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ABSTRACT

This official journal of the California Association for Counseling and Development (CACD) includes the following articles: (1) "The Editor's Message" (Pat Nellor Wickwire); (2) "The CACD President's Message" (Mary Honer); (3) "The Challenge to Multiculturalism--Can We Get Along?" (Rodney J. Reed); (4) "Burnout among Crisis Intervention Counselors and Its Relationship to Social Support" (Susan M. Fishbach and Romeria Tidwell); (5) "Desired Outcomes of Counselor Education" (Linnea White); (6) "Effects of Verbal Persuasion on the Career Self-Efficacy of College Freshmen" (Darrell A. Luzzo and Mary Taylor); (7) "Does Childhood Matter? A Rationale for the Inclusion of Childhood in Theories of Career Decision" (Ashton D. Trice and Nancy McClellan); (8) "Faculty Workload in Counselor Preparation Programs" (Robert L. Bowman, Vicki E. Bowman, Toni R. Tollerud; (9) "Counseling the Client Who Has a Learning Disability" (Robert E. Manganello); (10) "Sculpting in a Group: A Group Process Exercise" (Richard A. Hanks, Harold B. Stevens, Ira D. Welch); and (11) "Imagery, Hypnosis, and Sport Psychology" (Christopher M. Faiver, and others.) Contains 19 references. (BF)

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PAT NELLOR WICKWIRE
Editor

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California Association for Counseling and Development

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THE EDITOR'S MESSAGE

Pat Nellor Wickwire

The *CACD Journal* Editorial Board is pleased to present this issue of the *CACD Journal*. The contents support the Association theme,in addressing creative approaches to the challenges currently faced by counselors.

Rodney J. Reed proposes moral leadership and respect for self and others as imperatives in the search to create a positive multicultural world.

Romeria Tidwell and Susan M. Fishbach report the levels of burnout and the effects of social support factors on burnout for both crisis intervention and general practice counselors.

Linnea White recommends using identified student competencies and behaviors as the basis for the design, development, and implementation of outcome-based counselor education programs.

Darrell A. Luzzo and Mary Taylor focus on verbal persuasion in career counseling as an influence in client expectations of self-efficacy in career decision making.

Ashton D. Trice and Nancy McClellan review evidence of the impact of childhood aspirations on adult career choice, and recommend inclusion in theories of career development.

Robert L. Bowman, Vicki E. Bowman, and Toni R. Tollerud summarize survey findings on faculty workload in counselor education programs, and identify issues for further research.

Robert E. Manganello suggests counseling approaches for clients with learning disabilities, with examples related to specific behaviors, such as those used in time management.

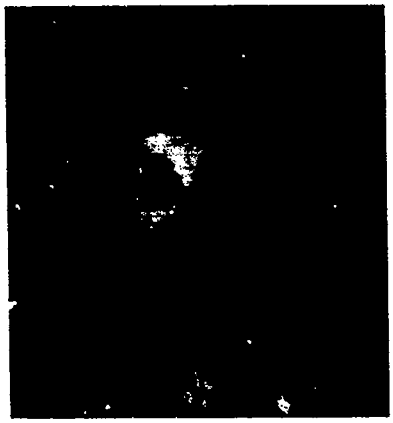
Richard A. Hanks, Harold B. Stevens, and Ira D. Welch outline group sculpting as a counseling technique, and provide a case example of its applications.

Christopher M. Faiver, John L. Bufford, John M. Ropar, and Nancy B. Salkin discuss specific applications of imagery and hypnosis in sports counseling.

Readers are encouraged to read, reflect, and enjoy these professional contributions to counseling, and invited to forward manuscripts about theory and practice in counseling for future issues of the *CACD Journal*.

THE CACD PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Mary Honer



California has been the recipient of more than its share of bad press during this year of 1993-94. Our headlines have screamed with news of natural disasters such as fires, earthquakes, and floods. Daily bombarding us on the front pages are human tragedies, carjackings, drive-by shootings, murder, rape, and on and on. Our state struggles with major problems with unemployment, high taxes, and social unrest – to name just a few.

We need to stop long enough to smell the roses, enjoy the gorgeous green hills set against the backdrop of snow-capped mountains, and appreciate our majestic sequoias and redwoods, beautiful lakes and streams. So little news space is given to the positive actions of people. How about the hotel maid who returns $100,000 worth of jewelry, the man who rescues a drowning infant, the students who get high SAT scores and win scholarships to Ivy League universities?

Whatever happened to the old song made famous by Bing Crosby, "You've got to accentuate the positive, eliminate the negative, latch on to the affirmative.... "? Counselors in 1993-94 have worked to meet the needs created by the negative while accentuating the positive. Sometimes the odds seem overwhelming, with little support from government and others. The balance between the need and the services available has been staggering.

Our *CACD Journal* is filled with "good press" and ideas for helping counselors fulfill our CACD Convention theme "Counselors Creatively Confront Current Challenges." We hope you will find this issue one to enjoy and share with others. The issue includes a good cross-section of articles with solid information presented in an interesting fashion.

My thanks to our Editor Dr. Pat Wickwire for once again taking the leadership in providing us with an outstanding publication of which we can be proud. Your contributions are always welcome.

The Challenge to Multiculturalism – Can We Get Along?

Rodney J. Reed

Respect for oneself and others and enabling moral leadership are imperatives in the creation of a positive multicultural world.

We live in a time of great unrest and despair. Racial and ethnic and religious tensions appear to mount daily around the world from the southern horn of Africa to the Baltic, from the Orient to our own backyards. Moreover, in the last decade and a half, we have seen around 12 million refugees fleeing war and repression stemming from civil and ethnic tension in almost every corner of the globe. We witness daily the horror of "ethnic cleansing" in Bosnia. The horror of Somalia is painfully portrayed daily in the media as we see thousands of children and adults who are starving to death because of the warring clan-based factions and thugs who prevent food from being distributed by stealing it or taking it through force. Fortunately, this will change because of the recent actions of the United Nations and the United States. We witness the conflict in India between Hindus and Muslims, which has resulted in more than 900 deaths to date. In Germany we see hate and violence being levied against immigrant groups and Jews by neo-Nazis. Civil and ethnic war and political or ethnic repression are at the root of conflict in Liberia, Mozambique, Angola, Haiti, and Croatia.

In our own nation, xenophobia, homophobia, racism, and envy continue to cause hurtful conflicts between diverse population groups. Some notable examples are: the long-simmering conflict between Hasidic Jews and African-Americans in the Crown Heights section of Brooklyn, New York; the tensions between Koreans and African-Americans in Los Angeles; and the many racial incidents in our schools and universities which have included name-calling, racial slurs, derogatory signs printed on walls and doors, and racist articles in school and university newspapers. In fact, according to the National Institute Against Prejudice and Violence at the University of Maryland-Baltimore (Morganthau, Mabry, Genao, & Washington. 1991) between 1986 and 1991, more than 300 college campuses reported the occurrence of racist incidents.

These examples, at home and abroad (and I am sure you can identify many more examples) suggest that, instead of making lasting and sustained progress in the basic area of human interaction, we are moving backwards. This is particularly disturbing in this country, since we thought at last the moral imperative of "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" and the guarantees of the U.S. Constitution and the Bill of Rights for "equality" and "justice for all" would become reality following the 1954 and 1955 *Brown* decisions and the Civil Rights Act of 1963. What we have discovered, however, is that the forces of intolerance, racism, and the politics of envy produced a continuing series of obstacles designed to thwart the intent of those judicial and legislative actions. We have also seen the resurgence of hate groups like the Ku Klux Klan and the indoctrination of little children by that group.

Speech presented at the Western Regional Summit, Association for Multicultural Counseling and Development, Sacramento, California, December 12, 1992.

Rodney J. Reed is Dean of the College of Education, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park.

The forces that are at work to divide us, rather than unite us, as a total society are many. If we do nothing to counter these forces, then the answer to the question "Can we get along?" is decidedly negative. But I refuse to believe that there is nothing we can and should do.

The Promise of Multicultural Education

As one strategy, we have long advocated multicultural education, gender equity, and intergroup relations programs, and we see multicultural and diversity curricula being implemented in some school districts and colleges across the country. For example, the New York City school system has made available to its schools a curriculum called "Children of the Rainbow." Yet, while only a few teachers have begun to integrate this multicultural curriculum into their classrooms (Myers, 1992), its introduction in the district has raised the ire of parents throughout New York City's 32 local school districts because it includes materials concerning nontraditional structures of gay- and lesbian-headed families. Whereas controversy and discussion continue, it is notable that the district has made a beginning by putting into place a policy which requires teachers to implement multicultural education in the classroom.

In Portland, Oregon, the Baseline Essays (Portland Public Schools, 1991) have been developed to foster multicultural awareness. These Baseline Essays provide information on the cultures of what the Portland schools consider to be the six major geocultural groups of the world: Africans, Asians, Hispanics, American Indians, Pacific Islanders, and Europeans. The essays are intended to be used to infuse information about various cultures throughout the curriculum, providing a holistic and thematic history from ancient times to today and promoting understanding of the geocultural group worldview.

The African-American essays, the first set of essays to be completed, cover African and African-American traditions in art, language arts, mathematics, science, social studies, and music. Transition of the essays into basic academic discipline content is easily accomplished by the essay structure, and by bibliographies that are included for enriching the process where time and interest permit. Although a great deal of discussion has focused on the accuracy of the content of the essays and revisions have been necessary, the program nevertheless is looked to as a model for teaching appreciation and awareness of various cultural groups. Speaking of persistent hatred and racism in America, Matthew Prophet, the superintendent of the Portland schools, is quoted as saying, "Future generations of Americans . . . need to understand that many of . . . [the racial] conflicts [we see] are based on the ideas of intrinsic inferiority and superiority. We're trying to eliminate that attitude, and we believe that linking multicultural education and conflict resolution will help" (O'Neil, 1991-1992, p. 27).

It is clear that multicultural education is necessary in school and university curricula. But the full effect of such curricula has yet to be felt. For example, in Los Angeles, efforts have been made to prepare teachers to work with diverse students through a multicultural inservice program. However, analysis of the effects of the Los Angeles teacher-training series found little apparent impact on how participants think about the teaching of multicultural education (McDiarmid, 1990).

Many universities also have implemented and are implementing multicultural education and cultural diversity graduation requirements in their undergraduate curricula, and, recognizing that their customers are becoming increasingly culturally diverse, business and industry have turned to multicultural education to sensitize their work forces. Moreover, they are diversifying their operations, bringing into their workplaces new ideas and approaches for appealing to an increasingly global marketplace. They have begun to realize that if all ethnic and racial groups of this country do not prosper, they will not prosper, and America will not prosper.

Imperatives – Respect and Moral Leadership

But in spite of the multicultural education programs and requirements in our schools and universities and in business and industry, the "cancer of hate," as labeled in a recent *USA Today* article (Kandel, 1992), continues to grow. Can we stop this growth? Can we get along? I think we can if we can bring to reality two essential ingredients – *respect* and *moral leadership*. Let me briefly elaborate.

It is interesting to note that a recent study conducted by the Claremont Graduate School (Institute for Education Transformation, 1992), which examined the problems of today's schools, found that *more than* issues of content and how to teach it, *more than* how to assess that learning, *more than* what teachers should know, and *more than* school choice issues (all those issues at the forefront of school restructuring and reform across the nation today), the real problems in our schools are *relationship problems* – relationships between students and their teachers, between teachers and administrators, and so on. The study points out that the children in the schools examined recognize what so many of those in charge seem to forget: "I do well in classes where the teacher respects me, and I do poorly where the teachers don't like me" (Rothman, 1992, p.1). Schools, universities, and other organizations are thus correctly described as sets of relationships. Where respect is absent from these relationships, we find what the study report calls a "pervasive sense of despair" (p.9) where teachers and staff develop the attitude that academic and personal failure results from feelings of hopelessness. Unfortunately, those feelings of hopelessness are all too frequently associated with the school failure of minority students.

The extent of that failure is exacerbated by the changing demographics that will find, by the mid-21st century, half the American population as members of so-called minority groups. It is exacerbated further by the five million children who live in poverty today (National Center for Children in Poverty, 1992), and the many more who will live in poverty tomorrow – too many because society limits opportunities for them and their parents on the basis of their culture or race. Young students must see real opportunities – real incentives – for staying in school and achieving academic and personal excellence if such cycles are to be broken.

Changed family structure also contributes to this poverty as more single parents – who are raising 19.4% of all children today – bear the financial responsibilities of child-rearing without the help of a partner. While this family structure has increased among all groups, the greatest percentage increase is seen among minorities: 21% for African-Americans, 50% for Hispanics, 95% for Asian-Americans, and 48% for Native Americans.

In order to reverse such patterns, we must begin to value and respect diversity through *respect* for self and for others. Our world has become more interdependent than ever. We are one heterogeneous community connected by technology; easily accessed by air, water, and land; affected by worldwide weather conditions, food chains, disease, and social strife. We share the same hopes and aspirations, and we have the same psychological and physiological needs. We live on and share but one planet (Reed, 1992).

Respect for oneself and respect for others, regardless of their life circumstances, are essential steps in harmonious living. To see the good in all individuals, to rid ourselves of stereotypical thinking and selfish behaviors, prepares us to live by the commandment, "Love thy neighbor as thyself." Respect is a basis for the acceptance of others, for consideration and compassion, for love, for building and sustaining a just society and for meaningful relationships. Respect is living the golden rule: "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you" – not *before* they do unto you which is manipulation and coercion; not *after* they do unto you which is retaliation; but as you would have them do unto you.

Can we get along? Yes, if we respect all people; provide equal opportunities for all people; eliminate racism, sexism, and ageism, and all the other "isms" prevalent in our society. One place to start might be with Columbia Law Professor George Fletcher's call to revise the pledge of allegiance to reflect a new, multicultural patriotism (Fletcher, 1992). He suggests: "I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands, one nation, united in our diversity, committed to liberty and justice [and, I add, *respect*] for all."

Thomas Paine told us, as a matter of *Common Sense*, that we have it in our power to begin the world all over again. I say to you, we have it in our power to begin again as a set of relationships with common goals, bound by respect and good will for all individuals and groups.

Second, we must have *moral leadership* to create the human environment in which respect will become the order of the day. Such leadership has to be exercised from the highest offices of this land and from every school superintendent, principal, teacher, and guidance counselor, from every university president, administrator, and professor. It is a leadership based on what I think are keys to successful leadership – knowledge, integrity, vision, perseverance, respect, and humility (Reed, 1992).

Booker T. Washington reminded us that "Success is to be measured not so much by the position that one has reached in life as by the obstacles which he [or she] has overcome while trying to succeed" (Washington, 1901, p. 39). Bringing about the kind of societal change we will need in attitudes, beliefs, and actions to cause us, as a nation and as a world community, to "get along" will not be easy nor quick. But if we provide the moral leadership, respect for self and others can be achieved. The torch has been passed to each of us to meet this challenge.

Surmounting the Obstacles

I leave you with a story the Reverend Leon H. Sullivan shared with the participants of the First African-African-American Summit, held in Cote d'Ivoire, West Africa, almost two years ago. According to the Reverend Sullivan, in about the year 2000 BC, the African general Hannibal assembled an army of about 10,000 men and set out to conquer the Roman empire. No one had been successful in accomplishing this feat before because the Roman army had a network of defenses set up to intercept any enemy approaching from established routes. But Hannibal studied the situation and decided that the only way to conquer Rome was to find a new route and surprise the Roman army. General Hannibal concluded his forces would have to cross the Alps, which had never been done before. So his assembled army of soldiers on horseback and foot, carrying homemade weapons, set forth on their journey. After several weeks, Hannibal and his men reached the towering, majestic Alps. He and his men stopped before the mountains, and he said, "Behold the Alps . . . " and word was passed back to the troops, "Behold the Alps . . ." "Behold the Alps. . . " "Behold the Alps. . . ."

Again Hannibal looked at the mountains and proclaimed, "Behold the Alps. . . " and his words were passed along to his army, "Behold the Alps. . . " "Behold the Alps. . . . "

Still staring at the mountains, Hannibal for a third time said, "Behold the Alps. . . "and his words were echoed along the troop lines, "Behold the Alps. . . " "Behold the Alps. . ." "Behold the Alps. . . . "

Then Hannibal shouted, "We see no Alps. . . We see no Alps!" and he and his army scaled the mountains and attacked and defeated the Roman army.

And thus I say to you as leaders and future leaders, take on the many challenges we face – See no Alps, see no Alps, see no Alps . . . . "Let us march on 'til victory is won" (Johnson & Johnson, 1900, line 1).

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"We need affinity before we can achieve unity."

– E. W. (Bud) Stude, Jr.

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Invited Commemorative Address
California Women's Caucus 20th Anniversary C^mmemoration
February 27, 1994
CACD Annual Convention
Los Angeles, California

Burnout Among Crisis Intervention Counselors and Its Relationship to Social Support

Susan M. Fishbach and Romeria Tidwell

Crisis intervention counselors demonstrated a higher incidence of burnout than general practice counselors in this research investigation. For both groups, lower levels of burnout were related to work setting, number of years on the job, and to higher levels of job autonomy. For crisis intervention counselors, lower levels of burnout and higher levels of professional support were related.

The incidence of counselor burnout is high, estimated to be about 39% (Ackerley, Burnell, Holder, & Kurdek, 1988; Golembiewski & Munzenrider, 1988), and is higher among crisis intervention counselors, whose work is highly emotionally charged and strenuously paced (Baron & Cohen, 1982; Beck, 1987; Burgess & Baldwin, 1981; Maslach & Jackson, 1984a, 1984b). Emotions are heightened and intense in crisis work; persons going through crises can be very isolated and overly dependent on the counselor, conditions associated with increased levels of burnout (Farber & Heifetz, 1982; Janosik, 1984).

Human service professionals are often in close contact with people who are in pain, distress, or confusion. As a result, these "helpers" may themselves need assistance in dealing with emotional pressure from their work (Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines, Aronson, & Kafry, 1981). Since the term was first introduced (Freudenberger, 1974; Maslach, 1976), "burnout" has received much attention but still its structure remains unclear (Sullivan, 1989). Maslach & Jackson (1986) have, however, identified three dimensions that characterize burnout among individuals who work closely with people in trouble: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced view of personal accomplishment.

The most widely used instrument for measuring burnout, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986), is based upon these non-additive dimensions. Emotional exhaustion refers to a feeling of being overextended by work. Depersonalization means that the helping professional develops insensitive perceptions of clients. A reduced view of personal accomplishment refers to the counselor's negative self-evaluations, usually in regard to therapeutic success.

Social support is an important factor related to the levels of burnout reported by counselors (Beck, 1987; Jayaratne, Chess, & Kunkel, 1986; Ursprung, 1986). Supportive feedback from supervisors and co-workers may help the counselor maintain role clarity, as well as realistic goals and expectations, factors found to mitigate burnout (Rosenthal, Teague, Retish, West, & Vessell, 1983; Selder & Paustain, 1989; Ursprung, 1986). In their review of the literature related to burnout, Justice, Gold, and Klein (1981) identified a lack of acknowledgment for accomplishments and lack of support systems as significant factors in the development of burnout. Nevertheless, the relationship between social support and burnout level among crisis intervention counselors is largely untested.

Burnout leads to pervasive problems of serious concern to those in the helping professions. Personal and professional lives suffer. The symptoms may include emotional

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and physical disorders, job dissatisfaction, family and marital conflict, decreased work quality and productivity, and increased alcohol or drug use (Freudenberger, 1989; Kahill, 1988; Kilburg, Kaslow, & Vandenbos, 1988; Maslach & Florian, 1988). As a consequence, clients may not receive quality care (Kilburg et al., 1988; Raquepaw & Miller, 1989), and the institutions that provide counseling may expend resources in training new staff to keep up with job turnover, as well as experience decreased productivity and quality of services (Pines et al., 1981).

To provide more services to the greatest number of people, community mental health clinics are increasingly focusing on crisis intervention as the treatment of choice (Koch, 1986; Tidwell, 1992), a trend encouraged by the national insurance companies which restrict funds for mental health care (Upton, 1983). With growing numbers of professionals involved in crisis intervention work, it is important to assess the level of burnout among crisis intervention counselors, and to identify the factors that contribute to burnout.

General practice counselors who work in settings that do not specifically involve crisis intervention constitute an excellent comparison group, since they do similar work and have similar training and demographic characteristics. Most importantly, the choice of general practice counselors as a comparison group tends to control for factors specific to burnout in crisis intervention work.

The purposes of this study were to compare the incidence of burnout between counselors working in crisis intervention and counselors working in general practice, and to investigate the relationship between burnout and social support. The effects of a number of variables related to the incidence of burnout, including income level, job autonomy, and the number of years in a work setting, were explored. The following predictions were made:

1. Counselors who work as crisis interventionists would report higher levels of burnout as measured on the three dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory than would counselors who work in general practice.

2. Counselors who perceive that they are supported by supervisors, co-workers, friends, or family (overall support) were expected to report less burnout as measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory than would counselors who perceive a lack of support from their supervisors, co-workers, friends, or family.

3. Counselors who perceive that they are supported by supervisors and co-workers (professional support) would report less burnout as measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory than would counselors who perceive that they are supported by family and friends (personal support). This was expected to be especially true of crisis intervention counselors.

Method

Respondents

Respondents were identified from the membership directory of the American Mental Health Counselors Association (AMHCA), a division of the American Counseling Association. Questionnaires were sent to the 141 members who listed their specialty as crisis intervention and to 191 randomly selected AMHCA members who listed themselves in general practice.

Two hundred and seven (62%) completed questionnaires were returned. Respondents included three subgroups: crisis intervention counselors ($n = 99$), general practice counselors ($n = 92$), and crisis and general practice counselors in private practice ($n = 16$). The last subgroup, exclusively in private practice, described themselves as having no co-workers. Data analysis focused on the first two subgroups

The crisis intervention counselors (CIs) and general practice counselors (GPs) were essentially equivalent in their levels of education, and were, in general, evenly distributed across the United States.

Instruments

Five data-gathering instruments were used in this investigation: the Demographic Questionnaire, the Maslach Burnout Inventory, the Work Relationships Index, the Family Relationships Index, and the Perceived Social Support from Friends Scale.

The questionnaire regarding demographics, a modified version of one developed by Maslach and Jackson (1986), was designed to gather information about respondents' age, sex, ethnicity, marital status, education, and number of years in current practice.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) consists of 22 items that address the ranking of job-related feelings. The MBI yields a profile of three subscales that define burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment.

Professional support from colleagues, co-workers, or supervisors was assessed by the Work Relationships Index (WRI). The WRI includes three subscales (Moos, 1986; Moos & Insel, 1974): involvement, peer cohesion, and supervisor support.

The 27 true/false items on the Family Relationships Index (FRI) were totaled to indicate the quality of social support respondents perceived as receiving from their families. The FRI is based on three subscales (Moos & Moos, 1986): cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict.

The Perceived Social Support from Friends Scale (PSS-Fr) (Procidano & Heller, 1983) measures the extent to which people believe that their needs for support, information, and feedback are met by friends. Each of the 20 items in the PSS-Fr requires a "yes" or "no" response with scoring in the positive direction.

Procedure

Each respondent received a survey packet which included the five instruments and a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study. Packets were coded to facilitate follow-up of non-respondents. After three weeks, each respondent received a follow-up postcard, and after another two weeks, an additional survey packet and another cover letter.

Results

Demographic Questionnaire

General practice counselors (GPs) and crisis intervention counselors (CIs) were similar in their demographic characteristics. Approximately two-thirds of each group were women, over 92% described themselves as Caucasian, and approximately 65% were married; 46% of the GPs reported having children living with them, while 36% of the CIs had children at home. The largest percentage (34%) of respondents in both groups worked in community mental health clinics.

A large majority of those in both groups reported that employee support meetings were available at primary places of employment. Eighty-five percent of the GPs and 82% of the CIs indicated that these meetings were helpful. In addition, 82% of the GPs and 76% of the CIs were involved in support activities, including informal discussions with colleagues, continuing education seminars, and personal improvement (e.g., Alcoholics Anonymous, Overeaters Anonymous). Sixty-three percent of the GPs and 46% of the CIs indicated that fewer than 25% of their personal friends were also colleagues or co-workers. Eighty-one percent of those in both groups reported incomes under $45,000 per year. A chi-square analysis of responses to the item, "time spent in crisis intervention at work," confirmed that if the counselors are self-labeled as crisis interventionists, significantly more of their time at work is spent in crisis intervention, χ^2 (4, N = 188) = 68.6, $p < .001$.

Levels of Burnout

Differences between the crisis intervention counselors (CIs) and the general practice counselors (GPs) in levels of burnout were tested using three separate regression analyses, one for each MBI subscale. For each analysis the demographic variables and measures of social support were treated as independent variables, and one of the MBI subscales was treated as the dependent variable. In each regression equation, independent variables were entered in groups based on a hierarchy reflecting their theoretical importance and interrelationship: a) group; b) sex, academic degree, work setting, ethnicity, marital status, years married, years on the job, years working, and age; c) income; and d) WRI scores.

The means and standard deviations of the three MBI subscales are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Dimensions of Burnout as Measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory

Dimension	Crisis Intervention Counselors (n = 99)		General Practice Counselors (n = 92)	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Emotional Exhaustion	20.9	9.1	18.7	9.3
Depersonalization	7.1	5.5	4.8	4.1
Personal Accomplishment	40.2	4.9	41.8	5.0

As predicted, the two counselor groups differed significantly in their level of burnout as assessed with the MBI. Crisis intervention counselors reported higher degrees of depersonalization than did general practice counselors, t (186) = 3.14, $p < .01$, and the GPs indicated significantly higher levels of personal accomplishment, t (186) = 2.38, $p < .05$. Although the difference was not significant for emotional exhaustion, the result was in the predicted direction, with CI counselors registering a higher score than GP counselors on this dimension. These findings were consistent with the proposition that crisis counselors experience greater burnout than do general practitioners.

Overall Social Support

Six Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated between the counselors' overall support scores (as measured using the WRI, FRI, and PSS-Fr) and the three dimensions of burnout.

Relationships among the social support variables were mixed for the CIs, as summarized in Table 2. Their personal accomplishment scores were positively related to overall support from work, family and friends, $r = .18$, $p < .05$. The correlations between overall support and exhaustion and depersonalization, however, were not statistically significant. The correlations between the index of overall support for GPs and scores on all three burnout dimensions were significant and in the predicted direction. The more support counselors perceived themselves as receiving, the lower their burnout scores.

Professional and Personal Support

Most of the correlations between indices of burnout and professional support and burnout and personal support were statistically significant, and all were in the predicted direction. Professional support was related to indices of burnout, emotional exhaustion (r = .28, $p < .01$), and personal accomplishment ($r = .18, p < .05$) for CIs. In contrast, both professional support and personal support for GPs were significantly related to scores on the burnout dimensions. These results are summarized in Table 2. It appears that with higher levels of both types of support, general practitioners feel less emotionally exhausted and depersonalized, and that with a higher level of personal support, they feel a greater sense of personal accomplishment as well.

Table 2
Relationships of Social Support and Burnout

Social Support	Burnout		
	Emotional Exhaustion	Depersonal-ization	Personal Accomplishment
Crisis Intervention Counselors (N = 99)			
Professional Support	-.28**	-.08	-.18*
Personal Support	-.01	-.03	-.11
Overall Support	-.16	-.07	-.18*
General Practice Counselors (N = 92)			
Professional Support	-.26**	-.23*	-.17
Personal Support	-.31**	-.18*	-.26**
Overall Support	-.36***	-.26**	-.28**

* $p < .05$, one-tailed
** $p < .01$, one-tailed
*** $p < .001$, one-tailed

Demographic Variables and Work Conditions

Three variables that may mediate the relationship between counselors' specialty and burnout were examined: yearly income, work setting, and number of years on the present job.

Yearly Income. Yearly income was not significantly correlated with any of the indices of burnout for either group, except for a positive relationship between the yearly income of CIs and their personal accomplishment scores (r - .33, $p < .001$). For CIs, as yearly income increased, perception of personal accomplishment increased.

Work Setting. Those who described themselves as in private practice were compared with all those who described themselves otherwise. There were significant differences between CIs and GPs on all three burnout dimensions: emotional exhaustion, t (205) = -4.01, $p < .001$; depersonalization, t (205) = -2.14, $p < .03$; and personal accomplishment,

t (82) = 4.66, $p < .001$. Counselors in private practice reported less emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and greater personal accomplishment than those in other work settings.

Job-Related Variables and Burnout. The number of years a crisis intervention counselor had been at his or her job was negatively related to feelings of emotional exhaustion ($r = -.21$, $p < .05$), and positively related to feelings of personal accomplishment ($r = .27$, $p < .01$). For general practice counselors, emotional exhaustion was negatively related to the number of years spent at the present job ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$).

Degree of job autonomy was explored as a possible explanation of higher burnout levels among crisis intervention counselors as compared with general practice counselors. The chi-square analysis along four levels of job autonomy reflected higher autonomy among general practice counselors, χ^2 (3, N = 190) = 21.24, $p < .001$.

The chi-square analysis comparing private practice counselors with those in all other settings along levels of job autonomy indicated that private practice counselors perceived themselves as having greater autonomy in their work than did those working in other settings, χ^2 (3, N =206) = 55.11, $p < .001$.

Emotional Exhaustion. Although there were no group differences on the emotional exhaustion scale of the MBI, there was a significant relationship between emotional exhaustion scores and scores on the WRI with all the previously entered variables in the equation, $t = -3.76$, $p < .0005$. There was also a significant relationship between emotional exhaustion scores and PSS-Fr scores, $t = -2.60$, $p < .05$.

Depersonalization. There were significant relationships between two independent variables and score on the depersonalization scale on the MBI. There was an effect of group, $t = -3.08$, $p < .05$. Scores on the WRI were also related to depersonalization scores, $t = 3.08$, $p < .01$.

Discussion

This study examined the reported levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment among crisis intervention counselors and general practice counselors. The study also explored the relationship of burnout with levels of personal and professional support for these two counselor groups, and the relationship of burnout with income, work setting, job autonomy, and number of years at present job.

As predicted, the CIs reported significantly higher levels of burnout than did GPs. They had higher depersonalization scores, although the difference between the emotional exhaustion and the personal accomplishment scores of the two groups was not significant. The results appear to be consistent with the findings of past research with individuals who work in crisis intervention (Burgess & Baldwin, 1981; Freudenberger, 1977). Jobs that demand employees to be involved continually with crisis situations need "burnout buffers," such as liberal vacation time, support group meetings, "time-outs," and rotation of work duties (Beck, 1987; Maslach & Jackson, 1984a).

Relationship Between Social Support and Burnout

The association between social support and burnout has been largely untested in past research (Davis-Sacks et al., 1985). In this study, as overall support scores increased for general practice counselors, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores decreased, while personal accomplishment scores increased. For crisis intervention counselors, the picture was not as clear. Although the relationship between overall support and the indices of burnout was in the predicted direction, only the correlation between overall support and the measure of personal accomplishm ,nt was significant. Findings generally support the position that social support may buffer burnout (Beck, 1987; Davis-Sacks et al., 1985; Sullivan, 1989).

Professional versus Personal Support and Burnout

The few reported studies of social support have tended to rely upon an overall measure of support, whereas this study examined professional and personal support separately. As predicted, the scores of the CIs revealed significant relationships between perceived professional support and the emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment measures. The relationships between measures of burnout and measures of professional support, and between measures of burnout and measures of personal support, were positive for GPs. These results are consistent with those of Pines et al. (1981), who argued that professionals need validation and appreciation from other professionals. Friends and family did not fill the support role for crisis intervention counselors. It is not clear why this was true for the CIs but not for the GPs.

General practice counselors, many of whom were private practice counselors, reported higher levels of job autonomy and lower burnout levels. Conversely, crisis intervention counselors were more likely to report less job autonomy and to have higher burnout scores. They were also more likely to work in agencies. The greater the job autonomy, the less likely that burnout was a problem, a result also connected with work setting and apparently with income.

These results confirmed those of Maslach (1978) and Maslach and Jackson (1982), who found higher burnout levels to be related to a lack of autonomy in counselors' work. General practice counselors, who tend to be in private practice, have relatively high autonomy. They determine the types of problems they will treat and when they will see clients. Crisis intervention counselors, who tend to be in work settings other than private practice, are governed to a certain extent by external rules and agents that determine their schedules. Private practice counselors can refer clients to other professionals and to public agencies. The simple exercise of such limited control may, in itself, be a factor in counselor burnout.

Supporting the results of prior research (Maslach & Jackson, 1984a, 1984b), crisis intervention counselors and general practice counselors in this study appeared to experience lower levels of emotional exhaustion and higher levels of personal accomplishment, the greater number of years they had spent on their present jobs. Counselors with longevity may have worked their way through the organizational ranks, achieving greater job satisfaction, control, and autonomy; moreover, seniority may include an established support system of colleagues and supervisors. It is also possible that counselors most vulnerable to burnout leave the profession early or that those counselors who are still working may be the most resilient. Future studies would benefit from controlling for longevity.

Defining the factors related to burnout is one step in understanding the phenomenon and preventing it from shortening the professional longevity of competent helping professionals. Clearly, there is a strong relationship among the various factors identified here as contributing to counselor burnout. General practice counselors tend to have greater variety in their work and to receive higher compensation than do crisis intervention counselors. As a way of reducing sources of counselor burnout, it may be necessary to reevaluate the contexts in which crisis intervention services are delivered.

Conclusion

Although the incidence of burnout among counselors is high, this investigation is important in that it sheds some light on burnout and its relationship to social support. In general, crisis intervention counselors report higher levels of burnout than do general practice counselors. Also, high burnout levels tend to be associated with feelings related to the lack of autonomy in the workplace. For general practice counselors, the greater the perceived level of social support, the less likely there are feelings of being emotionally exhausted and depersonalized. Not surprisingly, general practice counselors report higher levels of job autonomy and lower burnout levels than do those counselors who do crisis intervention work.

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"We are in a space in time when we have 14-year-olds who behave and make choices as do the terminally ill."

– Beverly Coleman-Miller

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"The Environment of Human Violence: The Social Cost of Indifference"
Convention General Session
February 26, 1994
CACD Annual Convention
Los Angeles, California

Desired Outcomes of Counselor Education

Linnea White

Counselor educators identified four competency areas and 10 factors, defined by 78 observable behaviors, used in evaluating the performance of students. The author proposes the application of the competency model and the method used in the survey research to the design and development of outcome-based counselor education programs.

Counselor preparation programs would be improved significantly if counselor educators would apply the outcome-based education (OBE) model to their courses and programs. Identifying what students should know, do, and be like is the heart of the current outcome-based movement (Spady, 1982, 1988). The CACREP Standards (Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs [CACREP] 1988) require that a counselor education program offer a core of planned course work common to all counselors who graduate from accredited programs. They include specification of the components of the knowledge base, but do not define the competencies which graduate students are expected to achieve and demonstrate other than knowledge.

Competency-Based Approaches

Counselor educators have engaged in identifying desired outcomes of counselor education programs, under the influence of the competency-based movement in the United States. Discussion of the application of competency-based approaches to counselor education proliferated in the 1970s (Gavilan & Ryan, 1977; Hartwig, 1975; Jones & Dayton, 1977; Lechowicz & Gazda, 1976; Menne, 1975; Saylor, 1976; Shoemaker & Splitter, 1976). Several authors listed competencies of counselors for particular settings or for particular courses (Bernknopf & Ware, 1978; Bernstein & Lecomte, 1976; Hector, 1975; Hendricks, Ferguson, & Thoreson, 1973; Miller & DiMattia, 1978; Palmo & Seay, 1983). White (1980) reported on research on the behavioral definition of competencies at the program level. The faculty of the Department of Counselor Education at the University of North Texas (Dameron, 1980; Engels & Dameron, 1990) prepared a comprehensive listing of competencies to describe the professional roles of counselors in order to provide for operational definitions of the counseling role. They identified categories and specific behaviors for competencies. The next step is for counselor educators to define sets of competencies which are the desired outcomes expected of graduate students in master's level and doctoral level counseling programs.

The purpose of this study was to identify a preliminary set of competencies, in behavioral terms, which can be used as a starting point for the development of desired outcomes in an outcome-based counselor education program. The research question was: Which performances should successful graduate students in counselor education programs exhibit? In outcome-based terms, the question was: What should graduate students in counseling education know, do, and be like at the successful conclusion of their programs?

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The underlying assumption was that the role called "graduate student in counseling" can be defined in behaviors just as any other work role can be defined. Performance evaluation, particularly its application in educational settings (Whitlock, 1965), provided the conceptual framework. Performance rating focuses on the evaluation of performance rather than on the evaluation of the knowledge possessed by the subject. The first step in applying performance evaluation is to define the role to be evaluated by identifying the behaviors which comprise the role. Statements of behavior are selected which result in a judgmental response, either positive because the behavior is associated with successful performance, or negative because the behavior is associated with unsuccessful performance of the specified role.

Method

This study was a replication of a research project (White, 1980). The initial items for the questionnaire were originated through telephone interviews with 21 randomly selected counselor educators from different programs across the nation. Positive student behaviors described during these interviews were sorted into categories, and representative items were prepared. In the 1980 research, 684 counselor educators rated the importance of 102 selected student behaviors in their ongoing evaluation of their own graduate students.

In the current research, three items which did not load in the original research were dropped; three items referring to multicultural counseling were added to reflect new counseling emphases and accreditation standards (CACREP, 1988).

Sample

Counselor educators were assumed to be the most able to make informed judgments about the observed behaviors of successful graduate students in counseling. The assumption was that faculty individually and collectively have models of desired performance in mind as they design courses, teach, and supervise students.

The questionnaire was mailed to a random sample of 500 counselor educators drawn from *Counselor Preparation Programs* (Hollis & Wantz, 1986). The random sample was generated by assigning a number from 1 to 2082 to every full-time faculty member teaching in a counseling or counseling psychology program, with the exception of those in programs with single specializations (e.g., marriage and family or rehabilitation counseling). A computer-generated random numbers table was used to select 500. The random sample consisted of 370 men and 130 women from universities in 48 states, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia. There were 89 assistant professors, 130 associate professors, 228 full professors, and 53 others not identified by rank. Non-respondent follow-up included a second mailing of the questionnaire and a later mailing of a reminder letter. The return rate was 28.8% (144 useable questionnaires), equivalent to 6.9% of the entire population of counselor educators in the United States (Hollis & Wantz, 1986). The 125 respondents (101 males, 24 females) included 19 assistant professors, 28 associate professors, 71 professors, and 7 others from 44 states, Guam, and the District of Columbia. For 19 returns, the identities of the respondents could not be determined.

Results

The Biomedical program (Dixon, 1985) was used to factor analyze the research returns, using principal components method with orthogonal rotation. The factors which account for 2% or more of the variance each were interpreted. The factors, the percentage accounted for by each factor, and the total variance accounted for by the

10 factors are shown in Table 1. The factors, in order of their loading and therefore in order of importance, were: collaboration, research and professional activities, behavioral strategies in counseling, personal development activities, communication skills, relationship strategies in counseling, application of counseling theory, class participation, cognitive strategies in counseling, and self-awareness-multicultural awareness.

Table 1

Factors and Their Variance

Factor Name	No. of Items Above 0.3	Percent Variance	Total Variance
1. Collaboration	23	7.64	7.64
2. Research-Professional	21	6.98	14.62
3. Behavioral Strategies	19	6.37	20.99
4. Personal Development	12	3.83	24.82
5. Communication	11	3.43	28.25
6. Relationship Strategies	5	3.35	31.60
7. Counseling Theory	6	3.22	34.82
8. Class Participation	7	2.97	37.79
9. Cognitive Strategies	5	2.94	40.73
10. Self-Multicultural	5	2.93	43.66

Three of the factors were new: cognitive strategies, communication skills, and self-awareness-multicultural awareness. These factors referred, respectively, to perceptions and hypotheses about client behavior, confrontation of discrepancies, and self-statement evaluation; counselor immediacy and matching of client verbal and nonverbal cues; and awareness of cultural differences and counselor impact on others. The other seven factors were basically the same as those identified earlier (White, 1980).

The factors were grouped into four broad competency areas: counseling strategies, interpersonal skills, personal development, and professional skills. Counseling strategies included what the graduate student does while counseling clients: application of counseling theory; and behavioral, cognitive, and relationship strategies. The four factors making up the counseling strategies competency and their behavioral statements are listed in Appendix A.

The interpersonal skills competency included interactions with clients, other students, and faculty: collaboration, communication skills, and self-awareness-multicultural awareness. The three factors making up interpersonal skills and the behaviors which define them are listed in Appendix B.

The personal development competency, represented by one factor, included the ideas of seeking a variety of types of clients, questioning and challenging the ideas presented, seeking feedback on personal impact on others, and being self-directed in pursuit of learning. The personal development factor and its defining behaviors are listed in Appendix C.

The professional skills competency included active involvement in research and dissemination through professional meetings, and active participation in course work; the factors were research and professional activities, and class participation. The two factors making up the professional skills competency and the behaviors which define them are listed in Appendix D.

Discussion

Limitations

The most severe limitation of this research is the relatively low number of respondents. Also, as in any survey research, there may be a discrepancy between what respondents say they do and what they actually do. This study is valuable in that it confirms earlier results; however, using this method to formulate a new questionnaire and securing several hundred respondents would increase credibility and generalizability.

Development of Outcome-Based Counselor Education

The four competencies and the 10 factors comprising them could form a starting point in the discussion and development of outcome-based counselor education (OBCE). The striking parallels between the factors in this study and the competencies presented in *The Professional Counselor: Competencies, Performance Guidelines, and Assessment* (Engels & Dameron, 1990) add support to this proposal. Counseling strategies, interpersonal skills, personal development, and professional skills could be targeted in OBCE as desired outcomes for students in counselor education.

The counseling strategies and research skills are probably already included within the courses in counseling theory and methods, practicum, internship, and research, respectively. However, some aspects of involvement in research and professional meetings may need to be addressed in other courses. Discussion of research articles and how they relate to current practice and preparation of proposals for presentations at professional meetings could be written into syllabi of various courses by faculty members.

The three interpersonal skills factors and personal development factor are the competencies which are less likely to be currently written into syllabi as desired outcomes. Courses in group theory and method are the most likely vehicles for interpersonal and personal development activities, although every course might incorporate some attention to these competencies.

Specific learning activities could be designed which enable students to develop and demonstrate these proficiencies. Examples of learning activities explicitly directed to the development of interpersonal skills include:

1. Assigning pairs of people to work together within a class to do projects and then to give each other feedback on levels of participation, clarity of communication, and degree of collaboration, with copies to the instructor;
2. Using sociograms within class settings with students placing themselves on several dimensions relevant to the desired outcomes, such as self-disclosure, congruence, empathy, and collaboration, with discussion and feedback; and
3. Using interpersonal rating scales in the second half of several classes, filled out by every class member and the instructor anonymously on every other class member and the instructor, summarized and discussed in class.

Examples of learning activities in personal development skills include:

1. Reading selections from the counseling literature, self-help books, and

biography, and then writing reflections on the student's own life on the issues raised;

2. Applying to themselves every technique taught in counseling methods, for example, students could fill out an Adlerian life inventory and discuss it with fellow students; and

3. Discussing the results of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1985) and their implications for counseling and personal relationships.

Working at this level of authentic confrontation would require trust, self-disclosure, and congruence among faculty and students. The best counselors are able to give appropriate feedback in caring ways to their clients. Counselor educators expect the graduate students to learn, among many other techniques, how to do genuine, honest feedback with their clients. Counselor educators would be modeling the best of counselor behaviors in their work with students on these personal and interpersonal skills while not entering into counseling relationships with students.

Implementing Outcome-Based Approaches

OBCE could be implemented in individual courses and at a program level. Individual faculty members could convert their own courses to outcome-based processes. Individual faculty members would identify in behavioral terms what they want the students in a course to know, do, and be like. These desired outcomes would be written into syllabi and communicated to students. The requirements and in-class activities of the course would relate directly to the development of the specific outcomes. Authentic assessment tasks would involve assessing the actual performance of the desired behaviors.

Program-wide competencies could be identified and policies established which implement outcome-based approaches in all courses and at program levels. This research method could be used by counselor education programs to identify their own comprehensive sets of desired outcomes for student performance. Faculty members and students could (a) generate lists of behaviors which cause a judgmental response; (b) organize these behaviors into categories by similarity of idea; (c) review the items generated and the counseling literature, and supply missing categories and representative behaviors; and (d) develop consensus.

Following these steps, faculty individually would decide which desired outcomes were relevant to their particular courses. They jointly would decide policies which would implement OBCE at a program level. Gateway criteria consisting of observable personal and interpersonal behaviors could be established which would be used to determine advancement in the steps of a program, or if necessary, as criteria for dismissal. Personal characteristics, if deemed vital to the performance of professional roles, can be used for criteria for dismissal, if they are explicit, public, and observable (Iovacchini, 1981; Knoff & Prout, 1985).

Learning activities which develop these competencies inside and outside of regular class requirements could be designed and required. Interpersonal skills and personal development probably need to be addressed at program-wide levels as well as in specific courses. For example, a counselor education program could require that a counseling student experience counseling as a client or participate in an experiential group or both. Some programs now require a group experience, led by non-faculty (J. Davis, personal communication, September 23, 1993).

Conclusion

The potential benefits of identifying desired outcomes for a counselor education program are numerous. Each department of counselor education could define its mission in outcome-based terms. The outcomes would include the personal and interpersonal behaviors which faculty know are crucial to the successful performance of the counseling role.

Students would know what was expected of them. They could be evaluated on gain in actual performance of desired behaviors. Dismissal from the program could be based on the lack of desired performance.

Outcome-based instruction provides the best method of effectively helping a diverse group of students change in desired directions (Spady, 1982). The first step toward outcome-based counselor education is to identify publicly determined and stated learning outcomes for both the master's level and the doctoral level. Counselor educators should apply the outcome-based model to counselor education, including personal and interpersonal behaviors as desired outcomes.

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Appendix A
Counseling Strategies Competency

Application of Counseling Theory (Factor #7)

1. Identified the similarities and differences of the various theoretical positions in counseling
2. Used some theoretical framework to discuss human behavior
3. Practiced behaviors which were consistent with the theoretical orientation adopted
4. Described counselor-client interaction using the principles and assumptions of the counselor's theoretical framework, in discussion with the supervisor
5. Experimented with a new idea or approach to a professional problem
6. Sought out additional resources for learning

Behavioral Strategies in Counseling (Factor #3)

1. Presented a variety of alternative strategies to a client
2. In terminating counseling, helped the client summarize his/her gains and the process of change
3. Clarified the role and responsibilities of the client and the counselor in the counseling relationship
4. Used open-ended questions to elicit information and feelings from the client
5. Periodically during the counseling sessions, related the counseling interaction to the client's goals
6. Successfully resisted pressure to divulge confidential information
7. Taught the client self-help skills
8. Elicited explicit statements from the client regarding what the client wanted to accomplish
9. Used appropriate amounts of eye contact with the client
10. Referred the client when the client's difficulties were beyond the counselor's level of competence

Relationship Strategies in Counseling (Factor #6)

1. Reflected the feelings of the client, in order to clarify the client's feelings
2. Acknowledged with the client the client's ongoing feelings and thoughts
3. Paraphrased client statements with concreteness and specificity
4. Encouraged the client to reveal feelings, thoughts, and attitudes
5. Reflected to a fellow student the feelings that the student was expressing

Cognitive Strategies in Counseling (Factor #9)

1. Offered his/her own perceptions of the client's behavior to the client
2. Formulated and discussed with the client hypotheses about that client's behavior
3. Confronted the client with patterns of client behavior and the probable consequences of those patterns, when appropriate
4. Helped the client test out each important self-statement for its accuracy, meaning, implications, and so forth
5. Disclosed personal thoughts, feelings, or experiences to a client when it would enhance the relationship or promote progress toward client goals

Appendix B

Interpersonal Skills Competency

Collaboration (Factor #1)

1. Studied with a group of other students
2. Shared study materials with other students
3. Offered to talk with a fellow student who was upset
4. Volunteered to help a faculty member
5. Volunteered to make an in-depth study of an area, following up on an instructor's presentation
6. Mentioned to other students and/or faculty members the achievements and honors of other students
7. Initiated a professional activity with an agency, school, or other community organization
8. Paid for student memberships in professional associations
9. Talked about the work she/he was doing
10. Communicated both thoughts and feelings frankly and openly to other students and faculty, in appropriate situations

Communication Skills (Factor #5)

1. Acknowledged to the client the counselor's own ongoing thoughts and feelings, as they related to the counseling relationship
2. Adapted vocabulary to match the client's use of language
3. Varied his/her rate of speech, tone of voice, and volume as appropriate to the content and feeling of the interview
4. During a counseling session, moved closer to or further away from the client as appropriate to the content and feeling of the interview
5. Consciously acknowledged his/her own unique strengths and talents
6. Discussed his/her own value system with others
7. Disclosed personal thoughts, feelings, or experiences to a client when it would enhance the relationship or promote progress toward client goals
8. Labeled his/her own perceptions as only perceptions
9. Communicated directly to the individual when a question or a problem arose with that individual
10. Compared and contrasted concepts from other disciplines to concepts in counseling in a paper or a discussion

Self-Awareness and Multicultural Awareness (Factor #10)

1. Identified the points in the counseling session when the counselor was responding more to own feelings than to the client's feelings
2. With the practicum supervisor, raised questions about the implications of the client's ethnic background for strategies to use in counseling
3. Discussed with the practicum supervisor the counselor-client interaction
4. Asked for feedback on the impact of his/her own behavior on others
5. Read articles or books on multicultural counseling

Appendix C

Personal Development Competency

Personal Development Activities (Factor #4)

1. Worked with a range of clients of differing ages, personal styles, values, and so forth
2. Clearly stated the client's responsibility for reaching the client's goals
3. Actively questioned the concepts and ideas presented in class or in books
4. Asked for feedback on the impact of his/her own behavior on others
5. Critiqued ideas for research in conversations with other students
6. Questioned or challenged the ideas of the faculty
7. Sought out additional resources for learning
8. Experimented with a new idea or approach to a professional problem
9. Asked others to help him/her examine his/her own behavior and feelings for causes, effects, and patterns
10. Proposed an individualized educational activity to more meaningfully fulfill one of the requirements of his/her program of studies

Appendix D

Professional Skills Competency

Research and Professional Activities (Factor #2)

1. Wrote out a tight conceptual framework for his/her own research proposal
2. Presented a paper at a professional meeting
3. Described his/her own research design and procedures clearly
4. Listed some important questions which interested him/her as a focus for originating a research project
5. Wrote an exceptionally good paper
6. Compared and contrasted concepts from other disciplines to concepts in counseling in a paper or a discussion
7. Spoke excitedly about his/her own research project
8. Critiqued ideas for research in conversations with other students
9. Developed some educational materials, for example, a tape, a module, a game, and so forth for use in counseling or counselor education
10. Initiated a project or an activity related to professional concerns

Class Participation (Factor #8)

1. Did the assigned work completely and thoroughly
2. Participated actively in class discussions
3. Wrote an exceptionally good paper
4. Attended most class sessions
5. Participated actively in practicum
6. Read the journals of counseling, psychology, and human development
7. Communicated both thoughts and feelings frankly and openly to other students and faculty, in appropriate situations

Effects of Verbal Persuasion on the Career Self-Efficacy of College Freshmen

Darrell A. Luzzo and Mary Taylor

Students in a verbal persuasion career counseling treatment group exhibited significant gains in career decision-making self-efficacy (CDMSE), whereas students in a control group did not. Findings support Bandura's (1977) hypothesis that verbal persuasion can significantly increase self-efficacy expectations.

Bandura's (1977, 1982, 1986) self-efficacy theory has received a noticeable degree of empirical attention within career development. A recent review of career self-efficacy literature by Lent and Hackett (1987) concluded that "there is growing empirical support for the extension of self-efficacy theory to career-relevant behavior" (p. 362). Lent and Hackett also emphasized the need for additional research aimed at clarifying the "predictive potential" of self-efficacy in the career domain.

Bandura (1977) originally referred to self-efficacy expectations as a person's confidence in her or his ability to perform a task successfully. Self-efficacy determines what a person does with the skills that she or he has (Lent & Hackett, 1987). An individual's career self-efficacy is a subjective judgment about capabilities to engage in career development processes successfully. One aspect that has received substantial attention in career development literature is career decision-making self-efficacy (CDMSE) (Lent & Hackett, 1987).

Individuals who exhibit high levels of CDMSE possess relative confidence in their ability to engage in effective career decision-making tasks and behaviors; those who exhibit low levels of CDMSE lack this confidence (Taylor & Betz, 1983). Results of recent research have revealed significant positive relationships between CDMSE and a number of career development variables, including career exploration activities (Blustein, 1989), vocational identity (Robbins, 1985), and career decidedness (Robbins, 1985; Taylor & Popma, 1990).

Bandura (1986) suggested four counseling strategies that should theoretically increase one's self-efficacy expectations, including performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, physiological state, and verbal persuasion. Of these four techniques, perhaps the most popular strategy used to influence human behavior is verbal persuasion.

> In attempts to influence human behavior, verbal persuasion is widely used because of its ease and ready availability. People are led, through suggestion, into believing they can cope successfully with what has overwhelmed them in the past.... Although social persuasion alone may have definite limitations as a means of creating an enduring sense of personal efficacy, it can contribute to the successes achieved through corrective performance (Bandura, 1977, p. 198).

The purpose of this investigation was to examine the effects of verbal persuasion upon the CDMSE of college freshmen. Comparisons of changes were made between participants who received and who did not receive the verbal persuasion counseling intervention. Students who received the treatment were expected to show significant gains in CDMSE.

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Method

Participants

Participants included 88 freshmen (48 females, 40 males) attending a small, liberal arts college in the Midwest. Ages of the participants ranged from 18-20 (M=18.148, SD=.388). Ethnic group representation of the participants included Caucasian Americans (n = 66), African Americans (n = 13), Asian Americans (n=2), and Hispanics (n=7). All participants were enrolled in a new student orientation course and were offered extra credit for their participation.

Design and Procedure

The experiment included one independent variable, verbal persuasion, and one dependent variable, CDMSE, as measured by the Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy Scale (CDMSES) (Taylor & Betz, 1983).

Students in several new student orientation classes were asked if they would like to participate in a study assessing the career attitudes of college students. Volunteers were given the CDMSES as a pre-test measure, and then randomly assigned to the treatment group and the control group. Both groups experienced the verbal persuasion counseling treatment. Students in the treatment group completed the CDMSES a second time after they met with the career counselor. Students in the control group completed the CDMSES a second time before they met with the career counselor. The length of time between the pre-test and post-test assessment of CDMSE was approximately one and one-half months for ail participants.

Instrumentation

The CDMSES is a 50-item inventory that assesses a person's confidence in her or his ability to complete a variety of tasks requisite for making effective career decisions. Students respond to each statement on a scale of 0 (no confidence) to 9 (complete confidence). Scores are summed, with a maximum possible score of 450. The CDMSES has demonstrated good internal consistency reliability, with an alpha coefficient of .97 (Taylor & Betz, 1983) and moderate item-total score correlations (Taylor & Betz, 1983). Substantial evidence of the concurrent and predictive validity of the instrument exists (Blustein, 1989; Robbins, 1985; Taylor & Betz, 1983: Taylor & Popma, 1990).

Intervention

All participants in the investigation completed the World of Work Inventory (WOWI) (Ripley & Neidert, 1987) after the initial assessment of CDMSE. The WOWI is a 516-item career assessment tool designed to measure "the whole person in relation to his or her individual differences" (Hudson, Neidert, R. E. Ripley, & M. J. Ripley, 1987, p. i). There are three basic parts of the WOWI, including sections on career interest activities, job satisfaction indicators, and vocational training potentials. Coefficient alphas of the various subscales of the inventory range from .82 to .94 (Hudson et al., 1987).

A six-week test-retest reliability for the total inventory of .77 is reported in the manual. Developers of the WOWI claim that the inventory's validity rests on the validity of the Department of Labor data base for occupations in the United States, because the inventory was developed directly out of that source (Hudson et al., 1987). Evidence of construct validity is based on the assessment of inter-item, intra-scale correlations.

The WOWI takes approximately two hours to complete, and students are traditionally asked to complete the inventory at home and return it to the career development center within a week for scoring. All participants in this investigation followed this recommended procedure.

Career Counseling Procedures

Participants met individually with the career counselor to discuss WOWI results. The main purpose of the counseling session was to persuade participants verbally that they possessed the ability to acquire the requisite skills for effective career decision making.

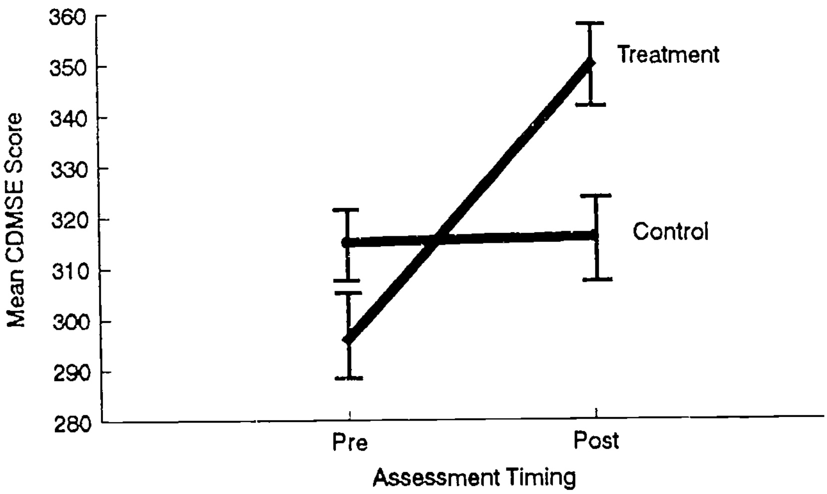
The counselor began each session by reviewing the World of Work Profile. The results were explained in contexts that participants could apply to their current roles of student and/or worker. Throughout the counseling session, the career counselor attempted to convince clients that they possess adequate abilities to engage in activities designed to assist them in acquiring career decision-making skills. The counselor's protocol included communication of five to seven specific verbal persuasion statements (e.g., "You certainly have the ability to explore career options while attending college. In fact, the resources for you to engage in effective career decision making are available to you right here on campus.") Participants were introduced to various resources available for additional career exploration activities, and given suggestions regarding extra-curricular activities likely to enhance the application of career decision-making skills.

Results

Initial analyses indicated the absence of differences in pre-test CDMSE between females (M = 297.46, SD = 53.02) and males (M = 317.03, SD = 52.71), t (86) = 1.73, p = .09. Likewise, there were no differences between females (M = 326.29, SD = 56.21) and males (M = 341.25, SD = 48.92) in post-test CDMSE, t (86) =1.34, p =.184. Therefore, all additional analyses were performed across levels of gender.

Results of the 2 x 2 ANOVA on CDMSE indicated a significant interaction effect between assessment timing and verbal persuasion, F (1, 86) = 49.16, p< .001. Newman-Keuls testing indicated that participants in the verbal persuasion career counseling treatment condition significantly increased their levels of CDMSE (as assessed by the CDMSES) from pre-test (M = 296.91, SD = 55.36) to post-test (M = 349.66, SD = 49.59), p<.001, whereas participants in the control condition showed no increase from pre-test (M = 315.80, SD = 50.39) to post-test (M = 316.52, SD = 50.44), p = .889. A graphic representation of the results is provided in Figure 1.

Figure 1.
Mean CDMSE Scores as a Function of Assessment Timing and Verbal Persuasion.



Discussion

The significant effects revealed in this investigation support Bandura's (1977) hypothesis that verbal persuasion can significantly influence self-efficacy expectations. Students in this investigation who experienced verbal persuasion treatment from the career counselor gained confidence in their capabilities to engage successfully in the career decision-making process. Whether the increase in self-efficacy expectatic ıs translates into more effective career decision-making performance and into long-term benefits remains worthy of empirical attention.

Additional methods for increasing the CDMSE expectations of college students deserve investigation. Bandura (1977) offered other methods (e.g., performance accomplishments and modeling) that should theoretically increase self-efficacy expectations. The effectiveness of these methods should be examined for their potential influence on the career self-efficacy of counseling clients. Furthermore, researchers interested in examining the effects of counseling interventions on the career self-efficacy of college students might consider employing multiple measures of career self-efficacy with career counseling clients.

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Does Childhood Matter? A Rationale for the Inclusion of Childhood in Theories of Career Decision

Ashton D. Trice and Nancy McClellan

This paper examines evidence from previous research on the persistence of childhood career aspirations into adulthood. Two additional studies, one a retrospective interview study of mid-career adults and the other a secondary analysis of a longitudinal data set, are reported which support the notion that childhood aspirations significantly influence adult career choice. Suggestions are made for including childhood aspirations into a general theory of career development and for modifying current counseling practice.

> . . . the occupational interests expressed by a group of children still in the pre-high school grades can have, of course, only a suggestive value. Perhaps no other kind of interest is so likely to change. In voicing such preferences the young child is doubly handicapped; he has little understanding of himself, and his knowledge of many occupations is exceedingly vague or inaccurate (Terman, 1926, p. 373).

Terman's comments are not exceptional. As one reads the literature on children's career interests, one finds repeated caveats that children's notions about work and careers are transitory and without bases in knowledge about the self or the world of work. As in Terman's study, career aspirations among children are often studied as a means of addressing noncareer issues. Most of the studies of career aspirations in children reported in the last 25 years have been focused more on sex-role stereotyping rather than on career issues.

There is, in fact, very little published information on the topic: Arbuckle (1964) indicated that one of 73 articles on career development in the *Review of Educational Research*, four articles in the previous eight years of the *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, and two articles in the previous 10 years of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* dealt with elementary school students. The situation has changed very little: Fewer than 100 research articles on the topic have been published since 1940, of more than 15,000 articles on the general topic of career development.

Most published studies of elementary students' career aspirations are very short, compared to other articles in the same journals, perhaps because of authors' or editors' views of the importance of the topic, or perhaps because there is little known relationship with general theories of career development. Holland's (1985) theory of career development, arguably the dominant one, is nearly silent on the role of childhood, while Ginzberg's theory, the first which included childhood, characterized elementary children as making

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"any and every type of choice . . . unaware of the barriers which stand in their way" (Ginzberg, Ginsberg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951). Some texts on elementary school counseling make no mention of career counseling. Teachers, principals, and parents have been found to view career counseling as the least important role of elementary school counselors, and a fairly large portion reject career counseling for elementary students as legitimate (Miller, 1989).

Although there seems to be almost a consensus that the career notions of elementary school students are ephemeral, four reasons lead to rejection of this idea.

The first reason for seriously considering the period of childhood as important in the career development process is the well-established observation that children "inherit" the careers of their parents. Although the American ideal is that anyone can be anything she or he wants, there is ample evidence that the kinds of jobs we aspire to and actually enter, both in terms of occupational cluster and socioeconomic status, are strongly related to the jobs held in the family from which the individual comes. Werts (1968), for example, in a study of over 76,000 male college students, found a strong association between fathers' occupations and sons' aspirations in the areas of social and physical sciences and medicine. In a subsequent study Werts and Watley (1972) found a strong relationship between college awards for excellence in scientific, artistic, oral, leadership, literary, and musical areas with fathers' occupations for both men and women. Chaney and Owens (1964) found that engineering students with career interests in sales had fathers who were in business. Gottfredson and Becker (1981) found that early aspirations were better predictors of next jobs than previous jobs. Other studies show a strong relation between mothers' and fathers' professions and their children's adolescent career aspirations and their adult attainment (Blau, 1965; DeWinne, Overton, & Schneider, 1978; Grandy & Stahmann, 1974a, 1974b; Hazanovitz-Jordan, 1982; Jenson & Kirchner, 1955; Medvene, 1969; Trice & Knapp, 1992). It seems probable that children begin their interests in their parents' careers during childhood, rather than during adolescence.

The second of these reasons is the whole force of life-span developmental psychology, which affirms that there are continuities in individuals from conception to death. American career development theory has focused on personality as the primary determinant of career choice and job satisfaction, and there is substantial evidence that important aspects of personality are formed prior to adolescence (Grell, 1961). Bugg (1969) pointed out that the two theories of career development most influenced by traditional personality theory, those of Roe and Bordin, suggest that "the most important aspects of career development occur *before* the child enters school and are subject to very little change" (p. 171).

Other career-relevant individual differences such as intelligence and talent are not thought to change significantly beyond childhood. If personality, talent, and intelligence do not change enormously, it is possible to turn Terman's statement that the child has "little understanding of himself" to the child has "some understanding of herself or himself" or to "increasing understanding of herself or himself." Similarly, a child will have "increasing understanding of the world of work," provided that she or he has opportunities to encounter it.

In a recent study, evidence was found to support this position (Trice & Tillapaugh, 1991). Children's estimates of their parents' job satisfaction correlated highly with parents' reports of job satisfaction; children from families where parents were satisfied with their jobs aspired to their parents' careers at over twice the rate of children who rated their parents dissatisfied with their jobs. Older elementary school students were more accurate in estimates than younger children, and they were less likely to aspire to parents' careers which were viewed as unsatisfactory. These results suggest that children grasp career-related ideas early and that they improve with age. Further, these findings suggest that children's aspirations are based on their knowledge of the world of work, albeit knowledge derived from within the family.

A third reason for believing that childhood matters is that the characterization of childhood notions of careers as transitory and without structure does not hold up to empirical scrutiny. Trice (1992b) and Trice and King (1991) found that children, even in kindergarten, are likely to express the same aspirations over a period of a school year. Trice (1992a) found that when third grade students were exposed to nontraditional models, many students changed their career aspirations. In the long-term follow-up, many students reverted to aspirations held before the career program, showing some permanence and conviction. When 551 children were asked for first and second career choices, 44% of kindergarten children, 41% of 2nd graders, 51% of 4th graders, and 65% of 6th graders gave occupations within the same cluster (Trice et al., in press). Sixth graders' consistency of first and second aspirations was very similar to that of college students.

Fourth, Gottfredson (1981) has suggested two specific roles for childhood that have held under empirical testing (Miller & Stanford, 1987). Gottfredson has proposed a series of age-graded themes, including size and power, sex-appropriateness, and status, which serve as the basis of eliminating occupational clusters prior to the period in mid-adolescence when children begin to eliminate occupations on the basis of a lack of fit between job characteristics and characteristics of the self. This aspect of the theory is called *circumscription*. The second significant proposal of Gottfredson's theory is that once a career has been eliminated, it is very difficult to reinstate it as an option. The process is called *foreclosure*.

Research directed toward these proposals has found substantial support (Trice, 1992b). When asked whether they would like specific jobs, children rejected more jobs with increasing age, with reasons consistent with Gottfredson's proposals. Trice found that at least one other set of age-related concerns, excitement and safety, should be included, and that developmental details of the theory may need adjustment. Gottfredson's theory, however, appears to be lacking in one respect: It holds no particular role for the aspirations held by children. As in previous theory, aspirations appear to be infinitely malleable.

These four reasons only obliquely address the question of the importance of childhood in career development. Studies which examine individuals over the life span are needed. Two approaches are possible, retrospective analysis of adults, and secondary analysis of existing longitudinal data sets. The following studies examined these issues.

A Retrospective Analysis

The first attempt to determine directly whether childhood aspirations matter in adult career attainment featured interviews of a large and varied number of mid-career adults (Trice, 1991). Each student in a research methods course interviewed five adults between the ages of 40 and 55 about their careers. A total of 620 individuals (298 women and 322 men) were interviewed. Students were asked to include as wide a variety of individuals as possible.

Subjects were asked 10 questions:

1. What is your current occupation?
2. How old were you when you decided on your current profession?
3. What event made you decide on your current profession?
4. Was there a particular person who influenced your decision?
5. What was your first paying job?

6. How old were you when you first had that job?
7. What was the first job you remember wanting to have?
8. How old were you?
9. What were your parents' jobs when you were growing up?
10. On a scale of 1 to 10, how satisfied are you with your current job?

Overall, there were 204 occupations included, from bootblack and janitor to CEO of a *Fortune 500* corporation and professor of neurosurgery. There were large proportions of enterprising (24%) and social (25%) occupations; 43% of the interviews were with persons employed in professional occupations, with 45% holding skilled jobs, and 12% holding semiskilled and unskilled positions.

The responses to the question "How old were you when you decided on your current profession?" produced a wide variety of responses, from "as long as I can remember" to a few months before the interview. Twenty-three percent of the subjects indicated decisions were made during childhood.

The events and persons surrounding individual decisions were also quite varied, although 50% of the subjects indicated that they could not remember a specific event or a person. Those who recalled decisions made in childhood typically recalled seeing a person in a job, typically a relative, neighbor, or person from the community. Decisions made in adolescence were more likely derived from vicarious experiences, such as reading, viewing films, or participating in school programs, although half still indicated experiences within their community. Persons critical in these events were, in rank order, parents, friends, teachers, persons in the community, counselors, and employers. The origins of decisions in adulthood most often involved work situations and were inspired by spouses and co-workers.

Very little effect of the first paying job on career attainment was observed when jobs were held in childhood or adolescence, as most of the jobs were such as babysitting and newspaper delivery.

The questions about first aspirations appeared to be critical. Fifty-nine percent of the subjects reported first aspirations prior to the age of 13. Forty-one percent of these individuals were working within the same occupational clusters as the early aspirations. Of the 41% of the interviewees who reported first aspirations after the age of 13, 46% still were working within corresponding clusters. Matches were particularly high between childhood aspirations and current occupations in social, investigative, and artistic areas. Matches between adolescent aspirations and current occupations were particularly high in enterprising, conventional, and realistic occupations.

Early aspirations were compared with parental occupations. Forty percent of the childhood aspirations and 23% of the adolescent aspirations matched fathers' occupational clusters. Individuals whose aspirations matched their fathers' occupations were more likely to be employed in related areas (55%) than those whose aspirations did not match (38%). Mothers' occupations did not appear to influence occupational choices in this sample.

Finally, job satisfaction did not seem to be a factor when decisions on current careers were made, with mean satisfaction scores of 8.28 (SD = 1.34), 8.07 (SD = 1.07), and 8.42 (SD = 1.44) for those who made their career choices in childhood, adolescence, and adulthood, respectively.

There are problems in interpreting retrospective analyses. Caution must be observed in assuming the accuracy of the dating of events or the selection of earliest aspirations.

Subjects may constructively remember events from their childhoods to meet their own theories of how careers should develop. Some individuals may "remember" very early interests in their current careers which in fact were very fleeting, while others may put the decision-making process later to demonstrate rational processes. If, however, these retrospective analyses are supported by longitudinal analyses, the notion of continuity of aspirations over the life span is strengthened.

A Secondary Analysis

The records of 500 students in the Terman (1926) study of the gifted were examined.

One hundred fifty-five subjects were either over the age of 17 or had missing data in the original interviews conducted in 1922. Of the remaining 345 subjects 22 (6%) gave no career aspirations. One-fourth of the girls gave "housewife" as their career aspiration.

In the 1940 follow-up there were 271 reports of occupations from 168 men and 103 women. Comparison of childhood and early adolescent aspirations and career attainment were made 18 years later when the subjects were 24-35 years old. The first comparison was for an exact match between childhood and adolescent aspirations and adult attainment. Very strict criteria were applied. For example, if a girl said that she wanted to be an actress and became an actor's agent, this was not considered a match, and if a boy aspired to being a chemical engineer and became a chemistry professor, this was not considered a match.

The second analysis examined occupational cluster. Childhood aspirations and adult occupations were classified according to Holland's (1985) six occupational clusters: realistic (trades), investigative (scientific careers), artistic, social (helping professions), enterprising (person-oriented business professions), and conventional (data-oriented business professions).

A third analysis concerned the influence of parental aspirations for their children. This analysis attempted to discover whether children's aspirations and those of the adults who knew them best were the same and whether children's or parents' aspirations were more forceful in determining adult outcomes.

Results

Table 1 includes the results of the first two of these analyses. More than one-fourth of the youngest children (aged 6-9) attained the exact careers they mentioned; one-third of the children in the upper elementary group (ages 10-13) achieved their exact childhood career goals. About one-half of the young adolescent boys and one-third of the young adolescent girls achieved their exact career goals.

Table 1

Exact Career and Occupational Cluster Concordance Rates Between Early Aspirations and Adult Occupational Attainment

	N	Exact	Cluster
Boys 6-9	39	26%	54%
Boys 10-13	83	34%	66%
Boys 14-17	46	46%	65%
Girls 6-9	28	28%	56%
Girls 10-13	48	31%	69%
Girls 14-17	7	29%	71%

If children's aspirations were only randomly associated with adult occupations, less than 1% exact matches and only 16.7% matches on the six occupational clusters would be expected. More than one-half of the youngest children and more than two-thirds of the upper elementary children and young adolescents attained careers related to their aspirations.

In the 1992 protocols 156 parents indicated the careers for which they considered their children "best suited." Seventy-one of these responses were the same as their children's career aspirations. At follow-up, 51% of the children were employed in those careers. On the other hand, in 85 cases the child and the parent disagreed about what the child should do. In only 9% of these cases did the child pursue the profession indicated by the parent, while in 29% of the cases the child pursued his/her aspirations.

While the Terman study offered an unusually rich database, it also had some limitations in the present context. First, Terman's beliefs about the relative unimportance of children's career aspirations did not lead to the collection of data that specifically addressed questions about the relationship of career aspirations and adult attainment. Second, the children in this study were exceptional. To use Gottfredson's terminology, these were students who would never have to compromise their career options because of a lack of ability, and who might therefore have anticipated higher rates of persistence within career clusters. Third; these were individuals who became adults during the depression of the 1930s, with the incumbent likelihood of many unusual barriers to career entry.

Conclusions and Recommendations

While the authors are not in a position to put forth a comprehensive lifespan theory of career development, the following suggestions are consistent with observations of career processes in childhood and may help establish a role for early aspirations in career theory:

1. Career aspirations held in childhood, rather than being transient, persist for some time; for some individuals these aspirations persist into adulthood. Persistence into adulthood seems characteristic of interests in the arts and sciences and to a lesser extent in the caregiving professions and skilled trades. Interests in business-related occupations most often develop after childhood.

2. The authors agree with Havighurst (1964) that early aspirations begin with identification with a worker, usually a parent. The influence of early identification is largely emotional rather than intellectual; hence, the much stronger effect of parents' occupations than the direct suggestions made by parents found in the analysis of the Terman study and in Trice, McClellan, and Hughes (1992). Children from homes where the parents are satisfied with their jobs and where the parents' jobs are held in esteem within the community are likely to persist in aspiring to their parents' occupations.

3. Persistence should be added as equally important to compromise, circumscription, and foreclosure in describing career processes during childhood. Aspirations persist until situations develop within the context of children's increasing awareness of their own characteristics and the characteristics of world of work, which sometimes lead to compromise of aspirations. The very high rate of concordance between childhood aspirations and adult attainment among the Terman study subjects, compared to those in this retrospective study, suggests that ability may be a major factor in compromise.

4. When a child compromises his or her aspirations, normally a new aspiration will be selected from a gradually circumscribed range of options. In addition to the factors of sex-role, ability, and status of jobs which Gottfredson (1981) has identified as leading to foreclosure of job options, the factors of danger and self-esteem need to be considered.

5. While the process of circumscription is normal and usually gradual, for some children the process of circumscription appears to be sudden, drastic, and maladaptive. Observation suggests that this occurs in three overlapping groups of children: lower socioeconomic status boys, children from distressed families, and children with low self-esteem. Often these children have no aspirations and reject all careers suggested to them. While having no career aspiration is very rare among lower elementary school children, about 10% of the children interviewed by the authors from third grade on expressed no aspirations. Such children often have low self-esteem (Chiu, 1990) and high external locus of control (Trice & Gilbert, 1990), are underachieving and acting out in school, and are from chronically unemployed and frequently moving families or unstable foster care (Trice, Odom, & Woods, in press). For counselors, the lack of career aspirations may be a useful sign for students experiencing significant distress.

6. Compromise has been typically described as a negative process in which children become aware of their own limitations or the negative aspects of jobs. Parallel positive processes, during which children become aware of unique talents and abilities or discover new jobs with features that attract them, appear to exist. Super (1956) used the term synthesis for such processes. Probably more common among adolescents than among children, interviews with children disclose instances where children report such changes. While compromise and synthesis are in many respects parallel, one difference between them is prominent: Synthesis leads to new aspirations, while some instances of compromise lead to a lack of aspirations.

In practice, these basic assumptions lead to several modifications in elementary school career programs:

1. If individual aspirations are important, then an increased focus on individuals is reasonable as opposed to relying exclusively on whole school career programs, such as career days. Minimally, if career days are used, they should feature persons who hold occupations that are of interest to a large number of students in the school, and speakers should go beyond the typical descriptions of their jobs to tell what is good and bad about the jobs, how the jobs are obtained, and which school subjects and activities would be helpful. Short videos showing workers performing typical tasks are useful in such presentations.

Small, mixed-age groups are helpful for such presentations, since older students' questions model behavior for younger students.

2. Annual surveys of children's career aspirations can assist counselors both in developing career programs and in identifying individual children who may need individual intervention. In developing career programs for several school districts, the authors have employed a very simple questionnaire, which seems easy for most children in the third grade and beyond to complete. This questionnaire includes five questions:

- What do you want to be when you grow up?
- Why would this be a good job for you?
- Can you tell two different things you would do if you had this job?
- How do you go about getting this job?
- If you couldn't have this job, what would be your second choice?

Half-hour discussions with groups of 10-15 older elementary school students based on their responses have proven useful in our work. For example, a child who knows that becoming a lawyer requires college and law school can be placed in a group with another student who believes that she or he can be a lawyer because she or he "likes to argue." After such discussions, children do become more knowledgeable about the nature of jobs and the means to obtaining jobs.

Such surveys can also identify children "at risk" by noting a lack of career aspirations, children who have first and second choices which are fantasy (e.g., "professional basketball player and if not that a rock star"), children who know little about the jobs to which they aspire, or children who do not know the basics of getting jobs. Although intensive intervention is not appropriate at the elementary school level, such information may be useful in developing modest intervention methods. For example, in schools where many boys have foreclosed all occupations except for professional athletics, local high school or college coaches, some of whom may have had experience in professional athletics, may discuss the demands of professional athletics with students.

Such information may also help teachers in motivating students. For example, many students who aspire to be veterinarians, nurses, or physicians indicate that they are not interested in science; a school nurse may be enlisted to demonstrate a science experiment related to clinical training and practice.

3. Didactic materials may not be particularly useful to elementary school students. Prior to early adolescence children seem to become interested in jobs by observing workers, rather than by reading about work or even discussing jobs with persons holding particular jobs. Two approaches which meet the intellectual level of elementary students are recommended.

The first of these is to enlist persons intramurally to permit students to observe their work. School systems employ many persons often overlooked as resources for children in learning about the world of work, for example, maintenance and grounds workers, security officers, bus drivers, secretaries, accountants, nurses, psychologists, social workers, cafeteria workers, and librarians. Children with interests in these or related occupations can profitably shadow these individuals and then reflect on their observations by either a short written paragraph or a brief conversation with a teacher or a counselor.

The second is to encourage extramural visits to workplaces. Although field trips to some work places are common in kindergarten, they are rarer in the elementary grades. If teachers had the information from the surveys mentioned above, they could suggest to parents that they develop such excursions for children. The authors have, for example, had no resistance from pediatricians who were asked in advance to spend an extra five minutes discussing their careers with children after their annual physical examinations. Counselors might develop short guidelines for both parents and resource persons for such visits and keep lists of individuals in the community willing and able to participate in worksite visits.

The issues related to the role of childhood in career development are far from resolved. Further research is needed on many aspects of the origins of career aspirations and the reasons those aspirations change. Much research and study are needed in how the lack of aspirations in children should be interpreted. As a better database and better theory are developed, careful evaluation of career counseling and development activities for children is needed.

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Faculty Workload in Counselor Preparation Programs

Robert L. Bowman, Vicki E. Bowman, and Toni R. Tollerud

Critical issues related to faculty workload in higher education are presented. Findings of a survey of program chairs assessing faculty workload policies in 41 CACREP-accredited programs are discussed, along with implications and areas for future research.

A critical issue currently facing higher education is the workload of faculty. Recent reports by the Carnegie Foundation (1989, 1990), the University of California at Los Angeles Higher Education Research Institute (1989-90), the U.S. Department of Education (Mooney, 1990), and the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (Mooney, 1988, 1990, 1991; Winkler, 1992) indicate that how faculty spend their time is among the most controversial concerns in budget-conscious higher education today.

Faculty "workload," however, is difficult to define and quantify. The role entails diverse functions which vary considerably in time demands. Moreover, institutions and the departments within them disagree on what should be included in calculating faculty load (Schwebel, 1982). "Faculty load" has been defined as "the sum of all activities which take the time of a college or university teacher and which are related either directly or indirectly to his or her professional duties, responsibilities, and interests" (Bleything, 1982, p. 18).

What are the issues regarding faculty workload in higher education? First, and foremost, faculty members are overburdened (Mooney, 1988). Research findings show that university faculty spend as much as 70 hours per week on job-related activities (Mooney, 1988; Yuker, 1984). Second, faculty often feel caught in a conflict between research and teaching, believing the reward structure often favors research at the expense of quality instruction (Mooney, 1991: Carnegie Foundation, 1989). As one university administrator noted, "We all give lip service to teaching, but what is truly the dominant reward system? Publishing research and obtaining grants" (Cage, 1991, p. A20). Professors seem to be in a system in which the workload and the reward system are disconnected (Mooney, 1990).

A third concern is a lack of faculty control over workload decisions. Autonomy over daily decisions has lessened, resulting in faculty members feeling little control of institutional directions and therefore less in control of their own destinies (Austin & Pilat, 1990). In some states, increased scrutiny from legislatures is resulting in attempts to expand workload. Such micro-managing removes control from those who best understand the faculty position (Winkler, 1992).

The majority of what is known about faculty workload comes from studies of undergraduate education. Few data are available on the workloads of faculty in graduate programs; no published study has focused on counselor preparation programs. The workload of graduate faculty generally appears to be greater than that of undergraduate faculty (Schwebel, 1982) and differs in areas such as student-teacher ratios, dissertation/thesis advisement, depth of course material and requirements, and professional contacts with individual students. Graduate faculty also tend to have a heavier involvement in research (Bleything, 1982). Workloads in the graduate education field, in particular, seem to be unfavorable, as reflected in the high proportion of degree graduates to faculty and the

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higher proportion of non-research assignments required (e.g., administration) (Schwebel, 1982). The burgeoning accreditation movement has also had a pervasive impact on counselor education programs in several areas: curriculum, administration, clinical experiences, supervision, faculty-student ratios, and required semester hours (Lloyd, 1982). Accreditation standards may be responsible for a redefinition of faculty workload in those programs.

Method

The purpose of this study was to depict current workload practices in CACREP programs. The study proposed to answer the following questions: How is workload defined in CACREP programs? What are institutional expectations for workload? Who is responsible for workload decisions? What flexibility exists in workload?

Participants

Program chairs from all (N=66) counselor preparation programs holding CACREP accreditation in a least one degree program at either the master's or doctoral level were surveyed for this study. Forty-one completed surveys were returned (62%). The results presented here are based on 41 programs unless otherwise noted.

Instrument

A questionnaire was designed by the authors to gather information regarding faculty workload in CACREP-accredited counseling programs. Specific information requested included the percentage of time assigned to teaching, research, and service; typical workloads (what constituted a "full" teaching or research expectation); the office or person making load decisions; amount of faculty control over workload; and what (if any) types of workload reductions or releases were available. Demographic information regarding the respondent program (degrees/programs offered, number of students and faculty) was also gathered.

The instrument was reviewed by three counseling faculty members for face validity, and pilot tested with three others (two of whom had faculty chair experience in CACREP programs). Changes recommended by the reviewers were incorporated. Further evidence of the validity of the instrument is provided by the fact that the 41 questionnaires were completed correctly.

Demographic Information

The typical respondent program offered three different master's level degrees and one doctoral degree. School counseling (38) and community agency counseling (35) were the most common master's degrees offered, and counselor education (21) and counseling psychology (10) were the most common doctoral degrees offered. Average student enrollment was 121 master's and 35 doctoral students, with an average of 8.6 full-time and 4.7 part-time faculty. Fourteen programs offered master's degrees exclusively; 27 offered both master's and doctoral degrees.

Results

Workload Policy Information

Allocation of faculty effort. Faculty chairs generally reported that in their institutions teaching was weighed most heavily. Two other traditional areas of faculty workload, research and service, were second and third, respectively. Table 1 includes the number of programs allocating various percentages to these activities. Only one program listed emphasis on teaching as under 33% of faculty load. The most common emphases for teaching were 50% and 75%. No respondent listed research as more than 50% of faculty load, and 79% of respondent programs listed their research emphasis as between 15% and 33% of faculty load. Service was weighed the least of the three activities. Fifteen percent of respondents indicated that no weight was given to service activities, and two-thirds indicated service accounted for between 10% and 29% of load.

Table 1

Percentage of Workload by Activity

Percent of Time	Teaching	Research	Service
100%	3 (7.6%)	–	–
80 to 99	3 (7.6%)	–	–
60 to 79	17 (43.5%)	–	–
40 to 59	12 (30.7%)	4 (10.2%)	1 (2.5%)
20 to 39	4 (10.1%)	21 (52.5%)	18 (46.1%)
1 to 19	–	11 (28.1%)	14 (35.8%)
0	–	3 (7.6%)	6 (15.3%)

Note. Data are based on 39 responses.

Performance level. Specific performance levels associated with workload were also identified. The most common teaching requirement was three courses per semester; next was a two-course load per semester. Scholarly work (research) generally included both journal articles (by far the most common requirement) and scholarly presentations. Two works per year were cited most frequently as the performance expectation. Only one respondent institution included authoring grants or serving as journal editor as scholarly work. Several respondents noted that performance levels were the "requirements," but that levels necessary for positive evaluations and tenure decisions were greater.

All respondents indicated that service levels were not quantified at their institutions. Various types of service activities most commonly cited are listed in Table 2. The most frequent activities included committee work (43.9%) and holding office in professional organizations (39.0%).

Table 2

Performance Expectations in the Area of Service

Activity	Frequency
Departmental/University Committee Work	18 (43.9%)
Office in Professional Organization	16 (39.0%)
Community Service	9 (21.9%)
Non-Paid Consulting	8 (19.5%)
Student Advising	6 (14.6%)
In-Service Training	3 (7.3%)
Clinical Direction	1 (2.4%)
Dissertation Direction	1 (2.4%)
No Guideline	7 (17.0%)
No Service Requirement	6 (14.6%)

Note. Data are based on 40 responses.

Policy Formation. A wide variety of responses were collected in regard to which office/person sets workload policy levels for counseling faculty. The most frequent response was that workload was jointly set by department chairs and deans (21.9%). The various decision makers and their frequency are listed in Table 3.

Table 3
Responsibility for Load Policy

Office/Person Responsible	Frequency
Department Chair & Dean Jointly	9 (21.9%)
Provost/Chancellor	7 (17.0%)
Faculty Chair Solely	6 (14.6%)
Dean Solely	3 (7.3%)
Collective Bargaining	3 (7.3%)
Department Chair Solely	3 (7.3%)
Chair and Personnel Committee	2 (4.8%)
Department Consensus	1 (2.4%)
University Administration-Faculty Welfare Committee	1 (2.4%)
Board of Regents	1 (2.4%)
College-Wide Policy	1 (2.4%)

Note. Data are based on 37 responses.

Respondents also indicated the amount of control or input program faculty have in the setting of workload on a 1 (little control) to 5 (complete control) Likert-type scale. Over 60% reported partial control over load decisions, with a mean rating of 2.95.

Options for reductions in regular workload were also identified by respondents (see Table 4). These reductions were variously termed "assigned time," "differentiated staffing assignments," "releases," and "special assignments." Release time for research was most common (78%), along with release time to act as faculty chair (75.6%). Of the 32 programs with release time for research activity, seven specifically indicated that such releases were contingent upon funding from external sources.

Table 4
Frequency of Release Options Available

Options	Frequency
Research Activity	32 (78.0%)
Faculty Chair	31 (75.6%)
Professional Association Office	20 (48.8%)
Practicum Supervision	14 (34.1%)
Administration of Internship	14 (34.1%)
Dissertation Direction	13 (31.7%)
Committee Work	12 (29.2%)
First Year Appointment	2 (4.8%)
Journal Editorship	1 (2.4%)
Counseling Clinic Director	1 (2.4%)
Any Justifiable Reason	1 (2.4%)

Discussion

Quantifications of faculty workload were disparate. Responses ranged from a complete emphasis on teaching, to the traditional one-third allocation to teaching, research, and service, to 25% of load assigned to teaching and service, with 50% in research. Teaching was the strongest emphasis in institutions housing CACREP programs. Whether this is reflective of recent movements in academe to support quality teaching (Holmes Group, 1986; Carnegie Foundation, 1989, 1990) or merely a function of individual institutions is unclear.

Expectations to conduct research also vary considerably. Thirty percent of respondents stated that no guidelines stipulating yearly research accomplishments were in place. Furthermore, several respondents indicated that the stated research requirements of their institutions would not be sufficient for tenure or promotion. The "publish or perish" syndrome is an important element in determining tenure, even when not directly stated as a requirement. Such ambiguity may lead to confusion. While stated policy favors teaching, the realities of achieving tenure and promotion favor research and exist in addition to teaching loads.

The areas of service, historically considered to be fully one-third of faculty effort (Carnegie Foundation, 1990), has all but disappeared from many programs. In others no guidelines exist for the types of service which are rewarded. Moreover, even where service is required, its definition seems to be changing from expert consultation and presentations to the community to involvement in professional organizations and committee work. The implication is that when faculty are not rewarded for service they will likely engage in more highly rewarded activities such as research. This would impact the willingness of non-tenured faculty to participate in committee work, curriculum development, and student advising.

While a variety of options for release time were identified, the types of releases and conditions for release suggest a degree of restrictiveness. The most common release was for research, emphasizing the importance of producing scholarly work for advancement. Additionally, the finding that releases may be contingent on external funding seems consistent with faculty contentions that the reward structure favors research.

Recommendations for Future Study

Ongoing research concerning faculty workload in counselor education programs and the impact of accreditation on workload is warranted. For example, future research comparing workload data from CACREP programs with other programs would be beneficial, as well as comparisons of unionized and nonunionized institutions. This study has reported workload policies in CACREP programs reported by faculty chairs. Comparative research assessing faculty members' perceptions of workload procedures and satisfaction with workload would be useful.

Future investigation into the dual criteria between workload and tenure expectations, particularly in the area of research, is also critical. Exactly how and why the requirements for tenure and promotion differ from required workload were not addressed in this study. This phenomenon would seem particularly problematic for fledgling faculty who are experiencing the newness of their professional roles and who may suffer unnecessary stress and reduced effectiveness due to mixed messages about how to be successful. This double standard, however, also raises questions concerning expectations for tenured faculty. Research indicates that tenured faculty suffer less from the publish or perish imperative and thus may be less concerned with pressure to conduct research. At the same time, tenured faculty may feel unappreciated and unrewarded for professional and community service.

The accreditation of counselor education programs by CACREP raises important questions about the workloads of faculty members. Concerns that have been noted in meeting accreditation standards include: student-faculty ratios in practica and internships, advising ratios, the number of full-time faculty required for each program emphasis, supervision requirements, and number of semester credit hours (e.g., 48 or 60) (Bobby & Kandor, 1992; Lloyd, 1992). Workload policies may prohibit or inhibit the capacity of a program to meet accreditation standards. For example, universities that require faculty to teach four or more classes per term can limit time or reward to faculty for directing student research, advisement, or supervision. The number of advisees may also be an issue. CACREP standards indicate a limit of 25 students per faculty member. While the average found here was 17.5 students per faculty member, these numbers reflected only students in the accredited program tracks. If faculty members are required to advise in other programs/ degrees or to teach larger classes, CACREP accreditation may become difficult. Class size is particularly problematic when justification for practica and internships of five and 10 students, respectively, must be made. Future research is needed on whether workload policies are problematic for institutions seeking CACREP accreditation.

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Professional Practices in Counseling . . .

"Professional Practices in Counseling" highlights functional techniques, procedures, points of view, and pointers for applications in various settings within the counseling profession.

Counseling the Client Who Has a Learning Disability

Robert E. Manganello

The number of individuals diagnosed with learning disabilities has increased steadily over the past two decades. Counselors need to accommodate the needs of these clients by modifying their interactions with them and by expanding their repertoires of counseling approaches. Compensatory strategies and counseling techniques are presented for expressive and receptive language, time management, and locus of control.

Counselors will see more clients who have learning disabilities as a result of the passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) (Thompson Publishing Group, 1990). This civil rights legislation, in conjunction with Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, prohibits discrimination against individuals with disabilities in a variety of settings, including schools, postsecondary institutions, and places of employment. Additionally, children identified as learning disabled (LD) at the time the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142) was passed in 1975 now are young adults who are facing the demands of establishing and building careers and families of their own. (P.L. 94-142 was reauthorized in 1990 as the Individuals with Disabilities in Education Act [P.L. 101-476].)

One indication of the growth of this population is the increase in the number of first-year LD college students. In 1985, 14.8% of full-time first-year college students with disabilities reported having learning disabilities. This number grew to 24.9% in 1991 (National Clearinghouse on Postsecondary Education for Individuals with Disabilities, 1992).

As LD individuals become integrated more fully into American society, mental health workers, including counselors, will need to become familiar with the manifestations of learning disabilities across the life span. Counselors will need to recognize those clients suspected of having learning disabilities so that appropriate referrals for accurate diagnosis can be made. Counselors will need to know of other approaches for treatment, for example, educational and psychopharmacological, so that a multimodal therapeutic approach can be implemented. Finally, counselors will need to adjust techniques to accommodate the needs of LD clients and to expand repertoires of counseling strategies to help LD clients achieve counseling goals.

The purpose of this article is to discuss three areas of difficulty that LD clients might bring to the counseling setting: receptive and expressive language problems, difficulty with time management, and external locus of control. Examples of each are provided along with compensatory strategies and counseling techniques that the counselor can use to make sessions more productive and to improve the LD client's overall functioning.

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Receptive and Expressive Language

The LD client might have difficulty with the understanding or use of language, or with both. Specific language-related problem behaviors can include: slow processing speed of spoken language; misperception of phonemes, morphemes, syllables, or words; failure to understand abstract language, for example, double entendres, puns, and sarcasm; specific vocabulary deficits; failure to understand nonverbal communication cues, for example, kinesics, proxemics, facial expressions, and prosody; tangential comments or the use of filler language; the use of imprecise or circuitous language; and dysnomia (Wiig & Semel, 1984). These behaviors can exacerbate the LD client's presenting problem, and also affect the counseling process.

The counselor needs to monitor simultaneously his or her own and the LD client's verbal and nonverbal communication to ensure productive counseling sessions. Adjustments in the counselor's speech and language might need to be made in order to facilitate the LD client's verbal comprehension. For example, the counselor might need to reduce his or her rate of speech; enunciate with more precision; avoid recondite vocabulary; and avoid using facial cues alone to express a response, for example, a frown to signal a lack of understanding.

In addition to monitoring and making necessary adjustments within the counseling setting, the counselor needs to address the LD client's communication problems in a broader context. For example, improving communication within an intimate relationship is a common goal for many who seek counseling. For the LD client, the path to ameliorating communication with a spouse or significant other might be doubly difficult because of expressive or receptive language problems. For example, a spouse frequently might complete a sentence or phrase for the LD partner who has an expressive language disorder. This can lead to frustration and anger for both partners. Marriage or couple counseling certainly would be appropriate, with an initial session aimed at educating the spouse or partner about the behavioral manifestations of a language-based learning disability. Subsequent sessions can focus on adjusting communication skills to optimize the exchange of thoughts and feelings between the partners. Videotaping and subsequent viewing and discussion of dialogic exchanges between the counselor and the client, as well as between the client and his or her partner, often are helpful in identifying communication barriers which then can be addressed in therapy through behavior modification techniques. Role-playing is another useful technique.

Time Management

Some LD individuals have difficulty organizing and managing their time (Vogel, 1987). Such a client might be chronically tardy to counseling sessions, or frequently might miss his or her sessions. Clearly, the counselor will need to explore and address other possible reasons for such behaviors, such as resistance or avoidance.

For the client who self-identifies as LD at the initiation of counseling, the counselor will need to ascertain whether, and to what extent, time management skills are affected by the learning disability This can be accomplished by taking a careful history of the client's functioning, particularly with respect to academic, social, and vocational performance. The counselor will need to be explicit with the client about any penalties that might be associated with missed appointments, for example, that payment is required for missed appointments that are not cancelled within 24 hours of the scheduled appointment time. Providing the client with this information in writing also might be helpful. The counselor also should avoid the practice of frequently rescheduling on different days and times those appointments that the LD client fails to attend. This sends a mixed message about the behavior, intrudes upon the counselor's schedule, and does not foster behavioral change.

The counselor might suggest that the client purchase a small calendar or date book and, with the client, record the client's counseling appointments. Although this might sound rather basic, some LD individuals eschew the use of concrete reminders about time, like appointment books and calendars, and consequently find that they have failed to meet important business or professional obligations. Since time is an abstract concept, the counselor will need to help the LD client make it more concrete.

Other useful strategies include modeling appropriate behaviors for the client, devising contingency contracts, and using combinations of behavioral and metacognitive strategies. For example, the counselor can instruct the client to set his or her watch to beep on the hour, the perceptual cue for the acronym AM-PM. These letters stand for Appointment book, Messages, Phone calls, and Meetings, respectively. When the client's watch sounds at the beginning of each hour, the client silently tells himself or herself to check the appointment book, check his or her answering machine for messages, make or return phone calls, and think of meetings or other obligations that might not be in the appointment book. The length of time between perceptual cues can be lengthened as the client internalizes the desired behavior.

Progress in counseling will be minimal if the LD client has difficulty with time management. This behavior probably will exacerbate the client's presenting problem, so it is important that the counselor help the client manage this aspect of life.

Locus of Control

Locus of control (LOC) refers to the assignation of success or failure either as internal, that is, that success is due to competence, perseverance, and hard work; or external, that is, that success is the result of luck or the influence of powerful others (Lefcourt, 1982). LD children have been found frequently to exhibit external LOC (Hisama, 1976). Research results are more equivocal for adults (Faas, 1987). Anecdotal reports (Manganello, 1992) suggest, however, that some LD adults fail to credit themselves for positive, proactive behavior, and often assign failure to achieve to themselves. Such a pattern might result, in part, from feelings of learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975), arising from repeated scholastic, personal, or vocational setbacks combined with high level of effort.

The external LOC of some LD clients can impede progress in counseling. A client with this orientation might be unable to assess realistically the causes and effects of difficulties. For example, the LD client enrolled as a part-time student at a community college might suggest that a high grade on a recent exam was due to the fact that the instructor administered a particularly easy test. Conversely, if he or she did poorly on a written assignment, the reason offered for such performance might be stupidity. Such appraisals often will be pervasive, affecting many facets of the LD client's life. Several techniques can be helpful in correcting this attributional style.

First, the counselor might use reality therapy, which is "a specialized learning process that helps {clients} to face reality and fulfill responsibility for meeting their two basic needs: love and self-esteem" (Gearheart, DeRuiter, & Sileo, 1986, p. 247). Reality therapy can help the LD client to avoid projection of failure or problems on external sources and can be conducted either in an individual or group counseling setting.

Another approach, rational-emotive therapy (RET) (Ellis, 1979), also might help the client with a learning disability to replace faulty perceptions about the results of his or her actions.

> RET encourages clients to become more tolerant of themselves and others and to achieve personal goals. These goals are accomplished partly through having people learn to think rationally in order to change self-defeating behavior and through helping clients learn new ways of acting (Gladding, 1992, p. 118).

Wilkins (1991) has developed an approach to help people change how they think about success and failure. Through the use of simple self-assessment techniques and reinforcing feedback, clients are taught to change their minds about the sources of success. Major components of Wilkins's approach include: the use of metaphors; the multidimensional evaluation of the client's thoughts, that is, useful versus self-limiting and inaccurate versus accurate; values clarification; and frequent practice by the client in the attribution of credit for success. Although not developed specifically for LD individuals, the strategies appear to be appropriate for this population.

Intervention strategies to assist the LD client to improve his or her coping skills, problem-solving abilities, or communication might be less than effective if the client presents with an external LOC. The counselor will need to identify this potential obstacle to success in the counseling process and to initiate approaches to improve the LD client's realistic attribution of success and failure.

Conclusion

LD individuals comprise a heterogeneous group. Each learning disability will manifest itself differently according to the nature and severity of the disability, present life demands, and coping and support systems available. Recent legislation, as well as increasing public awareness of learning disabilities, will bring more LD individuals to seek help from counseling professionals. Counselors will need to focus both on the client's presenting problem and on the effects of a diagnosed or suspected learning disability. Various approaches to counseling therapy, for example, RET, can be used to help the LD client achieve his or her counseling goals concomitant with lessening the effect of a learning disability.

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Sculpting in a Group: A Group Process Exercise

Richard A. Hanks, Harold B. Stevens, and Ira D. Welch

A technique of sculpting to demonstrate relationships within a group is described, including the activity, the stage in which the activity should be introduced, the mechanics of implementation, the benefits, and the potential problems. A case example of two members using the activity in a group is provided.

While sculpting is a recognized technique in working with families (Papp, 1976; Costa, 1991), its use in group work has not been widely recognized. This article will describe the use of a group sculpting exercise. The purpose of the exercise, the steps involved in its implementation, and the advantages and limitations will be discussed.

The technique of family sculpting was developed by David Kantor at the Boston Family Institute (Duhl, Kantor, & Duhl, 1973). The purpose of sculpting in family therapy is multifaceted. It serves as a diagnostic tool with the potential for intervention as well. It provides an alternative way to communicate and compels family members to think of the family as a unit. Sculpting also helps cut through "excessive verbalizations, intellectualizations, defensiveness, and projection of blame" (Sherman & Fredman, 1986, p.73). Using sculpting in a group setting is outlined by McKeown, Kaye, McLean, and Linhardt (1973).

Purpose

In the group setting, the purpose of sculpting is to provide group members an alternative way of expressing how members view the developing relationships in the group. Members may use this activity to view power relationships, interpersonal relationships in the group, and/or the place of each member, including group leader(s), in the group structure. This exercise permits the physical placement of members in relationship to one another and offers the possibility of an addition to verbal expression.

Implementation

Within the Corey and Corey (1992) model of group stages (initial, transition, working, termination), this exercise is recommended for the stage of transition. During this stage members are beginning to form relationships, understand the role of the leaders, and search for a place within the group structure.

Introducing the Exercise

In a group session of two hours, this exercise should be introduced after members have processed material from the previous session and introduced any new material. Sculpting might occur approximately 30 minutes into the group session.

Sculpting is introduced with these instructions:

> We are going to do an exercise to demonstrate, in a visual way, the relationships in this group. You are to place each member, including yourself, in a position which represents his or her relationship in the group. Use what you need, including facial expressions, gestures, and movements, to help describe how you see the relationships in this group right now.

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> After each person is in his or her sculpted position, explain what you were trying to demonstrate. Each member then explains how he or she feels in that position.
>
> Then you sculpt the group in a similar fashion according to how you wish it to be. Again, you explain your sculpting and the others will respond with their feelings about their positioning.

After the introductory instructions, a group facilitator models the procedure. Each member then sculpts the group and explains his or her reasons, and the members express their feelings about the positions they are seen as occupying. If the group is co-led, the second leader ends the exercise by going last. If group members seem uncomfortable, the group leader may ask specific questions about the sculpture. For example, the leader may ask, "What type of facial expression should this member have?" "Would movement help to explain what you want to portray?"

Discussing the Exercise in the Group

After both parts of the exercise are finished, the leaders invite the members to talk about the exercise. The discussion is meant to have two parts: first, what was learned about the group; second, what members are willing to do to move the group in the direction they wish it to go. The purpose of the discussion is to exit the exercise and move the group back into the regular process.

Summary of the Steps in the Exercise

The steps in the exercise are:

1. The leader introduces the group as it is now and as it is wished it to be.
2. The leader models the exercise.
3. Members give feedback regarding the positions they are in.
4. Each member, in turn, sculpts the group as it is and as it is wished to be.
5. The leader ends the exercise.
6. The group processes the exercise in two parts:
   a. What was learned, and
   b. What members are willing to do to move the group in the direction wished.

In the discussions, the leader(s) are expected to participate with their views as well.

Case Study

Mark and Linda are two university students who volunteered for a university-sponsored group experience. Their participation in a sculpting exercise can serve as an example of the group sculpting technique.

> Mark, the only male member of the group, listened but responded primarily when asked for input by another member. Seldom were his remarks spontaneous or self-initiated. Mark's first sculpt, the group as he saw it, positioned the group leaders standing over two kneeling members, facing each other. Mark's directions and observations about his sculpt elicited more responses from him than at any other time in group. Mark said, "I'm relaxed . . . I'm a little scared to show my emotions at times, but sometimes I'll let them out." In several of the other member's first sculpts, Mark found himself outside the core of the group. When placed sitting on the floor behind a circle of members and looking off to the side, he described his feelings as "not knowing if I fit." When placed and described by another member as being outside the group listening and thinking, Mark responded by saying, "I feel like an observer."

In Mark's second sculpt (how he would like the group to be), he positioned the members in a circle where they were "not too close but not too far" and instructed members on several occasions to be "relaxed." He placed himself in the circle but a step removed from the others and relaxed. In a final comment about this sculpt, he described the group as relaxed. "We're all sharing and we are all listening to each other."

Mark's reactions to his positioning in other members' second sculpts ranged from feeling relaxed when placed in a circle with one hand over his heart to "[I] ... feel awkward. Everybody is doing the same kind of thing. Too many people are trying to talk and not enough people are trying to listen." This was when the sculpt involved everyone sitting close together in a circle with gestures of talking and listening.

Linda had described past problems in relationships, expecially in blaming other people and avoiding her own feelings. She had had trouble entering into close relationships within the group. She was standing the most distant from the group. She said, "I'm over here because there is so much I want to say but I can't find the words."

Linda found herself outside the group in several other members' first sculpts as well. When sculpted sitting on the floor looking in on others standing in a circle, she said she felt "awkward." When sculpted away from the center of the group and instructed to look like she was holding something back, she said, "I feel distant, away a little bit." When sculpted with one foot toward the group and the other toward the door, Linda commented, "I felt connected with Mark, but I didn't have time to look at the others very much."

In Linda's second sculpt (how she would like the group to be) she placed all the members of the group holding hands. She remarked, " I like this because it makes me feel more like a family, because when we sit down to dinner this is how we pray. We're not too close, not too far away – we're just right."

In other members' second sculpts, Linda twice expressed the feeling of being "comfortable" when placed in a circle that suggested equality and open communication. In one, where everybody was placed sitting close together in a circle with their hands over their hearts. Linda reported feeling "really nice, good, but I'm claustrophobic, so this is tight." In another sculpt, where everyone was brought into a balanced circle with one hand to an ear to listen and the other to the mouth, Linda reported, "I don't see togetherness."

In the summary discussion, both Linda and Mark commented on how they had been sculpted more on the outside of the group than as a part of it. Linda described being uneasy about her position and said she desired a closer relationship with the other group members. Mark, on the other hand, reported that he was comfortable.

This sculpt served a number of purposes for these two members. Linda was able to see herself in relation to the group and experience inconsistency between how she was and what she wanted. This exercise also helped her take some of the responsibility for how things were in the group. Mark used the sculpt for a different purpose. He was able to show the group how he wanted to be in the group. He used the sculpt to tell the group that he wanted to be involved, but not to the level of intimacy suggested by other members.

Advantages

There are several advantages in this exercise. First, it offers an alternative to standard verbal expression and allows a nonverbal demonstration of the dynamics of the group. This may be of particular benefit to less verbal members of the group. Second, it provides the leader(s) and members with feedback regarding their perceived positions in the group. Third, it demonstrates, in a graphic way, that there are different perspectives in the group. Fourth, it emphasizes that it is a group rather than a discrete number of individuals. It allows the recognition of the interconnectedness of the group. This may be the most important aspect of the exercise. The exercise can reveal an unrecognized group cohesion and provide the beginnings of a sense of purpose in the group. Fifth, this activity offers a change in the typical actions of "sitting and talking" providing activity and energy in the group. Sixth, it involves group members in leadership and control in the group. It also provides the leader(s) with information regarding each group member. This information may prove to be useful in the future facilitation of the group. Seventh, sculpting has members deal with the here and now and helps the focus to be on the group and its experience. Eighth, sculpting gives the group a sense of what each member wants from the group and helps members see others with similar and different goals.

Disadvantages

The major disadvantage seems to be time. This exercise lends itself to smaller groups (perhaps six members) and not to groups of 10 to 12 because of the time involved. In larger groups, the exercise may be restructured with only selected members participating as sculptors. Second, while not necessarily an anticipated disadvantage, timing is important in the use of this exercise. It is recommended that the exercise be presented during the transition into the working stage of the group. If the exercise is done before this stage, there may not be sufficient information among group members to allow for any meaningful sculpting. If the exercise is done later in the group process, there may not be sufficient disparity between what is and what is wished to be of any use. It is possible, however, to use this exercise at the end of a group to measure how close the group came to expectations.

Summary

Group techniques exists to increase the likelihood that leaders and members will gain understandings not gained in the regular "sit and talk" group process. This article presented a technique of group sculpting which offers the possibililty of gaining information about perceived and desired relationships in the group. Members are instructed to assume leadership roles in sculpting the group as it is and in expressing their preferences for group organization. An implicit expectation of the exercise is that sculpting the group as it is and as it is desired will facilitate impetus for change in the group.

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Imagery, Hypnosis, and Sport Psychology

Christopher M. Faiver, John L. Bufford, John M. Ropar, and Nancy B. Salkin

An overview of the uses of imagery and hypnosis in sports is presented. Approaches included stress reduction, memorization of plays, pain management, and performance enhancement through imagery.

There has been increasing interest in the uses of imagery and hypnosis in sports as demonstrated by the large number of recent research studies. (Feltz & Landers, 1983; Harris & Harris, 1984; McCaffrey & Orlick, 1989; Murphy & Jowdy, 1992; Nideffer, 1985). Moreover, the popular press has been replete with stories about amateur as well as professional athletes or athletic teams utilizing the services of a sports psychologist or other professional for performance enhancement. The authors, two of whom are counselors, coaches and athletes, another an honored student athlete, while the fourth is a counselor educator and clinical hypnotist, offer a multifaceted perspective on the uses of imagery and hypnosis in sports in the areas of stress reduction, memorization of plays, pain management, and performance enhancement.

Focusing and fun are the two basic and vital elements for optimal functioning in the field of sports. The latter refers to a simple enjoyment of the game as a diversion rather than work. The former alludes to the ability to concentrate fully on the task at hand in order to accomplish (a) increased capacity for memorization of plays; (b) diminished attention to extraneous stimuli, such as crowd noise or other distractions which may be bothersome to the athlete (Harris & Harris, 1984; Nideffer, 1985); and (c) distraction from physical pain (Harris & Harris, 1984).

In regard to the concept of focusing as concentration, hypnosis has been defined as "an altered state of consciousness usually involving relaxation, in which a person develops heightened concentration on a particular idea or image for the purpose of maximizing potential in one or more areas" (Olness & Gardner, 1978, p. 228). Another definition states that hypnosis is akin to focused daydreaming (Fross, 1974), with the implication that focusing is in itself an hypnotic phenomenon, one of attention to and concentration upon the task at hand. Stress reduction, memorization, pain management, and performance enhancement through imagery are described in more detail below.

Relaxation and Stress Reduction

Managing stress has been described as a transactional process between environmental demands, and individual's perceptions of those demands, and the ability to handle or cope with those demands (Crocker, 1989). While optimal functioning in sports includes fun, the simple act of participation in sports brings with it emotional pressure. Tutko and Tosi (1976) identify pressure as (a) "intrinsic" pressure, the simple uncertainty of outcomes and the nature of competition; (b) "social" pressure, the comparison of performance with that of

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others; and (c) "personal" pressure, individual needs to succeed, accomplish, or perform. The multiple sources of pressure and resultant stress interfere with the fun of participation and may ultimately impede performance. Using imagery can reduce anxiety and enhance enjoyment and performance (Feltz & Landers, 1983).

Relaxation is a product of hypnosis, even though a person does not have to be relaxed to go into a state of trance (Kroger, 1977). Techniques which can allow the athlete to relax and concentrate on his or her sports performance rather than on his or her anxiety about the performance include progressive muscle relaxation (Jacobson, 1974), in which muscle sets are systematically relaxed, sometimes having first been tensed. Operating on the principle of reciprocal inhibition in which a human being cannot be relaxed and tense at the same time, progressive muscle relaxation can be effective in relieving an athlete's "stagefright."

Imagery, with visual, auditory, and kinesthetic scenarios, can also be of great value in helping achieve a state of relaxation. The type of scenario depends upon a person's predominant perceptual set (Bandler & Grinder, 1979). For example, some athletes may find visual images to be more powerful and, thus, more conducive to relaxation, than auditory or kinesthetic images. The practitioner needs to develop imagery idiosyncratic to the athlete.

Memorization

Since memory is a function of attention and concentration (Kumar, 1971), it logically follows that what is consciously attended to and concentrated upon would be subject to greater storage in memory. Thus, if the athlete consciously perceives that a play needs to be committed to memory for subsequent use, he or she first must attend to the material to be memorized, concentrate on it, mentally rehearse the material, and relate the material to similar material already stored in memory for best results.

Pain Management

The reduction of the perception of pain may or may not be positive, since pain tells one that something is amiss and needs correcting. If the athlete pays little or no attention to the warning signs, physical damage could occur.

A number of hypnotic techniques are available for pain management. Among these are dissociation from the location of pain (e.g., an arm), distraction from the pain (e.g., concentration on a pleasurable sensation elsewhere in the body), time distortion (during which time passes more quickly during periods of pain), anesthesia (techniques to numb the painful area), and relaxation techniques to reduce the perception of the painful stimulus (Hilgard & Hilgard, 1975; Wain, 1980).

Performance Enhancement through Imagery

Imagery has been defined as "all those quasi-sensory and quasi-perceptual experiences of which we are self-consciously aware and which exist for us in the absence of those stimulus conditions that are known to produce their genuine sensory or perceptual counterparts" (Richardson, 1969, pp. 2-3). A growing body of literature has addressed the use of imagery in improving athletic performance. A few areas examined include relaxation/anxiety reduction, "psyching up" (Murphy & Jowdy, 1992), and mental rehearsal.

Two of the authors recently used imagery to enhance performance in marathon training and running. Training runs included using images of tow ropes pulling the author effortlessly along roads and trails. Track workouts included an image of a giant slingshot propelling the runner around on each successive lap. The actual marathon run itself included similar images of tow ropes and slingshots along with pre-race deep breathing, progressive relaxation, and positive self-talk. The positive images served to reduce anxiety and ultimately enhance enjoyment and performance.

Another area in which imagery has been used is in "psyching up" for athletic performance. Psyching up has been described as the use of cognitive strategies immediately prior to competition, including preparatory arousal, attention focus, self-confidence manipulations, and imagery (Murphy & Jowdy, 1992). Research has focused on imagery that has the athletes close their eyes, imagine themselves successfully completing the task, and attempt the task (Gould, Weinberg, & Jackson, 1980). Further research has indicated that psyching up is task specific (Caudill & Weinberg, 1983). Athletic performance requiring sudden, concentrated effort, such as weight-lifting, demonstrates the efficacy of psyching up as an intervention. In Caudill and Weinberg (1983), subjects in the preparatory arousal condition exhibited higher levels of anxiety, confidence, effort, and quality of performance than in all other pre-performance conditions.

One of the authors recently used this technique in performing the bench press in a weight-lifting program, positioning under the bar, visualizing successful completion of the lift, and following through. Imagery concentrated on imagining helium-filled balloons attached to each end of the bar.

Imagery has also been used as mental practice in preparation for performance. Recent studies have found that imaginally rehearsing sports-related skills, such as putting, weight-lifting, and free-throw shooting, improved performance (McCaffrey & Orlick, 1989; Wrisberg & Anshel, 1989; Caudill & Weinberg, 1983). The studies further showed that when imaginal practice or physical practice is used alone, the performance level is not as high as when the two methods are combined. Imaginal practice cannot replace physical conditioning, but it can enhance performance in training sessions and competition. Most of the literature agrees that imagery gains effectiveness with maturity, level of commitment, level of competition, and amount of experience.

One of the authors has used aspects of imagery and hypnosis, and, giving credit to genetics and family support, acknowledges the importance of mental rehearsal in preparation for any possible game situation. This author sums up the experience in the following way:

> With regard to mental rehearsal, there are many things that one can do to prepare for competition. Before the game, I watch films of the other team to learn their strengths and weaknesses, as well as how to anticipate a designed play or a player's best move. I also listen to music. Music takes me into a world of my own and helps me concentrate on the task at hand. I start to envision what I have to do to be successful during the game. During the game, I need to feel sure of myself and be focused and ready to have fun. My mental rehearsal pays off: I feel that I have won because I concentrated and prepared correctly.

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