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ABSTRACT

        The research in counseling training is reviewed for
the period 1969-1972. Results of this research and methodological
comments are integrated in the text. Generally, the research is
neither well designed nor well executed. Some tentative conclusions
and suggestions are included. (Author)

Outcomes in Counseling Training:

1969 - 1972

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Outcomes in Counseling Training:

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This paper is part of a series of four prepared for presentation at
the 1977 Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association.
Each of the four presentations is a review of counselor education research.
Constance Ripstra-Kennedy and Wayne Rowe have prepared a review of the
"characteristics of effective counselor trainees and the selection of
trainees." Bob B. Winborn and Avraham Scherman have reviewed "practicum
and supervision." Mark A. Hector and myself have addressed our review to
"outcomes in counselor training (excluding practicum and supervision)."
My paper reviews the years 1969-1972, while Dr. Hector's covers 1973 to
the present.

The journals reviewed for the present project include Counselor
Education and Supervision, Journal of Counseling Psychology, Dissertation
Abstracts International, Counseling Psychologist, Vocational Guidance
Quarterly, Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, Personnel and Guidance
Journal, Journal of College Student Personnel, School Counselor, and
Elementary School Counselor. Since the journals cited are those which are
most directly related to counselor education, it is expected that the large
majority of counselor education research will fall within the scope of
these reviews.

Focus of the Review

Essentially, my portion of the total set of reviews is focused upon
the question: "What do we know about outcomes of counseling training
based on the research gathered between 1969 and 1972?" In other words,

"do counselor educators educate?" and "What do their students learn?"
For purposes of this investigation, I will not be willing to accept what
may tend to be our initial reaction to the two questions: "Yes, of course,"
and "Lots of things!" Instead, in the course of the review, I will not
only report research findings but also comment upon research methodology
that may tend to strengthen or weaken individual conclusions.

The review is organized according to the length of the program
(or treatment) that was evaluated. The first section deals with attempts
to evaluate the outcomes of total training programs. The second major
section concentrates on course-length programs. The final portion of the
review focuses upon short term counselor training treatments.

Evaluation of Total Programs

Surely, if counselor education is achieving its purpose, there must
be numerous articles substantiating the effectiveness of such training!
Unfortunately, this is not so. During the four year period of my review,
only 19 studies sought to evaluate complete programs. Additionally, the
research designs are poor, and the findings provide very little in the
way of support for counselor education.

Because of the nature of the question (i.e., an evaluation of an entire
one to two-year program), the studies described in this section are
necessarily poorly designed. A well-designed study requires an appropriate
control group for comparison with the treatment group. The best manner
to create such a situation is to assign subjects from the same population
to experimental and control groups on a random basis. Clearly, as
counselor educators, we can neither ethically nor feasibly assign students
at random   to a year of counselor training or to a year of some

alternative activity. The basic starting point for research on causes

and effects (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) --two initially equivalent groups--

cannot be present in any of the evaluations of total programs. Consequently,

all of what follows in this section must be interpreted cautiously and

with more than a little skepticism.

The most prevalent studies in this section are pretest-posttest

evaluations of trainees during NDEA or EPDA Counseling Institutes. The

results indicate that students tend to decrease their Taylor Manifest

Anxiety Scale scores during an institute (Pennscott & Brown, 1972)

and to increase their understanding of content and their nurturance score

on the Edwards Personality Preference Schedule (Pietrofesa & Van Hoose,

1971). In terms of values (Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values),

attitudes (Porter Test of Counselor Attitudes), and facilitative functioning,

however, trainees change very little and return to their pre-institute

starting points very shortly after program completion (Pietrofesa &

Van Hoose, 1971; Rochester, 1970; Pennscott & Brown, 1972; Soule, 1972).

Additional relationships addressed in this series of institute studies

(Rochester, 1972; Rochester & Cottingham, 1969; Rochester & Hopke, 1969)

were severely clouded by repetitive statistical testing which will likely

produce significant differences by chance alone.

Another manner of researching program effectiveness is through a

follow-up study by questionnaire. Jones, Corle, and Orebaugh (1969) and

O'Dell (1971) surveyed counseling graduates in order to evaluate

their training programs. Neither study is "research" in its strictest

sense (i.e., a study of the relationships between two or more variables),

but the surveys are, nonetheless, rather interesting. Jones et.al., (1969)

found only 61% of the respondees were employed as counselors. Practicum

rated highly as a most "helpful" course in both surveys. Any conclusions from such data are highly tenuous since the response rates to the questionnaires were relatively poor (61% for Jones, et.al., 1969, and 73% for O'Dell, 1969). When only a small percentage of samples are returned the researcher must anticipate inevitable criticism as to the representativeness of those subjects who were sufficiently motivated to respond.

Additional follow-up studies have been designed to test relationships between variables. Scott (1970) found that cirriculum changes were associated with improved appraisals, greater employment, and increased identification with national professional organizations. Gottlieb (1972) determined that there were no significant relationships between type of training for elementary school counselors (no formal program, traditional, or NDEA) and their functioning on a preventative or crisis model. Pfeifle (1970, 1971) employed a survey technique with client ratings on the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (CEI) as a criteria. Counselors with practicum were rated higher by their clients than counselors without practicum although number of clients seen, activity of the supervisor, and lecture or group methods were all unrelated to client evaluations. Finally, a study by Engelkes (1970) revealed no evidence of a training effect in either the satisfaction reports of clients or on-the-job supervisors between trained and untrained rehabilitation counselors.

The remaining five research studies in this section compared the counselor education program group to some "presumably" similar control group. Three investigations (Roark, 1969; Kassera & Sease, 1970; Anthony & Carkhuff, 1970) compared students near completion of their masters programs with those who had just begun in the same program. Roark (1969) found more advanced students were more reflective and passively

accepting than beginners. They also made fewer suggestions, asked fewer
questions, and explored feelings more seldomly (all measures were from
Bales system of rating interactions). Kassera and Sease (1970) tested
three levels of trainees (beginners, intermediates, and advanced) on
a large group of measures including the California Psychological Inventory
(CPI), Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Berger's Acceptance of Self and Others
Scale, and Porter's test of Counselor Attitudes. With all of the repeated
(and dependent) significance testing involved in the analysis, at least
one or two tests would be expected to be significant by chance alone.
In actuality only four of 26 tests were significant: all of the Porter
test of Counselor Attitudes. At best then, the conclusions that can
be drawn are that student attitudes are related to their level within the
counselor education program. It must be remembered, however, that such
attitude changes are relatively transitory (Rochester, 1970).

Anthony and Carkhuff (1970) found fourth semester trainees superior
to first semester trainees in attitudes toward the disabled and level
of facilitative functioning. Both groups of counselor trainees were
superior to "similar" groups of philosophy students. Clearly, the "similarity"
of philosophy students and counselor candidates is questionable even
without any training for either group of students!

In a somewhat similar example of fallicious reason, Rubacher and
Woods (1970) compared two counselor education programs at two separate
schools. Not quite so blatent, but suspect for the same reason, is Mayer
and Engle's (1971) study comparing Guidance Institute students with those
regularly enrolled. One cannot be too suprised in finding differences
comparing an apple to an orange!

In summary, were we to believe that the only real effects of counselor

education were those suggested by the relationships found in these studies
evaluating total programs, we would hardly be able to justify our salaries!
At best there are very tentative indications that counselor training is
associated with temporary changes in counseling attitudes, gains in content
knowledge, and reduction in anxiety. There seems to be little evidence
that personality scores or overt behaviors are altered substantially.

Course-length Programs

Without question, the most impressive compilation of research during
the period of this review is that accomplished by Carkhuff and his colleagues
(Carkhuff, 1969a, 1969b, 1969c, 1972). Initially, Carkhuff developed a
set of operationally defined scales of facilitative conditions: empathy,
respect, concreteness, genuineness, self-disclosure, immediacy, and
confrontation (Carkhuff, 1969b). Subsequently, he has detailed a training
program, human resources development (HRD) training, which can effectively
teach counselors or paraprofessionals facilitative skills. The HRD
model employs didactic teaching, discrimination training, modeling,
experientially-oriented communications practice, and feedback. This model
can be implemented within a time approximating that required for a college
course (Carkhuff, 1969b, 1972). Finally, Carkhuff (1969a, 1969b, 1972) has
established a strong relationship between counselor facilitative functioning
and such client "outcome" characteristics as self-exploration, self-
understanding, ratings of client functioning, vocational information-seeking
behavior, and student achievement.

Carkhuff's remarkable research productivity has greatly influenced
counselor education. One primary impact of Carkhuff is illustrated within
the remainder of this review: Counselor training research has in recent

times focused major attention on facilitative conditions as criteria for
evaluation. Several years earlier, such less objective and less easily
quantifiable criteria as supervisor ratings were most typically employed.

Unfortunately, other course-length programs mentioned in the literature
were not nearly so well described or evaluated. There were a total of 18
studies reported during the 1969-1972 period. Merely seven studies
demonstrated the minimally acceptable condition for qualification as
experimental: random assignment of subjects.

Summarizing the results of the studies involving randomization, a
twelve week course incorporating training aimed at facilitative conditions
resulted in no significant facilitative scale improvement beyond a control
group who did not use the scales (Buckner, 1971). Chernoff (1971) attempted
a similar study of an eleven session training experience. He concludes
that "paper-and-pencil inventories of supposedly relevant counselor
attitudes are of dubious value in assessing changes accompanying counselor
training experiences (p. 3021)." No differences could be found between
experimental and control group on the Affective Sensitivity Scale, the
Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, or the Flexibility scale of the California
Psychological Inventory.

In further uninspiring results, Parker (1973) found that although
a microcounseling (Ivey, 1971) treatment positively affected the trainee's
level of accurate empathy and the amount of affective and understanding
(Counselor Verbal Response Scale) responses, this effect was short lived.
By the time the term ended (5 weeks later), the control group (without
microcounseling) did not perform significantly differently on any measures.

Spivack (1971) employed an experimental design to test the effects
of Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR) training (Kagan, Krathwahl et.al., 1967)

upon empathy, Affective Sensitivity (AS), and the dimensions of the
Counselor Verbal Response Scale (CVRS). Although the IPR training resulted
in significantly higher understanding, specificity and exploratory CVRS
scores, it did no better than a "traditional training" control in AS or
empathy.

In the two remaining course-length experimental programs, a simulation
games approach to teaching personality theory was demonstrated to be not
significantly less effective than a lecture group (Engle & Maes, 1971),
and systematic desensitization approach was demonstrated to be effective
in reducing reported stress prior to a first practicum interview (Monke, 1969).

In the remaining studies of course-length programs, random assignment
was not carried out. The results of these studies, then, may be either due
to initial differences between treatment and control or due to treatment
effects. Again, interpretation of such research is very tentative.

Eight studies employed facilitative conditions (empathy primarily)
as the criterion variables. Carkhuff, Friel, and Kratochvil (1970)
determined that teaching counselor-responsive dimension prior to counselor
initiated dimensions is related to maximal learning of facilitative
conditions. Dowall (1973) found a modification of microcounseling in a
pre-practicum class was correlated with higher levels of response to feeling,
summarization of feeling, communication of respect, confrontation, and
contract setting. (In light of earlier findings, it is significant that
there was no delayed follow-up in the Dowall study.) Pierce and Schauble
(1970, 1971) carried out two companion studies that related supervisor and
instructor facilitativeness to trainee change in facilitative functioning.
Students with low functioning instructors and supervisors did not develop
higher levels of functioning, and, in some cases, they declined in functioning.

Fletcher (1972) found that a group receiving both training and feedback reflected feelings more than groups receiving only one or the other component. Clients, however, did not feel more accepted by any one group over the other.

Researchers have attempted to influence trainees' facilitative functioning through a didactic/experiential group (Parry, 1970) and through training in interaction analysis (Redding, 1969). Neither method proved better than a no treatment control. Rowe (1973) developed a 50 hour Interpersonal Process Recall Approach (Kagan, Krathwohl, et al., 1967) which was related to changes in affective sensitivity, empathy, and two scales of the Counselor Verbal Response Scale. As an uncontrolled study, however, alternative explanations of changes such as the Hawthorne effect, experimenter bias, maturation, and history cannot be ruled out (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

The remaining three articles evaluating course-length programs were sufficiently poor in design so as to question the advisability of reporting them in this review. McClain (1969) studied a summer institute in such a way as to identify experimenter bias rather clearly to the subjects. Stoner and Riese (1971) found no change in self and ideal-self discrepancies over the period of one term. Subjects, perhaps feeling they should be consistent, had rated self and ideal-self as nearly identical in both pre and post measures. Bullmer (1972) compared classes given programmed interpersonal perception texts with classes who carried out entirely unrelated activities. Not surprisingly, the programmed text group was superior on a test specifically designed to measure accuracy of interpersonal perception. (This is not unlike my telling one person "a secret" and not talking to another individual, then testing each on whether they know the secret!)

A Group Processes Experience in Counselor Education

The examination of group processes as a part of a counselor

training program is a subset of the larger category of course-length

programs. The frequency with which this one research question appeared

in the literature (24 times) was sufficient to devote special attention to

its investigation.

The results in this area appear to be more conclusive than in any other

covered within this paper: neither a group processes course nor any other

popular method of self-confrontation or personal growth has demonstrated

significant effects upon counselor education trainees! It may simply

be an artifact of our measures, but until we come up with better ones, we

should admit that group counseling for counseling trainees just doesn't work!

Of the nine studies employing randomization, only two (McWhirter, 1970;

Maroun, 1971) resulted in any significant differences in favor of the group

process training. McWhirter(1970) found higher accurate empathy scores

on an immediate post test favoring sensitivity group over a randomly-

assigned didactic group. Maroun (1971) found groups facilitated by trained

counselors to be higher on self-actualization scores (Personal Orientation

Inventory-POI) than encounter groups directed by audiotapes. Although

there is no way of knowing, these two positive results out of nine might

be explanable by an error in analysis common to all group studies reported

in this paper: the problem of experimental unit (Cox, 1958).

(A brief diversion is appropriate here in order to explain the

meaning of the experimental unit problem. Essentially, what is involved

is that the analysis of variance statistical procedure requires the

assumption that subjects receive treatment independently of one another.

This assumption, unlike the assumptions of normality and equal group

variances, is not very flexible to violation. When a group treatment

is performed, we know that each group member cannot possibly receive the

"group" treatment independently. Every member of a small group is

directly affected by every other member! If one person in the group is

extremely dynamic and charismatic, we might well expect that that group

may be greatly affected in a positive direction. Obviously, of course,

the argument could be stated negatively: a group member might be so

negative and pessimistic as to hold down the potential growth of other

members. Thus, a researcher cannot employ the individual subject as an

appropriate unit of analysis in the analysis of variance. The group--

or the mean for the group--is the smallest unit which receives treatment

independently of any other unit! An appropriate analysis of a group

study requires multiple groups for each treatment c ndition with the

means of these groups being entered into the analysis of variance.)

It is possible that the significant differences (and the nonsignificant

differences, also) found in the group processes studies are the result

of an artifact: either an individual or several individuals within any

one group can influence all group members in certain unknown directions!

The remaining randomized group process studies resulted in no

significant advantage for group process courses on such measures as

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Myrick &. Pare', 1971), facilitative

conditions (Myrick & . Pare', 1971; Rowe, 1972; Salmon, 1972; Whyte, 1972),

Personal Orientation Inventory (Rowe, 1972), Q-Sort measure of self-concept

(Wirt, Betz, & Engle, 1969), Affective Sensitivity Scale (Cerra, 1969),

Rokeach Dogmatism Scale (Cerra, 1969), Personal Description Instrument

(Cerra, 1969), and the Test of Implied Meanings (Eisenbeiss, 1972).

In four studies which attempted to match subjects in the control

group with those in the experimental, results were also mixed. Costinew (1971) found an encounter group stimulated growth on facilitative dimensions. Woody (1971a, 1971b), however, found essentially no differences on a number of variables including Tennessee Self-concept Scale, Elmore Psychological Anomie Scale, the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, and on the Porter Counselor Attitude Inventory. Felker (1971) tested the effects of forced counseling and found matched subjects were not significantly lower on the O'Hern Test of Senstivity or the Woldt-Matuschka Group Rating Scale.

Within the uncontrolled (non randomization) studies of group process, seven resulted in no significant differences (Grand & Stockin, 1970; Grisham, 1973; Holmes, 1972; McKinnon, 1969; Pearson, 1973; Seelig, 1974; and Whittlesey, 1971). In addition to criteria already mentioned above, these investigations found lack of significance on California Psychological Inventory Scores, 16 Personality Factor Test, perceptual organization measured by Thematic Apperception Test scores, Counselor Evaluation Inventory scores, and an Adjective Checklist. Although one of the positive results in the experimental studies had indicated significant differences on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) scores (Maroun, 1971), three of these non-experimental investigations yielded negative results on this same scale of self-actualization (Pearson, 1973; Seelig, 1974; Grisham, 1973).

On two subscales of the Motivation Analysis test, Apostal and Muro (1970) found differences between counseling students in a group process class and a "control" of educational administration students! De Boer (1970) also found some differences favoring group procedures, but his controls were at different universities! Reddy (1970) found changes in certain questionnaire answers but had no control group at all. Finally,

Tucker (1974) found some few scales of the POI changing more in a highly
structured Human Potentials Seminar group than in a no treatment control.
The POI results, then, continue to be inconsistent.

Summary

Beyond the contributions of Carkhuff, the research on course-length
programs in counselor education tells us very little of a positive nature.
On the negative side, however, it is clear that the time has come to
discontinue research on the effectiveness of group process in counselor
education!

Short-term Counseling Training

Evaluations of short-term attempts to develop counseling behaviors
are not only the most numerous (38 studies) but also the most rigorously
designed (29 involve random assignment to groups). There are at least
two reasons for this: (a) short-term treatments are more controllable
because of their brevity, and (b) doctoral dissertations are normally
designed to be carried out in relatively brief time periods (21 of 38
studies are doctoral dissertations). Since there are some common categories
of investigation within the sort-term evaluations, the remainder of this
section will identify results within each category.

Training Approaches to Facilitative Functioning

Studies in this section consist either of alterations of Carkhuff's
Human Resources Development (HRD) training model or of unique approaches
to developing facilitative functioning. Kratochvil (1969), Butler (1971)
and Butler and Hansen (1973) essentially employed the HRD model in

short-term training and found, as had Carkhuff, that trainees were more facilitative than randomly-assigned controls in role-plays with standard clients. In addition, Butler (1971) found these differences persisted for at least four weeks. Another experimental study (MacDonald, 1971) determined that standardized audiotaped materials would not effect change in empathy and congruence. Apparently, when you take the human feedback out of the HRD model, it is not as effective.

Among more poorly designed studies (no random assignment), Ashworth (1971) found an empathy training group helped develop discrimination and communication of empathy. Mehnert (1972) compared a systematic training program (somewhat "HRD-like") with a discussion group and located no differences between groups in client ratings despite the treatment group's increase in specific responding. Gimmestad (1971) prepared a program similar to HRD for developing perceptual sensitivity. There was no signigicant pre-post change on the perceptual sensitivity measure.

In a different training model, Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR), Ward, Kagan and Krathwohl (1972) could find no measurable differences between counselors with IPR (video or audio) and a group exposed to traditional supervision. Grzegorek (1971), also testing the IPR model, compared two methods of IPR presentation. In one treatment, he focused on experiential learning and attempted to create an accepting atmosphere. With the second group, the concentration of attention was directed to cognitive and intellectual discussion and interpretation. The experiential group developed better empathy, understanding, specificity and exploration. The study was flawed, however, by a lack of random assignment.

Apparently, we can surmise from the work cited above that HRD models (and other models of similar nature) will promote facilitative functioning. Since the total model involves a complexity of factors

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(discrimination training, modeling, role-playing, and feedback),
further research is needed to identify the critical components of the
process. Some of the following research reports deal with these components.

Modeling

The research consistantly supports the effectiveness of modeling
as a method to encourage learning in counselor education. Miller (1969)
found a consistent model with reinforcement effected change in trainees'
counseling behavior (fewer topic changes and fewer counselor statements).
Eisenberg (1970) and Eisenberg and Delaney (1970) trained counselors
using videotaped procedures to give tacting (concrete) responses. Their
experimental study compared subjects who merely saw the video client
stimuli (control) with three treatments: (a) subjects who received verbal
reinforcement for practicing tacting responses, (b) subjects who observed
a videotaped counselor giving tacting responses, and (c) subjects who
received both reinforcement and modeling. Results indicated that the
two groups with modeling were significantly higher than the reinforcement-
only and control groups in tacting response generation.

Hutchcraft (1970), Ronnestad (1974) and Frankel (1971) demonstrated
modeling's effects upon counselor trainee behavior. With one short
supervisor modeling treatment, Hutchcraft's (1970) subjects reduced
interruptions, number of responses and duration of counselor talk. Although
the counselor models (videotaped) in the same study had demonstrated
desired behaviors, subjects' responding was only changed in the condition
where a supervisor model (also videotaped) gave the model counselor
feedback and information. Changes, however, were not retained on a delayed
post test. Ronnestad (1974) had randomly assigned subjects to treatment

or to a control group that "explored client/counselor feelings." The
treatments (modeling or feedback) outperformed the control on expression
of empathy. Frankel's (1971) single presentation of a video model
increased frequency of counselor feeling statements but did not influence
the accuracy of reflection.

In a well-designed study, Rank, Thoresen, and Smith (1972) established
the effects of modeling upon affective, group-focused, and personal group
behaviors of counselor trainees. This study, although carried out in a
very short time span, is one that provides a good model for possible
counselor education research in the future.

Payne, Weiss, and Kapp (1972) in another well designed (but very
complex) study found a combination of audio modeling and didactic supervision
resulted in increased counselor empathy. They concluded that the didactic
and modeling portions of their treatment were essentially additive, each
contributing a unique effect. Similarly, Stern (1972) studied didactic
(programmed manual), modeling (four videotapes), and experiential (four
interviews with feedback from the client) approaches to training of
feeling reflections. Subjects in both didactic and modeling treatments
gave more feeling reflections than did those in the experiential group.
The non-structured nature of the client feedback apparently had little
effect on the experiential subjects. Stone (1973) questioned whether
subjects would learn better from written, audio, video, or live models
and/or practice. The further the model and practice was from reality, the
poorer was the learning.

In the only contradictory finding in the modeling research, Thielen (1971)
observed that trainees in a treatment of supervisor modeling, reinforcing,
and role-playing were not significantly higher on CVRS items than a

randomly assigned taped lecture control. The experimental group did,
however, feel better about themselves, apparently as a result of all the
individual attention.

Modeling, then, appears to be an effective teaching procedure in
counselor education. It tends to be more beneficial when presented within
the context of a didactic presentation or conceptualization. Unfocused
experiential activities and unclarified reinforcement or feedback are
not as effective as a modeling approach.

Feedback and Reinforcement

As was already mentioned, Eisenberg (1970), Eisenberg and Delaney
(1970) and Ronnestad (1974) all determined that modeling was superior to
a feedback/reinforcement condition. Ronnestad (1974), however, found
that a feedback-only group was more empathic than an experiential control.
Altekruse and Brown (1969), Kelley (1971), Sodetz (1973), Reddy (1968),
and Carlson (1971, 1974) have demonstrated significant effects for
feedback treatments over no feedback controls. Altekruse and Brown (1969)
found trainees encouraged to self-analyze their audiotapes (i.e., to give
feedback to themselves) were less directive in their subsequent counseling.
Other research suggested supervisor feedback was more effective than either
self-feedback (Kelley, 1971) or client feedback (Sodetz, 1973). Also,
immediate feedback (bug-in-the-ear) was more effective than delayed
(Reddy, 1968, 1969).

Carlson's (1971, 1974) experiment established that a conceptual
basis for training will promote change. His "feedback and instructions"
group, despite non contingent feedback presentation, outperformed immediate
feedback subjects.

Elsenrath, Coker, and Martinson (1972) presented an effective audiotaped treatment to influence specified counselor interaction variables. Their treatment involved practice, reinforcement, and instructions. Differences from the randomly assigned control were still evident after a seven to ten day delay. The Carlson (1971, 1974) and Elsenrath et.al. (1972) results are consistent with Dowd and Blocher's (1974) finding that immediate reinforcement and awareness of the reinforced response class seem to be additive factors. The combination of the conceptual framework (awareness) and reinforcement was more effective than either factor alone.

The only study is inconsistent with the previously cited feedback research is Olson's (1974) investigation of immediate and delayed feedback. He found no significant differences between immediate, delayed or no-feedback control on any of three criterion variables—interview termination, silence management, or client ratings of effectiveness. Although it is possible that Olson's investigation was an experimental study, it was not clear that random assignment had occurred.

As with modeling, feedback appears to be an effective training method when presented within a meaningful conceptual framework. The further the reward is removed from its conceptual base, the less effective it appears to be.

Counselor Anxiety

Several authors have addressed counselor anxiety about interviewing as a criterion variable in short-term training programs. Miller (1973) and Carter (1973) demonstrated that systematic desensitization was able to reduce anxiety significantly more than a no-treatment control. Carter's (1973) study, however, found no significant differences between

systematic desensitization and a insight-affect control. Rihani (1973)

found an implosive treatment increased counselor trainees' ability to

handle anxiety aroused by emotionally charged words.

Miller (1971), however, was unsuccessful in locating any anxiety

differences between self-desensitization, in-vivo desensitization, and

no-treatment control groups. His subjects were not selected because of

expressed anxiety, and he concludes that as masters counseling students,

they were simply not very anxious about a role-played counseling session!

Role-Playing and Simulation

Counselor-trainee role-playing, when presented without didactic

material, may not be an effective technique in promoting counselor behavior.

A number of the studies cited under the modeling and feedback headings

employed role-playing or practice as a control for the other treatments.

In most cases, the role-playing alone was not effective (e.g., Eisenberg

& Delaney, 1970; Carlson, 1974; Reddy,1968). In another investigations,

Rastatter (1970) could find no significant differences in facilitative

functioning between counselors who had and had not role played. This

study was not, however, well-designed or well-described. The content and

length of the role-plays was unspecified, and random assignment was absent.

Shoemaker (1973) compared a micro-lab training (Ivey, 1971) with a

didactic presentation and found no significant effects for the role

playing components of the micro-lab.

Panther (1971) prepared a simulation (role-playing) treatment to

develop counselor skills in consultation. Counselors who had been involved

in the simulation experiences (and presumably involved in instructional

experiences as well) were rated more highly than controls on recommendations

they had made relative to problem situations. It must be mentioned,

however, that there was apparently no random assignment, and the control

group was not exposed to any discussion of consultation whatsoever!

Discussion and Summary

My review has covered 108 research studies related to outcomes of

counseling training. I would remind the reader that no studies on

supervision and practicum have been included, and the time period of my

review does no bring us up to date. Thus, my conclusions and suggestions may

possibly be answered in other and more up-dated research.

Nonetheless, I will make a few summary comments and suggestions. First

of all, Carkhuff has had a remarkable impact upon counseling training. To

a certain extent, Carkhuff has begun to answer a criticism raised by

Whiteley (1969) in an earlier review of counselor education: "It will

not be possible to study with any precision the effects of a training

program until it becomes clearer what effects the counselor should produce

and how he is to accomplish his purposes" (p. 180). Carkhuff has argued

that facilitative conditions and systematic programs are the needed skills

of the counselor. Apparently counselor educators have heard his message

since over half of the research reviewed employed facilitative functioning

as a criterion variable. I would hope, however, that counselor education

does not get lost in its search for facilitative functioning. Certainly

there are other, additional criteria that we desire our students to learn!

Second, group process experience for counselor education students is

of questionable value. Perhaps we maintain these program components as

a result of our own rewards from the experience of a "group high," but

in terms of objective criteria, there seems to be little justification.

Third, modeling and reinforcement/feedback techniques are effective
approaches to counselor education. They are particularly beneficial when
presented within a cognitive structure, normally presented didactically.
Since most of a counselor education program is didactic, we should be able
to include modeling and feedback approaches effectively at almost any point!

Fourth, many of the problems addressed in the research are not of
major impact. To borrow from Goldman's (1977) recent statement on research:
"Research tells us something about what courses are offered to counselors
in training but rarely anything about the important things that happen
in those courses and their outcomes in the counselors and their later work"
(p.363). There are many important questions that have simply not been
addressed. To suggest just a few: Are counselors trained under a consistent
cognitive model more effective on the job than those whose programs are
more eclectic? Does repeated exposure to videotaping create more relaxed
and competent counselors? Can content classes be taught through self-
instruction and programmed units allowing for more staff attention to
experiential portions of the program? Do counselor educators who have
read the "latest research" perform their jobs differently than those who
have not? Is every required course in our present counselor education
programs truly a necessary component in preparation? These questions
(and of course, there are many more possibilities) could teach us various
directions depending upon their answers. All, then, would meet Krumboltz's
(1967) test of relevance for research.

Fifth, we should begin to move our assessments of effectiveness as
counselor educators from observations of our trainees to observations of
our trainees' clients. Our major purpose is to develop effective counseling,
which is not directly inferable from process measures. Only when we

observe clients growing and changing in their desired directions can we
surmise that counselor effectiveness is present.

Sixth, we need more planned, comprehensive and coordinated research
projects. Too many studies are isolated investigations on available
samples (Goldman, 1976). Generalization is problematical, particularly
so when replications are seldomly reported.

Our counselor education research is not good! The studies reviewed
are full of design and statistical problems, and yet, I am encouraged by
a trend toward increasingly sound methodology (particularly in Counselor
Education and Supervision) and correspondingly solid conclusions. To return
to the two questions I posed at the outset ("Do counselor educators educate?"
and "What do their students learn?"), I feel justified in confidently
answering: "I think so" and "At least a few things!"

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