathy, positive regard, and genuineness are important in the therapeutic relationship (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967). Anthony (1968) has rated the low level functioning of graduate students with regard to empathy and genuineness. Students either do not change or deteriorate in their graduate training.

Carkhuff and Berenson developed a model by which the growth of counselors may be predicted (Pierce and Schauble, 1970). Three factors are involved. They are supervisor variables, supervisee variables, and situational variables. The primary concern of this study was on the supervisor variables. To what extent does the supervisor's empathy and regard influence the development of his supervisee on the same dimension. Rating scales have been developed with five levels of functioning for each variable. Level 3 represents minimal functioning in each case. The highest level counselor is empathic but the low level counselor seems unaware of feelings. There are three hypotheses in the study which are as follows:

1. Supervisees of high level supervisors will gain in rated levels of functioning.
2. Supervisees of high level supervisors will function higher after training than supervisees of low level supervisors.
3. Supervisees of low level supervisors will not gain in functioning unless they start at a lower level than their supervisors.

The supervisees were thirteen interns and two advanced practicum students who has completed eighty percent of their course work for a Ph.D. The supervisors were twelve counseling staff members. It was found that supervisees of high level counselors improved and functioned at a higher level than supervisees in the low supervisor group. Trainees in the low supervision group did not change. It appears that the supervisor must confront his trainee early in training or he will not do so at all. Within group changes are the most sensitive predictor of outcome. Some students functioned at a higher level than their supervisors and did not change.

This study was continued in another study (Pierce and Schauble, 1971). The subjects were fourteen counselor trainees who had been part of the earlier study. The results indicate that supervisees of high level supervisors continue to function well and low level trainees under low level supervisors function poorly. Neither tend to change significantly on measured dimensions.

Pierce and Schauble (1971) assessed the functioning of twenty-two counseling and therapy practicum graduate students on empathy, regard, and genuineness over a twenty week period. Predictions of growth based on the level of functioning of individual supervisors and practicum instructors was studied. Tape recordings were rated. Subjects with high level practicum instructors and low level supervisors had gains but took longer to accomplish them. Subjects with low level practicum instructors and supervisors showed no growth.

Other studies have dealt with new techniques to prepare student counselors to counsel effectively. In one study, videc tape was used (Eisenberg, 1971). It was found that video helps to implement new training methods and researches the impact of training methods on counselors. The effectiveness of video depends upon the following:

1. The kinds of clients and counseling situations on tape.
2. The use of behavior modification principals.
3. The discussion which follows the use of video.

Kelley (1971) did a study to determine the effects of reinforcement upon the acquisition of counseling interviewing skills. Thirty Master's level students were used. It was hypothesized that the supervisor reinforcement group would be different from the self reinforcement group. Two groups were formed. All had a program describing the interview skills to be learned. The self reinforcement group reinforced themselves and the supervisor reinforcement group was reinforced by a supervisor. The results showed that support was gained for both treatment conditions. Behaviors to be learned need to be specified for best growth in students.

Felker (1971) did a study to determine the relationship of forced counseling upon counselor trainees. Counselor effectiveness was assessed by the O'Hern Test of Sensitivity, supervisor, peer, and client ratings. Thirty-two counselor trainees were subjects for the study. They were matched into a control and experimental group on the basis of the O'Hern Test of Sensitivity. There were five forced counseling

sessions. It was found that there was not a significant difference between trainees who were forced to have counseling and those who did not have counseling.

A study done by Shafer (1971) was designed to investigate the effects of resident and nonresident practicums on effectiveness of counselors. Effectiveness was related to counselors self concept, mental health, attitudes of the nature of man and interpersonal orientation. Thirty students participated in the study, some residents and some nonresidents. At the beginning of the semester they completed the Porter Test of Counselor Attitudes, Tennessee Self Concept Scale, Personal Orientation Inventory, Philosophies of Human Nature, and the Interpersonal Orientation Scale. The tests were taken again at the end of the semester. Tapes were also analyzed. Data were analyzed by the analysis of covariance. A significant difference was found favoring the resident group in counseling skills. The following conclusions were reached:

1. Counselor trainees in the resident group differed significantly from those in the nonresident group in counseling skills.
2. Counselor trainees in the resident group were less other-directed than those in the nonresident group.
3. The resident group had a greater tendency to establish a personal identity than the nonresident group.
4. Behavioral changes were more affected by practicum experiences than were perceptual changes.
5. The resident group had more understanding responses and less probing responses than did the nonresident group.
6. When all variables were considered there was little difference between the training programs with the exception of counseling skills.

DeBoer (1970) did a study to investigate three methods by which counselor training institutions have developed counselor characteristics. Two approaches involve sensitivity training. The third was a lecture course. The central question was

whether sensitivity training made a difference in effectiveness of counselor trainees. The subjects were 164 advanced graduate students. The two forms of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory were used as was the Counselor Attitude Inventory. These were the findings:

1. Group 1, which received sensitivity training, developed a significant degree of empathy and congruence.
2. Males developed more empathy than females.
3. Inexperienced trainees developed congruence more than experienced trainees.
4. Students with B.A. degrees developed more congruence and empathy than did students with M.A. degrees.

The conclusion is that sensitivity training can play a part in counselor education programs.

In another study concerning sensitivity training (Reddy, 1970), a four day T-group with five male counselor educators and six practicum students was held. Staff-student opinion questionnaires were given at the end of the T-group. There were significant gains made on the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory. Three months later clients of group members rated them on the same measure. Significant correlations were found.

McIlvaine (1970) has done a study to investigate the use of coached raters to provide judgement of the work of counselors in training. There were two focuses:

1. The assessment of the agreement of ratings of counselors by coached and noncoached raters.
2. Agreements of ratings for counselor effectiveness by coached and non-coached raters when compared with ratings by practicum supervisors.

The subjects were ten graduate students in a Master's level program. Each counselor received eight Counselor Evaluation Inventory ratings. Analysis of the CBRS rating scores was done by using a two-way classification analysis of variance. The

results showed that there was a significant statistical difference between coached and noncoached raters in their use of CEI rating categories. There were also significant differences between counselors and practicum supervisors CBRS ratings. The generalization made was that clients who have received training in the coached rater methodology were similar to professional counselor educators in the CEI ratings of beginning counselors. The coached rater methodology may be a tool in the evaluation of counselor effectivenenss of counselor trainees.

Lucero (1971) wanted to see if counselor effectiveness was related to philosophical preference, theory preference, and personality integration. The sample consisted of twenty-five counselor trainees. Six measures were developed for each person. They are as follows:

a. motive structure
b. final real value structure
c. personal value structure
d. theory preference
e. philosophical preference
f. supervisors' ratings

Seven group measures were developed consisting of the following:

a. conceptualized ideal motive structures
b. initial real motive structure
c. personal real motive structure
d. final real value structure
e. difference between initial real and conceptualized ideal motive structure
f. difference between initial real and personal ideal value structure
g. difference between initial real and final real value structure

It was concluded that specific needs exist within motive structures of effective counselors sufficient to differentiate them from counselors rated less effective.

Rated counselor effectiveness may be attributed to such things as theory preference and personality integration.

According to Mitchess (1971), current training models are inadequate in training counselors to work with blacks. A new model has been proposed by Lewis and Lewis (1970). If counselors want to work with blacks, they should study the following:

1. Introduction to guidance
2. Group testing and individual inventory
3. Vocational development
4. Introduction to counseling
5. Counseling internship
6. Black psychology
7. Testing
8. Seminar in counseling minority group students

Patterson (1971) disagrees with Lewis and Lewis. He states that counseling theory can be universal and encompass all human beings. Whites can understand blacks like a man can understand a woman without becoming one.

Carmical (1970) has done a study with counselor trainees in which a rating scale was developed with items on issues that should have been resolved. It was given to 153 counselors on the elementary and high school level. Ninety-one counselors responded. A rank order of responses of some of the items listed according to mean value is as follows:

1. How advisor felt about you
2. Professors
3. Influence of personal philosophy
4. Course content
5. Extent of preparation for position

CONCLUSIONS

The practicum is the most important phase of training for student counselors. Although Patterson (1964) feels that questioning students and pointing out mistakes is not a good method of supervision, I don't know of any other way it can be done effectively. Mistakes must be corrected by someone who has more knowledge than the student. Correction is a necessary part of learning. Patterson insists that correction makes students become more involved with techniques than attitudes and feelings, but I feel that the two must go together. Just as a musician must have feeling for his music (or he is just a mechanic), so he must also have technique or he cannot perform well. So the counselor must be concerned about technique as a device which helps a client explore his feelings. I have come to the conclusion that counseling cannot be done without proper technique. This does not mean that all counselors will use the same technique, as technique is an implementation of philosophy. Nevertheless, technique must be adequate to help the client and bad technique will hinder the client from exploring problems and coming to conclusions.

Patterson discusses what he thinks the relationship between supervisor and trainee should be like. Patterson feels that trainees should not be subject to a counseling relationship, although Arbuckle thinks that the supervisor should act as a counselor, not as a teacher.

I feel strongly that the supervisor should act as a supervisor, or teacher, not as a counselor, although the student group he works with should be small so that each student can get adequate personal attention. A small group also has the advantage of being therapeutic even if it was not meant to be a therapeutic group. The group members can support and instruct each other. The class can be conducted on as non-threatening a basis as possible. There will be some threat, as any time a student plays a tape for others to hear, for the purpose of correction and instruction, there is bound to be some tension.

Patterson feels that students should not grade each other, and I agree with this idea. It not only increases tension, but many times the student (all there for instruction) doesn't have any more knowledge or expertise than the individual he is grading. Group discussion of an individual's tapes are a means of presenting points of view and exchanging ideas as well as instructing students.

The practicum class must be free (Rogers, 1961) so that each individual can develop his own style of counseling. No individual should be forced to accept a position not congruent with his personality. Students must be free to explore various points of view in conjunction with exploring his own personality to see what techniques and philosophies are congruent with his personality. Otherwise, he will not be an effective counselor. Rosen (1967) has found that no special personality characteristics can be identified with successful counselors.

New techniques have been used to prepare counselor trainees for careers. Such techniques include video tape (Sheldon, 1971), reinforcement (Kelley, 1971), forced counseling (Felker, 1971), sensitivity training (DeBoer, 1970; Reddy, 1970), and coached raters (McIlvaine, 1970).

I believe that such techniques can be very beneficial to the counselor trainee. I would like to see all counselor trainees be involved with either individual counseling, group counseling, or sensitivity training. The difficulty would be that the client would be forced, and be a captive of counseling. He would understandably try to make a good impression upon his counselor. However, if confidence were strictly maintained, and the counselor was not the same person as the supervisor, and the counselor did not report to the supervisor, then the trainee would be free to grow emotionally as he learned intellectually. Hackney (1971) has an idea that a pre-practicum training laboratory could help students learn to listen, identify feelings, and become congruent in their personalities. I think this is an excellent idea. It could best be handled through counseling or a sensitivity training course. In this manner, students could learn about themselves, develop sensitivity, and at the same

time get needed group therapy experience. It would also bring students close together emotionally, a plus for any practicum group.

I would like to see counselor trainees take a course along with the practicum. This course would include discussion and lecture on such things as how to terminate, how to handle threats of suicide, how to handle threats of violence, and other matters which come up in therapy. Much could be learned in this manner, making the practicum of more value.

It would also be a help to trainees to video tape counseling sessions to be replayed for individual and group study. A counseling suite with every room equipped with video tape equipment would serve this purpose. Tapes could be used both in the practicum and occasionally in the course running as an adjunct to the practicum.

Other methods such as coached raters and reinforcement could be tried in individual situations if trainees and supervisors felt it to have potential value in any given situation.

I agree with Pierce (1971) that the supervisor must be a high level counselor, or growth of the trainee will be minimal. A supervisor who functions well will help his trainees to also function well. The supervisor will see mistakes that need correction that the low level counseling supervisor will miss. The selection of the supervisor, therefore, is as important as the selection of the student who will become the trainee. Both supervisor and trainee need to be academically able and capable of emotional growth.

For a practicum to be successful a supply of clients must be readily available. If trainees are put in the position of having to search for clients, it not only increases tension, it puts the trainee into a frame of mind where he is willing to help the clients he does have to invent or prolong problems, so that the quota of tapes for the week can be met. The client should be so involved in his practicum that his concern is to learn how to be the best counselor possible. He should not be concerned about where the next client is coming from. The counseling program should make clients available.

Mitchess (1971) has written about counseling black students. He has described a program of study for trainees which includes testing, vocational development, introduction to counseling, and black psychology. For the most part, his curriculum would include courses already available in counselor education programs.

I think that special courses for black counseling, and the counseling of women are not necessary. Like Patterson, I feel that counseling theory is universal in that it encompasses all human beings. A theory that could not include all human beings would be of no value whatever to the trainee.

In conclusion, I would like to say that the counseling practicum is the only course that gives practical knowledge about counseling situations. It is the major course by which trainees are prepared to counsel. Other courses give intellectual development and act as a background to help prepare students for the practicum. If well done, the practicum can give both intellectual and emotional growth. If poorly done, the practicum would give no growth and could cause harm to future clients. Therefore, research must continue into what factors make for the most meaningful practicum.

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