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The National Defense Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes Program

A Report of the First 50 Institutes

Sponsored during the Summer of 1959 by 50 Colleges and Universities under contract with the U.S. Office of Education authorized by the National Defense Education Act of 1958

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Foreword

THIS IS THE REPORT of the first short-term Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes authorized by title V–B of the National Defense Education Act of 1958.

The act was signed into law on September 2, 1958. During the next few months, the National Defense Counseling and Guidance Institutes program was announced and contracts were completed with 50 colleges and universities to conduct institutes during the summer of 1959. Much credit is due to these institutions and their participating faculty members for their willingness and ability to undertake the institutes upon such short notice. These institutions and the directors of the institutes are named in the body of the report.

We were fortunate in obtaining the services of Dr. Leona Tyler, who prepared the report. She brought to the task a rich professional experience, established competence as an author, and a lifetime commitment to the education of boys and girls. She had access to all information relating to the program, including extensive and detailed materials furnished by directors of the 50 institutes. She met with the directors and interviewed many of them about their institutes. She even participated in an institute. While the Office has attempted to be helpful in the large volume of detailed work necessary to the report, Dr. Tyler has been free to select content and prepare the report as she wished.

We believe this report will be found valuable by both professional and lay persons. It points out what was done in the institutes, describes those who attended them, gives pertinent information as to faculty, and reviews other important aspects of the program.

The Office expresses its appreciation to all institutions which have indicated an interest in the National Defense Counseling and Guidance Institutes program.

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INTRODUCTION

IN SEPTEMBER OF 1958, the 85th Congress passed Public Law 85–864, the National Defense Education Act. The step had not been taken lightly. For months congressional committees had been studying alternative bills. Widespread discussion had occurred in circles where educators and the educated were represented. Many proposals had been examined and compared. Congress realized that the provisions of this law would have widespread and to some extent unpredictable effects on the whole pattern of American education.

This report is an examination of the structure that was built upon title V(B) of the act during its first year. Part B authorized the establishment of counseling and guidance training institutes at colleges and universities for the purpose of improving the qualifications of secondary school personnel to engage in counseling and guidance.

We shall look first at the principles that guided the designers in their plans. We shall then turn our attention to the details of the structure itself, answering such questions as What? Who? Where? and How much? We shall then try to analyze the distinctive contributions to counselor education that this program has made. We shall grapple with the problems that were faced by the persons who planned and conducted this first round of institutes. We shall evaluate the outcomes as well as possible and try to determine how successfully the purposes of title V(B) of the National Defense Education Act have been achieved.

Public Law 85–864 expresses our shared conviction that education is of the greatest importance in American life. Title V expresses our shared conviction that guidance is of the greatest importance in education. In the institutes program we see these convictions given form and substance. It is well that we study it thoughtfully and learn from it as much as we can.

PART I

PART I.—THE BROAD PICTURE

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CHAPTER 1

The Need and the Challenge

THE MOST COMPREHENSIVE studies of American education in the 1950's have focused attention on the fact that our public school system, with all its flaws, is a unique achievement. In his report of the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools, Dreiman [1] puts this very well: ". . . the great glory of public education in the United States, in the second half of the 20th century, is that with all its critics have found to denounce, it is nevertheless a system whose hallmarks are everlasting commitment and dedication to the freedoms of the society that gave it birth." We have made universal public education through the secondary level a going concern. We have really developed schools for *all* the people.

Whether one inclines toward the critical or the laudatory view, he is not likely to quarrel with one basic proposition: Our schools must be strengthened and improved. They are not stimulating the fullest development of all the human resources of the Nation. Even if our schools had been entirely satisfactory for the society of the past (and we all agree that they were not), they would still not be adequate to meet the challenges of the future. The task of improving the public schools is one that can be wholeheartedly supported by everybody. Authorities may differ about how this can best be accomplished, but they agree that it must be done.

It has become increasingly apparent, as educated people have thought about the American school system, that guidance occupies a place of crucial importance in it. We cannot regard guidance as a frill or a luxury. This conclusion follows inescapably once we become fully aware of the enormous range in intellectual capacity, special talents and interests, family and community backgrounds, represented in one of our comprehensive high schools. Because these schools are not selective, as most of the European secondary schools are, boys with IQ's of 85 and 165 greet one another in the halls. A girl from a one-

[1] Dreiman, D. B. *How To Get Better Schools.* New York: Harper, 1956. p. 4.

room shack on the fringe of the city sits next to a girl from the mansion on the hill. Students with long family traditions of scholarship and culture share classrooms and laboratories with students who see the school situation as a somewhat distasteful prelude to work. Furthermore, different varieties of intellectual capacity, special aptitudes, and attitude toward education occur in all possible combinations. Henry, from a working class home, may have an IQ of 150. Bill, from a professional family, may consistently score at about the 100 level. Henry may never have considered seriously the possibility of going to college. Bill and his family may have their hearts set on it, even though other experiences may be more meaningful to him.

In an attempt to cope with these individual differences, large high schools have developed rich, diversified programs. Each individual student is confronted with the task of choosing the course offerings most suitable for him. How good his education is depends to a large extent on how intelligently he makes such choices. Thus the necessity for guidance. A young person of 15 or 16 is not in a position to make wise choices without help from someone. If professional assistance is not available, the student will get such help elsewhere, usually from his parents or from his friends. While his parents may know the student very well, they may not be familiar enough with educational programs and requirements so that they can fully discharge the guidance responsibility. And while a student's friends may know a good deal about the various kinds of courses a school offers, they are likely to place far too much emphasis on irrelevant factors, such as the personality or grading practices of a particular teacher, and to guide him toward what is easy or entertaining. With adequate guidance facilities, a large, diversified high school can provide a suitable educational environment for every individual student. Without such facilities, it is chaos.

In the small high school, the situation is different but the need for guidance is just as real. Here there is not the great diversity of courses and activities, but the diversity of individual talents is just as great as in the large school. The brilliant girl, the boy with outstanding musical aptitude, the student with a speech handicap, must fit as best they can into a curriculum designed for average persons. Students with special talents or disabilities—and a considerable proportion of any group is "special" in one way or another—may never get the stimulation they need if they are to develop on their own individual lines. They may never learn of the many opportunities for higher education and specialized careers that are open to them. Guidance can help to meet these needs of individuals in the small school.

Since World War II, Americans have become increasingly concerned about the education of those students who show an unusually high level of academic talent. Study after study has demonstrated that a considerable proportion of our most intelligent citizens never make the special contribution to society that they might have made had they received the advanced education necessary for the full development of talent. Thinking about this problem leads us again to the conclusion that guidance is essential. Scholarships and loans are not enough by themselves. The reasons why brilliant students do not go to college or drop out before they finish have turned out to be many and complex. Just by changing the curriculum or enlarging testing programs we cannot insure that the bright student will devote serious effort to difficult courses and make wise plans for his future. But through counseling, he can be helped to make decisions that really satisfy him and to set goals toward which his best efforts can be mobilized.

Such self-direction is the only kind of motivation that is consistent with our democratic philosophy. We cannot single out bright students or any other one group of citizens and compel them to shape their lives according to a certain pattern because of the needs of society. We insist that a person's own wishes must be considered. While we may talk of "manpower" or "human resources" as though they were a commodity to be utilized by society, we do not really look upon this human commodity as we look upon our fuel, fields, and forests. For us, the right of a person to shape his own destiny takes precedence over the right of society to make use of his talents.

Fortunately, our long experience with the democratic system has demonstrated to us that there need be no essential conflict here. The choice a person makes about what to do with his life, if it rests on thoughtful consideration of all the factors involved, represents a synthesis of his personal and social values. The full development of his own potentialities can be deeply satisfying to the person himself and at the same time good for society. The aim of counseling is to help each young person make good choices and plans. That is why it is such an essential part of our whole educational enterprise.

Leaders in the guidance professions and forward-looking school administrators have long been aware of these relationships between guidance and the student's total educational experience. What is new in our time is that the facts have become apparent to those representatives of the public at large who have attempted to take a useful, serious look at educational policy. In the widely quoted report of the panel

on education set up under the Rockefeller Brothers Fund, *The Pursuit of Excellence*,[2] we find these words:

> The identification of talent is no more than the first step. It should be only part of a strong guidance program. The word *guidance* has a variety of meanings; we use it here to mean advice concerning the young person's educational problems and the most appropriate course of study for him. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that such guidance is essential to the success of our system. As many teachers as possible should be trained to take part in it. As many high schools as possible should have special guidance officers to supplement the teachers where greater technical knowledge is required.

In *The American High School Today*,[3] Conant makes the establishment of an adequate counseling system his first recommendation for schools seeking to improve their effectiveness. The amount of counseling service this recommendation explicitly calls for goes beyond what all but a very few of our high schools now have.

The report of the hearings before the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare on the several education bills that were before Congress in 1958, and discussions that led to the National Defense Education Act finally passed in September of that year, show that the need for guidance services was clear to the framers of this legislation. Guidance was not included as an incidental attachment to the main program or as an afterthought. It was an essential building block in the structure Congress was attempting to set up.

Guidance services are essential but at present they are far from adequate. Looking first at just the sheer number of counselors necessary if all high schools embarked upon reasonably good programs, we find an enormous gap between the number now available and the number that could be used. The U.S. Office of Education estimates that there are now in service the equivalent of 11,000 full-time counselors. We would need 26,000 to approximate the ratios recommended by the States. Only about 2,500 graduate degrees in guidance and counseling at all levels were granted in 1956.[4] Enrollments in high schools are increasing far more rapidly than the production of new counselors.

But it is not only quantity that is inadequate in counseling; quality must also be considered. A large proportion of the persons now engaged in guidance work in high schools have had little or no special training for their counseling duties. They are simply teachers who

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[2] *The Pursuit of Excellence. Education and the Future of America.* Panel Report V of the Special Studies Project. Garden City: Doubleday, 1958. p. 30.

[3] Conant, James B. *The American High School Today.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.

[4] From statement by Dr. Lawrence G. Derthick, Hearings before the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, "Science and Education for National Defense," 85th Cong., 2d sess., 1958, p. 241.

have been assigned to guidance work on a part-time basis. A person in this position, conscientious though he may be, can hardly be said to be doing counseling at all, since this work requires specialized knowledge and skills that are not in the repertory of the average teacher. It is true that many efforts to improve this situation are being made. Inservice training programs for teacher-counselors have been set up in many schools. Many individual teacher-counselors have sought out summer courses in fields related to counseling. In a large and growing number of States, special certification procedures for counseling positions have been brought into existence, so that only teachers with a certain amount of basic training can be considered to be "counselors." These measures have improved the situation to some degree, but not enough. The problem of so-called counseling programs staffed largely or entirely by noncounselors, persists.

One particular inadequacy to be found in existing guidance programs is in the use of time set aside for counseling. The qualitative and quantitative inadequacies we have been discussing lead directly to such faulty distributions of time.

A teacher with no special training for counseling, allowed one or two periods a day for this activity, may spend most of his time checking attendance records and talking briefly to students who have been absent. This is, of course, useful work, but it does not serve the purpose counseling should be serving—namely, to stimulate individual students to their optimum development. On the other hand, a well-trained counselor, if he has 500 or more students under his jurisdiction, may discover that he is spending all of his time on problem cases—the slow learner, the potential delinquent, the socially inept. This is counseling, by most definitions, but like the attendance checking, it does not meet the need we have been considering—to encourage each student to make the best possible use of his potentialities. Wherever caseloads are too heavy, attention is likely to be focused on those students with serious disabilities. Someone has to be concerned about such people, and helping them is a time-consuming business. Schools need trained counselors, and they need them in sufficient numbers so that their services can be available to all students, the gifted and the average as well as the retarded and maladjusted.

There is still another kind of inadequacy that shows up when one scrutinizes the present state of guidance services in American high schools. The geographical distribution is extremely uneven. Some States have almost no organized guidance programs at all. A large proportion of the trained guidance workers we now have are to be found in a small proportion of the States. Some of this unevenness is inevitable in an educational system so completely decentralized as is

the American system. In the last analysis, it is the local school boards who decide whether or not they want guidance services in their high schools. The less they know about guidance, the more likely they are to be completely unaware that it has any contribution to make. At the opposite extreme, the schools that have first-rate guidance programs can demonstrate their value to the community they serve. Thus they tend to get increasing support. In this way strong programs tend to become stronger while minimal or weak programs remain weak or become even weaker. Because the conservation of talent is so important to the whole nation, this inequality concerns us all.

This then is the situation we face with regard to guidance services in the schools. They are offered in too few places and are seriously understaffed. Many of the counselors have little or no training. It is this challenge that title V of the National Defense Education Act is designed to meet.

CHAPTER 2

The Guidance Provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958

IT IS THE OPINION of many educators that the National Defense Education Act of 1958 will go down in history as one of the major landmarks in the development of American education. Its aim is to facilitate in a number of ways the identification and development of talented students. It provides for loans to undergraduates and fellowships for graduate students; for the strengthening of instruction in science, mathematics, and foreign languages; for research in the utilization of television and related media in education; and for area vocational education programs, as well as for increasing the amount and quality of guidance services in high schools.

Because of the emphasis on the development of individual talents, the guidance provisions of the act are really the critical provisions, as was pointed out by Dr. Homer Babbidge, Jr., Assistant Commissioner for Higher Education, at a conference of directors of Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes in March, 1959. The availability of guidance services is implied in all of the act's titles. Thus, before a student can make use of the loans available to him under title II, he must have decided to obtain a college education. Such different provisions, as the strengthening of foreign-language programs and the use of television in teaching, all presuppose that students with aptitude for advanced education will have placed themselves in the educational situations where the improved techniques are to be used.

Title V, *Guidance, Counseling, and Testing: Identification and Encouragement of Able Students*, consists of two parts: V(A) and (B). (The full statement of the parts of the act having to do with counseling and guidance will be found in app. A.) Title V(A) provides (in the language of the act) "grants to State educational agencies to assist them to establish and maintain programs of testing and counseling." In accordance with the well-established policy that Federal funds should be used in a manner that will stimulate and supplement local educational activities, the funds allocated under

title V(A) are being disbursed to States on a matching basis. Thus the extent of the increase in guidance services in many parts of the country is much greater than the increase covered by the title V(A) budget alone. The increase in guidance activities in the States has been very noticeable even during the first year of the program.

It is interesting to note that about 80 percent of the funds granted were used for purposes related to counseling, and only 8 percent for testing. Guidance staff members were added to State education departments. Conferences were held. Bulletins on implementation of guidance programs and on test interpretation were issued. Workshops on the use of tests for the identification of talents were set up. Arrangements were made for supervision at the local level and for advisory committees. Money granted to the States was passed on to local school systems to enable them to add counselors or to increase the amount of time devoted to counseling, and to add clerical help in order to free counselors' time for actual counseling. Increased public awareness of guidance, and better cooperation between local school administrators and State agencies were frequent results of the first year's activities.

All of these programs were of such a nature as to make the need for trained counselors even more acute than it had been before. Title V(B) is the provision that the framers of the legislation worked out to help meet this need. It directed the U.S. Commissioner of Education to arrange by contracts with institutions of higher education for operation by them of Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes, either short-term or regular session, for the purpose of giving secondary school counselors and teachers in secondary schools about to enter counseling the training they needed most. In order that such training might be really intensive, provision was made for the payment of stipends to institute enrollees so that they could devote full time to the task of increasing their own knowledge and skill.

The central purpose of the institute program is to improve the quality and increase the number of secondary school counselors who can identify and work with the academically able student. Those who wrote this law and those to whom responsibility for carrying out its provisions was delegated considered it to be important that this increase and upgrading of personnel take place in all parts of the country, and as rapidly as possible. This purpose constituted a solid framework around which the details of policy were organized.

It is apparent, as one considers the act as a whole and title V as a part of it, that definite limits are set up for this particular program. In the first place, the institutes are for training secondary school personnel only. Counselors and research workers who have studied the

occupational choice process place increasing emphasis on the elementary school years. The extension of guidance services into the elementary schools is a sound objective, but it must be realized that funds allocated for institutes cannot be used to further it. In the second place, the benefits of title V(B) are explicitly restricted to persons already engaged in the practice of counseling in secondary schools and to those teachers in such schools about to enter counseling. Every college or university that offers a graduate program in guidance has regular students who would be worthy recipients of financial assistance. To enable them to pursue their studies is certainly a valid aim, but title V(B) funds cannot be used for other than institute enrollees. In the third place, this particular title, like the act as a whole, is concerned primarily with the academically able student. Some counselors may not find this emphasis congenial. Their values lead them to insist on the worth of every human being, whatever his level of ability, and their practice in the past has often consisted largely of service to the slow learner and the misfit. The Office of Education would certainly not disagree with the general principle that every individual is important, but all laws do not provide assistance to all people. It is the student with college-level abilities that NDEA legislation is designed to help.

In addition to these limitations arising from the purpose and specific provisions of the law, there is a very real limitation of funds available for the support of Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes. The law specifies a maximum of $6,250,000 for fiscal 1959, and $7,250,000 for each of the 3 succeeding fiscal years. The amount actually allocated for the 1959 institutes program, however, was $3,400,000. Of this amount $2,248,319 was obligated for summer institutes and $1,139,670 for regular session institutes. Two and a quarter million dollars does not seem like a large sum when it must cover stipends for the enrollees and their dependents as well as the expenses of the training program itself. Only a limited number of Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes could be supported. Not everything to improve guidance in the high schools could be done. Here, as in many other areas of human endeavor, limits need not constrict one's view, but may actually facilitate creative thinking.

The fact that funds are limited reminds all who administer Federal projects of this kind that it is necessary to consider very seriously the possible consequences of Federal participation in an educational enterprise so completely decentralized. Federal programs must not replace or compete with those that are locally supported, or the total educational fabric may be weakened rather than strengthened in the process. Rather, it seems desirable that a special program be planned

in such a way that all of the regular educational undertakings may benefit from the experience it brings. It is possible for a relatively small-scale pilot project to point the way to desirable educational changes, but it is the State and local educational institutions that put them into effect. The last of the four principles set forth in *The Pursuit of Excellence* [1] puts this well:

> It [a proposal for Federal support] should be based on a recognition that the Government inevitably exercises a certain leadership function in whatever it does. The effect of a Government scholarship program may go far beyond the immediate impact of the grants. The fact that the Government chooses to recognize high talent could have far-reaching consequences in the attitudes of young people. Any Federal support to education shall therefore be concentrated on certain strategic areas. The Federal Government should see its role as that of a pacemaker rather than as confirming traditional and often outdated attitudes.

Applying this principle to the institute program, its goal might well be to complement the efforts that colleges and universities are already making to train guidance workers by trying out some ideas not incorporated in ongoing programs. The fact that all enrollees are secondary school counselors, already practicing or about to practice, allows institute designers to focus their thinking on the needs of a clearly defined group and to try out some things that would not be possible in more diverse groups.

The emphasis on able students can also be a challenge to creative thinking about counseling. For many years the mental health professions were concerned almost exclusively with the prevention and treatment of mental illness. Influenced by this attitude, counselors have often defined their task in terms of *problem* behavior of various sorts. It is only recently that there has come to be a strong emphasis on positive mental health. We are coming to realize that it is possible to define mental health not as the absence of personality difficulties, but as the capacity for full productive living. The emphasis the National Defense Education Act places on the utilization of talents rather than on the overcoming of deficiencies can be an asset if applied wisely. It can provide a new look at what the role of the counselor is. In work situations there are always external pressures influencing counselors to help "problem" students. The institute program sets up a sort of counter-pressure upon them to assist unusually talented students to make the most of their lives. The emphasis on this part of the counselor's task in institute programs may have a pervasive influence on counseling philosophy as a whole.

In summary, title V(B) presented educational institutions where counselors are trained with an unprecedented opportunity, a challenge

[1] Op. cit., p. 36.

to creative thinking. The short-term institutes held in the summer of 1959 were the first response to that challenge. In spite of the newness of the whole program and the limited time that was available for planning, 50 institutes were established and conducted. Taken as a whole, they present a rich diversified pattern. It is this picture, with its implications for all educational efforts in this area, that we shall now proceed to examine.

CHAPTER 3

General Information About the Institutes Program

The Process of Contract Development

THE NATIONAL Defense Education Act, Title V(B), specified only that institutes were to be arranged by contracts. It was completely silent as to how these contracts should be brought into existence and administered. It became the responsibility of the U.S. Office of Education to build from the bottom up the policies and procedures upon which the structure would rest. To a considerable extent, the success of the whole program is based on the wisdom of these policies.

It was decided that the whole process of developing contracts between the Office of Education and the participating institutions should be a cooperative undertaking. This turned out to be quite different from alternative plans that might have been adopted. It would have been possible, for example, for the Federal agency to draw up what it considered to be a desirable plan for the operation of institutes and simply offer a contract for this particular service to any college or university that seemed to have the necessary facilities for carrying it out. On the other hand, it would have been possible simply to ask the various colleges and universities to submit proposals, and then to accept some and reject others as they stood. Either of these alternatives would not have accomplished the same purpose as the procedure that was actually used.

In a very real sense the institute program represents the best thinking of the whole counseling profession. Very soon after NDEA became law, 14 educators who had been doing outstanding work in guidance were invited to come to Washington for a 2-day conference. The general policies we have been considering, and specific guidelines that could be used to evaluate proposals began to take shape at that meeting. From then on, outside consultants were used again and

again in an attempt to make sure that breadth of thinking went into each important decision.

The procedure of contract development consisted of several steps. As a first step, colleges filled out a registry form indicating that they might wish to sponsor institutes. (A copy of this form is shown in app. B.) The second step was for each institution to submit a proposal indicating what the particular goals of its institute would be and the kind of program that would be offered. The third step consisted of conferences and correspondence between representatives of the U.S. Office of Education and of the institution whose program was being considered. Major and minor changes were made during this period of negotiation. The sharing of ideas and the joint efforts to solve particular problems paid rich dividends in the improvement of plans. The fourth and final step was to draw up a plan of operation for each institute, which formed the basis of the actual contract. Typically, 5 months or more separated the first step from the last, and during this interval cooperative thinking led to the clarification of proposals and made them more workable.

In some ways this process of contract development is like the counseling process itself. Generally, the initiative was taken by the interested institutions, although on occasion the U.S. Office of Education would invite a particular college to submit a proposal. The final plan always grew out of joint thinking. Office of Education representatives presented information, made suggestions, and clarified the limits as to what could be done under the legal provisions of the act. Such a procedure left room for a great deal of diversity in final plans. There were many variations in programing that would not have been attempted had not the requirements specified by the U.S. Office of Education been held to a minimum.

The Basic Institute Plan

As has been said, there was a great deal of variation from place to place in institute programs. But there were some uniform features, and it is on these that the unique values of this form of counselor education seem to rest. The first of these distinguishing characteristics was an initial analysis of needs that a particular institute would try to meet, and a formulation of objectives based on these needs. The general objective of improving counselors is too broad and inclusive to generate workable plans for a 6- or 8-week session. The objectives that constitute the most solid foundation for an institute program "are best stated in terms of anticipated behavioral outcomes on the part of

enrollees," to quote from the Policies and Procedures Manual[1] for participating institutions.

The second of the distinguishing characteristics was that enrollees were persons in positions where they could make use of what they learned. In the majority of cases they were already serving as counselors, with or without training for the task. A minority were teachers who were planning to take on counselor roles in the near future. No other categories of applicants were accepted. This led to a kind of serious motivation seldom encountered in college classes. These people really wanted to know.

The third distinguishing characteristic, related to the second, was that the curriculum was planned for a particular group of students, many of whose strengths and weaknesses were known in advance. Data about the needs, backgrounds, abilities, and interests of the selected enrollees were made available to the faculty members at institutes. The faculty was thus enabled to plan tailormade learning experiences. The topics selected, the level at which lectures were pitched, the reading lists and audiovisual aids could all be fitted to the enrollees. It is, of course, difficult to do this even when one has the most favorable opportunity, and the success with which it was accomplished in the institutes was less than perfect; but there was much more of this kind of planning than the customary teaching situation permits.

The fourth distinguishing characteristic was that an institute combined a number of kinds of learning experience, focusing them all on the same objectives. Lectures by regular staff alternated with lectures by experts from other places or professions. Small discussion groups made it possible for enrollees to take an active part in the educative process instead of functioning only as passive listeners. Laboratory and practicum experience alternated with course work. Because the enrollees spent the whole working day together thinking about matters related to counseling, the informal aspects of the program, and the changes in attitudes and ideas that arose from conversation and group interaction took on far more significance than in ordinary educational settings.

The fifth distinguishing characteristic, in some ways the most important of all, was that the institutes provided a full-time program. The stipends made it possible for the enrollees to give all their time and attention to the task of enlarging their own knowledge, increasing their own skill. Staff members also found that their time and energy were centered on institute activities. This concentration of

[1] *The National Defense Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes Program: Policies and Procedures NDEA Title V(B): No. 1.* OE 25001, September 1959.

effort seemed to intensify the total effect achieved. There was more thinking through of the implications of new ideas, more rapid acquisition of knowledge, more rapid improvement of skills.

To sum up, the distinguishing characteristics of the Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes were all designed to produce a focused, concentrated, intensive educational experience for each participant. The aim was to make this period of a few weeks stand out in each enrollee's life as a distinctive period with an unusual growth-stimulating effect on his professional development. Ambitious as this undertaking sounds, there is evidence that it was to a considerable extent accomplished.

Some Characteristics of Institutes

Let us turn now to some of the facts that can be counted and tabulated. Fifty institutes, serving a total of 2,210 enrollees, were held in the summer of 1959. There was some variation in length, depending primarily on summer school practices in the institutions where they were held. Table 1 shows the distribution, with 6- or 8-week institutes the most common.

Table 1.—Lengths of Short-Term Institutes Held in the Summer of 1959

Number of weeks	*Number of institutes*
10	3
9	1
8	18
7	1
6	21
5	5
4	1

The institutes varied much more in size. Table 2 shows this distribution. While the median enrollment is 38, many institutes were planned for considerably smaller numbers and 3 for very much larger numbers. This variation in size was, of course, related to objectives. It is easier to provide practicum experience for the improving of interviewing skills if not too many trainees must be supervised. Background knowledge can more easily be transmitted to larger groups. Some of the larger institutes did give practicum training, however, and many worked out ingenious ways of dividing the total group into smaller work groups for part of the day's activities. Several directors thought that institute enrollment should not be too large for the most effective work. But there is no consensus as yet about just what is the optimum size for any one kind of program.

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Table 2.—Number of Enrollees in Summer Institutes —1959

Number of enrollees	Number of institutes
96–100	2
91– 95	1
86– 90	0
81– 85	0
76– 80	0
71– 75	2
66– 70	2
61– 65	1
56– 60	1
51– 55	2
46– 50	5
41– 45	5
36– 40	10
31– 35	4
26– 30	11
21– 25	3
16– 20	1

Institutes also differed from one another in the level at which they were pitched. The majority were designed for counselors and teachers with a limited amount of previous graduate work in areas related to guidance. Institutes at the advanced level, designed for teachers who had achieved or nearly achieved a master's degree, were set up only for those with some gap in their training that needed to be filled, in order for them to function effectively as high school counselors. For example, some enrollees had taken a considerable number of guidance courses, but had never had supervised counseling experience. The institute practicum courses were very valuable to such advanced students. Other enrollees had missed the kind of intensive work on the statistical aspects of mental measurement that one needs for interpreting test results to students and their parents. In many cases institute courses filled in this gap. Other enrollees were teachers with master's degrees in some field other than guidance. It is obvious that a teacher who is to do counseling needs training in this area, even though he has done advanced graduate work in history, mathematics, or music.

Because there was a great deal of variability in the educational background of enrollees at most of the institutes, regardless of their level of experience, a breakdown of the 50 institutes according to level would not be very meaningful. Institute programs were built around the question: "What do these enrollees need to learn?" rather than the question: "What level of training have these enrollees reached?"

Institutes were held in many different kinds of colleges and universities, in all regions of the United States, although not in all States.

While State universities appear on the list more frequently than any other type of institution, independent and church-related schools, as well as teachers colleges, are also included.

As the many persons who helped to plan and carry out this new program under the National Defense Education Act looked back upon its first year, they could take pride in the fact that policies had been formulated, a general plan for an accelerated kind of counselor education had taken shape, and 50 Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes had actually been held.

PART 2

PART II.—FACTS AND FIGURES

CHAPTER 4

The Enrollees

IN PURSUING FURTHER the analysis of the 1959 Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes, let us look first at the information about the 2,210 enrollees, much of which has been summarized in table 3.

From this table, it is seen that the institutes served primarily persons from public rather than private schools. Only about a third of the enrollees were women.[1] All of the adult-age groups were represented, but persons under 25 constituted a small minority. The majority of the enrollees were half-time or full-time counselors with varying amounts of experience. The others (item 8 in table 3) were mainly teachers preparing to move into counseling positions.

The fact that about a third of the enrollees had already been certified as counselors in the States from which they came might give rise to some question about their need for further training. A partial answer to such a question can be obtained if one looks at the certification requirements of the various States for counselors as summarized in Bulletin 1957, No. 22, of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.[2] It is clear that these are *minimum* requirements that in no way guarantee counselor competence. While the State typically requires a master's degree or 30 semester hours of graduate work, it allows the applicant so much latitude in meeting the requirements that he may obtain a certificate even though he lacks some particular training most authorities see as desirable or essential. In the last chapter it was mentioned that deficiencies in statistical background for test interpretation and in supervised practicum are relatively common. Many other gaps in the preparation of individual counselors could be cited. If there had been any doubt about it at the outset, ex-

[1] The difference becomes even more striking when one examines the reports school by school. In only nine of the fifty institutes did women outnumber men. One of these was in New York City. The rest were in Southern States.

[2] Brewster, Royce E. *Guidance Workers Certification Requirements.* U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Bulletin 1957, No. 22.

perience with the 1959 summer institutes has shown that it would be unwise to disqualify applicants for enrollment because they are certified counselors and thus presumably already "trained." Many of them still urgently need the kind of experiences an institute can provide. The judgment as to who does and who does not need the training must be made on an individual basis.

In general, the enrollee figures in table 3 indicate that the 1959 summer institutes did reach the groups for whom training had been authorized by the law—persons engaged in high school counseling, and teachers preparing to counsel high school youth.

Table 1.—A Statistical Summary of Data Concerning 1959 Summer Institute Enrollees

1. Total number of enrollees	2,210
a. Number from public schools	2,160
b. Number from private schools	50
2. Sex of enrollees:	
a. Number of males	1,424
b. Number of females	786
3. Number of enrollees in each age group below:	
a. Under 25	45
b. 25–30	377
c. 31–35	548
d. 36–40	399
e. 41–45	283
f. 46–50	272
g. Over 50	258
h. Not known	28
4. Number of enrollees who received stipends	2,160
5. Average number of dependents per enrollee receiving stipends (to 1 decimal place)	2.1
6. Enrollees grouped according to years of experience in counseling and guidance activities:	
a. Not more than 1 year	600
b. 1 year but not more than 2 years	350
c. 2 years but not more than 3 years	295
d. 3 years but not more than 4 years	227
e. 4 years but not more than 5 years	188
f. 5 years but not more than 10 years	377
g. More than 10 years	173
7. Number of enrollees admitted to institute on the basis of being engaged in counseling and guidance activities:	
a. Half time only	485
b. More than half time	324
c. Full time	777
8. Number of enrollees admitted to institute other than on the basis of the criterion in No. 7 above	624
9. Number of enrollees certified as counselors at time of enrollment	741
10. Number of enrollees who earned graduate credit upon completion of the work of the institute	2,041

Another question deserving of some special consideration is, How successfully did the institute program serve all areas in the country? As indicated above, no attempt was made to apportion institutes to States according to population, but it was intended that all States would share in the benefits. Table 4 shows the geographical distribution of the institutes.

Table 4.—Geographical Distribution of Enrollees in Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes—Summer 1959

Region and State	A Number of enrollees	B Entitlement according to population	Participation ratio (A/B)
1	2	3	4
New England	115	115	1.00
Connecticut	34	26	1.31
Maine	8	11	.73
Massachusetts	55	58	.94
New Hampshire	10	7	1.43
Rhode Island	2	8	.25
Vermont	6	5	1.20
Mideast	362	426	.85
Delaware	36	5	7.20
District of Columbia	10	7	1.43
Maryland	45	34	1.32
New Jersey	41	60	.68
New York	121	183	.66
Pennsylvania	109	138	.79
Great Lakes	377	422	.89
Illinois	87	108	.81
Indiana	41	63	.65
Michigan	137	91	1.51
Ohio	81	113	.72
Wisconsin	31	48	.65
Plains	302	207	1.46
Iowa	54	39	1.38
Kansas	36	20	1.87
Minnesota	67	48	1.40
Missouri	65	52	1.27
Nebraska	9	19	.47
North Dakota	20	9	2.33
South Dakota	20	10	2.00
Southeast	502	506	.99
Alabama	74	47	1.57
Arkansas	29	28	1.04
Florida	49	51	.96
Georgia	47	50	.94
Kentucky	37	37	1.00
Louisiana	47	39	1.21
Mississippi	11	29	.38
North Carolina	53	69	.76
South Carolina	46	22	1.80
Tennessee	37	49	.76
Virginia	46	44	1.09
West Virginia	23	32	.72
Southwest	208	183	1.11
Arizona	44	15	2.93
New Mexico	24	13	1.85
Oklahoma	37	39	.95
Texas	98	116	.84

See footnote at end of table.

Table 4.—Geographical Distribution of Enrollees in Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes—Summer 1959—Continued

Region and State	A Number of enrollees	B Entitlement[1] according to population	Participation ratio (A/B)
1	2	3	4
Rocky Mountain	136	62	2.19
Colorado	63	21	3.00
Idaho	10	11	.91
Montana	27	10	2.70
Utah	23	15	1.53
Wyoming	13	5	2.60
Far West	169	238	.71
California	73	169	.43
Nevada	3	3	1.00
Oregon	56	26	2.15
Washington	37	40	.93
Noncontiguous States	2	9	.22
Alaska	0	2	.00
Hawaii	2	7	.29
Outlying parts	41	23	1.78
Canal Zone	0	6	.00
Guam	0	6	.00
Puerto Rico	40	21.0	1.90
Virgin Islands	1	.25	4.00

[1] Based on figures for secondary school populations, grades 9–12. From *Statistics of State School Systems 1956–57*, Circular No. 572, p. 5.

Tables 4 and 5 show plainly that while institutes were unequally distributed, a few States having as many as three and others none, the enrollees were drawn from all parts of the country. While there had not been time to publicize the program very widely in the noncontiguous States and territories, there were 2 enrollees from Hawaii, 1 from the Virgin Islands, and 40 from the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, where 1 of the institutes was held. In the last column of tables 4 and 5, ratio has been computed of the number of enrollees actually registered to the number who would have been selected had total public[8] high school enrollment in grades 9 through 12 been used as an index of the amount of counseling work to be done. It can be seen that the number of enrollees from New England meets exactly the national average. The States in the southeastern group were also represented almost precisely in proportion to their share of the secondary school population. The Plains States, the Rocky Mountain States, and the Southwestern States were overrepresented. The Mideastern, Great Lakes, and Far Western States were under-

[8] Similar data for private secondary schools would be highly relevant, but this information was not available.

represented. Table 5 shows that the extent to which residents of the different States participated in the institute program was not related to the number of institutes held in the State. The group of 14 States in which institutes were not held had proportionally more enrollees than did the States with two or three institutes.

One of the purposes of this training program is to encourage college attendance for able students. In considering whether the distribution of institute services was equitable, the figures that show what proportion of the 18–21 age group of each State goes to college might well be used as the base rate instead of the number of secondary school students.

Table 5.—Numbers of Enrollees From States Having Different Numbers of Institutes

States and institutes	Number of enrollees	Entitlement [1]	Ratio
1	2	3	4
4 States with 3 institutes each	413	544	0.76
New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Texas.			
4 States with 2 institutes each	347	402	.86
Michigan, Ohio, Kansas, California.			
28 States and District of Columbia, with 1 institute each	1,226	1,034	1.19
Connecticut, Massachusetts, Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, Indiana, Wisconsin, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, West Virginia, Arizona, Oklahoma, Colorado, Montana, Utah, Wyoming, Oregon, Washington.			
14 States with no institute	182	187	.97
Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, Nebraska, South Dakota, Arkansas, Mississippi, Virginia, New Mexico, Idaho, Nevada, Alaska, Hawaii.			

[1] Computed as in table 4.

Table 6 makes it possible to compare institute participation ratios with figures on college attendance. It might be desirable for high participation ratios to be linked with low college percentages, since this would suggest that counselors were being trained for areas in which this particular counseling need is greatest. The figures in table 6 show no ascertainable relationship. It would indeed be difficult to build this relationship into the institute program in any systematic way. Perhaps the most that can be done is to encourage the establishment of institutes in the States and areas where the proportion of college-going is low, and to publicize the program widely in these places, so that all actual and potential guidance workers will know of its availability.

A third criterion useful in deciding where institutes should be held is some measure of the *need for counselors* in different States and regions. We have already mentioned in chapter 1 that there is a good deal of geographic variation. Some States seem to be better supplied with trained guidance workers than others. It is not possible to use

this criterion in any exact way, however, because there are no reliable figures with regard to it. Standards for certification vary from State to State, so that numbers of certified counselors in different places cannot be meaningfully compared. In high schools where part-time teacher-counselors constitute most or all of the guidance staff, both the amount of time devoted to counseling and the level of training of the counselors vary so widely that it is difficult to combine available data in meaningful ways. Therefore, while the U.S. Office of Education representatives, in making decisions about contracts, know in a general way the areas of greatest need, they have no means for evaluating this factor precisely.

Table 6.—Institute Participation Ratios Compared With Proportion of 18-21 Age Group in College

	Participation ratio	Percentage in college[1]
New England:		
Connecticut	1.31	23
Maine	.73	12
Massachusetts	.95	21
New Hampshire	1.43	16
Rhode Island	.25	13
Vermont	1.20	14
Mideast:		
Delaware	7.20	18
District of Columbia	1.43	28
Maryland	1.32	17
New Jersey	.68	21
New York	.66	25
Pennsylvania	.79	16
Great Lakes:		
Illinois	.81	21
Indiana	.65	17
Michigan	1.51	17
Ohio	.72	21
Wisconsin	.65	18
Plains:		
Iowa	1.38	18
Kansas	1.87	22
Minnesota	1.40	20
Missouri	1.27	17
Nebraska	.47	19
North Dakota	3.33	18
South Dakota	2.00	17
Southeast:		
Alabama	1.57	12
Arkansas	1.04	13
Florida	.96	16
Georgia	.94	11
Kentucky	1.00	12

See footnote at end of table.

Table 6.—Institute Participation Ratios Compared With Proportion of 18–21 Age Group in College—Con.

	Participation ratio	Percentage in college[1]
Southeast—Continued		
Louisiana	1. 21	14
Mississippi	. 38	11
North Carolina	. 76	10
South Carolina	1. 50	10
Tennessee	. 76	12
Virginia	1. 09	11
West Virginia	. 72	14
Southwest:		
Arizona	2. 93	19
New Mexico	1. 85	13
Oklahoma	. 95	21
Texas	. 84	17
Rocky Mountain:		
Colorado	3. 00	22
Idaho	. 91	24
Montana	2. 70	23
Utah	1. 53	30
Wyoming	2. 60	16
Far West:		
California	. 43	23
Nevada	1. 00	19
Oregon	2. 15	21
Washington	. 93	21
Noncontiguous States:		
Alaska	. 00	...
Hawaii	. 29	...
Outlying parts:		
Canal Zone	. 00	...
Guam	. 00	...
Puerto Rico	1. 90	...
Virgin Islands	4. 00	...

[1] Figures in this column were taken from material presented on Feb. 27, 1958, to the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U.S. Senate, 85th Cong., by Dael Wolfle, Executive Officer, American Association for the Advancement of Science. Hearings before the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, "Science and Education for National Defense," 85th Cong., 2d sess., 1958, p. 574.

What cannot be done on a national scale, however, can often be done accurately in a limited region. Thus the burden of responsibility for making sure that need for counselors is given its proper weight must fall mainly to the institutions sending in proposals for institutes. Whatever evidence a college or university can collect on this point can become an important element of the "needs" section as presented in its proposal. If the proposed institute seems to meet the needs for guidance services in an area, this fact will carry considerable weight in the final decision on the proposal.

It would not have been possible, within the framework of the cooperative, several-stage procedures in making decisions, to insure that the distribution of institutes and enrollees would be completely equitable during the first year of the program. It will be more possible to work this out over the total 4-year period for which the NDEA legislation provides. It is the responsibility of the persons administering this program in the U.S. Office of Education to make good decisions about the location of institutes, taking all relevant factors into consideration. A fair geographical distribution is just one of these factors. What the enrollment data for the first summer's Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes do indicate clearly is that all parts of the country were served and that there was no serious overconcentration of benefits in any one area.

CHAPTER 5

Staff and Program

Faculties

THE FIRST CONSIDERATION of the actual operation of the Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes might be the information about the faculties: the directors were persons with excellent professional qualifications; all held doctor's degrees, and 86 percent held academic positions at the associate professor level or higher; 94 percent were members of the American Psychological Association, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, or both.

The total number of regular faculty members listed in the technical reports of the institutes is 254, not including consultants and special lecturers. In some cases, the reports do not make clear just what fraction of each person's time was devoted to institute activities. Thus our estimate of the number of full-time staff positions required for the total program is only approximate, somewhat more than 200. By dividing the number of enrollees, 2,210, by this figure, an overall student-staff ratio of about 10 or 11 to 1 is obtained. This is a rather meaningless index, however, as the objectives of the individual institutes were so different that staff needs varied widely. One large institute without a practicum, for example, handled 100 enrollees with a staff of 5 faculty members and 5 graduate students. Another institute of a different type, with a very heavy emphasis on supervised practice, used 5 faculty members to instruct 24 enrollees.

The academic fields represented by the faculty members are also of some interest. With regard to their regular teaching appointments, by far the largest number came from college of education faculties, and the next largest from departments of psychology and educational psychology. Academic appointments of some faculty members were in departments specifically labeled "counseling" or "guidance," and a few whose appointments were in administration, testing, or actual counseling work.

It must be recognized, however, that the department in which a person holds his academic appointment is not a very accurate indicator of his professional affiliation. The administrative patterns of colleges and universities are so different that the same background of education and experience may in one place go with the title professor of education; in another, professor of psychology; and in still another, director of counselor training. Psychologists actually played a larger part in the institute program than suggested by their second-place rank based on department affiliation. Of the 254 faculty members in the institutes, 161 are members of the American Psychological Association. The kind of training most of the institutes were trying to provide seems to fall within an area where psychology and education overlap. Persons who possess this kind of specialized knowledge, whether they identify themselves with psychology or with education faculties, have the most to contribute to counselor education. As suggested in a later chapter of this report, the bridging of what in some colleges is a large gap between education and psychology departments may be one of the significant indirect effects of the institute program.

The consultants and special lecturers were drawn from a much wider variety of backgrounds and positions. Almost all of the institutes made use of such special contributors, but there was great diversity in the extent to which they were used. Some listed only 1 or 2, others more than 20 supplementary speakers.

The great majority of these auxiliary faculty members were college professors. As with the regular staff, there were more representatives from education than from any other school or department, but psychologists, if we include educational psychologists, again made up almost as large a group. The numbers from any one area or department, other than education and psychology, are very small, but the areas themselves are numerous. Sociology and anthropology, chemistry, agriculture, physics, mathematics, engineering, zoology, genetics, psychiatry, finance, political science, speech, foreign language, music, drama, and art, as well as a number of other fields of knowledge, were represented in one institute or another. Other nonteaching members of university staffs were also widely used for supplementary lectures. Many of them were counselors or student personnel workers, but deans, directors of testing programs, and directors of speech and reading clinics—to name only a few—were among these participants.

The next most numerous category of the auxiliary faculty included public school workers of many kinds. Directors of guidance services were often called upon, and principals and superintendents, school psychologists, and directors of special programs, some of whom were local, and some State officials.

In addition to these educational workers, representatives of community services, such as clinics and counseling centers; representatives of test publishing companies, U.S. Government officials, and leaders in educational and professional organizations were participants in many places.

In summary, the picture most typical of institute staffs shows a core of able, experienced counselor trainers devoting full or half time to their duties, surrounded by a group of supplementary speakers representing a wide variety of backgrounds and viewpoints.

Curriculum

What did the counseling and guidance training institutes attempt to teach? The first conclusion drawn from a study of the technical reports is that schedules were much more highly organized than is customary in college work. Course work usually offered under three or four different labels might be pulled together into one course because of its special significance for counselors. Interspersed between lectures on counseling techniques or on mental tests might come a school guidance director's explanation of practices in a particular city or State system, or a social worker's talk on community referral facilities. The same basic concepts would be presented in lectures, discussed in small group seminars, and applied in practicum activities. The schedules worked out for enrollees were often complex, but with careful planning their many strands were woven into an intelligible pattern. (A few sample time schedules can be found in app. C.)

This complexity makes it difficult to summarize in conventional terms what the curricula of the institutes consisted of. By breaking down the list of offerings into the areas under which MacMinn and Ross classify their survey data on courses offered in 152 counselor training institutions,[1] it is possible to rank these areas according to the frequency with which they appeared in the programs of the 50 institutes. Table 7 shows these ranks along with those that MacMinn and Ross found for regular counselor training programs. (While the discussions in the technical reports do not always tell just how much time or emphasis a given area received, they do show whether or not it was given some special consideration in the planning of the total program.)

It is evident that there is a fairly high relationship for both the high- and the low-ranking areas.[1] "Counseling" and "Analysis of

[1] MacMinn, Paul, and Ross, Roland G. *Status of Preparation Programs for Guidance and Student Personnel Workers.* Bulletin, 1959, No. 7. U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare. U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1959.

the Individual" occupy the top two places in each list. "Placement" and "Followup and Evaluation" rank low in each. The two areas where large differences in rank occur are "Methods of Research" and "Practicum."

Table 7.—Areas of Preparation Rank Order for Master's Programs in 152 Counselor Training Institutions (MacMinn and Ross, Op. Cit., p. 23) and in Institutes

Area of preparation	Rank order (counselor training institutions)	Rank order (institutes)
Counseling	1	2
Analysis of the Individual	2	1
Educational and Occupational Information	[1] 3. 5	4
Philosophy and Principles	[1] 3. 5	5. 5
Organization and Administration	5	7
Methods of Research	6	10
Psychological Foundations	7	5. 5
Practicum	8	3
Group Procedures	9	8
Sociological Foundations	10	9
Placement	11	11. 5
Followup and Evaluation	12	13
Economic Foundation	13	11. 5

[1] An error in the table from which these ranks were taken has been corrected here.

The difference in rank for "Research" is probably less significant than it appears at first glance. It is true that very few institutes offered special courses in research methods, but they did bring research methods, concepts, and findings into other courses. There was a good deal of emphasis on statistics in the testing courses classified under "Anaylsis of the Individual." Many of the directors were strongly research oriented and many of the enrollees participated enthusiastically in research projects growing out of the institute experience itself, such as evaluation and followup studies.

The reports show "Practicum" to be not only one of the three most frequent offerings, but also likely to occupy a central place in institute plans. In a good part of the 33 institutes where practicum was offered, it tended to be the focus around which the rest of the work was organized. The high rank accorded to practicum in institute programs is one the features to be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

The kinds of course ranking below 4 in table 7 were infrequently offered. Only 10 of the 50 institutes offered courses in either "Psychological Foundations" or "Philosophy and Principles." Still fewer offered any of the others. None had a designated course in the "Followup" area, though many enrollees helped to plan followup

projects. Because of the way in which programs were organized and the extensive use made of special lecturers, films, field trips, and the like, it is safe to assume that at least a limited amount of material from these special areas did actually find its way into institute programs.

There is one special area not appearing among the MacMinn and Ross categories that received considerable emphasis in institutes because of the expressed purpose of the National Defense Education Act. In one way or another, most institutes arranged to devote some special attention to high-ability students. In a number of cases, special courses were developed for this purpose. In other instances, study of talented students was part of other courses. Several institutes emphasized this aspect of a counselor's work in their practicum activities, selecting high school clients of high academic ability. Probably all enrollees gained some awareness of the part counseling may play in the lives of able students.

Classification in terms of categories like those shown in table 7 does not reveal interesting differences between courses given the same label. In one instance a course on "Educational and Vocational Information" may consist only of detailed factual information about the "Dictionary of Occupational Titles," the sources of pamphlets about vocations, and the ways in which filing systems for occupational materials are set up. In another, a course with the same title may focus on the vocational choice process and the influence of many psychological and sociological factors on it. A course labeled "Mental Measurement" may consist in one place of lectures on statistics as it applies to the construction of tests; in another, of practice in synthesizing test information from individual students' cumulative records into meaningful patterns. In general, within any one of the areas considered important for counselor preparation, some institutes presented factual, systematic information, others challenging problems and practice in solving them. The possibility of carrying out the latter plan within the institute framework was recognized by many of the faculty members.

Graduate Credit

The policy of the Office of Education was to leave the matter of granting credit for institute work strictly to the sponsoring institutions. It is interesting to note that all 50 of these institutions did grant graduate credit for completion of the institute programs. The amount of credit and the requirements varying in accordance with

regular summer school practices in the institutions in question. All but a very small number of the enrollees received graduate credit.

There was some difficulty in fitting the program that has been described into the framework of course titles and course numbers with which registrars work, but in each college or university this was worked out to the satisfaction of administrative authorities. But it will almost certainly be found that when institute enrollees present themselves for further graduate work, some of the knowledge and skills they bring will be different from the work ordinarily represented by the course titles on their transcripts. Their advisers and instructors may wish to inquire about the actual content of the institute courses for which standard course titles were used. It is likely that enrollees will differ from the average graduate student in some areas of preparation.

CHAPTER 6

Costs

THE TOTAL EXPENDITURES for the 1959 short-term Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes were $2,157,076. Because this was a contract program, all costs incurred by the training institutions providing the instruction are included in this figure. Since title V(B) specified that stipends should be paid to enrollees and their dependents, these costs too are included in the total costs.

Figure 1 shows the proportion of costs for each purpose. Almost 72 percent of the expenditures were for stipends, $1,087,236, or 50.4 percent for enrollees themselves; $459,680, or 21.3 percent for their dependents. In selecting enrollees, no limit was placed on the number of dependents for whom allowances would be paid. The average number of dependents for the 2,160 enrollees who received stipends was 2.1. It is to be noted that stipend totals include all payments made to enrollees. There was no allowance for travel or for any other expenses they may have incurred.

The $515,424 labeled "Direct Costs" in figure 1 covers the salaries of institute directors and faculty members; travel allowances for faculty; fees and deposits required by the training institution; supplies, materials and equipment. The $94,736 item labeled "Indirect Costs" covers the part of the general operating expense that institutions were entitled to charge to this particular account. Such costs were allocated in accordance with standard cost accounting procedures. It can be seen from figure 1 that the amount paid to the training institutions to cover direct and indirect costs constituted slightly over 28 percent of the total expenditures for the institute program.

The financial reports from the 50 separate institutions show that there was considerable variation in costs from place to place. There would be little to be gained by a detailed analysis of these variations, however, since they are based on many factors. The most important of these factors is the type of institute that was conducted. It has already been noted that it is not possible to classify the institutes into

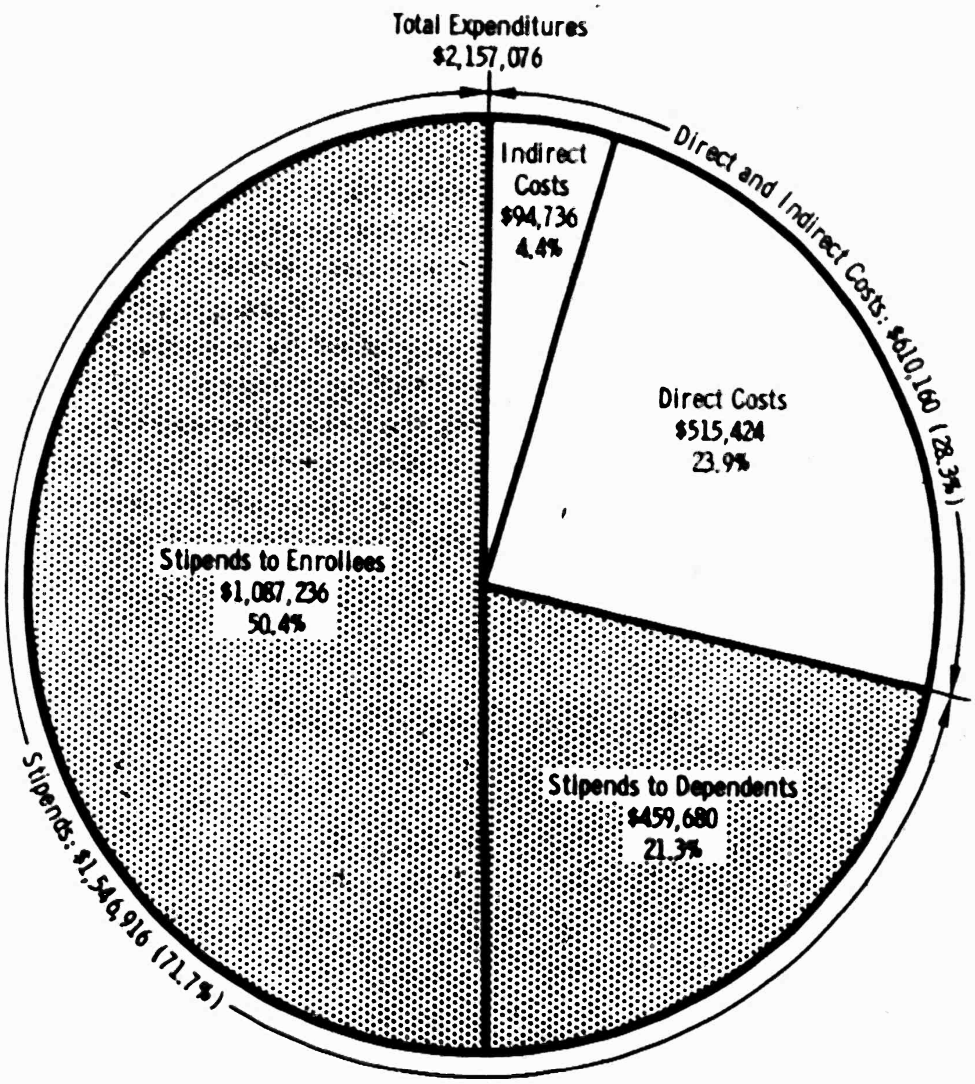

Figure 1.—Expenditures for the short-term institutes in the summer of 1959

a few standard categories. Some institutes called for much more individual instruction and supervision than others, and were naturally more expensive to operate. Institutes with a heavy emphasis on special lecturers and consultants required more funds for salaries and travel allowances to be used for this purpose. The reports also show that there is considerable variation in general salary levels. Since the faculty of each institute were paid in accordance with the regular summer session salary schedule for their institution, the same

course might cost more to offer at one institute than another. Thus no overall norm or standard for the costs of instruction can be set up.

The question "How much is your program going to cost?" was not the first or most basic consideration used in evaluating proposals for institutes. As has been stressed in earlier sections, the emphasis was on needs of an area, and a plan through which such needs could be met.

There was no attempt to secure instruction at bargain rates. The representatives of the Office of Education who examined the proposed budgets expected that salaries and other costs would be set at the standard rate for the sponsoring institution. If some scaling down of expenses was necessary, it was accomplished by reducing the size of a proposed program rather than by changing its nature.

No research funds were budgeted for the Counseling and Guidance Institutes program, since the law made no provision for research under this title. Stipends to enrollees and direct and indirect costs of instruction were the only things for which institute funds could be spent.

PART 3

PART III.—A CLOSER LOOK

CHAPTER 7

Area Needs and Institute Objectives

WITH THE BASIC FACTS about the Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes in mind, a more complete descriptive account of their work may now be considered. Each of the chapters of this section includes first, features that characterized all or most of the separate programs, and then, discussion of some constructive ideas that were tried in one or only a few institutes.

As previously indicated, an institution initiated its planning for an institute with a consideration of the special needs of the area it would serve. While not all institute directors make clear in their reports how they went about this task of determining needs, many of them do give information and suggestions that will be helpful to others.

As one of the most common procedures, the institute director set up an advisory committee to share in the planning. The membership of such committees varied, but usually the State guidance director and some representative of school administrators in the area were included, along with persons from the training institution itself. Another commonly reported technique was for the institute director to interview guidance directors and school administrators in order to find out what they considered the needs of the area to be. Questionnaires and letters were used, and in at least one instance, a questionnaire was sent to all school counselors in the State, asking them what they would suggest as the objectives for an institute. In several instances, invitational conferences were held for the purpose of discussing guidance needs. In some situations it was possible to make use of a survey that had previously been made by some educational organization or agency.

The more one considers this problem of discovering what the guidance needs of an area are, the more complex it becomes. Who is in the best position to assess such needs? School administrators are important because they get guidance activities into the school schedule and hire the guidance personnel, but they often do not agree with one another or with guidance workers as to just what guidance is. Counselors themselves, if they are relatively untrained, are very likely to be

unaware of their own deficiencies. Guidance directors are perhaps the best sources of information, but in areas where counseling services are underdeveloped, there may be few if any guidance directors to consult. Probably the best procedure is to use a combination of several sources of information. After that, those who are formulating proposals for institutes must be responsible for the final decisions as to what needs they propose to meet.

It seems desirable that institute directors work very closely with representatives of the State departments of education who are planning the uses to be made of money they obtain under title V(A) of the NDEA. The expansion of guidance programs in specified directions creates needs for certain kinds of personnel. These special needs can often be met in part by institute training. A few reports indicate that such cooperative planning occurred in 1959. With more time available for planning in subsequent years, this kind of cooperation should become more common.

The value of delineating as precisely as possible the needs of a specified area inevitably comes into conflict with the value of obtaining stimulating differences of viewpoint by drawing enrollees from various geographic areas. The best possible job of basing objectives on needs that are well understood can only be done if all enrollees are drawn from the area the institute has been planned to serve. A few places followed this plan and accepted only applicants from the State in which the institute was held. (One limited the area much more sharply than this, and selected from only one county.) A more common procedure involved some sort of compromise, such as giving preference to residents of the State, but accepting outside applicants if they ranked high on other selection criteria. Wisely, it would appear, the Office of Education left this decision to the training institutions.

What kinds of objectives are stated in the reports of the 1959 summer Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes? They can be roughly classified as follows:

Competencies Related to the "Identification" Purpose of Title V:

Selecting, administering, scoring, and interpreting results of psychological and educational tests.

Understanding the role of testing—organizing and appraising a school testing program. Comprehension of the nature of individual intelligence, aptitudes, talents—the theory of testing analyzing test profiles.

Nontesting appraisal procedures in guidance.

The use of cumulative records and the synthesis of data from a variety of sources.

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Competencies Related to the "Encouragement" Purpose of Title V:

Developing counseling skills.

Using counseling skills to overcome special problems of the academically talented, such as emotional blocks leading to under-achievement.

Understanding the psychological factors involved in level of aspiration.

Educational planning.

Integrating test data in the counseling process.

Handling special kinds of local counseling problems.

Competencies in the Use of Educational and Vocational Information:

Information about distribution and utilization of talents.

Information about admission to college.

Financial aid information (college costs, scholarships, and student loans).

Use of group guidance techniques in information services.

Other Competencies Related to Guidance of Able Youth:

The process of program expansion—cooperating with classroom teachers, parents, and civic organizations; utilizing community resources; the counselor's leadership role in inservice training for teachers.

Using group test data for adaptations in teaching—role of testing in curriculum planning for able students and in academic organization for teaching the gifted.

Relating relevant research findings to the work of the school counselor in the guidance of able youth.

Evaluating counseling.

Developing a workable philosophy of guidance.

Understanding the psychosocial dynamics of human waste.

Understanding the influence of social class and cultural handicaps upon motivation.

This listing, by no means complete, will perhaps give the reader some idea of the great variety of institute objectives. Although they are worthy aims, many of them are pitched at too high a level of abstraction to serve as useful guides in the planning of programs. It is important that the individuals and committees who formulate institute proposals try to state their objectives in terms of behavioral changes in enrollees as a result of their training. The formulation of reasonable objectives in concrete behavioral terms is an extremely difficult task. But it is not unrealistic to expect that it can be done more clearly in each successive year, as faculty members in institutes learn from enrollees what the day-to-day activities of high school counselors are like.

CHAPTER 8

Selection and Assessment of Enrollees

THE SECOND MAIN feature of the Counseling and Guidance Institute programs to be examined in some detail is the way in which information about individual applicants and enrollees was obtained and used. It was necessary to have at least a minimum of background information about each applicant to determine whether or not he qualified for training under the provisions of the law. Title V(B), section 511, specifies that institutes are "for the provision of training to improve the qualifications of personnel engaged in counseling and guidance of students in secondary schools, or teachers in such schools preparing to engage in such counseling and guidance." In order to make more explicit the decision as to who could be included in one or the other of these categories, the Office of Education set up the following criteria:[1]

> To meet the condition "engaged in counseling and guidance in a secondary school" it is necessary that the person be an employee of a secondary school who is devoting not less than half-time to counseling and guidance. To meet the condition "preparing to engage in counseling and guidance," the person must be a regularly employed teacher in a secondary school who has successfully completed some graduate level preparation for counseling and guidance, and who can furnish additional evidence of intention to do counseling and guidance in a secondary school.

Based upon the above policy, criteria of eligibility of enrollees were developed by the institution with the advice of the Office of Education. Institutions were encouraged to work out their own methods for assembling a group of students most likely to benefit from the particular training to be offered. The majority of the institutes went about this business of selection by first of all arranging for as widespread publicity as possible, so that many qualified persons would apply. They used newspaper stories, announcements in organization newsletters, and letters to various persons—school superintendents, high school principals, guidance directors, and

[1] The National Defense Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes Program. Basic Facts. OE-25002. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1959. pp. 2 and 3.

counselors. In each case, a brochure or printed announcement was prepared and sent to all inquirers. Those who indicated that they were eligible and interested received application blanks.

An alternative method, used alone in a few instances and in combination with the "general publicity" plan in others, was to ask school administrators to nominate persons in their schools and request them to apply. In places where the needs and objectives focused sharply on the upgrading of one particular area, it was an advantage to invite particular key persons to participate rather than to leave the matter to individual choice. If there was any fear that persons so nominated would show less enthusiasm or lower morale than those who volunteered, the reports do not indicate that the fear was justified.

Where the basic procedure was publicity leading to applications, a real selection problem faced the institute director. The number of applications was often many times greater than the number an institute could accommodate. The list of applicants had to be drastically cut. Most commonly a selection committee took over this job. They eliminated some persons as ineligible under the law as it had been interpreted, ruling out those who had not been doing at least some counseling, who were not to be assigned to counseling duties for at least half time the following year, or who had taken no previous guidance courses. In many instances applicants were asked to furnish statements from their school administrators indicating that they had in fact been assigned to at least half-time counseling. Administrators themselves were ineligible under the law, but the decision as to the eligibility of a vice principal or dean of boys was based on his duties rather than upon his title.

The extra procedures that were used to select from among those who remained after the technical ground rules had been applied make up a rich and varied picture. In practically all institutes, evidence of the applicant's capacity for graduate work was obtained, and in many an attempt was made to obtain some evidence with regard to the person's motivation in applying. It was feared that for some applicants the appeal of the institute might lie more in the stipend than in the opportunity for training.

In many instances there was also an effort to assess personality characteristics. The importance of personality factors in counseling success has been generally recognized, but it has proved to be very difficult, here or elsewhere, to accurately determine just what they are. Different personality tests were used by some selection committees. In other cases, personal interviews were arranged for those who had come through the preliminary screening.

Various psychological tests were used, both as selection devices and as a means of obtaining additional information about enrollees after they had been selected. No one test was used with any great frequency, but the composite list for all 50 institutes is fairly extensive. For judging ability to do graduate work the Miller Analogies Test, the Graduate Record Examination, and the Concept Mastery Test were most frequently used. For evaluating personality characteristics, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory was the most frequent choice. In some places, the Strong or the Kuder was used to get information about the interests of applicants or enrollees. Where attitudes and values were assessed, there was some use of the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, and occasionally of standardized case materials, such as *The Case of Mickey Murphy* or *The Case of Barry Blake.* Achievement tests, constructed by faculty members to measure knowledge of principles and concepts in subject matter fields, were used in a number of places.

A number of nontest methods were also used in these preliminary assessments. In one institute, each enrollee selected was asked to send in tape recordings of interviews with his secondary school students so that the staff could plan his practicum experience wisely. In another, each enrollee was required to interview a client who, unknown to him, was playing a certain standardized role. Each counselor's reactions to this standard situation could be accurately rated. In still another institute an autobiography was obtained from each enrollee to give the staff some understanding of his background. In various other places such methods were tried as Q-sorts, sentence completion tests, situational tests (What would you do in this situation?), or questionnaires designed to reveal the respondent's conception of counseling.

The postselection assessment procedures served two purposes. The first was to give the faculty a better picture of the students in their classes. The second was to facilitate research. In many places a before-and-after design was worked out, so that the effects of institute experience could be appraised. Some of these research designs include plans for followup at periodic intervals. Such studies will eventually provide information about long range as well as immediate effects. (As explained earlier, title V(B) does not provide support for research undertakings, but some training institutions are able to arrange for them.)

It must be remembered that the foregoing account is a composite picture of activities in many places. Furthermore, future study and research will be necessary to judge which of these many assessment devices were most valuable for selection and for facilitating good

teaching. The institute reports on assessment procedures furnish us with a reservoir of ideas for those who wish to relate assessment devices to any aspect of counselor training. They may also constitute a forecast of the kind of knowledge we may expect to have about characteristics important for counseling success in the not-too-distant future, if all the research plans materialize.

CHAPTER 9

The Instructional Program

WHEN ONE TURNS his attention to the instructional programs that were offered in the 50 institutes, again the picture is one of rich diversity. No two of them were organized in precisely the same way. No two offered precisely the same courses and supplementary experiences. There were, however, certain features that characterized all, and others that were common enough to be considered dominant trends.

The first feature, common to all, was that institutes combined didactic instruction with small group interaction. This is the aspect of the institute program that differentiates it most sharply from the typical course a student takes in college. The enrollee did not just listen. He responded, reacted, participated.

The groups were of many different kinds, but they can be roughly classified under three headings. The first is the *content-oriented* group, with an assigned instructor or leader. Its purpose is mainly to provide for the kind of discussion through which important ideas can be explored and assimilated, to clear up errors and misconceptions, to deal with questions not anticipated by lecturers and textbook writers, and to provide for continuity in the total program. The principal obstacle to building such groups into an institute program is the difficulty of securing enough competent leaders. Not all qualified faculty members make good group leaders, and if some of the small groups are more rewarding to members than others are, discontent in the less successful groups is likely to appear.

The second kind of small group is the *self-oriented* group. Its purpose is to promote self-appraisal and an understanding of interpersonal relationships. Such groups furnish support for members who are undergoing difficult attitude changes. The problem that arises in the use of this kind of group in an institute program is that the time is too short to permit the complete working through of this essentially therapeutic process. Thus there is always the possibility that more anxiety may be mobilized in some group member than can

be dealt with in this limited situation. Nevertheless, many of the institute directors considered this an extremely important kind of enrollee experience and felt that it should be provided if at all possible. Good leaders are essential here also.

The third type of group is *task-oriented*. Such groups may listen to recorded interviews, prepare group reports, or analyze evaluation material. Special committees fall in this category. Leadership is less of a problem here, as these groups are student-directed. They enable their members to become acquainted and to learn from one another. Groups of this kind usually emerged in institutes, whether or not they had been provided for in the plans.

Seminar for exchange and integration of ideas and experiences gained during the summer.

Group activity was a feature of institute experience about which both staff and enrollees were almost unanimously enthusiastic. It would seem desirable that it be made a permanent feature of institute structure, and that provision for leaders of the kinds of groups an institute decides to use be carefully made.

A second common feature of all programs was emphasis on the interdisciplinary approach to counselor education. Most counselor-trainers would agree that breadth of view is essential, and that, along with education, such fields as psychology, sociology, anthropology, and psychiatry should be explored.

When it comes to specific plans and programs for institutes there is much less agreement as to what should be done. While all institutes made use of consultants and lecturers from various subject matter and professional areas, some placed much more emphasis upon the contributions of these representatives of the various disciplines.

We can consider separately the utilization of the special lecturers called in for a day or two to make one particular contribution, and those having to do with the full-time staff. Opinions varied widely as to how useful the special lectures were. In some places, their value was ranked high by both enrollees and staff members. In others, this feature was considered the weakest part of the program. The difference seems to depend on how well these special contributions are coordinated with the total program. In discussing this matter at the conclusion of the 1959 summer institutes, directors made various suggestions for accomplishing this integration of each part with the whole. At the time a lecturer is invited to participate, the contribution he is expected to make can be clearly specified. He can be given an outline of the whole course to provide him with the context in which his contribution will appear. Special lecturers should be chosen for the ideas and viewpoints they have to contribute and not just because they are considered to be "big names." It is helpful to have regular staff members attend all such special sessions, so that they can integrate the ideas presented with the main body of the course. Group discussions of the content-oriented variety, following soon after presentations by experts, assist enrollees in fitting the material into an intelligible pattern. Few if any of the institute directors would recommend giving up special lectures by representatives of different disciplines and professions, but most of them would recommend more attention to problems of integration than they received in the initial institutes.

As indicated in the previous chapter, the regular faculty members most in demand are those whose fields of specialization are in the area where education and psychology overlap. The psychology of development, individual differences, motivation, learning, and personality can be regarded as the "basic science" of the counseling profession. Thorough knowledge of tests and measurements, and competence in interviewing, along with a knowledge of how such competence can be acquired, are also most likely to be found in this area that is intermediate between psychology and education.

If this general idea is accepted, it can be a useful guideline in recruiting future institute staffs. As the number of institutes increases and the regular counselor education programs grow, it may be increasingly difficult to obtain staff. Even during this first year

of the program there was some competition for staff members who had made reputations for themselves in the special field of counselor education. In subsequent years, it is clear that there will not be enough of such people to go around. Those who plan institutes will need to turn their attention to less well-known faculty members whose special competence lies in some part of the area referred to above. The fact that such persons can be drawn from either education or psychology faculties and sometimes from other sources as well, widens the range of possibilities that can be considered. Increasing the participation of psychologists in what is primarily an education program will be to the advantage of both education and psychology. The institute program may constitute a bridge that will connect education and psychology departments and lead to more traffic in both directions than there has been in recent years.

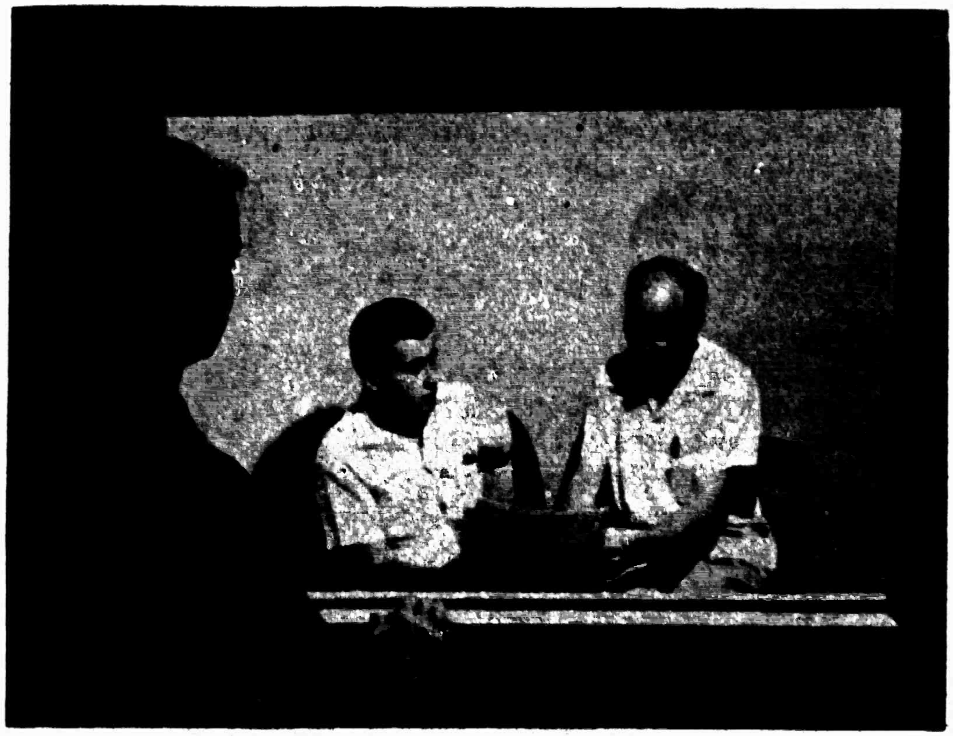
A third less prominent feature of the majority of institutes was field trips to educational institutions, counseling agencies, industries, and various other places of interest. Generally speaking, enrollees rated the value of this type of experience somewhat lower than other parts of the institute program, though there were notable exceptions, such as individual excursions which were considered to be among the high points of the summer.

A fourth feature of some institutes, not as common as those previously discussed, was a requirement that each enrollee work out a plan or project for his own particular school situation and write a paper about it. In many cases, opportunities to discuss these projects in individual interviews with staff members were provided.

Let us turn now to a particularly prominent part of the program offered by 33 of the institutes, a practicum in which enrollees counseled high school students under supervision. Although laboratory experiences, such as taking and giving tests, playing roles in interviews, and observing interviews by staff members, were included in practically all the institute programs, only those programs offering actual counseling experience are considered here as offering practicum.

What was a good practicum program like? First, certain kinds of physical facilities were needed. The first essential was that there be a sufficient number of individual counseling offices so that enrollees would have places to meet their high school clients. Another essential or almost-essential, was tape recorders. All institutes that offered practicum used this equipment so that enrollees could play back their interviews with clients as many times as they liked. Typically enrollees were apprehensive about this at the beginning but became more and more convinced of the value of the experience as they continued. In addition to this equipment to make auditory

observation possible, 13 of the institutes offering practicum used one-way vision facilities. The enrollee's supervisor and some of his fellow students could sit on the dark side of a one-way vision screen or mirror and look on as well as listen.



Observation of an interview in a one-way vision room.

High school clients were most commonly obtained by preparing ahead of time an announcement about the availability of the counseling service and circulating it through high schools in the city where the institute was to be held. Often parents were invited to participate in the counseling experience. In circumstances where this procedure for obtaining counselees was not feasible, high school students enrolled in special summer programs at the college were sometimes drawn in. Many institutes made a special attempt to secure gifted students for the practicum program so that counseling directed toward the utilization of talent could be specifically emphasized.

The operation of a practicum center made it possible for an institute to involve the enrollee in several different kinds of learning experience. He could observe interviews conducted by others, and learn from both their successes and their mistakes. He could play back his own tape-recorded interview as many times as he liked and thus have an opportunity to comprehend the full complexity of

what had occurred. He could discuss a tape-recorded interview with his supervisor and benefit from the comments a more experienced person had to make. And he could present a case in all its vivid reality for discussion by the small group to which he belonged.

Discussion with a supervisor of a tape-recorded interview.

Enrollees and staff members in institutes that included practicum experience in their programs tended to think of this as by far the most significant part of their summer experience. It was the vehicle through which old attitudes were shaken up and eventually modified. It was the core around which new ideas were organized. It was a source of self-knowledge and eventually of self-confidence. Again and again, committees considering counselor education have emphasized the importance of practicum, but the fact remains that a considerable proportion of high school counselors have never experienced it. One of the major services of the Counseling and Guidance

Institutes program was to bring this experience to persons whose previous training institutions had not been able to provide it.

There were, of course, problems and difficulties with regard to this activity. Those who planned institute programs often found a practicum to be far more time consuming for both enrollees and staff than they had anticipated. Thus enrollees found it increasingly difficult to keep up both their studying and their casework, while staff members found themselves putting in a far larger number of hours each week than a teaching position usually requires. The participation in actual decisions influencing the pattern of individual lives places on enrollees and supervisors a burden of responsibility that cannot be carried lightly. Furthermore, there are practical problems in obtaining enough high school students to serve as clients, and working out schedules for the use of offices and equipment.

One question discussed at some length by institute directors at their fall meeting following the institutes was whether or not a practicum of this kind could really be recommended for enrollees who were not at the advanced level. They were inclined to think that about 30 semester hours of a graduate program in guidance ought to precede such experience. They suggested that practice in testing and in guidance services other than counseling might be more appropriate for students with lower levels of training. (Some would label this kind of activity "pre-practicum" or "laboratory" to distinguish it from the more demanding experience.)

The issue has not been completely resolved, however. Even if we were sure that, ideally, only well-trained persons should be allowed to assume the kind of responsibility that actual counseling involves, the fact remains that teacher-counselors with little or no special preparation are in fact carrying on these activities and taking on these responsibilities in hundreds of high schools. It can thus be argued that, regardless of how poorly prepared these teachers are, they can benefit from supervised practice in the kinds of duties their jobs require. Several of the 1959 institutes did conduct practicum for minimally trained enrollees and reported good results.

As in all such areas where complete agreement does not exist about what is desirable policy for counselor training, the flexible, nonpermanent character of the institute program is one of its advantages. A training institution can include, in its proposal, plans for any kind of practicum activity that makes sense in relation to the needs and objectives outlined. Eventually evidence may accumulate that will support one practice over another. At present it can be said with some assurance that practicum experience constitutes a powerful tool for modifying the attitudes and practices of counselors. It is proba-

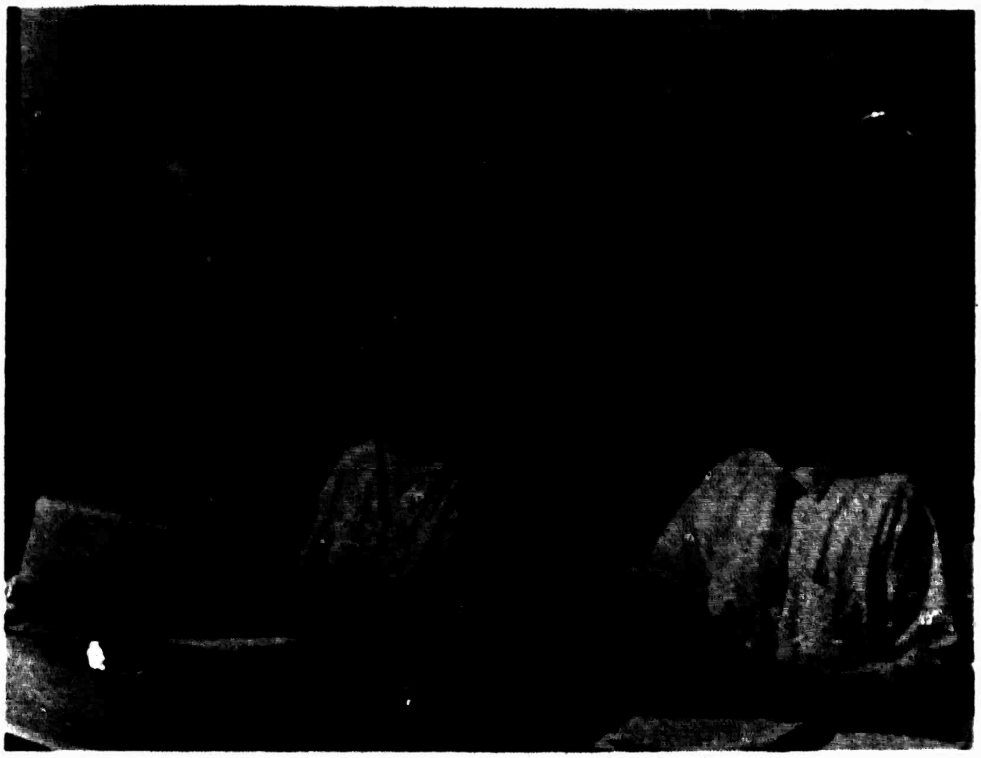
bly a tool that has been insufficiently used in the past. Like all sharp tools, it involves certain hazards. And like all training in skills, it requires a large investment of time on the part of both teachers and pupils.

Demonstration of individual testing.

To describe for summary purposes a composite institute, one might say that it was directed toward several objectives, that it offered about three graduate-level guidance courses and combined them with laboratory and practicum activities, special lectures by experts in particular fields, and one or more kinds of small group experience. There were a few institutes that departed rather widely from this most common pattern. A few were focused specifically on the use of tests, and included much more statistical content than was customary. One was designed specifically for improving the interview skills of experienced counselors. Several centered their course offerings on the gifted student. In one such instance, the enrollees were from high schools where a large-scale cooperative study of the academically talented student is going on. In another, the whole program was organized around the problem of identifying and developing individual talents in underprivileged groups. A few concentrated on beginning counselors or teachers with no previous counseling experience.

There were certain program features that might be of interest to counselor educators generally, even though they were used in only one

or two institutes. One such practice was to arrange for high school students themselves to appear before the group and present a panel discussion. It appeared to be of real value to obtain these firsthand student views about education generally, and collegegoing and counseling in particular. Another practice mentioned in a few reports was to make available some sort of counseling experience for the enrollees themselves. In one institute, enrollees discussed their own abilities, attitudes, interests, and plans with regular counselors of the college counseling bureau. In other places it was concern about enrollee attitudes that led the staff to make personal counseling available. Where this was done, the directors were inclined to recommend that some group therapy be incorporated in the design of the institute. Attitudes are all-important in counseling, and the institute experience, because it is so intense, is likely to stir up feelings that an enrollee may find difficult to cope with alone.



Laboratory experience in making computations in a course in statistics.

One of the interesting developments reported by most of the directors was that unplanned extracurricular activities that reinforced the learning process spontaneously occurred. There was a lively informal variety of social interaction. Enrollees spent the entire day

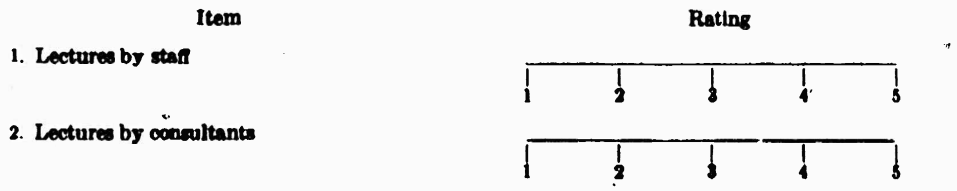
together. In many places, most of them lived in a college dormitory, so that their evenings were also spent in one another's company. In this climate friendships matured rapidly. Firm bonds were forged even in the short period of the institute's duration. For many participants this was an important outcome, perhaps the most satisfying one of all.

CHAPTER 10

Appraisal of Institute Effects

ONE HEALTHY FEATURE of the 1959 summer Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes was their concern about self-appraisal. In every case there was a planned effort to find out how successfully objectives were being achieved. Arrangements were made for continuous week-by-week evaluation of the ongoing program and for final evaluation at the conclusion of the session. Appraisals were made by staff, by enrollees, and sometimes by outside experts invited in to look the program over. The data collected included reactions to the total program, to separate aspects of it, such as planning and organization, physical facilities and the like, and to separate features, such as courses, seminars, practicum, and field trips.

Many ingenious methods were worked out for obtaining this evidence. The standard quantitative technique is a rating, and many varieties of rating forms appear in the reports. Most of them were variations of graphic scales. As an example, enrollees were asked to make checkmarks corresponding to their opinions on items like the following:



In order to get more differentiated reactions to various aspects or features of the institute, ranking methods were often used. Even persons highly favorable toward the whole experience were thus forced to distinguish between things they liked best about it and things they liked less. In many instances both ratings and rankings were used—ratings to evaluate the overall level of response, rankings to pick up distinctions between different features.

Besides these numerical measures of attitudes, procedures designed to elicit a freer sort of response were tried. In a few instances, enrollees were asked to keep diaries from week to week. These often reflected feelings about what was going on, such as anxieties and misgivings, new insights and convictions. A more commonly used method was a variation of the incomplete sentences technique that has proved so useful in the projective assessment of personality. A blank would be prepared using items of the following type:

1. The institute experience I valued most highly was _____
2. The most disturbing thing to me was _____
3. I still feel a need for _____

Responses to such items can be rated by institute staff for general positive attitude toward the experience, or they can be read primarily for qualitative content, to facilitate an understanding of what each enrollee's experience was like.

In one institute, enrollees discussed the institute in a session led by an outsider. These discussions were tape recorded and analyzed.

Most of the appraisal plans included some method of analyzing changes that occurred during the institute session. The most common technique was a comprehensive examination based on the material presented in the courses, given at the beginning and again at the end. An increase in score constituted a straightforward indication that students had learned something from their experience.

The measurement of changes in attitudes and feelings about counseling is a more difficult task, but one considered to be highly important by a number of institute directors. No one method of such measurement was used in a majority of the programs, but several ingenious plans were tried out in individual situations. One obvious possibility is to use a standardized test such as the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory on two occasions. Another is to repeat some of the rating and ranking procedures outlined above.

In addition to these techniques, some new ones were adapted from other areas of personality research. One of these is the Q-sort procedure. Through an analysis of the way in which a subject sorts into separate piles personality items that have been written on separate cards, a picture of his *self-concept* is obtained. He can also be asked to sort the items in such a way as to describe his ideal self. When the sorting procedure is repeated at a later date, changes can be analyzed, both in the subject's self-concept and in the degree of resemblance between actual and ideal selves. This technique would seem to have some promise for evaluating the kinds of changes an institute hopes to facilitate.

Another interesting special technique is generally called a situational test, because the subject is asked to make his typical response to a standard situation with which he is presented. In a common paper-and-pencil form, each item consists of a few sentences spoken by a counselee during a counseling interview. Space is left for the counselor to write in what he would have said at this point. These responses can be classified according to some predetermined system. In one place, a test of this type was used in a research study of the effects of institute experience. It indicated that there were statistically significant increases in the frequency of *understanding* responses, accompanied by decreases in the frequency of *evaluating*, *interpreting*, *supporting*, and *probing* responses. In this particular institute, the first half of the time was devoted to course work, the last half to practicum. It is interesting to note that the major shift in the nature of the responses enrollees made came during the course work even before the practicum had started.[1]

In several places, attempts were made to assess changes in the way counselors understood the counseling role. One technique was to ask enrollees to make up time distribution sheets for counselor positions, and then to repeat the procedure when the institute was over. Decreases occurred in the amounts of time assigned to peripheral activities of a clerical and administrative nature; increases, in actual counseling activities. One institute made use of a questionnaire about who should handle problems of various sorts. Another used a special questionnaire to reveal the respondent's perception of the counselor's task.

In several places, attempts were made to evaluate changes in actual counseling skills as well as in knowledge and attitudes. Ratings by the staff and sometimes peer evaluations were used here. In one institute a standardized interview situation was devised to measure what enrollees actually did.

This descriptive account of appraisal procedures in the 50 institutes can do little more than to give the reader some conception of how diverse and interesting they were. Institute staffs were interested in evaluating their work, and they tried out all sorts of ideas. The fact that no two of them used exactly the same procedures makes it impossible to summarize in any but the most general terms what they found. Two conclusions can be stated with certainty: The first is that appraisals of institutes by enrollees were extremely favorable. The modal response was one showing enthusiastic approval of programs as a whole and of most parts and aspects taken separately. The

[1] This might indicate that counseling students pick up fairly easily the attitudes of their teachers. They learn what they are expected to say.

second general conclusion is that changes in knowledge, attitude, and skill did occur. Wherever and however attempts were made to measure them, significant differences between initial and final measures were found.

These conclusions should not make one lose sight of the variability of the appraisal data. Some enrollees registered very unfavorable attitudes toward the experience they had undergone, even in situations where almost everybody else described it in glowing terms. Some institutes evoked less enthusiasm than others in the participants. Some parts of the programs were rated considerably lower than others. As one reads the reports, he begins to suspect that these unfavorable ratings do not reflect discredit on the institute programs where they occurred, but they do pose problems for concern. One particular institute, for example, where a good many of the enrollee ratings were somewhat negative, had selected counselors from States that constitute an underdeveloped area, so far as guidance is concerned, and then attempted to present course work that would show them what professional training for counselors is really like. Many of these enrollees did not meet the standards such courses set and were graded accordingly. The experience was undoubtedly painful for some individuals, but perhaps it was essential if improvements are to come. In several other cases, differential evaluations of separate parts of the program resulted in a more negative evaluation of the measurement and statistics courses than of other parts of the program. Yet it seems clear that in present-day high schools, with their extensive testing programs, this is essential knowledge for counselors, whether they like it or not.

Furthermore, the feelings should not be ignored of those few individuals who were unhappy and extremely critical in situations that were congenial and stimulating to the majority. We are tempted to conclude that they do not belong in the counseling profession, but we do not really know this. In the long run, either selection methods should screen out such persons at the beginning, or training methods allow them to progress in their own ways.

The amount and kind of appraisal that could be carried out while institutes were in progress was necessarily limited. The real test of their value will be the accomplishments of the participants after they return to their own schools. Fortunately, followup procedures have been planned for most if not all of the 50 institutes. In many cases the enrollees themselves made these arrangements before they separated. It reflects their strong feeling that this was such an important experience in their lives that they wished to make permanent the friendships and the kinds of mutual stimulation they had learned to

prize. In addition to this social and inspirational function, followup plans in several places specifically provide for the collection of research data. Tests and attitude measures used during or at the close of the institute are to be repeated at various intervals to measure long-term changes. Information of various sorts about counseling duties is to be collected. These individual followup studies will be of great interest to all those who are concerned with counselor training.

Here, as in the other areas, some novel ideas about followup plans have emerged. In one State, guidance programs in individual schools are to be evaluated, according to a predetermined set of standards, by visiting committees made up of institute enrollees from other schools. In some States, administrators in the school where enrollees serve will be asked to make comments. Since title V(B) of the National Defense Education Act does not provide for the use of any funds for research purposes, such investigations of institute effects must necessarily be the responsibility of the training institutions rather than of the Office of Education. It is gratifying to find that research of this kind has been considered in so many places.

There is one difficulty that arises in trying to draw firm conclusions about the value of the short-term institutes. We cannot assess with certainty the value of the outcomes without one or more control groups for comparison purposes. Two kinds of questions, then, are apparent to any skeptic. First, are changes in institute enrollees significantly greater than changes that occur in similar persons undergoing no special kind of educational experience during the same interval? Second, are changes in institute enrollees significantly greater than changes that occur in similar persons registered in regular summer session courses in counselor education?

Though we must maintain some skepticism until long-range and control group studies have been done, we need not hesitate to say that the qualitative character of the institute experience was memorable. The spontaneous statements of both enrollees and faculty members testify to its unusual vividness. Many instructors remarked that while they had never worked so hard at summer teaching jobs, they had never enjoyed their work so much. The enrollee's eagerness to learn met the instructor's eagerness to teach, and an exciting interchange occurred.

In addition to the high ratings of institute programs and the changes in institute participants, many directors took note of other results. Enrollees, besides adding to their knowledge and skill, and changing their attitudes about many aspects of counseling and human relations, became more professional in their outlook. This was indicated in a number of ways. Many of them worked out plans for fur-

ther graduate training. They became aware of their limitations and realized what complete preparation for counseling would entail. Thus for many the institute was just the beginning of a planned program leading to a master's degree, State certification, or some other tangible evidence of full professional status.

Many enrollees joined professional organizations on the national or the State level, or both. A sense of professional identity as a counselor developed. The person formed a new image of himself and his role, an image that could be distinguished from that of the teacher or of the school administrator. At least one State guidance association was revitalized as a result of the interest the enrollees developed.

There were some other indirect effects that seemed to many institute directors to be important, Guidance took on a new and more respected meaning in the schools and in the communities from which enrollees came. High school principals assigned counselors to half-time counseling duties in place of the period or two a day they had previously been allowed for it. Physical facilities and administrative arrangements were improved. Practicum centers where high school students were invited to come for counseling during the summer made parents as well as teachers and school administrators aware of the part counseling might play in the efforts of boys and girls to formulate good plans for their lives. Newspaper stories in the hundreds of towns and cities from which individual enrollees came brought guidance to the attention of citizens who had never thought about it before. While it would be hard to assess in any accurate way this indirect impact of the institute program on attitudes in school and community, there are many indications that it was an important outcome.

Another indirect effect was on training institutions and their ongoing programs for training counselors. In many instances persons from different university departments and from State offices of education cooperated in a way they had not considered possible before. Such cooperation tends to be maintained. Some of the techniques that worked best in institute classes are applicable to all classes in which the same subject matter is taught. The desire for further training on the part of enrollees will almost certainly increase the demand for summer session courses, apart from the institute program. There is some indication that even in 1959 the publicity the institutes received stimulated an unusual number of teachers to enroll voluntarily in guidance courses offered in the regular summer programs. While we cannot assess this outcome with any accuracy, it may well rank with the others in long-range significance.

PART 4

PART IV.—LOOKING TOWARD THE FUTURE

CHAPTER 11

Problems and Issues in Institute Operation

THE DIRECTORS AND FACULTY MEMBERS of short-term institutes were confronted during the first season of the program with certain persistent problems. The identification of these difficulties and the thinking that was done about them should prepare later faculties to handle them in the most satisfactory way possible. In many cases, specific suggestions can be made.

The first of these problems is the wide variation in ability, background, and temperament that turned out to be present even in groups that were expected to be homogeneous. As has been explained in chapter 8, special efforts were made to select, for any one institute, enrollees who would not be too different from one another in level of training. Courses were pitched at what the instructors thought would be an appropriate difficulty level for the group. But again and again the reports mention that the enrollees were far less alike than had been expected. For instance, even in a group consisting entirely of counselors with 5 to 10 years of experience, all of whom reported from 10 to 20 semester hours of previous course work in guidance, there would be marked individual differences.

In places where tests were given at the beginning of the institute, the extent of this range of individual differences could be well documented. In one institute, a high level test of academic aptitude produced a distribution of scores ranging from the 5th to the 95th percentile on norms for graduate students. Such a difference in the ability to understand abstract ideas and concepts is something an instructor cannot ignore. The student at the 5th-percentile point is completely lost when he grapples with material which the 95th-percentile student grasps with ease.

Differences in just what kinds of things individual students already knew also complicated the picture. Many training programs and State certification plans allow a good deal of latitude for qualifying training. It may be required, for example, that the person have on his record 15 graduate semester hours chosen from a list of areas

like the following: Principles of Guidance, Analysis of the Individual, Occupational Information, Counseling Techniques, Organization and Administration of Guidance Programs, Supervised Experience, Statistics, Group Guidance. In such a program it is quite possible for a person to become a certified counselor without ever having taken any statistics or participated in any supervised practicum experience. As has been said in an earlier chapter, these were the areas most often found to be deficient in institute enrollees, but many other gaps also showed up. Some had missed all contact with developmental psychology; some knew nothing about occupational and educational information; some had missed entirely the sociological aspects of guidance. Such gaps are especially likely to occur in the programs of persons whose professional education has been carried on in summer school sessions spread over a considerable period of time.

Add to these differences in general academic ability and in previous preparation the inevitable differences in temperament and values, and a considerable amount of diversity results. As school people who have struggled with this problem on all educational levels have found again and again, really homogeneous grouping is impossible. One can decrease the range of differences in a group but can never abolish it.

Several of the 1959 summer institutes tried to work out methods for adapting instruction to individual differences. One method that was used in a few places, ordinarily not feasible for a limited enrollment group organized as the institutes were, was to allow for some choice of courses. Thus one person, unfamiliar with measurement theory, could acquire this necessary knowledge while another was studying the psychology of the gifted. Another way of dealing with variations in academic ability and knowledge was to organize different sections of the same course, in measurement and statistics, for example, another technique, somewhat easier to incorporate in the basic institute plan, was to arrange for individual reading and conference sessions through which enrollees could be helped to fill in their own particular gaps.

In view of the situation that was encountered during the first summer, it seems desirable to build some provisions for flexible grouping or individual study into the plans of institutes. It is perhaps possible to improve selection procedures so that enrollees in any one institute are more alike than they were in the 1959 sessions, but it seems likely that there will always be differences that must be considered if the objectives of the program are to be achieved.

The second topic that has come up for much consideration following the 1959 institutes is enrollee motivation. Considered as a whole, this was certainly no problem. One of the major strengths of this educational undertaking was the high level of enthusiasm and esprit de corps that was attained. Institute directors identified many reasons—the constructive motives of many sorts that had led individuals to apply for the training in the first place; the selection procedures that allowed each person to feel that he was an important individual; the group experience, the idealism and sense of mission that each felt as a part of a significant national undertaking; and the enthusiasm and special effort that director and instructors put into the program. The unusually high level of motivation was an aspect of the institutes most commonly noted by staff and by enrollees in their appraisals.

However, there were some exceptions. As explained before, in almost every group there were a few persons who were unhappy about the whole situation, and in some places there were enough of them to pose a real problem. One possible reason for this was the stipend provision of the program, which had been of some concern at the outset. Would teachers apply simply in order to support themselves and their families throughout the summer as easily and painlessly as possible? It seems quite possible that this did happen in a few cases and that a person expecting to enjoy a pleasant vacation in the halls of knowledge was not able to reorient himself to the strenuous demands the situation placed upon him. There were among institute directors some few who recommended that stipends be drastically reduced in order to prevent such occurrences, but they were an extreme minority. In general, the motivational problems arising from the question of stipends were much less troublesome than anticipated.

This may have been because the selection procedures used in many places required from the applicant some statement of his motives in applying. From such expressions of purpose, a distinction can usually be made between persons who really desire the training and those who do not. Naturally it can never be 100 percent accurate, but it works fairly well. Other selection procedures, such as recommendations and personal interviews, also helped to screen out the stipend seekers.

A more troublesome kind of case was the individual whose whole personality seemed unsuited to counseling. In a number of instances it was found that certain enrollees, even some with a considerable amount of previous experience and training, were too rigid, inflexible, and defensive to gain anything from the institute experience. To such a person, the emphasis on growth and change constitutes a severe

threat. Instead of exposing himself to it, he entrenches himself even more firmly behind the walls he has built up.

Several kinds of suggestions for handling such situations have been made. They fall into three main classes. The first is better screening of applicants. It may be that a more extensive program of personality testing, including projective tests, would enable selection committees to identify persons of this kind; but the questionable validity of most such tests does not make for any certainty about this approach. It is worth trying. The second type of suggestion is that some provision be made for dropping enrollees who do not adapt well to the institute situation. This would require changes in the standard procedures. It is doubtful whether there is at present enough support to warrant making such changes. The third kind of suggestion, tried on a small scale in several places, is to provide more opportunity for *emotional* learning or reorientation within the institute program itself. This suggestion implies that the undesirable personality traits may not be as impervious to change as they appear, and that even should they turn out to be unshakable, the person can still be helped to change his direction and to move into some educational area where they do not constitute so great a handicap as in counseling. (One institute director cited among his favorable outcomes the fact that one enrollee had taken himself out of the counseling profession entirely.) It seems probable that several institutes in the future will try out different ways of setting up self-oriented groups or individual interviews to help enrollees deal with their own feelings. As yet it must be concluded, however, that there is no real consensus about how to handle the individuals whose personalities are obstacles to counseling success.

Another, less serious kind of motivational problem is commonly reported. Certain kinds of negative attitudes are generated by the institute experience itself. An enrollee in courses that require him to struggle with a bewildering succession of new ideas, and in a practicum group where his counseling skills are being questioned, analyzed and criticized may have his basic sense of adequacy severely threatened. Competitive grading systems increase this effect. A considerable amount of anxiety is natural in such a situation. How can the person best cope with it?

Resistance to change is not a monopoly of the rigid personalities considered above. All of us feel it, especially when ideas and skills of which we think we are sure are threatened. If growth is to occur, a person must overcome such resistance, and this is never easy.

Sometimes actual hostility arises even in basically nonhostile persons and they themselves are more alarmed than others at its appearance. Comments in institute reports would suggest that such hostile

attitudes were more likely to be directed against statistics and measurement courses [and those who taught them] than against any other part of the program. Perhaps some hostility toward things mathematical is dormant in many people, ready to be aroused with a minimum of stimulation.

It seems most important to recognize that these attitudes are part of the growth experience itself. Attempts to minimize them by cutting certain experiences out of the institute program would be ill advised. Counselors do need statistics, in our test-conscious world. The experience of listening to a tape-recorded interview, upsetting as it may be, is worth whatever anxiety it arouses. What institute planners can do, however, is to work out arrangements that will help staff and students deal with such feelings so that they do not get in the way of progress. We have already mentioned the use of some kinds of group meetings for this purpose. Such groups constitute a means of sharing common experience and of drawing on one another's strength.

A fourth type of problem commonly reported is much simpler to deal with than are the first three enumerated. Generally, the institute programs turned out to be overly demanding for staff members, requiring much more staff time than ordinary courses. Both individual conferences and small group work necessitate small student-staff ratios. To keep integrated the complex programs that characterized many institutes, it was necessary that instructors listen to each other's lectures. Regular staff members needed to hear the contributions made by consultants if they were to help students fit all the pieces into a coherent whole. Furthermore, the planning of new courses bringing together material from many sources involved much more preparation time than for regular courses.

The obvious answer to this problem is to increase the amount of staff time available in the institutes. Fortunately there are no hard-and-fast rules about this in the policies with regard to institute contracts. What is required is careful planning in the light of the first year's experience. From now on it will not be necessary to rest estimates of the staff needs on our experience with summer school programs that are not really similar to the institutes' programs. As has been said before, however, it is not possible to report any one student-staff ratio that would be appropriate for all institutes. The goals, objectives, and particular program features differ so widely that much variation must be expected. One other concrete suggestion made by several directors was to increase the amount of clerical help.

A fifth kind of problem reported by some institute directors is that the programs as originally set up were too demanding on the enrollees and too rigid. Perhaps because of their awareness that students

would receive stipends, planning committees tended to schedule some activity for every hour of the day. They soon found that this left too little free time for reading and studying, for conferences with staff members, and for thinking and talking about ideas. Usually it was possible to introduce a little more flexibility into the structure by arbitrarily canceling some of the scheduled activities. A more satisfactory solution for subsequent institutes would be to make the whole program a little less ambitious. For this first year there was a tendency to include too many objectives—more than one could reasonably attempt to accomplish in 6 or 8 weeks. It was a natural error. The counselors whom an institute was set up to serve probably needed all the kinds of improvement included in the plan of operation. But what should be remembered is that a person need not remedy all of his deficiencies at once. A shift to less ambitious goals and a more flexible plan of operation would not necessarily mean that less would be learned.

A sixth issue, discussed at some length by the directors in their postinstitute conference as well as in their technical reports, is the place of practicum experience in the total institute program. As explained in the previous chapter, 33 of the 50 institutes had made some provision for supervised practice in counseling. In many of these centers, staff and students were impressed with the importance of this experience and recommended that it be given a larger place in subsequent plans. Interestingly enough, in only one instance was recommendation that a practicum be set up made by the director of an institute that did not offer one. It is apparently the kind of experience one must engage in before he can see its value.

As was mentioned earlier, there is far more unanimity among directors about the desirability of counseling practice for advanced than for beginning trainees. They recommend a supervisor-enrollee ratio of 1 : 5, and suggest arrangements permitting an enrollee to work with several different supervisors. Recording equipment is essential, one-way vision arrangements desirable. In settings where it is not feasible to offer a counseling practicum because of inadequacies in enrollee preparation or scarcity of supervisors, other kinds of laboratory or prepracticum activities can be used to provide experience with tests, occupational and educational information, and case studies and records. Some kind of active practice enriches any didactic instructional program. As a group, institute directors approved of practicum experience but had some misgivings about making it available to enrollees at beginning levels of training.

Several other miscellaneous problems were mentioned in one or another of the directors' reports, having to do with planning difficulties, the shortness of time, the scarcity of secretarial help, and the like. Many directors would like to see long-term commitments, so that they could coordinate the planning for the institutes with the planning for regular sessions and summer sessions. They would also like to have institute funds made available for use during this planning stage. There is a definite limit to what can be done about such problems within the framework of the NDEA law. Some frustration is perhaps inevitable for the director who must work with both a Government agency and a training institution. The things that can be done to eliminate such problems will be done in subsequent years. But it may be helpful to mention the frustrations in order to prepare new directors to expect them.

CHAPTER 12

Some Larger Professional Issues

THE INSTITUTE PROGRAM raises some questions about which the whole school counseling profession must need be concerned. The first of these is the problem of how guidance services in private schools can best be improved. The institutes were designed for service to all the schools, although the NDEA law does not permit the payment of stipends to private school counselors attending the institutes. Places in each institute were reserved for private school workers, and efforts were made to inform all schools in each area served of their availability. The results, as indicated in table 3, show plainly that this attempt to get private school counselors into the program was almost completely unsuccessful. Since about 14 percent of American high school students are attending nonpublic schools, we cannot ignore this need that was not met by the institute program, at least during its first summer. Among those responsible for planning there has been considerable discussion of this problem, but as yet no solution has emerged.

The second professional problem is the integration of the institute program with regular ongoing programs of counselor training and certification. The offering of complete programs of counselor education is recognized by the Office of Education as a continuing institutional responsibility. The institutes program is to be viewed as providing only a part of the total professional preparation of secondary school counselors. As explained in chapter 2, here as in other areas of public education, only a small fraction of all counselor education is financed by Federal funds. It is not remotely possible, even if it were advisable, that federally supported institutes will ever carry the full burden of counselor education. The *Policies and Procedures Manual*, published in September 1959, specifically makes this point clear.

In previous chapters we have called attention to positive effects of institutes on regular training programs. Let us look now at some of the possible negative effects. The most immediately obvious one

is the competition for staff and facilities in a college where an institute is located. If the most outstanding faculty members and the practicum space and equipment are assigned to the institute, what happens to the regular summer courses? While this is a potential source of difficulty, there is no evidence that it caused any seriously unfavorable effects during the first year. Institutes were most often located in special quarters not ordinarily used for counselor training, such as a fraternity house, a section of the student union, or a dormitory. Extra practicum facilities were set up especially for the institutes, and the necessary equipment, such as tape recorders, was rented out of institute funds. Staff seemed adequate for this first year. However, some faculty members were on split assignments that do not appear to be altogether satisfactory for either the institute or the regular summer session program.

Since it is the shortage of qualified staff that seems to be the most likely focus of conflict, whatever can be done to solve this problem will be a step in the right direction. Institute directors emphasize the importance of awarding contracts to sponsoring institutions as early as possible to permit long-range planning for all courses to be offered. Some sort of clearinghouse for available counselor training personnel would be helpful. It seems possible that there are faculty members in many institutions who would be valuable additions to the summer institute staffs if their availability were known. Perhaps the employment exchange of the American Personnel and Guidance Association can meet this need.

There was some concern at the outset of the institutes program that enrollees might exaggerate the competence that one 6- or 8-week session had given them. If they were to go back to their schools and communities seeing themselves as "trained" counselors who needed no further education for their tasks, the cause of professional counseling would be ill served. As has been indicated in the last chapter, this did not generally happen. One of the commonly reported outcomes was that institute enrollees became more aware of their training needs and planned further professional training.

What will need to be decided, when applications for admission to subsequent institutes are being considered, is whether or not counselors should be permitted or encouraged to obtain further training in an institute setting. Some directors argue strongly against allowing any one person to attend more than one institute. They fear that certain teacher-counselors may become professional institute-goers rather than professional counselors. The stipend provision makes this program more attractive than many other summer school offerings. The warm, enthusiastic feeling most enrollees carried

away from their experience in 1959 might well motivate them to seek a similar experience in 1960. If this occurs, they are likely to encounter some repetition of content and experience since there are no provisions at present for coordinating the programs of various institutes to prevent this occurrence. Furthermore, by the repeated attendance of previous enrollees at the institutes, places obviously would not be available for new applicants who may need the training more.

But there are important considerations on the other side of the question also. As has been indicated, the 1959 summer institutes were pitched at different levels, and emphasized different aspects of counselor education. If we consider only the interest of an individual teacher-counselor in obtaining the best possible training for his work, we can see that he might well decide that it was to his advantage to follow up his first year's experience with an advanced-level institute program or one that concentrated, for example, on testing. The counseling program in his school and his community would be likely to benefit from such a decision on his part. Also, some institute directors and faculty members might oppose a hard-and-fast policy. To limit enrollees to those who have not previously attended an institute might preclude the possibility that a few "experienced" enrollees would contribute valuable informal leadership in institute group activities that play such an important part in the learning process.

Because of these different considerations there can be no general policy about readmissions, and each individual director and selection committee are now free to set up such a policy if they wish. It can be done entirely on an individual basis. Application blanks can include one or more questions about the applicant's previous institute experience. Announcements can state clearly enough the objectives and program of each institute so that prospective applicants can judge whether or not the institute is different from the one they have formerly attended. The ultimate responsibility lies with the person or group that selects the enrollees. It is for them to judge the suitability of each applicant for the program that is planned.

Still another aspect of the large problem of integrating institute programs with the rest of counselor education is the question of what to do about the almost completely untrained counselors who are now holding down counseling jobs in many high schools. It has been a common procedure for an administrator to assign a teacher to part-time counseling duties, whether or not the person had any training for the task or even any interest in doing it. The most seriously deficient of these teacher-counselors are persons not usually reached by any training program. They simply do not know enough about the guid-

ance field to realize that they have any deficiencies. Consequently they do not seek to overcome them. The question arises: Can institutes help here? Furthermore, is it really to the advantage of the counseling profession, from a long-range point of view, to give minimal training to relatively unmotivated people who are not likely to supplement it on their own initiative?

This question needs further consideration. The 1959 experience has little bearing on it because the selection criteria set up for these institutes drew in men and women who had some real interest in becoming counselors, even though they had not had much previous training. It may be that some institutes will wish to try out special programs to see what can be accomplished in changing the attitudes of teachers in counseling positions who have no particular desire for improvement. Among professional workers there would be more general support, however, for a policy of trying gradually to replace such persons with well-trained professionals.

For the group of well-motivated enrollees at beginning levels of preparation, for whom several of the 1959 institutes were specifically designed, some specific recommendations for programs can now be made. Institute directors, in discussing this matter, formulated the objectives of the basic level program as follows:

1. It should attempt to give an understanding of the basic guidance principles and services in order that participants, upon returning to their schools, can clearly indicate to the secondary school administration and staff the meaning of a full program of guidance.

2. Trainees must be made aware of their own limitations and needs for further training and should be encouraged to continue on to the master's degree.

3. The preparation in basic institutes should prepare participants primarily to work under the supervision of professional counselors. They should realize that they need two or more 8- to 10-week summer sessions before they are fully qualified as school counselors.

The problem of so-called counselors with no training for their work leads directly to the third of the professional issues that arise as a result of the institute experience. This is the ambiguity with regard to the meaning of "guidance" and "counseling," which often leads to failures in communication when plans for secondary school programs are being formulated. The sharpest conflict here is that between the concept of the counselor's role generally held by professional counselors and counselor educators, and the concept often held by school administrators. The administrator is the person who makes the decisions as to how much time will be allowed for guidance activities, and who will be assigned to them. If he sees a counselor as a person who checks attendance, handles minor discipline problems, and registers

students in courses according to established rules, he will be unlikely to select highly trained persons for the task or to arrange for them to have adequate time and facilities. Lack of understanding of what a counselor's role is can appear in other quarters also—among teachers, students, or the students' parents. These all involve important problems of communication, but misunderstanding on the part of administrators is more serious than the others because it may prevent the development of anything that can be called a real counseling program.

This issue was discussed again and again in most of the institutes. Administrators per se are not eligible to enroll in institutes. Several institutes worked out novel plans for producing some sort of liaison between enrollees and the administrators with whom they would be working. One such plan was to hold a 1-day conference with school administrators. Each enrollee invited one or two persons from his own school system. Another plan was for the institute director to send a letter at the close of the institute to the administrator to whom each enrollee would be responsible. The director explained what the counselor had accomplished through his institute course and practicum work and what he would be trying to do when he returned to his own duties. It was planned that a second letter would be sent at a later date to each of these administrators asking for reactions to what had been accomplished by the counselors. Many attempts were made elsewhere in a less formal way to bring counselors and administrators together.

It is undoubtedly true that the problems growing out of conflicts about the role of the counselor in the school will need to be solved mainly through other than institute channels. State certification programs play a large part here. The inclusion of material on the philosophy and functions of school guidance programs as part of the special training for administrative positions will lead to improved understanding. All that the institutes can hope to do in this respect is to make the most of whatever opportunities they have for facilitating communication and promoting better understanding. The wide publicity the National Defense Education Act has received should help familiarize people with at least one part of the counselor's duty—identifying the abilities of each individual student and encouraging him to make the most of them.

Before one can really define the role of the counselor, it will be necessary to clarify the roles of all workers who make up guidance staffs. It may be desirable to replace the ambiguous word "guidance" with the clearer term "pupil personnel work." When we know what kinds of service need to be included in such programs, and have de-

cided "who does what," we shall be in a better position to define the meaning of "counseling." [1]

Some observers of current trends detect another problem in the offing. Will the emphasis on high ability students tend to produce in the public mind and in the minds of counselors themselves a distorted picture of what their job is? It would indeed be unfortunate if counselors limited their efforts to the task of motivating above-average students to go to college. It would be doubly unfortunate if counselors were evaluated according to how successfully they accomplished this task. If this were the case, a counselor who sent 80 percent of his eligible counselees to college might be rated higher than one who could only induce 60 percent to go.

There is nothing in the NDEA legislation itself that would lead directly to such an outcome. It will turn out to be a danger only if we let it happen. But it is well for persons in the counseling profession to be aware that this is a possible misconception they may encounter. There is no difference in philosophy and attitude between counseling for the gifted and counseling for the average or retarded, but somewhat different kinds of knowledge and skill are involved. We are interested in facilitating the development of *all* individuals, and in seeing that *all* kinds of talents are utilized. We are interested in doing this through a process that leads to voluntary choices, not through pressure and coercion. As indicated at the beginning of this report, the National Defense Education Act makes it possible to provide counseling service to a group that is likely to be slighted where counselors are scarce and problems are acute. It should broaden the scope of counseling activity in secondary schools, but should not change its basic purpose.

[1] The American Psychological Association now has a committee on Relations between Psychology and Education. A subcommittee is considering the training of pupil personnel services staff. The report of this subcommittee dated Aug. 14, 1958, contains an excellent outline of pupil personnel activities.

CHAPTER 13

Recommendations

THROUGHOUT THIS REPORT an attempt has been made to translate experience obtained in the 1959 summer institutes into suggestions for their improvement in subsequent years. We shall sum up here recommendations that apply particularly to the planning of future institutes. They are directed both to representatives of training institutions who are formulating institute proposals and to representatives of the U.S. Office of Education who determine policy and help institutions transform their proposals into plans of operation.

First, contracts for institutes should be awarded as early as possible. Every effort should be made to close these contracts by January 1 of the year the summer institute is to be held, or even earlier if possible.

Second, training institutions should place special emphasis on the first stage of the process of contract negotiation, the determination of *needs*. Every effort should be made to find out the most salient needs of an area, and the proposals submitted should show how these needs have been determined.

Third, training institutions should attempt to limit the number and scope of their objectives as appropriate for a short session. Fewer courses should be offered and more time allowed for each. A lower student-staff ratio than is usually required for college courses should be maintained.

Fourth, adequate provision for individual differences should be made by introducing some flexibility into institute programs.

Fifth, a standard application blank should be prepared for the use of all the institutes. It should include the items by which eligibility is determined, and the other items that all or most of the 1959 institutes found useful. In each locality, this can be supplemented by whatever additional information the local committee wishes to use as a basis for selection.

Sixth, a resource file of materials and forms used in the different institutes should be set up in a central place. Much of this material is

included in the final reports of the directors of the 1959 summer institutes. The reports include objective test items, appraisal forms, reading lists, and many other specific materials. It would be an advantage to institute directors to have access to these materials.

Seventh, attention should be directed each year to the geographical distribution of institutes and the enrollees they serve so that inequities appearing in any one year's distribution can be corrected in the next.

Eighth, special attention should be given to the kinds of knowledge and experience that will equip enrollees for counseling able students.

APPENDIX A

Pertinent Portions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 to the Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes Program

(Reprinted below in the language of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 are the "Findings and Declaration of Policy" of the Congress from Title I, and Title V in its entirety.)

TITLE I—GENERAL PROVISIONS

FINDINGS AND DECLARATION OF POLICY

SEC. 101. The Congress hereby finds and declares that the security of the Nation requires the fullest development of the mental resources and technical skills of its young men and women. The present emergency demands that additional and more adequate educational opportunities be made available. The defense of this Nation depends upon the mastery of modern techniques developed from complex scientific principles. It depends as well upon the discovery and development of new principles, new techniques, and new knowledge.

We must increase our efforts to identify and educate more of the talent of our Nation. This requires programs that will give assurance that no student of ability will be denied an opportunity for higher education because of financial need; will correct as rapidly as possible the existing imbalances in our educational programs which have led to an insufficient proportion of our population educated in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages and trained in technology.

The Congress reaffirms the principle and declares that the States and local communities have and must retain control over and primary responsibility for public education. The national interest requires, however, that the Federal Government give assistance to education for programs which are important to our defense.

To meet the present educational emergency requires additional effort at all levels of government. It is therefore the purpose of this Act to provide substantial assistance in various forms to individuals, and to States and their subdivisions, in order to insure trained manpower of sufficient quality and quantity to meet the national defense needs of the United States.

TITLE V—GUIDANCE, COUNSELING, AND TESTING; IDENTIFICATION AND ENCOURAGEMENT OF ABLE STUDENTS

Part A—State Programs

APPROPRIATIONS AUTHORIZED

SEC. 501. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated $15,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, and for each of the three succeeding fiscal

years, for making grants to State educational agencies under this part to assist them to establish and maintain programs of testing and guidance and counseling.

ALLOTMENTS TO STATES

SEC. 502. From the sums appropriated pursuant to section 501 for any fiscal year the Commissioner shall reserve such amount, but not in excess of 2 per centum thereof, as he may determine for allotment as provided in section 1008. From the remainder of such sums the Commissioner shall allot to each State an amount which bears the same ratio to the amount of such remainder as the school-age population of such State bears to the total of the school-age populations of all the States. The amount allotted to any State under the preceding sentence for any fiscal year which is less than $20,000 shall be increased to $20,000, the total of increases thereby required being derived by proportionately reducing the amount allotted to each of the remaining States under the preceding sentence, but with such adjustments as may be necessary to prevent the allotment of any such remaining States from being thereby reduced to less than $20,000.

STATE PLANS

SEC. 503. (a) Any State which desires to receive payments under this part shall submit to the Commissioner, through its State educational agency, a State plan which meets the requirements of section 1004(a) and sets forth—

(1) a program for testing students in the public secondary schools, and if authorized by law in other secondary schools, of such State to identify students with outstanding aptitudes and ability, and the means of testing which will be utilized in carrying out such program; and

(2) a program of guidance and counseling in the public secondary schools of such State (A) to advise students of courses of study best suited to their ability, aptitudes, and skills, and (B) to encourage students with outstanding aptitudes and ability to complete their secondary school education, take the necessary courses for admission to institutions of higher education, and enter such institutions.

(b) The Commissioner shall approve any State plan and any modification thereof which complies with the provisions of subsection (a).

PAYMENTS TO STATES

SEC. 504. (a) Payment under this part shall be made to those State educational agencies which administer plans approved under section 503. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, such payments shall equal the amount expended by the State in carrying out its State plan, and for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1960, and for each of the two succeeding fiscal years, such payments shall equal one-half of the amount so expended; except that no State educational agency shall receive payment under this part for any fiscal year in excess of that State's allotment for that fiscal year as determined under section 502.

(b) In any State which has a State plan approved under section 503 and in which the State educational agency is not authorized by law to make payments to cover the cost of testing students in any one or more secondary schools in such State to determine student abilities and aptitudes, the Commissioner shall arrange for the testing of such students and shall pay the cost thereof for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, and one-half of the cost thereof for any of the

three succeeding fiscal years out of such State's allotment. Testing of students pursuant to this subsection shall, so far as practicable, be comparable to, and be done at the same grade levels and under the same conditions as in the case of, testing of students in public schools under the State plan.

Part B—Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes

AUTHORIZATION

SEC. 511. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated $6,250,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1959, and $7,250,000 for each of the three succeeding fiscal years, to enable the Commissioner to arrange, by contracts with institutions of higher education, for the operation by them of short-term or regular session institutes for the provision of training to improve the qualifications of personnel engaged in counseling and guidance of students in secondary schools, or teachers in such schools preparing to engage in such counseling and guidance. Each individual engaged or preparing to engage in counseling and guidance in a public secondary school, who attends an institute operated under the provisions of this part, shall be eligible (after application therefor) to receive a stipend at the rate of $75 per week for the period of his attendance at such institute, and each such individual with one or more dependents shall receive an additional stipend at the rate of $15 per week for each such dependent for the period of such attendance.

APPENDIX B

Form NDEA-V: B-1

Form approved
Budget Bureau No. 51-5814

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE TRAINING INSTITUTES REGISTRY FORM

A college or university wishing to be considered for the award of a contract under the authority of Title V, Part B, of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, P.L. 85-864, should complete and submit this form to the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D.C., using the enclosed envelope which requires no postage.

The submission of this form does not constitute an obligation on the part of either the institution submitting it or the U.S. Commissioner of Education.

A description of the counseling and guidance training institutes program is given in the enclosed brochure. A copy of the Act was sent to all institutions in September.

If, in response to Item 5 of the brochure, any of the information requested has already been submitted, do not duplicate it, but refer to that fact. If no proposal has been submitted in response to Item 5 of the brochure, it is suggested that no information furnished in connection with this form be incorporated in such a proposal. The information requested in items 1-6 below is considered to be all that is necessary at this time. In order to register an interest in having an institute, it is not necessary to make a proposal in response to Item 5 of the brochure if this registry form is submitted.

---

1. Name of institution _____
   Address _____ _____ _____
   (City) (Zone) (State)
2. Official with whom negotiations concerning institutes would be conducted:
   Name _____
   Title or academic rank _____
   School or college _____
3. Give the approximate number of students now enrolled as majors, and as minors, in integrated programs of study designed to prepare for work in the field of counseling and guidance in secondary schools.

Sex	Majors	Minors
Men		
Women		
Total		

4. Give the number of degrees awarded in the academic year 1957–58 with a major, and with a minor, in counseling and guidance in secondary schools.

Degree	Majors	Minors
Ph. D., Ed. D., or similar doctorate		
Specialist (graduate level), or similar 2-year graduate degree		
M. A., M. S., or similar degree		

5. On separate sheets, list the faculty who might be available for service in institutes and any other professional personnel who might be employed for the purpose. Give the name, title or academic rank, and qualifications of each person. Under qualifications comment briefly on educational background, areas of specialized training and achievement, and the nature and extent of experience in the field of counseling and guidance, including particular reference to experience in institute programs. In the case of a person not now on the faculty, furnish information about his present position.
6. On separate sheets, describe succinctly the physical facilities afforded by your institution for the conduct of institutes. Comment upon aids to instruction, such as library, laboratory, and demonstration facilities; upon student facilities, such as dormitories, dining halls, and available classrooms; and upon any other facility or resource of the institution which could be made available to make an institute serve its purpose effectively.

Signed:

(Signature of the president, or similar official, or his authorized representative) (Date)

(Title)

APPENDIX C

SELECTED TIME SCHEDULES REPRESENTATIVE OF INSTITUTE ACTIVITIES

1. An Institute Program Design and Time Distribution for 6 Weeks
2. A Schedule of Learning Activities in One Institute:
   A. First Week.
   B. Third Week.
3. Typical Week of Practicum in One Institute:
   A. Supervisor With Enrollee Group.
   B. Activities of One Enrollee.

1. AN INSTITUTE PROGRAM DESIGN AND TIME DISTRIBUTION FOR SIX WEEKS

7 hours a day

THE PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIOLOGY OF ABLE STUDENTS (One period a day, 4 days a week. Total class time: 24 hours)		
PROCEDURES FOR COUNSELING ABLE STUDENTS (1½ periods a day, 4 days a week. Total class time: 36 hours)		
USE OF TESTS AND INVENTORIES IN COUNSELING ABLE STUDENTS (1½ periods a day, 4 days a week. Total class time: 36 hours)		
DEMONSTRATIONS, FIELD OBSERVATIONS, INDIVIDUAL STUDENT-STAFF CONFERENCES, SPECIAL RESOURCE PERSONNEL (Four periods, 1 day a week. Total time: 24 hours)		
PREPARATION FOR COUNSELING (3 periods a day for the 1st week. Total time: 15 hours)	COUNSELING PRACTICE WITH INDIVIDUAL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, INCLUDING STUDENT-SUPERVISOR SEMINAR (3 periods a day for 4½ weeks. Total time: 66 hours)	GROUP EVALUATION OF CONFERENCES (3 periods a day for the last 3 days. Total time: 9 hours)

2. SCHEDULE OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN ONE INSTITUTE

A. First Week

<table>
<tr><th>Time</th><th>Monday</th><th>Tuesday</th><th>Wednesday</th><th>Thursday</th><th>Friday</th></tr>
<tr><td>9:00</td><td>Opening Statements, General Institute Assignments, and Discussion of Plan of Learning Activities.</td><td>Talented Students and the School's Objectives.</td><td>The Use of Standardized Testing and of Identification of the Talented.</td><td>The Functions of High School Guidance Services as Related to Problems of the Talented.</td><td>Socioeconomic Data and Talented Youth and Committee Assignments.</td></tr>
<tr><td>10:30</td><td>Introduction of Problems of Individual Inventory.</td><td>Scope of Student Personnel Services.</td><td>The Meaning of Ability.</td><td>The Development of Plans for Reporting Committee Work on Standardized Testing.</td><td>Summary of Week's Work and Discussion of Specific Plans for the Following Week.</td></tr>
<tr><td>12:00</td><td>Luncheon Meeting With Consultants and College Administrators.</td><td></td><td>NOON</td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>1:00</td><td rowspan="2">Organization of Work Committees on Test Data</td><td colspan="2" rowspan="2"></td><td colspan="2">Critique on Test Administration and Scoring. (Small Committee)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Committee Work on Standardized Test Results</td><td rowspan="2">Committee Work on Standardized Test Results and Committee Work on Socioeconomic Data</td></tr>
<tr><td>2:30 to 4:00</td><td colspan="2">Participants Practice in Test Administration and Scoring
Strong VIB-Men Kuder A MMPI</td></tr>
</table>

B. Third Week

Time	Monday Assignments due	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday Documented paper due
9:00	Occupational Information as a Supporting Service.	Panel Discussion on Rating and Reliability of Socioeconomic Data.	Panel of Gifted students on Adequacy of Educational Opportunities and Counseling Program. STAFF	Occupational Information.	Panel Discussion Relationship Between Socioeconomic Data and Patterns of Ability and Achievement.
10:30	Committee Reports on Standardized Test Results.	Occupational Information.	Panel Discussion on Socioeconomic Data—Development of Norms and Interpretation.	The Development and Use of Local Norms on Standardized Tests.	Summary of Week's Work and Discussion of Specific Plans for the Following Week.
12:00	NOON		Informal Luncheon of participants and regular summer school students from counselor training classes.		NOON
1:00 to 4:00	Critique on Test Administration and Scoring (Small Committee) Small Committee Work on Socioeconomic Data Individual and Group Work on Documented Paper	Demonstration Counseling, 1-way Screen, Psych. Lab. Taping of Counseling Interviews by Participants	Individual and Small Group Work on Documented Papers	Demonstration Counseling, 1-way Screen, Psych. Lab. Taping of Counseling Interviews by Participants Critique on Test Administration and Scoring. (Small Committee)	Critiques of Taped Interviews STAFF

3. TYPICAL WEEK OF PRACTICUM IN ONE INSTITUTE

A. Supervisor With An Enrollee Group

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8 to 9	Criticise tape with individual counselor only	Criticise individual's tape with whole group.	Observe counselor through 1-way window, with group.	Individual conference.	Criticise tape with individual counselor only.
9 to 10	Observe counselor 1-way.	Criticise group (tape).	Criticise group (tape).	Criticise group (tape).	Criticise individual tape.
10 to 11	Criticise individual tape.	Criticise group (tape).	Criticise group (tape).	Criticise group (tape).	Observe counselor 1-way.
11 to 12	Criticise individual tape.	Criticise individual tape.	Criticise individual tape.	Observe counselor 1-way.	Criticise individual tape.
1 to 2	Individual conference.	Observe counselor 1-way vision room.	Individual conference.	Individual conference.	Individual conference.
Afternoon and evening.	In preparation for individual and group supervisory sessions, listen by self to tapes counselors made				

B. Activities of One Enrollee

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8 to 9	Listen to own tape by self.	Criticise 1 person's tape with practicum group (supervised).	Same as Tuesday.	Motion picture on counseling.	Listen to tape in group, not with supervisor.
9 to 10	Counsel (observed by supervisor and others in group).	Same as above	Same as above	Criticise 1 person's tape with group—supervised.	Listen to own tape.
10 to 11	Write case notes	Same as above	Observe counseling of another group member.	Same as above	Supervisory interview with pract. supervisor.
11 to 12	Evaluate counselee's tests.	Observe counseling done by another group member.	Visit school of counselee for further information.	Listen to tape in group—not supervised.	Listen to tape in group—not supervised.
1 to 2	Arrange for counselee testing.	Critiquing session with supervisor of interview observed above (with group and observed couns.).	Reference reading.	Acquire information about college or occupations for counselee.	(Didactic work starts at this hour on Friday.)
Afternoon.	In didactic sequence				

APPENDIX D

Institutions Sponsoring Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes, Summer of 1959, Showing for Each the Location, Duration, Academic Credit To Be Earned, and the Director

ALABAMA

University of Alabama (University), June 8–August 21; 6 semester hours; Dr. Ralph M. Roberts.

ARIZONA

Arizona State University (Tempe), June 8–July 11; 6 semester hours; Dr. Sandford S. Davis.

CALIFORNIA

University of California (Berkeley), June 18–August 28; 8 semester hours; Dr. Clifford P. Froehlich.

University of Southern California (Los Angeles), June 29–August 7; 6 semester hours; Dr. Earl F. Carnes.

COLORADO

University of Denver (Denver), June 15–July 17; 7½ quarter hours; Dr. Harry R. Moore.

CONNECTICUT

University of Connecticut (Storrs), June 29–August 7; 6 semester hours; Dr. Edward A. Wicas.

DELAWARE

University of Delaware (Newark), June 22–July 31; 6 semester hours; Dr. Wilfred A. Pemberton.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

George Washington University (Washington, D.C.), July 6–August 14; 6 semester hours; Dr. Mitchell Dreese.

FLORIDA

University of Florida (Gainesville), June 15–August 8; 6 to 9 semester hours; Dr. Ted Landsman.

GEORGIA

Atlanta University (Atlanta), June 8–July 17; 6 semester hours; Dr. Paul I. Clifford.

ILLINOIS

Loyola University (Chicago), June 29–August 8; 6 semester hours; Dr. Robert C. Nicolay.
Northwestern University (Evanston), June 22–August 1; 9 quarter hours; Dr. Frank S. Endicott.
University of Illinois (Urbana), June 15–August 8; 8 semester hours; Dr. Fred C. Proff.

INDIANA

Purdue University (Lafayette), June 8–July 31; 9 semester hours; Dr. Lee E. Isaacson.

IOWA

State University of Iowa (Iowa City), June 17–August 12; 8 semester hours; Dr. Kenneth B. Hoyt.

KANSAS

Kansas State College of Pittsburg (Pittsburg), June 8–July 17; 6 semester hours; Dr. Emory G. Kennedy.
University of Kansas (Lawrence), June 4–August 1; 8 semester hours; Dr. E. Gordon Collister.

KENTUCKY

University of Kentucky (Lexington), June 8–July 31; 6 semester hours; Dr. Marion R. Trabue.

LOUISIANA

Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College (Baton Rouge), June 4–July 29; 6 semester hours; Dr. Russell E. Helmick.

MARYLAND

University of Maryland (College Park), June 22–July 31; 6 semester hours; Dr. Richard H. Byrne.

MASSACHUSETTS

Boston University (Boston), July 13–August 21; 9 semester hours; Dr. Dugald S. Arbuckle.

MICHIGAN

Michigan State University of Agriculture and Applied Science (East Lansing), August 3–September 4; 9 quarter hours; Dr. Walter F. Johnson.
Wayne State University (Detroit), June 22–August 14; 8 semester hours; Dr. William Evraiff.

MINNESOTA

University of Minnesota (Minneapolis), June 15–July 18; 9 quarter hours; Dr. Willis E. Dugan.

MISSOURI

University of Missouri (Columbia), June 15–August 7; 8 semester hours; Dr. John L. Ferguson.

MONTANA

Montana State University (Missoula), June 22–August 14; 12 quarter hours; Dr. Robert E. Gorman.

NEW JERSEY

Rutgers, The State University (New Brunswick), June 29–August 7; 6 semester hours; Dr. C. Winfield Scott.

NEW YORK

College of the City of New York (New York), July 1–August 7; 6 semester hours; Dr. Dorothy Davis Sebald.

New York University (New York), July 6–July 31; 6 semester hours; Dr. Milton Schwebel.

Syracuse University (Syracuse), July 27–September 4; 6 semester hours; Dr. Wilbert J. Dipboye.

NORTH CAROLINA

State College of Agriculture and Engineering (Raleigh), June 8–July 17; 6 semester hours; Dr. Roy N. Anderson.

NORTH DAKOTA

University of North Dakota (Grand Forks), June 15–August 8; 8 semester hours; Dr. Paul F. Munger.

OHIO

The Ohio State University (Columbus), June 22–August 14; 10 quarter hours; Dr. Herman J. Peters.

University of Toledo (Toledo), July 20–August 28; 7 semester hours; Dr. Robert L. Gibson.

OKLAHOMA

Oklahoma State University of Agriculture and Applied Science (Stillwater), June 8–August 7; 9 semester hours; Dr. Harry K. Brobst.

OREGON

Oregon State System of Higher Education (Portland), June 22–August 14; 12 quarter hours; Dr. Daniel W. Fullmer.

PENNSYLVANIA

The Pennsylvania State University (University Park), June 29–August 7; 6 semester hours; Dr. George R. Hudson.

Temple University (Philadelphia), June 29–August 7; 6 semester hours; Dr. Roy B. Hackman.

University of Pittsburgh (Pittsburgh), June 22–August 14; 8 semester hours; Dr. George L. Fahey.

PUERTO RICO

University of Puerto Rico (Rio Piedras), June 15–July 31; 7 semester hours; Dr. Augusto Bobonis.

SOUTH CAROLINA

University of South Carolina (Columbia), June 8–July 17; 6 semester hours; Dr. William W. Savage.

TENNESSEE

University of Tennessee (Knoxville), June 15–August 21; 15 quarter hours; Dr. Lawrence M. DeRidder.

TEXAS

Texas Technological College (Lubbock), June 1–July 11; 6 semester hours, Dr. A. Beatrix Cobb.

University of Houston (Houston), June 3–July 14; 6 semester hours; Dr. Frank L. Stovall.

University of Texas (Austin), June 22–August 14; 9 semester hours; Dr. Royal B. Embree, Jr.

UTAH

University of Utah (Salt Lake City), June 15–August 7; 13 quarter hours; Dr. Phelon J. Malouf.

WASHINGTON

Washington State University (Pullman), June 15–August 7; 10 semester hours; Dr. William P. McDougall.

WEST VIRGINIA

Marshall College (Huntington), June 8–July 17; 6 semester hours; Dr. Clarke F. Hess.

WISCONSIN

Marquette University (Milwaukee), June 22–August 14; 8 semester hours; Dr. Raymond J. McCall.

WYOMING

University of Wyoming (Laramie), June 15–August 21; 10 semester hours; Dr. Lyle L. Miller.

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