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ABSTRACT

This set of digests includes 35 two-page articles in the areas of counseling programs and practices; theory and research; and professional development. Fourteen articles are presented in the area of programs and practices. These range from the efficacy of school-based drug education programs to learning styles counseling. Six articles are presented in the area of theory and research. These range from challenging troublesome career beliefs to qualitative research in student affairs. Fifteen articles are presented in the area of professional development. These articles range from accreditation of college and university counseling services to marketing oneself as a professional counselor. The digests were originally published in 1991 and 1992. Suggestions for their use are included. (ABL)

CounselorQuest Update Pack '93

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON
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CAPS DIGEST

December 1991 EDO-CG-91-1

Are School-Based Drug Prevention Programs Working?

Caroline E. Mohai

With the passage of the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1986, the federal government significantly expanded the delivery of drug prevention programs to school-aged youth. In fiscal year 1987, more than $300 million federal dollars were allocated to in-school drug prevention programs (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987). What has been the outcome of this expanded effort?

The news is encouraging. Use of illicit drugs and, to a lesser degree, alcohol, among school-aged children and adolescents appears to be on the decline, although researchers are quick to point out that the percentage of American youth engaged in substance use is still unacceptably high (Johnston, Bachman, & O'Malley, 1990). Does this overall decline in use mean our prevention efforts are working? What have we learned from this intense period of prevention program development?

Learning From Our Mistakes

During the past decade, a number of strategies have been employed to change the attitude and behavior of children and adolescents regarding drug use. Research has shown that programs relying solely on providing information are not only ineffective, but may actually result in a greater likelihood of drug experimentation (Bangert-Drowns, 1988; Fustukjian, 1990). However, an annual survey conducted for 16 years by the University of Michigan Institute for Social Research (Johnston, 1990), with followup on a subset, concludes that providing youth with information about health risks in conjunction with other prevention approaches is highly effective. Key to its effectiveness, however, is giving information that emphasizes the more immediate, short-term consequences of drug use.

Other approaches that have turned up mixed results include those seeking to strengthen drug-use resistance by bolstering "life skills" (decision-making ability, coping skills, and self-esteem) and those striving to address the unmet social and psychological needs of youth (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987; Fustukjian, 1990; Ellickson, 1987). General criticisms leveled against current efforts include:

- Programs are not structured to respond to youth of varying ages, from different settings, and of different ethnic backgrounds (Baer, 1988).
- Programs do not effectively identify and offer services to at-risk children and their families (Lachance, 1989).
- Programs are fragmentary in their approach and are not coordinated with community prevention efforts (Fustukjian, 1990; U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987).
- Programs do not start soon enough—kindergarten is not too soon (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987; Lachance, 1989)
- Programs do not contain a strong evaluative component (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987; Bangert-Drowns, 1988).

Evaluating Current Drug Prevention Programs

Although research has shown what approaches have not been effective, it has been less clear about what has worked. This is largely due to serious flaws in drug prevention program evaluation. In his assessment of school-based drug prevention programs conducted for the U.S. Department of Education, Michael Klitzner (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987) described six common weaknesses of program evaluations:

1. ***Poor Research Design.*** Two few subjects, loss of subjects through attrition, and lack of controls are common weaknesses found in study design.
2. ***Rush to Get Results.*** Evaluations are too often begun before the program has had sufficient time to have an effect.
3. ***Insufficient Process Analysis.*** Many programs do not sufficiently document implementation procedures. Knowing how the program was implemented is critical to understanding program outcomes.
4. ***Not Enough Attention to Intervening Variables.*** Determining what variables have affected a program's outcomes is basic to understanding program effectiveness. A program's basic hypothesis or premise should guide variable selection. Unfortunately, many prevention programs lack an underlying premise; thus, evaluations fail to monitor the variables most critical to a program's success.
5. ***Weak Outcomes Measures.*** Prevention programs have traditionally relied on self-reports to assess their effectiveness. Self-reporting is not the best means to assess a program's influence on student attitudes and behavior since student responses can be shaped by what they think administrators and teachers want to hear.
6. ***Statistical vs. Practical Significance.*** Program planners too often draw conclusions about general program results from the statistical significance of a particular program feature. A statistically significant finding is not necessarily programmatically significant.

Building a strong evaluative component into drug prevention program models is key to increasing knowledge about what works. State departments of education and other funding agencies must dedicate more resources toward providing the technical assistance needed to ensure sound program design and evaluation (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987; Bangert-Drowns, 1988; Milgram, 1987). Also, local schools and community leaders, understandably eager to show results, must overcome the temptation to pass over program evaluation. A way to ensure more rigorous evaluation is to include students, school personnel, parents, and community leaders in the drug prevention planning process from the beginning (Milgram, 1987).

What We Know Works

Although the assessment of many prevention approaches has been flawed, several programs have provided valid evidence that certain approaches are effective.

One such program is Project ALERT. Begun in 1984 at 30 junior high schools in California and Oregon, Project ALERT is based on the social influence model, which targets adolescent drug-use beliefs and resistance skills. Results have been encouraging. One program element proven to be especially beneficial is the "booster" curriculum that extends the drug prevention program effects beyond the targeted grade level (Ellickson, 1990).

Providing further validation to the social influence model is the Midwestern Prevention Project (MPP), begun in 1984 as a collaborative effort between industry (Marion Laboratories), a research institution (University of Southern California's Institute for Health Promotion and Disease Prevention Research), and the Kansas Public Schools. MPP employs strategies such as role playing, group feedback, and mentoring to reshape adolescent attitudes about drug use. It also extends its influence to the family through homework assignments that challenge family drug-use beliefs and habits. Junior high students involved in the program have shown a significant change in their drug-use attitudes and behavior (MacKinnon, 1991).

Other approaches showing promise include:

1. **Targeting families.** Research has shown that parental attitudes play a large role in shaping children's beliefs about drug use. Strategies to change family drug-use attitudes include improving parenting skills in order to develop better communication and structure in the home. Parent-led support groups are another popular mode of intervention (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987; Pearish, 1988). The Parent Involvement Program (PIP) is such an effort, providing first-time offenders and their parents or guardians counseling sessions on family communication skills and the dangers of drug use (OERI, 1990).
2. **Enforcement of a clear "no drug use" policy.** Sending a clear "no use" message requires that schools consistently stress that drug use is wrong and enforce consequences for school drug activity (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1989).
3. **Enhancing trust between adults and children.** This approach promotes greater opportunities for personal interactions between adults and youth, thereby elevating adults into more powerful role models (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987; Milgram, 1987). One such program uses after-school jobs to pair at-risk youth with understanding adults who act both as professional mentors and friends concerned about the youth's success at school and in life (OERI, 1990).

Conclusion

The jury is still out on the effectiveness of many specific drug prevention strategies, primarily because of poor program evaluation design. However, two programs have provided clear evidence, through their strong methodological design, that interventions based on the social influence model are effective. Regardless of strategies employed, all prevention programs must start early, involve coordinated efforts with the community, include students, parents, teachers, and community members in the planning process, and implement a systematic and comprehensive program that is based on a clear hypothesis, contains different strategies for different populations, and gives special attention to the needs of at-risk students.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Basic Techniques in Marriage and Family Counseling and Therapy

Robert L. Smith and Patricia Stevens-Smith

Introduction

The area of marriage and family counseling/therapy has exploded over the past decade. Counselors at all levels are expected to work effectively with couples and families experiencing a wide variety of issues and problems. Structural, strategic, and transgenerational family therapists at times may seem to be operating alike, using similar interventions with a family. Differences might become clear when the therapist explains a certain technique or intervention. Most of today's practicing family therapists go far beyond the limited number of techniques usually associated with a single theory.

Techniques

The following select techniques have been used in working with couples and families to stimulate change or gain greater information about the family system. Each technique should be judiciously applied and viewed as not a cure, but rather a method to help mobilize the family. The when, where, and how of each intervention always rests with the therapist's professional judgment and personal skills.

The Genogram

The genogram, a technique often used early in family therapy, provides a graphic picture of the family history. The genogram reveals the family's basic structure and demographics. (McGoldrick & Gerson, 1985). Through symbols, it offers a picture of three generations. Names, dates of marriage, divorce, death, and other relevant facts are included in the genogram. It provides an enormous amount of data and insight for the therapist and family members early in therapy. As an informational and diagnostic tool, the genogram is developed by the therapist in conjunction with the family.

The Family Floor Plan

The family floor plan technique has several variations. Parents might be asked to draw the family floor plan for the family of origin. Information across generations is therefore gathered in a nonthreatening manner. Points of discussion bring out meaningful issues related to one's past.

Another adaptation of this technique is to have members draw the floor plan for their nuclear family. The importance of space and territory is often inferred as a result of the family floor plan. Levels of comfort between family members, space accommodations, and rules are often revealed. Indications of differentiation, operating family triangles, and subsystems often become evident. Used early in therapy, this technique can serve as an excellent diagnostic tool (Coppersmith, 1980).

Reframing

Most family therapists use reframing as a method to both join with the family and offer a different perspective on presenting problems. Specifically, reframing involves taking something out of its logical class and placing it in another category (Sherman & Fredman, 1986). For example, a mother's repeated questioning of her daughter's behavior after a date can be seen as genuine caring and concern rather than that of a nontrusting parent. Through reframing, a negative often can be reframed into a positive.

Tracking

Most family therapists use tracking. Structural family therapists (Minuchin & Fishman, 1981) see tracking as an essential part of the therapist's joining process with the family. During the tracking process the therapist listens intently to family stories and carefully records events and their sequence. Through tracking, the family therapist is able to identify the sequence of events operating in a system to keep it the way it is. What happens between point A and point B or C to create D can be helpful when designing interventions.

Communication Skill-Building Techniques

Communication patterns and processes are often major factors in preventing healthy family functioning. Faulty communication methods and systems are readily observed within one or two family sessions. A variety of techniques can be implemented to focus directly on communication skill building between a couple or between family members. Listening techniques including restatement of content, reflection of feelings, taking turns expressing feelings, and nonjudgmental brainstorming are some of the methods utilized in communication skill building.

In some instances the therapist may attempt to teach a couple how to fight fair, to listen, or may instruct other family members how to express themselves with adults. The family therapist constantly looks for faulty communication patterns that can disrupt the system.

Family Sculpting

Developed by Duhl, Kantor, and Duhl (1973), family sculpting provides for recreation of the family system, representing family members relationships to one another at a specific period of time. The family therapist can use sculpting at any time in therapy by asking family members to physically arrange the family. Adolescents often make good family sculptors as they are provided with a chance to nonverbally communicate thoughts and feelings about the family. Family sculpting is a sound diagnostic tool and provides the opportunity for future therapeutic interventions.

Family Photos

The family photos technique has the potential to provide a wealth of information about past and present functioning. One use of family photos is to go through the family album together. Verbal and nonverbal responses to pictures and events are often quite revealing. Adaptations of this method include asking members to bring in significant family photos and discuss reasons for bringing them, and locating pictures that represent past generations. Through discussion of photos, the therapist often more clearly sees family relationships, rituals, structure, roles, and communication patterns.

Special Days, Mini-Vacations, Special Outings

Couples and families that are stuck frequently exhibit predictable behavior cycles. Boredom is present, and family members take little time with each other. In such cases, family members feel unappreciated and taken for granted. "Caring Days" can be set aside when couples are asked to show caring for each other. Specific times for caring can be arranged with certain actions in mind (Stuart, 1980).

The Empty Chair

The empty chair technique, most often utilized by Gestalt therapists (Perls, Hefferline, & Goodman, 1985), has been adapted to family therapy. In one scenario, a partner may express his or her feelings to a spouse (empty chair), then play the role of the spouse and carry on a dialogue. Expressions to absent family, parents, and children can be arranged through utilizing this technique.

Family Choreography

In family choreography, arrangements go beyond initial sculpting; family members are asked to position themselves as to how they see the family and then to show how they would like the family situation to be. Family members may be asked to reenact a family scene and possibly resculpt it to a preferred scenario. This technique can help a stuck family and create a lively situation.

Family Council Meetings

Family council meetings are organized to provide specific times for the family to meet and share with one another. The therapist might prescribe council meetings as homework, in which case a time is set and rules are outlined. The council should encompass the entire family, and any absent members would have to abide by decisions. The agenda may include any concerns of the family. Attacking others during this time is not acceptable. Family council meetings help provide structure for the family, encourage full family participation, and facilitate communication.

Strategic Alliances

This technique, often used by strategic family therapists, involves meeting with one member of the family as a supportive means of helping that person change. Individual change is expected to affect the entire family system. The individual is often asked to behave or respond in a different manner. This technique attempts to disrupt a circular system or behavior pattern.

Prescribing Indecision

The stress level of couples and families often is exacerbated by a faulty decision-making process. Decisions not made in these cases become problematic in themselves. When straightforward interventions fail, paradoxical interventions often can produce change or relieve symptoms of stress. Such is the case with prescribing indecision. The indecisive behavior is reframed as an example of caring or taking appropriate time on important matters affecting the family. A directive is given to not rush into anything or make hasty decisions. The couple is to follow this directive to the letter.

Putting the Client in Control of the Symptom

This technique, widely used by strategic family therapists, attempts to place control in the hands of the individual or system. The therapist may recommend, for example, the continuation of a symptom such as anxiety or worry. Specific directives are given as to when, where, and with whom, and for what amount of time one should do these things. As the client follows this paradoxical directive, a sense of control over the symptom often develops, resulting in subsequent change.

Conclusion

The techniques suggested here are examples from those that family therapists practice. Counselors will customize them according to presenting problems. With the focus on healthy family functioning, therapists cannot allow themselves to be limited to a prescribed operational procedure, a rigid set of techniques or set of hypotheses. Therefore, creative judgment and personalization of application are encouraged.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON
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CAPS DIGEST

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Building Blocks of Computer-Based Career Planning Systems

JoAnn Harris-Bowlsbey

Introduction

Computer-based career planning systems have been a reality in the United States for 25 years. They had their genesis in the late 1960s, funded by state, federal, and foundation grants. Their development was forged by a handful of significant developers who learned how to harness the technology of interactive mainframe computing to assist individuals with career development and decision making.

Over the span of the 25 years, the technology that delivers computer-based career planning systems has changed dramatically—from very expensive, slow, low-storage mainframe computers to low-cost, fast, high-storage microcomputers. Similarly, the presentation made possible by the technology has advanced—from screens without color packed with text to screens with color, high-resolution graphics, and less text. Indeed, the decade of the 90s offers the capability of full multimedia presentation, combining text, audio, graphics, still pictures, and full-motion video.

While the technology has continued to expand in capability and decline in cost, the populations receiving service from computer-based systems have also continued to expand. The original systems were designed and delivered for high school and community college students. Later development expanded such systems to the middle school years and to the university years. Even more recently, developers have released systems for the adult years, both for career transition and development in the middle adult years, and for retirement planning in the later adult years. Currently, some developers are working on systems for the elementary school years. With the completion of these, systems will exist which offer assistance across the total life span to individuals as they face and make choices related to school, work, and other life roles. With the diversity of systems has also come diversity of settings in which they are placed. In addition to schools, colleges, and universities, computer-based career planning systems are now also commonly used in private counseling settings, military posts, libraries, organizations, and homes.

While both technology and setting for computer-based systems have changed tremendously over their relatively-short lifespan, the basic content of systems has changed far less. If each of the comprehensive systems currently available were analyzed in regard to content, four distinct components could be identified. A computer-based system for any age level, provided in any setting, or delivered by any technology is a unique blend of these four components.

Components of Comprehensive Computer-Based Career Planning Systems

The **first component** is a hidden skeleton, or outline, of the system which expresses the developer's concept of what individuals need in order to accomplish developmental tasks or make informed career decisions. Complex or simple as this outline may be, it usually involves activities designed to assist the user to learn more about self (interests, abilities, and/or values); to relate this self-information to available occupational options; to teach and apply good decision-making principles to the making of choices; and to provide significant databases that represent options for further education, job placement, or other implementation steps. A study of the main menu of a computer-based system, or of the sequence of activities in it, will reveal the theory of the developer about how people make decisions or can be helped to do so.

The basic outline of a system is often embroidered by a significant amount of instructional material which is needed to support the theoretical structure. Such material may include instruction about how occupations are organized, how planful decisions can be made, how life roles interact with each other, how transitions can be mastered, or how jobs can be found. This content is delivered by presentation of text or by structured exercises.

The **second component** of computer-based career planning systems is assessment tools. These are necessary in every system as a way to acquire data about the user (interests, abilities, experiences, personality type, and/or values) in order to create the linkage between that user and possible occupational options. The assessment data may either be acquired by taking inventories on-line, or by entering the results of having taken them in print form. Given a well-researched organizational structure for occupations and a sound research base on assessment tools, it is possible to take into a computer system results from a very wide range of interest inventories, abilities measures, and values inventories. The system then applies algorithms that serve as a common denominator to link characteristics of the user to characteristics of occupations in general, or positions in a specific organization.

The **third component** of computer-based career planning systems is databases. These are files of frequently-updated and accurate information about objects of the user's choice—occupations, schools, military programs, programs of study, financial aid opportunities, apprenticeships, and employers. They are simply structured files of elements of data that people

need in order to make well-informed decisions. They are presented in organized topics, via text and graphics in the past, complemented with audio and visuals in the future.

The **fourth component** of computer-based career planning systems is search strategies. The challenge of decision making is to reach into a pool of options and identify those that are worthy of further investigation and perhaps choice. If users of computer-based systems can identify and prioritize those characteristics that they value most, search strategies can allow users to identify options that qualify quickly. The difficult part is to identify meaningful characteristics and to code options accurately by those characteristics. Search variables are needed for all of the databases in the system so that users can identify options as well as get detailed information about them.

Making New Systems Out of Components

The previous section defined four basic components of a computer-based career guidance system—structure, assessment tools, databases, and searches. By modifying any or all of these, substantially different systems can be assembled for a broad variety of populations and settings. Using the basic structure of a comprehensive career planning system, the author has developed unique systems for specific organizational settings, such as the United States Postal Service or the State of New York; for other countries, such as Canada and Spain; and for diverse settings, such as military posts and universities. This is possible because the basic structure, or process, of career guidance is the same regardless of setting or user age. Thus, the basic logic and flow of the system can be maintained while the text that surrounds or explains that process can be written at different reading levels within different contexts, and in different languages. Further, the graphics that enhance the text can be modified to adapt to the age level, setting, and graphic boards of the end-user sites.

The second component—assessment instruments—can also be adapted for different settings and cultures if research is performed to link the results into a common organizing principle, such as ACT's World-of-Work Map (Prediger, 1981). The latter is a system for classifying all occupations, positions unique to an organization, and programs of study. Thus, if the result of any interest inventory, abilities measure, or work values inventory can be linked to the World-of-Work Map, "regions" of occupations, positions, or programs of study can be suggested to the user for serious consideration.

Given, then, the World-of-Work Map as a generic organizational structure for user self-information and user options, the assessment instruments of choice in a given setting, organization, or country can be substituted in the generic career guidance system to make it uniquely useful in that setting, organization, or country.

The third component—data files—can be modified for a specific population in number, reading level, topics addressed, quantity of data about each entry in the file, and/or language. This fact provides a great deal of versatility in system content and makes systems unique to a particular setting. Due to the ease of changing this component, position descriptions unique to an organization can be easily added to a system and accessed by means of user self-variables (interest, skills, job preferences, etc.) due to the common linkage of assessment results and positions to the World-of-Work Map.

Finally, the fourth component—search variables—can also be easily modified to meet the needs of a particular target population or database. For example, employees in an organization requesting a customized system may benefit from searching a file of positions in the organization by interests, skills, experience level, salary grade, location of work, and projected demand. As another example, a customized state career information delivery system (CIDS) might need the addition of state-specific files of apprenticeship sponsors, financial aid opportunities, and career technology schools. Search variables for such files need to be identified which will both be helpful to the user in searching the file and supported by available data.

Conclusion

In conclusion, a computer-based career guidance system built on a sound structure that supports career choices and development can be a many-splendored thing for multiple settings, populations, and cultures. This is accomplished by the ability to change its text, graphics, assessment inventories, databases, and search variables, thus creating systems with significantly different content and appearance delivered by a common "engine."

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CAPS DIGEST

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Challenges to and Censorship of School Guidance Materials

Marla Peterson and William Poppen

The Right to Challenge/The Right to Respond

Textbook controversies are not new. Throughout the history of public education in the United States there have been well-intentioned groups that thought they had detected a conspiracy to subvert the nation's children. However, specific challenges to school guidance materials are rather recent phenomena—occurring primarily after 1960. This can partly be attributed to the fact that many schools simply had no counselors prior to that time. However, developmental guidance materials have been discovered and they are being challenged.

A challenge should not be equated with censorship. Some parents, for personal reasons, may request a school to provide alternative guidance materials or to have their children excused from certain guidance activities. Many schools will accommodate these requests. Censorship, however, is a main tactic of some national organizations that want to change the way schools select and use educational materials. Censorship, as defined by the American Library Association's Intellectual Freedom Committee, is the removal of material from open access by government authority (American Library Association, 1988). Censors try to impose their views by deciding what others should not read, see, or hear.

Special interests groups are trying to force many school systems to remove or alter developmental guidance materials and practices. The freedom of these groups to speak and write is guaranteed by the First Amendment; however, some of these groups are unwilling to grant such freedom to those who hold opposing views. Special interests groups are an essential ingredient in a democracy and contribute to the formation of public policy, but they can also be a negative and restrictive force.

Few challenges by special interests groups reach the courts, but self-censorship happens. A group makes itself known and a counselor silently retreats from the use of established materials and practices. The special interests group goes away and so do some developmentally-appropriate guidance materials.

What Developmental Guidance Materials Have Been Challenged?

Each year, People for the American Way, an organization that is opposed to censorship, compiles a list of challenges to school textbooks and materials. This annual compilation includes attempts to remove guidance materials, library books, textbooks, films, and other instructional materials. A review of the four most recent annual reports indicates that a wide array of guidance materials have been challenged in various school districts throughout the United States. It is important to note that in the vast majority of cases where challenges have occurred, school boards have elected to retain and use the challenged materials.

Reasons for Challenging Developmental Guidance Materials

An analysis of 53 recent challenges which occurred in 1988-1991 reveals that the following reasons were those most frequently cited by challengers:

- "New Age" concerns—hypnotism, self-hypnosis, meditation, Far East religions, guided fantasy, visualization
- Undermining parental authority/family values and teaching children they can handle problems on their own
- Promoting secular humanism

Other reasons, "having teachers and untrained persons act as therapists," "having children harmed in some way because of exposure to certain material or practice," and "using materials unproven by research" seem to be emerging as three that challengers are citing more frequently.

What Are the Pivotal Issues?

The challengers have the right to challenge. If that opportunity does not exist, there is little reason for the First Amendment to exist. When public schools are involved, however, a number of **pivotal issues** become apparent. Items deemed by the state to be in the best interest of all students are not always acceptable to certain parents and special interests groups. Even after thorough adherence to materials selection policies, a school district that adopts a set of materials for counselors to use in helping build self-esteem may find itself the subject of charges by selected parents and, in some cases, well-financed special interests groups. *How can the rights of the many be protected and the rights of the minority be accommodated?*

Parental and community involvement should be encouraged. At issue, here, is the notion that a small, vocal minority, often well-organized and well-financed by legal defense funds, can make it appear as though it represents the community as a whole. Group guidance and health education activities related to sex education and AIDS education have been opposed in certain communities. In some cases a small group of parents has requested the removal of a state- or locally-developed sex-education curriculum and requested that one which meets their criteria be substituted for the "offending" curriculum. *Should materials that have been selected on the basis of carefully-designed procedures and policies be altered, removed, or replaced when opposition by a few emerges?*

Not only has the use of certain developmental guidance materials been challenged, but the freedom to counsel in both individual and group settings has been questioned on occasion. Sometimes it is the use of materials which has caused certain groups to call for the removal of school counselors. During the 1989-90 school year the Armstrong County Taxpayers League of Armstrong, Pennsylvania objected to some developmental guidance materials (People for the

American Way, 1990). In addition to requesting the removal of guidance materials, the League campaigned to remove all guidance counselors.

Counselors must assess whether they are functioning in an environment where the school board has a commitment to free expression or whether it is a board which placates a vocal minority. In some cases, counselors may find themselves working with board members who have been elected with the support of special interests groups whose agendas include forcing their viewpoint on materials selection and curriculum practices. *To what extent are counselors free to use certain materials that support the goals of the school without fear of retribution and, at the same time, to what extent do counselors have support for designing alternative programs to meet unique student and parental needs?*

Counselors have sought ways to encourage students to sort out their own values. However, such activities become troublesome to certain parents who confuse values education with morality education. Many school personnel choose to avoid private morality topics, which they believe are better left to the home and church.

Some parents believe that religious beliefs and private morality issues should have a place in the school curriculum. The stated goal of several special interests groups is to bring public education under the control of Christians. The absence of references to religion by guidance materials and textbooks authors, counselors, and teachers have brought accusations that the schools are in fact practicing religion—the religion of secular humanism. *To what extent should private morality be addressed in the nation's public schools?*

The pivotal issues surrounding challenges to school guidance materials and programs can be further reduced to two very important questions that must be addressed if schools are to deal effectively with challenges to developmental guidance materials: (1) *Who determines what school guidance materials are used in public schools?* and (2) *Is the role of schools seen primarily as a place where diverse ideas should be presented and explored or is the role of schools to be primarily that of transmitting community values?*

Responsible Actions by Responsible Counselors

Before a Challenge Occurs

Peterson and Poppen (1992) have developed a 16-item *Actions to Prevent Problems Checklist* which outlines steps that school districts and counselors can take to prevent the likelihood that challenges will result in censorship. The 16 actions are not arranged in order of importance, but four may be of high priority for many counselors:

- Base developmental guidance programing on sound educational practices which are appropriate for the age and maturity level of students.
- Relate developmental guidance goals and activities to district and state educational goals and to student educational needs.
- Ask the Board of Education to act on materials selection and materials reconsideration policies and procedures.
- Read "The School Counselor and Censorship," the position statement of the American School Counselor Association.

After a Challenge Occurs

If challenges happen, responsible actions are needed by school counselors:

- Listen carefully to those who express special concerns.
- Avoid debate, but do state the basis for current practices.
- Handle complaints with carefully constructed procedures and accurate records of all contact and actions.
- Keep the focus of the complaint on the material rather than on the program.
- Ask for assistance from other district personnel, publishers (several publishers of "challenged" guidance materials have excellent printed materials for use in "challenge" situations), and professional associations.

Conclusion

Rights of the many must be protected and rights of the minority must be accommodated. To achieve this end, school counselors must know why challenges to school guidance materials are occurring and the pivotal issues which accompany these challenges. Counselors must assure that developmental guidance programs are based on sound educational practices and that responsible actions are taken if a challenge occurs.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Coping With Fears and Stress

Edward H. Robinson III and Joseph C. Rotter

Introduction

Children's fears can have a self-preserving and motivational quality or have an inhibiting or debilitating effect. According to Morris & Kratochwill (1983) 4% to 8% of all children in the United States will receive clinical treatment for fear-related disorders. The numbers of untreated population often run as much as two times those of the treated population. In a recent survey of teachers in American international schools, the vast majority of teachers believed that children were adversely affected by fears and that as many as 50% were not functioning effectively at some time because of fear-related concerns (Robinson, Rotter, Fey, & Robinson, 1991).

Environment vs. Heredity

The controversy of heredity versus environment is always an issue in examining the development of attributes in children. Kagan (1986) has been engaged in a longitudinal study of children from birth to age 8. His findings suggest that children may have some inherent predisposition toward fearfulness. Some children are much more prone to fearful behaviors from birth than other children. He also noted that over a period of 8 years some children who were more fearful at birth became less so and some who were less fearful became more so. This suggests that, although there may be a hereditary link involved in the development of fear, environmental factors also play a large part in the development of children's fears. Although Kagan's research suggests that some children will be prone to react more to fear objects, it is generally agreed that all children will exhibit fears and, while many are transitory in nature, the fears appear at about the same age for most children (Morris & Kratochwill, 1983; Robinson, Robinson, Whetsell, & Weber, 1988).

Fear Cycle

Fear is the anticipation of or awareness of exposure to injury, pain, or loss. A fear object, then, is any object or conceptualization that the child anticipates might cause injury, pain, or loss. The degree of fear is related to the child's perception of vulnerability. In the fear cycle, the child perceives an object or concept, which is compared with one's sense of self and one's personal resources. The child may experience this with a sense of power and a feeling of confidence (affect); the child may realize that he or she has the resources to deal effectively with the source of potential threat (cognition); the child may get butterflies (physiological response); and then the child may take some action (behavioral response). As a result of the action, the child again examines the potential threat of the fear object. The degree to which the child's action lessens the potential threat influences the child's perception of the fear object. The more children successfully handle such situations, the less vulnerable they may feel. Conversely, the less successful they are, the more vulnerable children may feel. Vulnerable children may express more concerns about an array of fear objects and may generally approach new situations with greater trepidation. Some children may be generally successful but maintain "unreasonable fears" with regard to a particular fear object.

Foundations of Successful Coping

Children who have confidence in their ability to master and control events and challenges in their lives are less vulnerable to fear. These children have a sense of personal power. In contrast, a child who feels helpless in the face of danger is vulnerable to fears. Related to power are these three important constructs:

Self-worth. Children who feel good about themselves, hold themselves in high esteem, and experience success in meeting normal developmental tasks have well developed concepts of self-worth. Based on this success identity, they are more likely to have the confidence needed to explore and attempt new strategies to overcome fears.

Security. Children who have adults in their lives who care for and encourage them develop a sense of security. Because they have allies on whom they can count, they are able to build supportive interpersonal relationships with peers and adults.

Control. Children who have been given some autonomy in decision making learn they have a degree of control over their lives. They learn to assess their strengths and weaknesses and accept that coping with dilemmas in life is a natural part of growing up.

Terrors

Children can be adversely affected by disasters and terrors (Figley & McChubbin, 1983; Terr, 1981; Trautman, 1987). A traumatic event in a child's life can lead to fear-related problems that interfere with the child's normal functioning. A child who otherwise is functioning on a high level with regard to the concepts of control, self-worth, and security may develop reactions to specific fear objects in this way.

Efficacy of Current Approaches

Counselors approach work with children on issues of stress anxiety and fear from the particular theoretical background to which they might adhere. The literature suggests that both insight and behavioral approaches can work with some children (Miller, Barrett, Hampe, & Noble, 1972). However, each approach does not seem to work with all children. This suggests that while effective, each of the current approaches to counseling children regarding their fears has some limitations.

Since the development of counseling models has not yet reached the point of explaining all phenomenon it is important that we continue to develop more comprehension models and organize intervention strategies into a systematic approach that can be effective with a broad range of children under varying circumstances.

Counselor Strategies

Counselors need a multifaceted delivery system that integrates strategies along a continuum for primary prevention of disturbances related to fear and anxiety. The model suggested here posits three levels of intervention. The first level focuses on developmental guidance and counseling activities designed for all children to develop a sense of control, security and self-worth and activities that help children's exploration of normative childhood fears in order to "gauge it to the power of proper reaction" (Hall, 1897).

The second level of prevention should focus on higher risk children. Children who have been exposed to traumatic events in life are more susceptible to developing fear-related problems. Such events can be collective, such as Hurricane Hugo in South Carolina in 1989 or the San Francisco earthquake of the same year, or they can be of more limited scope affecting several children or just one.

Finally, those children who are experiencing fear disturbances are the target of the third level of intervention. The time to prevent the downward cycle is when the child is first experiencing a lack of effective coping regarding fear and anxiety.

1. Developmental Interventions

The goal of developmental intervention is to assist all children in making successful transitions in meeting life's challenges in the present and to build skills, knowledge and awareness to be successful in the future. In this case it means helping children develop successful strategies in coping with normative aspects of fear and stress and promoting the child's sense of control, security and self-worth that generally lead to successful coping.

Knowing information about normative fears in childhood allows the counselor to design activities that help children explore these fears and to develop an understanding of coping strategies for meeting their needs in dealing with them.

The second developmental approach is one many school counselors may already be using, working to help children develop a better sense of control over the life course by providing activities on decision making; helping children develop a sense of their strengths through success experiences and increasing a sense of self-worth by providing activities that stress interpersonal skills.

2. High-Risk Children

Children who have experienced personal terrors or disasters or are experiencing a high level of stress are more likely to develop coping problems related to fears and stress. Individual instances related to moving, changing schools, failure, loss of a close relative, divorce, or bodily injury often place children in a vulnerable position in life. Disasters such as earthquakes, hurricanes, or acts of violence such as mass shootings or war affect large numbers of children at the same time. In such situations the counselor will wish to target these children, parents, teachers for special intervention. Group counseling activities that help children explore self in relationship to their life events are most appropriate. Consultation with parents and teachers on the signs of post traumatic stress symptoms and activities they can do to help children put such events into perspective is another important intervention strategy for high-risk children.

3. Fear-Related Problems

Helping children who are experiencing an inability to cope constitutes the third level of prevention. A summary of the research indicates that children who are helped as soon as possible regarding fear-related problems are most likely to develop ways to overcome those difficulties (Robinson, Rotter, Fey, & Robinson, 1991). When fear-related problems do surface early intervention prevents more severe problems.

In counseling the fearful child the first stage should be devoted to providing a cathartic release for the child, validating the child's fear (the child's fears, no matter how mystical or imaginary, are real to the child) and establishing a relationship characterized by trust and open communication.

The second stage deals with assessing the child's relationship with the fear. Does it seem that the child's difficulty focuses specifically on one fear object or multiple objects? Does the fear seem to be situationally specific or more generalized? Does the child seem to have a strong or weak sense of control, security, self-worth?

In stage three the counselor may choose systematic desensitization, cognitive restructuring, cognitive self-control, relaxation training or a combination. Or the counselor might choose a life skills training approach.

The final and fourth stage is evaluation. How well do the strategies employed help the child improve?

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Counseling Teenage Fathers

The "Maximizing a Life Experience" (MALE) Group

Wayne C. Huey

Introduction

Teenage pregnancy is not new, and many programs have been developed and implemented to address the problem; however, the emphasis has been primarily on the teenage mother and her child. In most instances, teenage pregnancy has been viewed solely as a woman's issue, with the adolescent father regarded as a shadowy, unknown figure—more a culprit than a potential contributor to either the mother or his offspring (Parke, Power, & Fisher, 1980).

School and agency counselors must continue to offer programs to support young mothers and their children, but this forgotten half of the teenage pregnancy problem cannot continue to be overlooked. Recently, the plight of the unwed, teenage father has begun to gain attention (Robinson & Barret, 1985; Stengel, 1985). Why has it taken so long to recognize the needs of the teenage father? Young men in American society generally are expected to have it all together or to pretend that they do. Too often, unwed teenage fathers have been stereotyped as callous, "macho studs" who are interested only in their own pleasure. Because of these stereotypes, counselors, educators, and others did not believe that the young men recognized their need for help or that they would participate in programs designed to assist them. Studies now show that most teenage fathers do not have it all together and are just as confused, afraid, and anxious as the young women they impregnate (Jensen, 1979; Robinson & Barret, 1985).

The "Maximizing a Life Experience" (MALE) Group

Most teenage fathers care about what happens to their children (Barret & Robinson, 1981; Earls & Siegel, 1980; Parke, Power, & Fisher, 1980; Stengel, 1985) and need to be given the opportunity to explore their concerns and feelings; however, they do not usually ask for help on their own (Coleman, 1981). Little has been reported in the literature about the counselor's role in providing support for unwed fathers. Articles on teenage pregnancy occasionally will include a paragraph suggesting that the young man also should be helped, but specific programs designed to assist the adolescent father are still relatively rare (Foster & Miller, 1980; Stengel, 1985; Wagner, 1980). This digest describes a group counseling program that was developed to provide support and assistance for unwed teenage fathers in the school.

Program Rationale and Objectives

The Maximizing a Life Experience (MALE) program was developed to focus on a different set of the three Rs: Rights, Responsibilities, and Resources. The general goals were to help the young men understand their emotional rights (to express feelings and concerns and receive emotional support) and responsibilities, as well as their legal rights and responsibilities, and to learn about available resources. The specific objectives for the program were to help the teenage fathers:

- Learn more about themselves and better understand their feelings about their present situation.
- Understand their legal and emotional rights and responsibilities.
- Recognize that pregnancy cannot be dismissed as an accident.
- Obtain factual information about reproductive biology, contraception, and sexually transmitted diseases.
- Identify and explore their present and future options.
- Learn how to solve problems and make sound decisions.
- Realize what resources are available and how to use them.

The MALE Group

The eight group participants were enrolled in a suburban high school with a student population that was primarily Black and from lower socioeconomic levels. The young men, two of whom were expectant fathers, were between 15 and 18 years old and had academic averages that ranged from a B to a D. About half of them hoped to continue their education after high school graduation. The average age of first sexual activity was 12, which is consistent with reported data for Black men (Earls & Siegel, 1980). Two of the young men still dated the mothers of their children; they all maintained regular contact with their children.

The MALE group met once a week for 8 weeks in 1-hour sessions during the school day and took one 3-hour field trip on a teacher workday. The meetings were scheduled on a rotating basis so that group members did not miss the same class more than twice. They were required to obtain assignments ahead of time and to keep up in their course work.

Sessions 1–9

The first session included four primary tasks: program overview and logistical information, a get-acquainted activity, setting group and individual goals, and development of ground rules.

The second session began with a film, *Teenage Father* (Hackford, 1978), which followed a teenage couple from the time they learned that the girl was pregnant until a decision was reached as to what action to take. Filmed from the young man's perspective, it served as an excellent stimulus for discussion of values and attitudes regarding teenage sexual activity.

The third session also began with an audiovisual presentation. Titled *His Baby Too: Problems of Teenage Pregnancy*, the filmstrip "defines and highlights the role of the unwed father, and stresses the importance of his active role in solving the problems of an unplanned pregnancy" (Vanderslice, 1980, p. 4). Discussion questions, suggested activities, and a bibliography, combined with the audiovisual presentation, made this an excellent resource and

stimulated further discussion of options available to the teenage father or prospective teenage father.

Learning the legal rights and responsibilities of unwed teenage fathers was one of the primary reasons some of the members joined the group. An attorney from the Legal Aid Society was provided with a copy of the group's questions before the fourth session and came prepared to respond to those and any additional questions.

The fifth and sixth sessions were designed to provide information on reproductive biology, contraception, and sexually transmitted diseases. In Session 5, a speaker from Planned Parenthood presented basic information on reproductive processes and contraception. Session 6 was a field trip to a Planned Parenthood center, where a staff member reviewed information on reproduction and contraception and presented information on sexually transmitted diseases. The young men were then given a tour of the center. Services available for their sexual partners were also discussed.

Phipps-Yonas (1980) reported that teenagers who use contraception effectively seem to be better problem solvers. The seventh session was designed, therefore, to teach effective problem-solving and decision-making models and to give group members the opportunity to use their new skills in simulated situations.

In the eighth session each member was given an opportunity to use the group resources and his new skills in selecting and working through a personal problem related to being a teenage father. Throughout these sessions, it was emphasized to the adolescent fathers that what they did and what they became depended on their own concerted efforts.

The ninth session included three primary tasks: reviewing and summarizing the group experience, providing information about the availability of resources and completing a group evaluation and posttest.

Program Evaluation and Follow-Up

On a 10-point scale, with 10 being the most favorable rating, the members gave the group experience an overall rating of 9.5. Group members also answered questions on what they liked best about the group, what they would change, and what was the most important thing they learned. Their responses indicated that they liked the supportive atmosphere and a chance to discuss their situations with others who had similar problems. Most of them had not been aware that they shared the unwed father role before joining the group. The most commonly suggested change was to have longer and more frequent sessions.

Changes also were noted on several posttest items. For example, seven members reported that they: (a) now consider the possibility of pregnancy before having sexual relations and (b) would now consider abortion as an option, compared with five positive responses to these two items on the pretest. All eight group members agreed that the man should share contraceptive responsibility, compared with four on the pretest; and, seven members reported that they now used contraceptives consistently, compared with three on the pretest.

In a follow-up of the eight group members one year later, four were in college or technical school, two were in the military, and two were still in high school. None were married or had a second child, and all were continuing to contribute toward the support of their first child. The only change in the follow-up two years later was that one young man had dropped out of college, and one had graduated from high school. Both of them were working full time.

Conclusion and Implications

The experience of fatherhood is a life-changing event. School counselors must overcome the prevalent myths about teenage fathers and assume a more equitable position in providing services for these young men. They need help in understanding their feelings, their legal and emotional rights and responsibilities, their alternatives, and the possible consequences of these choices.

The MALE group program was an attempt to provide unwed teenage fathers with knowledge, resources, care, support, and counsel so that they could cope more effectively with their quickly changing lives and become productive citizens who could compete successfully with their peers.

Becoming a father during adolescence has serious consequences for individual development, and teenage fathers are not psychologically prepared for their new role. School counselors must become more active in responding to the silent cries of the forgotten half of the teenage pregnancy problem.

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Counseling Using Technology With At-Risk Youth

John A. Casey

Expanded Use of Technology in Counseling

Counselors and related human service professionals are increasingly utilizing computer technology in their counseling with at-risk youth. While early use of computers for testing, administration, career, and personal counseling relied primarily upon counseling-specific software, more recent adaptations of noncounseling software for counseling purposes are leading toward successful interventions with at-risk populations.

Who is "At-Risk?"

The literature presents a range of definitions for "at-risk" youth. Some authors identify risk factors with predictive validity for such unwanted behaviors as truancy, dropping out of school, or criminal activity. Others contend that all youth are potentially at risk of not achieving their potential. The label is often assigned to both gifted and remedial learners who do not fit the mainstream school population. The computer strategies discussed in this document usually have applications to all of these populations.

Adapting Software for Personal Counseling

The personal counseling process has been described as having at least six stages: (a) relationship building, (b) needs assessment, (c) goal setting, (d) intervention, (e) transfer and maintenance of newly acquired skills, and (f) termination with evaluation. Counselors report promising use of technology in three of these domains: relationship building, needs assessment, and intervention.

Relationship Building

Counselors and related professionals have noted the attraction of home entertainment software, e.g., Nintendo video games, to numerous at-risk youth. These professionals have infused video games into the relationship-building stage of the counseling process through several strategies.

- In Lancaster, Texas, children resistive to counseling have found *The Print Shop* a vehicle for developing rapport and expressing their feelings (Henderson, 1989).
- In Long Beach, California, reluctant learning disabled clients become engaged with the counselor through games of familiarity and attainable success (e.g., *Wheel of Fortune, MacConcentration*).
- In Guerneville, California, students and counselors speaking different languages find common enthusiasm with nonverbal computer games through the counselor (e.g., *Brickles, Hot Air Balloon*).

Needs Assessment

Counselors are reporting sporadic yet promising uses of computer software for assessing client need. One example:

- In Stratford, Connecticut, with boys ages 10–17, Margolies (1991) reports we can observe much about the child: their level of dependency on the therapist, fears, blocking points, approach to and length of play, ability to appreciate or elaborate on fantasy, sense of humor. Other games or drawing programs are used as projective tools...."

Intervention

A variety of interventions are being implemented by counselors with at-risk youth.

- In Rohnert Park, California, ninth graders identified as having the "highest risk" of dropping out are paired with graduate counseling students who together write poetry on word processors, create art on *Kid Pix*, or evaluate a variety of low cost shareware games. They subsequently visit a nearby elementary school where the older student tutors a first grader on easy but motivating learning games (Casey & Ramsammy, 1992).
- In West Anchorage, Alaska, at-risk ninth graders are trained as computer resource tutors for other teachers, students, and staff (Orloff, 1991).
- In Palo Alto, California, a counselor reports empowerment through both "playful" software such as *Jam Session* (where students can play like MTV musicians) and more serious software such as spell and grammar checkers on word processing documents (Orloff, 1991).

Prevention Through Groups, Classroom Guidance and Consultation

Professionals are discovering that software can be adapted for prevention through groups, classroom guidance, and consultation with teachers on curriculum and classroom management.

- Using an overhead projection of the computer screen, students develop cooperative learning, positive interdependence, group problem solving and social skills by playing, as a group, such software as *Oregon Trail* or *Carmen Sandiego*.
- In Greenwood, Mississippi, kindergarten use of technology "encourages students to become their own problem solvers, ...thinking and discovering answers on their own" (Goal, 1992).
- In Peach Springs, Arizona, dropout rates among Hualapai Indians have plummeted with the infusion of videodiscs, inter-

active video, and satellite communication into the curriculum *without counselors.*

- In numerous locations, counselors are consulting with teachers to develop intergenerational communication between at-risk youth and senior citizens, through both live computer activities and electronic mail (Henderson, 1989).

Why Technology?

A variety of advantages are associated with the use of technology in counseling with at-risk youth. As earlier noted, youth usually have positive associations with video game technology; covert learning can and does take place without the normal resistance to overt educational approaches. Moreover, they represent multisensory approaches to learning using visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learning modalities. Individualized learning can set realistic goals, and encourages retrial of failures without group embarrassment.

Gifford (1991) lists seven attributes that make video games both fun and effective learning tools:

- *Free play (creativity):* Electronic games are not tied to the limitations of space, time, or gravity in the way that mechanical toys are. Freed from these constraints, kids can exercise their fantasies without regard to real-world boundaries.
- *Microworlds:* Computers allow us to move with ease between electronic "microworlds" from one graphical environment to another. The exhilaration of multimedia world-hopping contrasts sharply with the static feeling of conventional classrooms.
- *Instant replay encourages risk taking:* Computers can provide an instant replay of students' performances, allowing them to study, edit, or try again in a safe environment for risk-taking.
- *Mastery:* Even when kids are struggling to learn a complex computer game, they usually feel they are in control. When the worst happens, they can always shut the machine off. The feeling of control is encouraged by the ease with which players can repeat an activity until it has been mastered.
- *Interaction:* Kids tend to experience computers as partners in learning. They relish this nonhierarchical relationship in which the roles of teacher and student are blurred or altered.
- *Clear goals:* Children in the classroom cannot always see the point of learning math, science, or social studies. When they play electronic games, they are usually working toward a clear objective—making a rescue, unlocking a door, unearthing hidden treasure. Compelling goals give game players high levels of motivation.
- *Intense absorption:* Short attention spans and poor impulse control frequently disappear with effective computer interventions, supporting the notion changing the environment, not the child, can support individual success.

Considerations

As with any emerging counseling tool, numerous pitfalls exist in applying technology to work with at-risk youth. These include:

- *Unappealing software*—rote learning and other overtly educational software are usually met with yawns.
- *Waiting too long*—older computers, like Apple IIe's, or too many students for one computer create more problems than they solve.
- *Inadequate training*—constrained budgets limit training opportunities, but successful counselors work in concert with other technology-literate staff.
- *Depersonalization*—the focus should be on the client first, the technology second. If the client or counselor lose this priority, problems may be exacerbated by the technology.

Additional ethical, moral, and practical issues associated with technology and counseling are discussed by Walz, Gazda, and Shertzer (1991).

Discussion and Summary

Current trends in technological developments suggest that home entertainment video games and educational learning software are on convergent paths. Astute educators have identified these technologies as effective for student motivation and have integrated them with traditional curricula to reduce at-risk behavior Counselors who identify and implement effective uses for technology, including CD-ROM and video laserdiscs, are likely to maintain their positions during the current educational restructuring movement.

Additional research on outcome effectiveness, individual differences in computer motivation, and other aspects of this emerging field are needed. New adaptations, such as infusion into family therapy and other counseling services, remain equally unexplored. Nevertheless, early signs of success are encouraging and challenge the counselor to remain current with new technologies and their potential for adaptation to counseling with at-risk youth.

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Empowering Young Black Males

Courtland C. Lee

Introduction

Young Black males in contemporary American society face major challenges to their development and well-being. Social and economic indicators of Black male development provide a profile of an individual whose quality of life is in serious jeopardy. Significantly, the literature in recent years has referred to the young Black male as an endangered species (Gibbs, 1988). From an early age, it has become increasingly apparent that Black males are confronted with a series of obstacles in their attempts to attain academic, career and personal-social success.

The Black Male in America's Schools

Black male youth face formidable challenges to their educational development. Statistics on educational attainment would suggest that many Black youth are at-risk in the nation's schools. However, a closer examination of the data indicates that Black males are at greatest risk. According to Reed (1988):

- The overall mean achievement scores for Black male students are below those of other groups in the basic subject areas.
- Black males are much more likely to be placed in classes for the educable mentally retarded and for students with learning disabilities than in gifted and talented classes.
- Black males are far more likely to be placed in general education and vocational high school curricular tracks than in an academic track.
- Black males are suspended from school more frequently and for longer periods of time than other student groups.
- Black females complete high school at higher rates than Black males.

Such data are compounded by the fact that Black males are frequently the victims of negative attitudes and lowered expectations from teachers, counselors, and administrators. Educators may expect to encounter academic and social problems from Black males, which often leads to a self-fulfilling prophecy (Washington & Lee, 1982).

Frustration, underachievement or ultimate failure, therefore, often comprise the contemporary educational reality for scores of Black male youth. It is evident that Black males from kindergarten through high school tend to experience significant alienation from America's schools. The consequences of this are major limitations on socioeconomic mobility, ultimately leading to high rates of unemployment, crime, and incarceration for massive numbers of young Black men.

Psychosocial Development of Young Black Males

Theorists such as Erikson (1950) have suggested that major aspects of human development unfold in a series of life stages. As individuals progress through the life stages, they must achieve a series of developmental tasks. The achievement of these tasks at one stage of life influences success with tasks in succeeding stages.

When considering the psychosocial development of young Black males, it is important to note that social, cultural and economic forces throughout American history have combined to keep Black males from assuming traditional masculine roles (Staples, 1982). The historical persistence of these forces and limited access to masculine status have generally resulted in significant social disadvantage for Black males. In many cases, this disadvantage has prevented them from mastering crucial developmental tasks in childhood and adolescence, which in turn negatively influences their academic, career, and social success in later stages of life.

African American Culture: Its Importance to Black Male Socialization

Empowerment interventions for young Black males must take into account African/African American culture and its crucial role in fostering socialization. An examination of core Black culture (i.e., those attitudes, values and behaviors which have developed in homogeneous Black communities where rudimentary Afrocentric ways have been preserved in relatively large measure), will reveal that many Black boys are socialized within a cultural tradition that places a high premium on group-centered cooperation and fosters development through cognitive, affective, and behavioral expressiveness (Nobles, 1980; Pasteur & Toldson, 1982).

The cultural dimensions of Black male socialization can often be seen in peer group interactions among boys. Within these groups young boys often develop unique and expressive styles of behavior sometimes referred to as "cool pose" (Majors, 1986). "Cool pose" has a significant relationship with optimal mental health and well-being for young Black males. Observing Black male youth, the dimensions associated with "cool pose" are readily apparent in such phenomena as the expressiveness of rap music or athletic prowess.

Empowerment Interventions: Guidelines for Action

The academic and social challenges which confront Black male youth in the school setting suggest a pressing need for programmed intervention on the part of educators. Counselors committed to the cause of Black male empowerment can play an active role in promoting developmental initiatives at both the elementary and secondary level. Such initiatives must focus on helping Black male youth develop attitudes, behaviors, and values necessary to function at optimal levels at school and in the world. Young Black males need specific guidance to master educational challenges.

Such guidance might be provided through culture-specific developmental group counseling experiences in the elementary or secondary school setting. These empowerment experiences should develop the attitudes and skills necessary for academic achievement, foster positive and responsible behavior, provide opportuni-

ties to critically analyze the image of Black men, expose participants to Black male role models, and develop a sense of cultural and historical pride in the accomplishments of Black men.

Four general guidelines are suggested for the development of any school-based empowerment strategies:

Empowerment strategies should be developmental in nature. Far too often, the only guidance young Black males receive comes after they have committed an offense against the social order. Generally the goal of such guidance is not development, but rather punishment. Concerned counselors should act in a proactive manner to help empower Black male youth to meet challenges that often lead to problems in school and beyond.

Empowerment strategies should provide for competent adult Black male leaders. This is important for two reasons. First, only a Black man can teach a Black boy how to be a man. By virtue of attaining adult status as Black and male, he alone has the gender and cultural perspective to accurately address the developmental challenges facing Black boys. While Black women and individuals of both sexes from other ethnic backgrounds can play a significant role in helping to empower young Black males, it is only a Black man who can model the attitudes and behaviors of successful Black manhood. Second, there is a paucity of Black male educators in American schools. It is not unusual for a Black boy to go through an entire school career and have little or no interaction with a Black male teacher, counselor, or administrator. When necessary, therefore, efforts should be made to actively recruit, train, and support competent Black men who can serve as leaders or role models in empowerment interventions.

Empowerment strategies should incorporate African/African American culture. Counselors should find ways to incorporate African American (Black) cultural dimensions into the empowerment process for young Black males. Culture-specific approaches to counseling intervention transform basic aspects of Black life, generally ignored or perceived as negative in the traditional educational framework, into positive developmental experiences. For example, Black art forms (e.g., music, poetry) and culture-specific curriculum materials might be incorporated into empowerment interventions as counseling or educational aids.

Empowerment strategies should include some type of "Rites-of-Passage" ceremony. Unlike the traditions of African culture where great significance was attached to the transition from boyhood to manhood, there is little ceremony in Black American culture for the formal acknowledgement of life transitions for young boys. It is important, therefore, that at the completion of any empowerment experience for Black boys there is some ceremonial acknowledgement of their accomplishment. Parents and men from the community should be encouraged to participate in such "rites-of-passage" ceremonies.

Educational Advocacy for Black Male Students

As previously mentioned, the academic and social problems confronting Black male students are often exacerbated by the attitudes and practices of educators, which often suggest a lack of sensitivity or understanding of Black culture and the dynamics of male development. Counselors committed to Black male empowerment, therefore, may need to assume the role of ***educational advocate.*** Educational advocacy involves consultation activities initiated by counselors to help their fellow educators better understand the dynamics of male development from a Black perspective and make the teaching-learning process more relevant to Black male realities.

The following are guidelines for such consultation activities:

Educator attitudes and behavior. It is an educator's unalterable responsibility to challenge and to change any attitudes or behaviors which may be detrimental to the welfare of Black male students. Educational advocates, therefore, should help school personnel: (1) examine the incidence of discipline in the classroom to ensure that Black males are not receiving a disproportionate share of reprimands or negative feedback; (2) delineate and challenge stereotypes they may have acquired about Black boys and their expectations of them; and (3) develop an understanding of gender and cultural diversity.

Curriculum content and methods. Optimal learning occurs when a Black male perceives that he and his unique view of the world is appreciated. Educational advocates, therefore, should help school personnel: (1) find ways to integrate the accomplishments of Black men into the existing curriculum structure, and (2) continuously examine the curriculum to ensure that Black males are included in primary and nonstereotyped roles.

Ensuring role model presence. In addition to increasing the number of Black male educators, strategies must be aimed at compensating for role model absence in the school setting. Educational advocates, therefore, should help school personnel: (1) find ways to ensure the inclusion of Black males in classroom activities as tutors, educational assistants, storytellers, "room fathers," and field trip escorts; (2) find ways to encourage the participation of Black males in Parent-Teacher Associations and other school organizations; and (3) acknowledge the importance of non-educational personnel (e.g., Black male custodians and lunchroom staff) as valid mentors/role models and find ways to use them in the educational process wherever possible.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

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The Expressive Arts in Counseling

Samuel T. Gladding

Overview

Art has played a part in the helping professions since ancient times (Fleshman & Fryrear, 1981). As early as 500 BC, the Egyptians utilized concerts and dance in the treatment of the mentally ill. Likewise, the Greeks used drama as a way of assisting the disturbed in purging their repressed emotions. The Hebrews relied on music, and other arts, in restoring and promoting mental health too, the most famous example being David who played his harp to soothe a distraught King Saul. Literature was seen by the Romans as a specific way of helping too. Lucretius thought poetry could disperse the "terrors of the soul" (Coughlin, 1990, p. A6).

In recent times, there has been renewed interest in the use of the arts in counseling, especially art forms that are considered "expressive." Informed counselors can assist their clients in developing their potential through concrete and abstract verbal and nonverbal art forms that inspire, direct, and heal. Therefore, it is important that counselors know how the arts are used in helping. This type of background enables them to make informed decisions based on the type of treatment available. It can also give them more versatility in the services they provide.

What are the Expressive Arts?

The expressive arts consists of verbal and nonverbal ways of representing feelings. They allow individuals options in conveying their emotions. Expressive arts usually take the form of a unique creation, such as a song or painting. However, they may appear rather mundane as well. The common denominator they share is the utilization of silent insight and natural abilities. The most well known verbal arts are drama and literature, while the best known nonverbal arts are music, dance/movement, imagery, and visual expression (i.e., drawing, painting, or sculpting).

Generally, verbal and nonverbal arts complement each other and there is considerable integration of them in many artistic expressions. For example, the production of a play usually requires verbalization, directed movement, music, and visual effects such as scenery and costumes. Thus, the expressive arts may be utilized by themselves or combined (Gladding, 1992).

How the Expressive Arts are Used in Counseling

Numerous ways exist to utilize the expressive arts in counseling. The needs of clients, the skills of counselors, and the nature of the problem(s) are the main considerations in employing them. Expressive arts are used on primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of prevention in all forms of counseling (Caplan, 1964).

The Arts in Counseling: Primary Prevention

Primary prevention focuses on modifying environments and teaching life skills so that individuals maintain or enhance their mental health. A major emphasis is on instruction. The expressive arts are excellent tools to use in teaching. They are usually innately interesting to participants. Also, their attractiveness helps individuals remember lessons.

On an individual level the school is a natural setting for primary prevention to occur through the use of guidance. For young children, toys, puppets, and drama are effective in modeling and reinforcing appropriate prosocial behaviors (Irwin, 1987; James & Myer, 1987). Music is also a powerful medium for helping children remember guidance lessons. This is especially true if children have fun in the process (Bowman, 1987).

Drama and music may be helpful for adolescents and adults, too, but often individuals in these age groups are more attuned to the language arts (e.g., literature). For this population, specific stories that illustrate how choices are made in different life stages are appropriate (Lerner & Mahlendorf, 1992).

The Arts in Counseling: Secondary Prevention

Secondary prevention is the process of working with specific high risk individuals or groups to forestall or reduce problems due to psychological crises. The focus is on minimizing dysfunctionality.

The expressive arts can be utilized for children, adolescents, and adults. For example, these individuals can soften their pain and make their feelings more concrete and understandable through painting/drawing, writing, playing music, or displaying body movements. Often persons who are worked with on this level express themselves best through engaging in semi-structured, open-ended artistic exercises, e.g., drawing, or decorating (Adelman 1988).

The Arts in Counseling: Tertiary Prevention

Tertiary prevention is aimed at reducing the impairment that occurs as a result of psychological disorders. This type of inter-

vention is what most people consider "counseling." On this level the concentration is on healing and wholeness.

The expressive arts come into play at this time through the relief and concreteness they provide clients. For example, persons on almost all levels can keep a journal of their feelings or find and discuss with their counselor photographs of life experiences. Thus, emotions are released in a way that leaves a reminder. An inspirational example of the use of art on a self-help basis for the treatment of depression is the story of Elizabeth "Grandma" Layton, an 82-year old grandmother from Kansas who used the contour method of drawing portraits of herself to overcome depression and start enjoying life at age 68 (DeAngelis, 1992).

Using the Expressive Arts in Counseling—Strengths and Limitations

There are many reasons to employ the expressive arts in counseling and some cautions to take. Among the major strengths of the expressive arts in counseling are:

1. The arts help clients create and improve their self-concepts.
2. The arts enrich the lives of clients and counselors and help them see new facets of the world they may have previously missed. This new or renewed view of life is often energizing.
3. The arts help clients focus on what is troubling them andto gain direction. Through verbal and nonverbal means the dynamics underlying old problems become clearer and insight grows.
4. The arts are a natural way of conveying feelings and are socially acceptable. Emotions that are released through artistic expression are often therapeutic on many levels.
5. The arts promote flexibility and change. Clients who use the arts learn to stay open to new possibilities in their lives.

The limitations of using the arts in counseling are tied to the persons and processes involved.

- One drawback to using the arts is that some individuals resist doing anything that is creative because they fear that artistic expression is only for the very disturbed.
- A second limitation of using the arts is the ineffectiveness of them for persons who work as artists, who are concrete thinkers, or who are mentally disturbed. In such cases there is resistance and little insight is gained.
- A third limitation of using the arts is they may be misused by unskilled counselors.

Conclusion

The ancient wisdom of the past about the use of the arts and healing is being rediscovered. The expressive arts in counseling are becoming better known and more utilized. They are an effective way of helping many clients prevent and resolve problems. They are also a means of enriching the lives of all involved and making the change process in counseling more noticeable. Whether in the form of music, drawing, movement, writing, or acting, the arts play a vital role in counseling.

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Family Counseling in the Schools

J. Scott Hinkle

Overview

School counselors are becoming more aware of a larger unit of intervention that includes the family. Family interventions by school counselors can address a child's misbehavior, making costly special placements unnecessary. Furthermore, school counselors are in a unique position to appreciate the effectiveness of family counseling approaches with children. This digest presents information regarding brief family counseling in the schools and re-training school counselors already in the work force to provide family counseling.

School children react to changes and stress within the family unit in which they belong. For example, children can become symptomatic at school when a crisis occurs at home; these symptoms may then serve a systems function by getting help for the troubled family. Using this family systems approach, school counselors can apply family counseling to solve a child's problems and assist the child's family in finding solutions to problems from a social context. Therefore, from a systemic perspective, dated cause-and-effect logic becomes meaningless when dealing with children in the schools.

After eliminating specific school causes for presenting problems, school counselors should consider etiology that is based out of school. According to systems theory, when a child's problem persists, it is usually connected to the extended social unit or family. Therefore, it is best to solve the problem by including the school as well as the family in formulating a solution. This perspective suggests that a student's negative behavior is connected to how the parents and other family members respond when the problem behavior occurs. It is important for the school/family counselor to ask *how the problem is maintained in the system*?

Idiosyncratic approaches to school problems have at times required inordinant amounts of time and resulted in little substantial improvement. However, school counselors utilizing family counseling within the school have reported successful interventions for brief periods of time when compared to lengthy individual counseling. If the problem is more complicated or requires long-term counseling, family interviews conducted by school counselors can significantly aid in a referral to an outside community agency. If the family is referred outside the school, the school counselor may even attend the first "extended family" session.

Re-Training: Competencies for School Counselors

There has been limited family counseling training in school counseling programs, resulting in little family counseling among school counselors. However, this approach to helping children with difficulties is increasing. As a result, school counselors re-training in family counseling will need to obtain support from school administrators. After support is established, training will ultimately require a paradigm shift for those counselors previously trained in one-to-one, individualistic counseling. To utilize the family systems approach, the school counselor will need to become more directive, less passive and neutral, and expand upon skills developed during training in individual counseling. Effectively dealing with the transition from the role of helper to change agent also will be an important aspect of re-training.

Such re-training should focus on elective study in family counseling that may include additional graduate courses, continuing education, and/or inservice training. Re-training in family counseling prepares a counselor to work in a limited role with families. It may include introductory graduate courses in family counseling and subsequent supervised practice. Disadvantages to this re-training format include limited preparation to deal with complex systems problems. However, advantages include "on the job" exposure to family counseling without extended training.

In addition, becoming familiar with the literature in family counseling is essential to re-training. This should continue with a focus on family counseling skills and techniques. Since they typically have not learned sufficient techniques to begin effective family counseling, school counselors will find readings about family counseling quite rewarding.

It is also beneficial for school counselors re-training in family counseling to form study groups and affiliate with professionals who specialize in family counseling. Study groups can view and learn from videotapes of master counselors in addition to their own family counseling. Role

playing and consulting with each other regarding family cases will also be helpful. School counselors can also seek out local family counselors willing to provide consultation and/or supervision. Additionally, opportunities to do co-therapy with experienced family counselors should be sought in order to develop specific competencies in family counseling.

Specific Family Counseling Competencies

Two primary skills for school counselors doing brief family counseling in the schools are assessing the family's capacity to change and defining the key concepts of the problem within a social context. The brevity of this digest does not allow for an extended analysis of family assessment. However, assessment should minimally include obtaining new information which leads to hypothesis generation regarding the family. Identifying the family hierarchy in terms of "power" and knowing how and where family information flows also is important to family assessment. Assessment should always include the family's understanding of the problem and the family's strengths, as well as what the family has done thus far to solve the problem.

Eventually, family interventions within the school will include the development of a plan and a prescription that includes reframing problem behavior and assigning homework tasks. School counselors will need to acquire skills at establishing rapport with the family system, showing caring and concern, as well as sharing positive characteristics of the child with the family.

Consulting with parents about their child and assisting with their understanding of child and adolescent behavior also are important family counseling competencies. Many parents need assistance with re-establishing their executive position as primary decision-makers within their family. Effective relationships between parents and grandparents and other extended family members also must be established. Parents frequently need help in establishing behavioral expectations and discipline for their children. Child behavioral problems that are a function of marital discord should also be identified and an appropriate referral made.

Conclusion

Within the school-counseling profession, school counselors are beginning to find family counseling an effective and needed skill. Moreover, family counseling represents a distinctive alternative for resolving persistent problems in the schools. Family counseling training has a short history and re-training opportunities for school counselors wanting to engage in family counseling have been limited. This digest has presented a need for such training and one possible direction in which to proceed. With appropriate training, administrative support, and flexible work hours, school counselors can provide an effective and efficient service to children, their families, and the schools.

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CAPS DIGEST

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Nontraditional College Students

James M. Benshoff and Henry A. Lewis

Nontraditional Students Defined

Cross (1980) defines the *nontraditional student* as an adult who returns to school full- or part-time while maintaining responsibilities such as employment, family, and other responsibilities of adult life. These students also may be referred to as "adult students," "re-entry students," "returning students," and "adult learners." Because developmental needs, issues, and stressors for adults differ considerably from those faced by younger, "traditional-age" students, all aspects of the college environment must be reconsidered (and often reconfigured) to respond to this growing student population (Benshoff, 1991). Over the last 20 years, the percentage of older students on campuses has increased dramatically. From one-third to one-half of all college students are classified as nontraditional and more than 50% of all graduate students are over 30 years of age (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980). "Adults are the fastest-growing segment of all the population groups in higher education" (Brazziel, 1989, p. 116) and this trend is expected to continue.

Characteristics of Nontraditional Students

A number of factors characteristically separate nontraditional students from younger college students. Adult learners tend to be achievement oriented, highly motivated, and relatively independent with special needs for flexible schedules and instruction appropriate for their developmental level (Cross, 1980). Adults generally prefer more active approaches to learning and value opportunities to integrate academic learning with their life and work experiences (Benshoff, 1991). Financial and family concerns are two of the biggest considerations that impact on the adult student experience. Additional factors (Richter-Antion, 1986) which distinguish nontraditional students from traditional students include:

- stronger consumer orientation (education as an investment)
- multiple non-school-related commitments and responsibilities
- lack of an age cohort, and
- limited social acceptability and support for their student status (operating outside of traditional adult roles)

Why Adults Return to School

Many nontraditional students come back to school to complete educational pursuits they began years before as traditional-age students. They may have dropped out of education for a number of reasons, including financial considerations, competing responsibilities, and lack of focus, motivation, and maturity. Changing job requirements or career changes often force adults to get additional education to survive or advance in the job market (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980). According to Brazziel (1989), "the ever upward progression of an educated adult population and workforce and [increased educational requirements for] high-paying jobs...might be the single most powerful factor" (p. 129) in the continued influx of adult students on college campuses. Other major reasons that adults return to college include family life transitions (marriage, divorce, death), changes in leisure patterns, and self-fulfillment (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980).

Aslanian and Brickell (1980) proposed a "triggers and transitions" theory that relates the adult's decision to return to school to developmental issues and crises faced during midlife. Transitions (the movement from one status to another) require new knowledge, skills, and/or credentials that often lead people back to college. Triggers are events that precipitate the timing of an adult's decision to return to school, most frequently career events and family changes

Needs of Nontraditional Students

Nontraditional students need many different kinds of support and assistance from family, friends, and institutions of higher learning. Research evidence suggests that "both [sexes] have difficulties juggling the roles of student, worker, and family member" (Muench, 1987, p. 10). Adult students need help in building their self-confidence as students, in acquiring or refreshing study skills, and in managing their time and other resources while in school. In addition, adult students benefit from opportunities to interact with their peers and need to be actively involved in the educational process through sharing their relevant work and life experiences (Muench, 1987).

Research on Nontraditional Students

Clayton and Smith (1987) identified eight primary motivations for nontraditional women students' decisions to pursue an undergraduate degree: self-improvement; self-actualization; vocational; role; family; social; humanitarian; and, knowledge. Many of these women (56%) cited multiple motives for returning to school. In a study of married re-entry women students, Hooper (1979) found that: the longer the woman had been a

successful student, the higher her self-esteem; the longer the woman had been in school, the higher the anxiety experienced by the husband; and, the more traditional the roles and responsibilities within the family, the greater the guilt the woman experienced about her student role. Other developmental issues for women who return to school (Terrell, 1990) include:

- feeling guilty about not "being there" for their children
- concerns about quality and expense of childcare
- feelings of responsibility for maintaining their role within the family
- making compromises in careers due to family considerations
- minimal individual free time
- perceived lack of credibility when returning to college
- insufficient support from family for returning to school

Research on nontraditional male students is limited. Muench (1987) found that both sexes experienced fears of failure and self-doubt. Men, however, suffered more from lack of self-confidence, while women experienced more guilt. Among the nontraditional students studied by Bauer and Mott (1990):

- men were changing careers while women were looking to advance within the same career field
- women more than men experienced competing pressures of child care, financial, and school responsibilities
- men more than women tended to be frustrated about loss of time and money in returning to school

Implications for Student Affairs

Nontraditional students present some major challenges for institutions of higher learning whose programs and services have been geared to the traditional-age student population. Studies of adult students have identified a number of additional services to better meet their needs, including:

- separate registration, advising, and orientation
- greater availability of and access to parking
- more evening and weekend course offerings
- special assistance with financial aid and housing, and
- better preparation of faculty and staff to meet the needs of adult students

Thon (1984) found that the student services most often implemented for adults were counseling- and career-related. Services that adults considered important (but which were least often available to them) included health services, publications for adults, and qualified staff to work with nontraditional students. In addition, colleges must offer social activities appropriate for both older students and their families. Innovative and creative approaches often must be implemented to effectively communicate information about both academic and student services programs to nontraditional students who almost all commute and attend school part-time.

Conclusion

Nontraditional students are causing institutions of higher learning to re-think the focus of academic and student affairs programs. Research has shown that nontraditional students have needs that differ from those of traditional-age students (Richter-Antion, 1986; Thon, 1984). The willingness of institutions to modify existing programs and develop new services geared to adult populations will have a positive impact on their ability to attract, serve, and satisfy the educational needs of adult students.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Peer Consultation for Professional Counselors

James M. Benshoff

Overview

The importance of extensive, high-quality counseling supervision has become recognized as critical to both learning, maintaining, and improving professional counseling skills. In counselor training, supervision is a required experience designed to help students integrate academic training with practical experience and self-examination of their individual counseling styles and strengths (Wagner & Smith, 1979). Once new counselors are graduated into the "real world" of working counselors, however, their access to *counseling* supervision is often much more restricted. Counselors may be the only counselor in a school or agency or may be in individual private practice. Even where supervision exists, the designated supervisor may be an administrator who may have little expertise or interest in supervising the counselor's work with clients. In work settings where a willing and qualified counseling supervisor is present, differences in personality, theoretical orientations, and time schedules may preclude adequate supervision.

Peer Consultation vs. Peer Supervision

Arrangements in which peers work together for mutual benefit are generally referred to in the literature as peer supervisio Peer *consultation*, however, may be a more appropriat descriptor for this process in which critical and supportive feedback is emphasized while evaluation is deemphasized. "If the therapist has the right to accept or reject the suggestions [of others], the model becomes, by definition, one of consultation rather than supervision" (Bernard & Goodyear, 1992, pp. 103-104). In this digest, "peer supervision" and "peer consultation" will be used interchangeably to describe similar nonhierarchical relationships in which participants have neither the power nor the purpose to evaluate one another's performance.

Peer Consultation Defined

Peer supervision/consultation (Benshoff, 1989; Remley, Benshoff, & Mowbray, 1987) has been proposed as a potentially effective approach to increasing the frequency and/or quality of supervision available to a counselor. Wagner and Smith (1979) defined peer supervision as a process through which counselors assist each other to become more effective and skillful helpers by using their relationships and professional skills with each other. Counselors can develop their own peer consultation relationships to fill a "supervision void" or to augment traditional supervision by providing a means of getting additional feedback from their peers.

Benefits of Peer Consultation

Peer consultation/supervision experiences can offer a number of benefits to counselors (Benshoff, 1989; Remley et al., 1987; Houts, 1980; Seligman, 1978; Spice & Spice, 1976; Wagner & Smith, 1979), including:

- Mutual, reciprocal benefits received through sharing in the peer supervision experience
- Ability to choose one's peer consultant and to determine one's own goals for the supervision process
- Decreased dependency on "expert" supervisors
- Increased skills and responsibility for assessing their own skills and those of their peers as well as for structuring their own professional growth
- Increased self-confidence, self-direction, and independence
- Development of consultation and supervision skills
- Lack of evaluation
- Use of peers as models.

Peer Supervision/Consultation Models

Although several peer supervision models have been proposed, not all of them are "peer" in the pure sense, since some incorporate expert leaders or supervisors in the process (e.g., Wagner & Smith, 1979). One significant approach to peer supervision is a triadic model proposed by Spice and Spice (1976). In this model, counselors work together in triads, rotating the roles of commentator, supervisee, and facilitator through successive peer supervision sessions.

The Structured Peer Consultation Model (SPCM; cf., Benshoff, 1992; 1989) is based on a model for peer supervision proposed by Remley et al. (1987). This model was developed to provide counselors and counselor trainees with additional feedback and assistance in developing their counseling skills and implementing them effectively with clients. SPCMs have been developed and implemented with a variety of counseling professionals, including counselor trainees, practicing school counselors, and counseling supervisors (Benshoff, 1991).

In the SPCMs, peers work together in dyads to provide regular *consultation* for one another (usually on a weekly or biweekly basis. The SPCMs include many traditional *supervision* activities such as goal-setting, tape review, and case consultation. In these models, however, the emphasis is on helping each other to reach self-determined goals, rather on evaluating each

other's counseling performance. Other activities that are emphasized include discussion of counseling theoretical orientations, examination of individual approaches to working with clients, and exploration of relevant counseling issues. The SPCMs provide a clear and detailed structure which "walk counselors through" the peer consultation process. This structure is designed to keep peers focused on specific consultation tasks, yet also allow for modifications to fit individual needs and styles.

Research on Peer Consultation

A growing body of empirical evidence exists to support the potential contributions of peer consultation. As counselors gain skills and experience, they express a preference for collegial supervision relationships (Hansen, Robins, & Grimes, 1982). Seligman (1978) found that peer supervision helped to increase counselor trainees' levels of empathy, respect, genuineness, and concreteness. Wagner and Smith (1979) reported that counselor trainee participation in peer supervision resulted in greater self-confidence, increased self-direction, improved goal-setting and direction in counseling sessions, greater use of modeling as a teaching and learning technique, and increased mutual, cooperative participation in supervision sessions. Houts (1980) described participants in peer consultation teams as reporting greater feelings of professional competency and increased independence and autonomy.

Three studies have been conducted using the SPCMs. In one (Benshoff, 1992), participants overwhelmingly (86%) rated peer supervision as being very helpful to them in developing their counseling skills and techniques and deepening their understanding of counseling concepts. Two aspects of peer supervision were cited as being especially valuable: (1) feedback from peers about counseling approach or techniques, and (2) peer support and encouragement. Another study using an SPCM with counselor trainees (Benshoff, 1989) suggested that, while the model may be useful for counselor trainees regardless of level of counseling experience, participation in peer consultation may have a greater impact on factors such as self-confidence and comfort level (which were not assessed) than on actual counseling effectiveness. A third study, which examined the types of verbalizations used by peer consultants (beginning counselors), confirmed that peer consultants were, in fact, able to use basic helping skills to provide consultation to their colleagues. The most frequently used verbalizations (directives, closed questions, interpretation, minimal encouragers) seem consistent with the developmental level and skills of beginning counselors.

Conclusion

Peer consultation models offer counselors a viable adjunct or alternative experience to traditional approaches to counseling supervision. Research to date provides accumulating support for the value of peer consultation/supervision experiences for professional counselors. Future research needs and directions in this area include:

- identifying and implementing appropriate outcome measures
- utilizing multiple measures (both qualitative and quantitative) to assess the impact and contributions of peer consultation models
- comparing peer models to other supervision and consultation approaches
- developing appropriate research instruments and procedures.

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CAPS DIGEST

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School Children and Fitness: Aerobics for Life

J. Scott Hinkle

Overview

The various dimensions of wellness among school children are an important aspect of professional counseling. Major studies in the 1980s have indicated that American children are lacking in cardiovascular fitness, accounting for a host of degenerative health difficulties and various psychological disorders. However, research has also indicated that children participating in aerobic exercises can avoid many health problems.

Only 41% of the children who even participate in physical education exert themselves during exercise sufficiently enough to enhance cardiorespiratory functioning. This lack of physical activity has resulted in American children becoming more obese since the 1960s. It has been suggested that this increase in body fat is responsible for reduced cardiovascular capacity which in turn limits a child's ability to resist coronary heart disease. In addition, a lack of physical activity accounts for a host of diseases including hypertension, diabetes, impaired tolerance for heat, and various psychological disorders.

Exercise regimens that begin at a young age are more effective in promoting longevity and health than those begun later in life. As children become older, there is a strong tendency for them to participate less in physical activity. The drop in such participation between the ages of twelve and eighteen is dramatic. The purpose of this digest is to provide school counselors with information regarding aerobic exercise (specifically running), and the psychological, behavioral, and physical benefits children obtain by participating in fitness programs. Collaboration between school counselors and physical education teachers is also presented.

Some promising studies have shown that school children can enhance their psychological as well as physical functioning after participating in fitness programs that include aerobic running. All of the aerobic exercises have the potential to assist in promoting physical and psychological health, however, children and adolescents will find running activities to be the most accessible aerobic exercise in terms of skills development, costs, and availability.

Psychological Improvements

Children who have experienced aerobic improvements have realized various degrees of self-esteem enhancement. Hyperactive, learning disabled, and behaviorally handicapped children have been found to internally control behaviors that were previously externally controlled following participation in running programs. Running has even been found to be equivalent to low dosages of stimulants in treating hyperkinetic behavior among children. Relatedly, psychotropic medications have been reduced in emotionally handicapped children who run regularly. A downward trend has been reported in the depressive mood scores of hyperactive children following a 10-week running program. Children with developmental problems also have increased completion of written tasks and reduced their degree of talking out in class as a result of participating in running programs. In addition, improvements in academic learning and creative thinking have been associated with running exercise.

Physical Improvements

Children should be taught aerobic exercises at school that are prevention and protection oriented. Participating in school running programs can influence the major systems of their bodies, reduce the risk of coronary heart disease, improve tolerance for stress, and promote wellness. Moreover, children who become physically fit are more likely to exert control over health risks and avoid behavior that is counterproductive to good health.

In addition, children considered for adjunctive running programs in the schools should obtain a physical examination prior to participation. This should assist in ruling-out any medical contraindications such as childhood rheumatic fever and asthma. Children prone to physical injury, foot abnormalities, and/or joint difficulties should be thoroughly assessed before consideration for a running program.

Implications for School Counselors

Knowledgeable school counselors, collaborating with physical education teachers, should utilize psychophysiological

interventions whenever appropriate. Aerobic running programs need to be thoughtfully designed in collaboration with physical education teachers. This will ensure that running programs are individualized to meet the needs of the child's presenting issues. The flexibility of the program is an important consideration due to children having varying initial levels of fitness. Once the physical education component is considered, school counselors and physical education teachers can plan running activities for children with particular problems. For example, a child with behavioral and/or emotional problems may be assigned to supervised running the first 20 minutes of the school day followed by a brief contact with the school counselor. Similarly, a self-contained classroom with hyperkinetic children could engage in a group running activity and subsequent group discussion focused on running accomplishments. Thus, a self-esteem enhancement as well as a calming effect could occur.

Hinkle and Tuckman's (1987) article on managing children's running programs is helpful for school counselors. These author's systematic running programs within the schools have improved fitness levels in elementary and middle school students. They offer a simple method to measure aerobic capacity and discuss the management of structured running programs for school children. In addition, group running formats, medical issues, and behavior reinforcement are presented.

Summary

Physical activity engaged in as a child can encourage fitness throughout the lifespan. Moreover, psychological dynamics associated with seeking and maintaining health, especially in the schools, are of utmost importance. The health of children can be more effectively maintained when school counselors and physical education teachers collaborate to truly serve the whole child. Such collaboration can be an effective and efficient setting in which school counselors and physical education teachers can provide a preventive measure that reduces health risk factors in children.

Educational programs within the schools should make accessible to all children the opportunity to exercise at a level that is conducive to life-long health. Many adults have not learned as children the value and benefits of exercise, especially those of an aerobic nature. School counselors and physical education teachers can have an impact on curriculum reforms by collaboratively investing in multi-intervention programs that encompass the psycho-physiological spectrum of children within the schools.

Conclusion

In conclusion, running is inexpensive, can be performed indoors or outdoors, is natural to all children, minimal in costs, cuts across cultural differences, and can be continued throughout the lifespan. Together, school counselors and physical educators can play an active role in the development of lifelong fitness for children by encouraging, supporting, developing, and implementing creative aerobic running programs in the schools.

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Theoretical and Research

Action-Oriented Research: Promoting School Counselor Advocacy and Accountability
Jackie M. Allen

Challenging Troublesome Career Beliefs
John D. Krumboltz

Coping With Life Transitions
Lawrence M. Brammer

Differentiating Between Counseling Theory and Process
Harold Hackney

Positive Uncertainty: A Paradoxical Philosophy of Counseling Whose Time Has Come
H. B. Gelatt

Qualitative Research in Student Affairs
Paul A. Bloland

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Action-Oriented Research

Promoting School Counselor Advocacy and Accountability

Jackie M. Allen

Research and School Counseling

School counselors have not effectively utilized research. They even ask: "Why should we do research?" A study of school counselor research as perceived by American School Counselor Association leaders (Deck, Cecil, & Cobia, 1990) revealed little real interest in research, a lack of understanding of the relevance of research to the practicing school counselor, but a willingness to accept research if done by someone else. The connection between research and school counselor accountability is not apparent to many school counselors.

Many misunderstandings regarding the school counselor and research exist. These common myths seem to cause road blocks which impede the initiation of school counseling research. School counselors may believe that they do not have the knowledge and skills required to do research. School counselors fear engaging their time and efforts in research activities which they do not consider as a job priority. A general lack of support, both in funding and administrative encouragement, for school-based counseling research has persisted for many years. Rewards, both intrinsic and extrinsic, for doing school counseling research have not been apparent; therefore school counselors continue to respond: "Why do research?"

Action-Oriented Research

Research when understood as a proactive professional activity becomes imperative for the advocacy, advancement, and accountability of school counseling. Action-oriented research is appropriate for school counselors to use in the local school setting and beyond (Allen, Gallagher, & Radd, 1992). School counselor efficacy and efficiency thus may be enhanced.

Action-oriented research is very versatile. Both qualitative and quantitative assessment may be used in conducting action-oriented research studies. Survey and experimental designs may be used. Methods may include, but are not limited to, behavioral observations, needs assessments, rating scales, and student portfolios.

Action-oriented research focuses on immediate application, instead of the development of theory or general application. Results, usually applicable to the local school situation, may be published in counselor journals. Action-oriented research is appropriate for assessing student-based outcomes and evaluating the effectiveness of school counseling programs.

In action-oriented research, assessment methods and techniques may be used to determine characteristics of students, programs, or ideas. Changes in students, programs, or ideas which may result from a specific treatment, intervention, or process are also measured.

The application of action-oriented research in the local setting, the local school or school district, enables the school counselor to examine a specific counseling practice, program, or intervention. Action-oriented research studies concentrate on the here and now, the local situation, and strive to improve both the school counselor and the counseling services (Allen, Gallagher, & Radd, 1992).

Applications of action-oriented research are also found beyond the local school setting. Professional associations may use action-oriented research methods and techniques while gathering data to support credential and licensure efforts or to promote changes in school counseling legislation.

Problem-Solving Model

Assessment should be an integral part of school counseling. Assessment, using action-oriented research methods, assists school counselors to systematically solve problems. When viewed as a problem-solving model, assessment assists school counselors in the following ways (Hood and Johnson, 1991): (a) to motivate school counselors and students to examine various issues; (b) to clarify the nature of a problem, characteristics of a program, or aspects of an idea; (c) to make suggestions for alternative solutions to a problem; (d) to provide a means for comparing various alternatives to facilitate decision-making; and (e) to assess school counselors and students in the evaluation of the effectiveness of a proposed solution to: a problem, a particular program, or a specific intervention.

Initiating the Research Process

When initiating an action-oriented research project, the following decisions must be made (Hood & Johnson, 1991):

1. **Who will be doing the action-oriented research?** School counselor, teacher, intern, aide, parent, administrator, etc.
2. **What is being measured or evaluated?** What is the population/sample—a program, a group of students, an individual student, or an idea or concept? What type of

measurement will be used—self-assessment; a subjective observation; an objective test; or a projective, cognitive, or behavioral measurement?

3. **Where will the assessment take place?** What is the setting—office, classroom, conference room, etc.?
4. **When will the assessment take place?** Will it be before or after a counseling intervention?
5. **Why is the research being done?** What is the purpose? What are the goals and objectives?
6. **How will the action-oriented research be conducted?** What is the length of time and the method for gathering data? What are the materials and other resources needed?

Resources

School counselors need support to undertake and complete action-oriented research projects. Support is available through **collaboration, funding,** and **technology.** Collaborative efforts with other school professionals, public and private agencies, and corporations provide school counselors with support to conduct action-oriented research. Multidisciplinary teams for special education and at-risk student identification and screening provide opportunities for local school collaborative research efforts. Counselor educators are natural partners for action-oriented research efforts (Allen, Gallagher, & Radd, 1992). Other collaborative efforts might be pursued with public and private agencies, corporations, and departments of education.

When planning to do action-oriented research, school counselors should consider adequate funding to complete the research project. Local school budgets and district funds often need to be augmented with additional funding from state and federal grants, professional association grants, or public and private contributions.

A variety of technological resources are available to assist school counselors in the research process. Computerization of data bases, record keeping, and data analysis have improved research capabilities enhancing the research process. Consultants are available to assist during any step of the research process. Nearby colleges and universities provide computerized data base searches, consultants, and a wide variety of computer hardware and software. ERIC/CAPS has a very large computer bank of counseling data and resources.

Legal and Ethical Concerns

School counselors need to consider certain legal and ethical ramifications when doing action-oriented research. Specific areas of concern include: confidentiality of assessment data; parent permission for minors; adequate orientation of parents and students; treatment for all students in experimental groups, and an awareness of culture and gender bias in test selection. School counselors may need a written agreement regarding ownership of findings when working with other institutions and agencies (Allen, Gallagher, & Radd, 1992). Legal and ethical standards for school counselors are found in the American Counseling Association *Ethical Standards* (1988) and the American School Counselor Association *Ethical Standards for School Counselors* (1984). Guidelines for the use and administration of tests are found in the Association for Assessment in Counseling *Responsibilities of Users of Standardized Tests* (Revised) (1989) and the American Psychological Association *Code of Fair Testing Practices in Education* (1988).

Conclusion

The are numerous benefits to be gained by the school counselor who chooses to do action-oriented research. Program evaluation and planning are facilitated through the use of measurable student outcomes obtained through action-oriented research. Collaborative research efforts are made possible by data gained through action-oriented research. Practical action-oriented research is the basis for proactive public relations for school counselors and school counseling. School counselor efficacy is enhanced by action-oriented research which documents the value, effectiveness, and necessity of school counseling programs. Action-oriented research may serve as the basis for grant applications and legislative efforts to improve and expand school counseling programs or mandate K–12 developmental school counseling. Research is truly a proactive professional activity which will contribute to the accountability, advocacy, and advancement of school counseling.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Challenging Troublesome Career Beliefs

John D. Krumboltz

Introduction

We all have career beliefs—assumptions about ourselves and what we must do to succeed in the world of work. Some of those beliefs can cause difficulties. For example, do you believe that success is due to hard work or to being in the right place at the right time? Your answer could influence your future actions.

Burns (1980) has pointed out, you feel the way you think: "Every bad feeling you have is the result of your distorted negative thinking" (p. 28). People act in a way consistent with their beliefs and feelings.

Consider the belief: "I'll never be able to find a job." Why is that a troubling belief? If you really believe you can't find a job, there is no point looking. And if you don't look, you certainly won't find a job. So the belief becomes a self-fulfilling—and self-defeating—prophesy.

Clients generally come to counseling because they are unhappy, frustrated, distressed, and/or engaged in some self-defeating pattern of behavior. They want to feel better. Despite the years of work by Ellis, Beck, Burns, Dorn and others, many clients are surprised to learn that to feel better they will have to change the way they think. So counselors will frequently need to provide a rationale to explain how positive thinking can lead to happier emotions and more constructive behavior.

There are three steps to challenging troublesome career beliefs: (1) Identifying the troublesome belief, (2) Considering alternative ways of viewing the underlying problem, and (3) Taking action incompatible with the troublesome belief. Each step includes some specific techniques. All of these techniques empower clients by providing them with information or enabling them to make their own discoveries.

Identifying the Troublesome Belief

A skilled counselor can **listen carefully** to a client's tale of woe and pick up many assumptions, presuppositions and beliefs that may be getting in the way. The process may be facilitated with the use of the *Career Beliefs Inventory* (CBI) (Krumboltz, 1991). The CBI is an instrument which, when used sensitively by a qualified professional, can help people identify the beliefs that might be blocking them. The CBI will be most useful when administered at the beginning of the counseling process. The resulting scores will help the counselor more quickly hone in on the beliefs and assumptions most likely in need of examination.

This instrument allows counselors to open up important areas that are typically ignored in traditional forms of career counseling, e.g., ways of responding to the possibility of failure. The CBI makes career counseling more complete; it legitimizes the exploration of important attitudes and assumptions.

Alternative Ways of Viewing the Underlying Problem

Group counseling may be particularly helpful because clients can contribute a variety of perspectives to each others' problems. Some specific counseling techniques can also help.

Reframing the Problem

Reframing involves seeing a problem from another viewpoint. Suppose we have a client with a low score on CBI Scale 23, Negotiating/Searching. She has been employed in a small retail store for five years when the position of buyer opens up. She would like the promotion but feels she can't ask for it because she does not want to appear "pushy" or "selfish." The counselor might say, "Let's look at the problem from your boss' viewpoint. What kind of a person would he like to be a buyer?"

If the client can see that she has the desired qualities and that taking some initiative would be good for the store and for her boss, she might overcome her reluctance. The counselor could reframe the problem in terms of the client's fundamental goals, helping others, not self-aggrandizement.

Countering a Troublesome Belief

Some troublesome beliefs are simple misunderstandings or faulty facts. They can be countered with a statement of fact. Suppose Chip who is 5' 7" wants to be a police officer but believes that to qualify he must be at least 5' 8". A statement that not all police departments have a height requirement may open up a whole world of opportunities for Chip. Nevo (1987) has published an article describing counters to ten major beliefs.

Countering a deeply ingrained belief requires more than logic. It requires consistent repetition. Many people have grown up in environments where negative messages predominate.

To counter negative beliefs the counselor can use positive supporting words. "You are strong." "You can do it." "You are making progress." The message must be genuine, and it needs

reiteration. Some clients use a tape recorder to play back their positive messages.

Defining a Manageable Problem

Some people define their own problems in ways that make it impossible to solve them. This is the "I should have decided yesterday how I'm going to spend the rest of my life" problem. This problem is apparent on the CBI in a pattern of scores on Scales 2, 3 and 16.

Clients can be reinforced for not having foreclosed options so that they can now explore several possibilities. The counselor can also point out that it is not necessary to plan the rest of one's life, that it may be quite sufficient to decide what to try next. The client needs to be given permission to take the time necessary to plan the next step. The initially massive problem can be broken down into a series of manageable mini-steps.

Using Humor for Perspective

Nevo (1986) has advocated that career counselors use a sense of humor in dealing with the serious problems they confront. While most uses of humor need to be spontaneous recognitions of the absurdities of life, some advance planning can be useful.

Nevo mentioned the work of Katz who used cartoons to clarify career issues. She also pointed out associations between love and work. Those with a low score on CBI Scale 23 who despair of finding the one right job are like those who hope to find Mr. Right or Ms. Right, the perfect predestined mate. Pointing out similarities like this may lead to a rueful insight.

Discovering Disconfirming Evidence

The counselor cannot know whether a given belief is accurate or not, but the counselor can encourage some exploration if the client's belief appears to be impeding progress. In the CBI Manual (Krumboltz, 1991) a six-step procedure is suggested for helping clients investigate their assumptions. Each step is illustrated with possible counselor and client statements. The essence of the idea that clients be helped to ask questions of people or consult references to find out whether their assumptions are accurate.

Taking Actions Incompatible with the Troublesome Belief

Roleplaying

We tend to adopt beliefs that are consistent with our own behavior. If you want someone to adopt a different belief, you may wish to get that person to act in a way consistent with the new belief. Roleplaying is an ideal way to get people to try out new behaviors in a safe environment.

Research in social psychology demonstrates rather convincingly that improvisational roleplaying of behavior inconsistent with one's previous behavior is an effective mechanism for change (McGuire, cited in Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991).

Cognitive Practicing

Clients can be taught to rehearse positive verbal statements about themselves to begin replacing the negative verbal statements that were drilled into their heads from earlier experiences. They can be taught to label their behavior, not themselves; they can practice saying, "I goofed" but not "I'm goofy."

Behavioral Practicing

Behavioral practice is trying out a new behavior in the real world just like roleplaying is trying out a new behavior in the safety of a counseling session. The key is for the clients to experiment by acting in a way opposite to what they believe.

Burns (1980) tells about an artist in the throes of a major depression who became convinced that he could not even draw a straight line anymore and as a result didn't do any art work at all. "When his therapist suggested he test his conviction by actually attempting to draw a line, it came out so straight he began drawing again and soon was symptom-free!" (p. 76). No amount of persuasion by the therapist would have worked. The artist had to observe his own behavior.

Summary

If you want to help clients whose own beliefs are causing distress or inhibiting them from taking necessary action, you can lead them through three steps: (1) Find out specifically the belief that is causing the trouble, (2) Help them see the problem from another viewpoint or discover for themselves that the belief is false, and (3) Encourage them to try out behaviors that challenge their troublesome belief.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Coping With Life Transitions

Lawrence M. Brammer

Introduction

This digest covers representative models of life transitions with their counseling implications. It also presents selected coping skills and attitudes with which to manage such changes effectively. A transition is a short-term life change characterized by a sharp discontinuity with the past. Thus, transitions have identifiable beginnings and usually definite endings. Examples are job changes, disabling accidents, marriage, birth, divorce, victimization, death, moving and travel. These transitions can be positive experiences, such as a vacation, or painful and tragic such as losing a relationship. Such changes usually are experienced as losses; hence, transitions thrust the person into mourning. A transition can be voluntary or involuntary, and it can be on-time (as in retirement), or off-time (as in the fatal illness of a child). Excluded from this definition of transition are developmental changes—growing from childhood to adolescence, for example—and broad social or political changes.

Three Ways to View Life Transitions

Metaphors From Classical Literature

Bridges (1980) uses metaphors, mainly from classical literature, to describe transitions over a lifetime. The journey, for example, is a common image. Homer, the classical Greek poet, describes in vivid images Ulysses' decade of travel changes. A counseling implication of this type of image is to encourage clients to see their individual and serial transitions in terms of personally meaningful metaphors, and as significant learning events on their lifelines.

Social Interaction Model

A second way of characterizing a life transition is Schlossberg's (1984) social interaction model. She characterizes a transition in terms of its type, context, and impact. She states that a transition must be examined in regard to:

- The way a person appraises the transition event;
- The nature of the transition itself;
- The coping resources present at the time of the transition;
- The personal characteristics of the person and the environment (social supports, for example).

These interacting variables then are studied to ascertain the balance of current and possible assets and liabilities. They also are linked to developmental characteristics of the person, such as identity, age and maturity. A counseling implication of this model is that the counselor must do a thorough assessment of these variables to determine where the person is now in relation to the transition, the balance of coping assets and liabilities, and what resources can be marshalled to help that person cope satisfactorily.

Predictable Overlapping Stages

A third model construes the transition as a process consisting of fairly predictable stages that overlap one another and that often recycle through earlier stages (Brammer, 1991). These stages are adaptations of the literature on death as described by Kubler-Ross (1969) and Parkes (1972). Hopson (1981) has adapted this model of the grieving process to transitions in general.

The stages begin with the entry experience of confusion and emotional discomfort, along with shock if the loss is unexpected and severe. Following this initial reaction is a brief period of sadness or despair, often alternating with relief and positive feelings. In a divorce, for example, the person experiences alternating feelings of sadness over the dissolution of the relationship, but also some relief that conflict and ambiguity are lessened.

Unless the loss is severe, a period of stabilized moods is experienced. Defense mechanisms such as rationalization, denial and fantasy, for example, are mobilized. Previously learned coping skills and resources such as one's support network are tapped. But this stabilization is usually short-lived as awareness of fears for the future and anger at the transition emerges. Self-esteem usually plummets and feelings of sadness, dread, or depression take over.

The length of this feeling of depression depends on the person's perception of the severity of the loss, availability of coping resources, and cultural attitudes about the appropriate length of grieving. The person is encouraged to perceive this time as a healing period and relief from pressures of work and responsibility. Self-nurturing and frequent interaction with the support networks are important, but each person must discover his or her own method of getting through this painful period.

One goal is to let go of the past person, thing, job or value and take hold of a new object or relationship. These attitudes and resources, combined with the passage of time, enable the person to regain self-confidence and self-esteem. The person begins to look to the future with optimism and hope. If this process of healing and taking hold is successful, this stage emerges in a renewal phase characterized by setting new goals, making plans, and initiating actions. Thus, growth is enhanced through continual renewal efforts.

One counseling implication of this model is the importance of determining where people are in this process model after the transition has begun. In the first stage, much support is needed to help people get through their initial shock and the disruption of their lives. People need to understand the confusing feelings of despair and hope following initial reactions to the transition event. When the subsequent short stabilization period is experienced, methods of sustaining hope and self-esteem, as well as innoculation from depression, are needed. Since change frequently

is injurious to physical health also, people need to be cautioned to maintain optimal health. Counselors need to be alert for indications that the person is letting go of the past and is taking hold of the new, so that reinforcement of these efforts at healing and renewal can be given. Thus, the renewal process and the trend toward growth and recovery can be accelerated and maintained.

This process often does not proceed in nicely calibrated phases, and people often recycle through the process. The sequences of these phases are not always predictable. For example, some people might spend years grieving the losses from their life transitions. A key criticism of this process model is that it is often oversimplified and the orderly progression of the stages for all people in transition is taken for granted.

Coping Attitudes and Skills

Coping is viewed in the psychological literature as a form of self-initiated problem solving. Thus, it is clearly distinguished from adjustment and psychological defense, which are fairly automatic responses to change and threat. Similarly, transformational forms of personal change often come about through intense life experiences over which people have little control. Skillful "copers" are effective in appraising the possible threats and dangers in the change event, and can choose among alternative courses of appropriate action (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Attitudes contribute to a satisfactory coping response. A key attitude is to view change as a normal part of living, as opposed to a view that the transition is some kind of terrible curse, unlucky event, or unnecessarily difficult problem to solve. The effectiveness of viewing the transition as a challenging event, even welcoming it as an opportunity for creative growth, has much support in research (Kobassa, 1979). A man, for example, who sees his company about to reorganize and consolidate decides that he will use this transition event to move toward the career he always wanted--a business of his own. Thus, he viewed this move as a challenging opportunity.

People who perceive themselves as being in control of their lives, and to a large extent over the events in their lives, are among what Kobassa (1979) calls "hardy copers." A related attitude in the hardy copers' repertoire is commitment—knowing their values and goals, as well as having the intention of pursuing them diligently. In other words, they know who they are and what they want. The transition is perceived as just another hurdle to jump along life's raceway. They are willing to take responsibility for their actions and do not blame others for the transitions that inevitably come into their lives. When becoming ill, for example, they are willing to look for flaws in their own lifestyles as well as to look for external physical causes.

The length of time required for satisfactory resolution of a transition depends on a number of mediating factors. Some key ones are:

- The meaning that the transition has for the person;
- The extent to which the person is aware of and expresses feelings about the transition;
- Previous experiences with transitions and learning from them;
- The availability of support systems;
- Counseling;
- Personal coping skills.

Coping skills can be classified in various ways, but a simple list that incorporates several subcategories follows:

- Building and utilizing support networks;
- Cognitive restructuring, or reframing;
- Solving problems in the rational, intuitive, discovery, and systems modes;
- Managing stress responses and stress-inducing events.

All of these skill clusters are teachable (Brammer & Abrego, 1981). The key goal for counselors who are helping people cope with threatening personal change is to teach them the skills they can use to conceptualize the nature of their transitions (e.g., as a fairly predictable and understandable process) and the skills to cope with various stages in the process. The principal goal would be self-management of their transitions since they are such a common part of human existence. A second goal would be to help people innoculate themselves against the unwanted consequences of their transitions, such as depression, hopelessness, chronic grief, and self pity, or awareness of being in crisis and out of control.

Conclusion

The goals cited above can be reached not only through learning specific coping skills and attitudes, but also by acquiring knowledge about the nature of the transition process through engaging in a self-inquiry when the transition ends. This inquiry includes questions such as, What did I learn about myself, others and the nature of transitions as a result of working through this transition? The anticipated outcome is that people would be able to manage their own transitions effectively without outside help.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Differentiating Between Counseling Theory and Process

Harold Hackney

Introduction

The role that theory plays in the process and outcome of counseling has been a subject of discussion, and sometimes heated debate, for almost as long as counseling has been a profession. While schools of therapy have argued that different theories produce differing and nonequivalent outcomes, this position has been challenged on numerous occasions. Fiedler (1951) first observed that therapists of differing orientations were very similar in their views of the "ideal therapy." Then Sundland and Barker (1962) reported that more experienced therapists tended to be more similar, regardless of their theoretical orientation. In their extensive review of the subject, Gelso and Carter (1985) stated that "most clients will profit about equally (but in different ways) from the different therapies" (p. 234). They go on to suggest that the effect of process and relationship do differ among therapies and that some clients may do better with one approach than with another, based upon these two factors. Finally, Stiles, Shapiro and Elliott (1986) concluded that "(a) common features shared by all psychotherapies underlie or override differences in therapists' verbal techniques and (b) these common features are responsible for the general equivalence in effectiveness (of therapies)" (p. 171). Process and relationship, then, may be as relevant as theoretical conceptualization of the problem. This notion has led a number of researchers (Goldfried, 1982; Highlen & Hill, 1984) to an integrationist position which emphasizes process and action in the counseling relationship over theoretical imperatives.

The Application of Theory in Counseling

How do counselors choose a particular counseling theory? Among the alternatives are (1) the orientation of one's initial training program; (2) one's own philosophy or life view; and/or (3) one's therapeutic experience and evolving therapeutic patterns. Given the more than 130 extant theories of counseling, do counselors tend to be purist in their theoretical orientation? Rarely. Where counselors are purist, it tends to be a function of exclusivity of training (receiving training in a single theoretical orientation) and/or recency of training (the more recent the training, the more consistent the counselor's conformity to a particular theory). How do counselors use their theory? Certainly, counselors use theory to explain or conceptualize client problems. In addition, they may use theory to dictate what they do in the counseling process. Finally, Strohmer, Shivy, & Chiodo (1990) suggest that they may also use theoretical orientation to selectively confirm their hypothesis.

Separating Counseling Interventions From Theory

Theory, whether in pure form or adapted by the individual counselor, can be used to define the nature of the relationship between the counselor and client, to conceptualize the nature of the presenting problem(s), and to define the resulting counseling goals or desired outcomes. While some counselors would also say that theory dictates the types of interventions used in counseling, increasingly the argument is being made that interventions are related more to goals and outcomes than to theoretical conceptualization. If one examines theoretical integrity today, based upon what counselors faithful to that theory do with clients, a convergence of theories appears to be occurring. Humanistic theories have been infiltrated by some classical behavioral interventions. Behavioral approaches acknowledge the legitimacy of feelings and the appropriateness of affect change. Cognitive approaches are frequently referred to as "cognitive-behavioral." Systemic approaches utilize many interventions that one can only describe as cognitive in nature. Thus, distinctions between theories are not as clearly defined as one might think, and intervention selection may be only indirectly related, and certainly not dictated by theoretical orientation.

Matching Interventions to Client Problems

How does the counselor who is working within a consistent theory, be it a textbook theory or a personal theory, choose the interventions to use with a particular client? Logic would hold that the counselor's choice of therapeutic interventions would derive from the conceptualization of the problem(s), thus from the counselor's theory. But the theoretical world of counseling and change isn't quite that neat. From an integrative perspective, that choice is made by relating the intervention directly to the nature or character of the problem being addressed.

On the other hand, most client problems are typically multidimensional. A problem with negative self-talk ("I'm constantly telling myself I'm no good") is not only cognitive, but would also reflect an affective dimension ("I feel lousy about myself"), a behavioral dimension ("I choose to stay home and watch a lot of TV"), and a systemic dimension ("When I do go out, I avoid contact with others because they find me strange, or I behave strangely and others react to me accordingly"). Even though most problems are multi-dimensional, intervention at any of those dimensions affects the other dimensions, i.e., systemic change may influence affective and/or behavioral dimensions. How, then, does one plan a strategy for counseling

interventions if multiple choices exist and "all roads lead to Rome?" A general guideline is that clients are most receptive when the choice of strategy matches their experiencing of the problem (Cormier & Hackney, 1993).

A Theoretical Classification of Interventions

If one examines the variety of counseling interventions that have been described in the professional literature, they tend to fall into four broad categories: interventions that produce affective change; interventions that produce cognitive change; interventions that produce behavioral change; and interventions that produce social system change (Cormier & Hackney, 1993). In addition, within each of these four categories, one can further differentiate among theories in terms of the counselor skill required to implement the intervention and the level of change produced by the intervention.

Affective Interventions. The primary goals of affective interventions are (a) to help clients express feelings or feeling states; (b) to identify or discriminate between feelings or feeling states; or (c) to alter or accept feelings or feeling states (Cormier & Hackney, 1993). Some clients have never learned to identify and/or express their feelings. At a somewhat more complicated level, some clients come to counseling flooded with emotional reactions, overloaded by their awareness of and sensitivity to feelings. Their protective response may be to tune out the emotions, to be confused or disoriented. Interventions that may be used to unblock, bridge resistance, or develop expressive skills include teaching the client what a feeling is, affect focusing techniques, role reversal, the alter ego exercise, the empty chair, and so forth.

Cognitive Interventions. The primary goal of cognitive interventions is to "reduce emotional distress and corresponding maladaptive behavior patterns by altering or correcting errors in thoughts, perceptions and beliefs (Beck, 1976). Cognitive interventions stress the importance of self-control. Clients are viewed as the direct agents of their own changes, rather than as helpless victims of external events and forces (Cormier & Hackney, 1993). Illustrations of cognitive interventions include Ellis's (1989) A-B-C-D-E analysis, thought suppression, thought postponement, therapeutic paradox, and cognitive restructuring (including reframing).

Behavioral Interventions. The overall goal of behavioral interventions is to help clients develop adaptive and supportive behaviors to multifaceted situations. Developing adaptive behavior often means helping the client weaken or eliminate behaviors that work against the desired outcome, e.g. eating snacks when you wish to lose weight. A significant part of this process involves teaching the client. Illustrative interventions include live modeling, symbolic modeling, covert modeling, role play and rehearsal, relaxation training, systematic desensitization, self-contracting and self-monitoring.

Systemic Interventions. Systemic interventions are premised upon the assumption that one's environment elicits and supports the individual's dysfunctional cognitive, behavioral and affective responses. The goal of systemic interventions is to change the individual's social environment or system, thus changing the patterns of interrelationship that elicited or supported these responses. Examples of systemic interventions (in addition to those in the preceding categories that also produce system change) include: altering communication patterns through role play and renegotiation, altering family (or system) structure by reconstructing boundaries, the family genogram, family sculpture, and providing directives for change. Children pose special issues in the selection of counseling interventions for several reasons. They have little power or control over their environment, or may lack the cognitive or affective development to respond to some interventions. For this reason, a systemic view which involves significant adults in their world often is the most effective approach to intervention selection.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Positive Uncertainty

A Paradoxical Philosophy of Counseling Whose Time Has Come

H. B. Gelatt

Introduction—The Time is Now

Counselors are change agents; counseling is the helping profession. Is it time for counseling to change? Can counseling change and still be helpful? This digest says yes and tells how.

Once upon a time the past was known, the future was predictable, and the present was changing slowly. That was then, this is now. Today, the past isn't what we thought it to be, the future is no longer predictable, and the present is changing rapidly. Once upon a time counselors helped clients use a rational process for making decisions, choosing what to be when they "grow up," and preparing for and adjusting to change.

Today, decision making, growing up, and change aren't what they used to be. Decision making is recognized as more than a rational process. What to be when grown up is less important than growing. And change itself has changed so much that our old beliefs, attitudes, and even knowledge are now out of date. To become up to date with what is now, we need to change our philosophy, our theory underlying our thoughts, our point of view. *Positive Uncertainty's* time has come.

Positive Uncertainty is a philosophy, a point of view, a 2 × 4 approach to making decisions about the future when you don't know what it will be. It is a paradoxical, ambiguous process for managing change using both your rational and intuitive mind. And it is a process for changing your mind as you go along—a process for learning while growing up.

In the past, paradox (something contrary to common sense yet perhaps true) was uncommon, and ambiguity (something capable of being understood in two or more possible ways) was unwelcome. Today, paradox is everywhere—as common sense is being revised. And ambiguity is now acceptable—as absolutes are being distrusted. Can counseling develop an approach that is paradoxical and ambiguous and still be helpful? Should it? This digest says yes and tells how—using *Positive Uncertainty* as its basic philosophy.

Why is *Positive Uncertainty* Needed?

Today change is not only more rapid, more complex, more turbulent, and more unpredictable, it has moved into uncharted waters. "White water rapids" is the metaphor used now to describe change. "The more things change, the more they stay the same," is a hopelessly outdated idea.

Change today is called "breakpoint change" (Land and Jarman, 1992). Breakpoint change brings giant leaps and crucial shifts in the rules that govern success. What has been learned is that these changes are natural (as in nature)—even though they cause massive gaps between what has always been and what can happen next. What is needed, these authors say, is to take what has been learned about change over the years and apply that understanding to our lives today.

Counseling should take what has been learned about change and help people apply that understanding to their daily lives—help people change their way of thinking and alter their future visions. By challenging conventional wisdom and by using natural, intuitive, and new kinds of thinking, counselors can help clients find new and surprising answers to seemingly complex and apparently "uncharted" problems.

Business organizations today face the dilemma of finding a balance between managing current and short-term work and managing the profound changes required to ensure a positive future (Beckhard & Pritchard, 1992). Counselors, today, face the same dilemma, finding a balance between helping clients skillfully cope with immediate, short-range problems and creatively managing the profound changes in thinking often required to visualize and cause a positive personal future.

Changing our minds will be the most important change in the future, and the hardest. Counselors should lead the way. *Positive Uncertainty*, a flexible, ambidextrous approach to managing change, encourages the use of both the rational and intuitive mind, and incorporates techniques for both making up one's mind and changing it.

What is *Positive Uncertainty?*

The following is a brief summary from Gelatt, 1991:

Two Attitudes

1. Accept the past, present, and future as uncertain.
2. Be positive about the uncertainty.

Four Factors

1. What you want
2. What you know
3. What you believe
4. What you do

Positive Uncertainty uses these attitudes and factors to provide flexibility and balance. It does so by combining the traditional, linear, rational, left-brain approach with the creative, nonlinear, intuitive, right-brain approach into an ambiguous, paradoxical set of principles for planning and deciding.

Traditional decision-making strategies say that when deciding:

- Be focused by setting clear goals
- Be aware by collecting relevant facts
- Be objective by predicting probable outcomes
- Be practical by choosing actions rationally

Positive Uncertainty suggests four creative, but paradoxical, variations on these traditional, rational procedures as modern, balanced principles:

- Be focused and flexible
- Be aware and wary
- Be objective and optimistic
- Be practical and magical

These variations are derived from the four factors and the two attitudes. They will become the four basic paradoxical principles of *Positive Uncertainty*.

Positive Uncertainty's Paradoxical, Ambiguous Principles

1. **Be focused and flexible about what you want.**
   - Know what you want but don't be sure
   - Treat goals as hypotheses
   - Balance achieving goals with discovering them
2. **Be aware and wary about what you know.**
   - Recognize that knowledge is power and ignorance is bliss
   - Treat memory as an enemy
   - Balance using information with imagination
3. **Be objective and optimistic about what you believe.**
   - Notice that reality is in the "eye" and the "I" of the beholder
   - Treat beliefs as prophecy
   - Balance reality testing with wishful thinking
4. **Be practical and magical about what you do.**
   - Learn to plan and plan to learn
   - Treat intuition as real
   - Balance responding to change and causing change

How Can Counseling Use *Positive Uncertainty?*

Positive Uncertainty, as a new philosophy for counseling, will require a paradigm shift for counselors. A paradigm shift is an "Aha" experience when someone sees the composite picture in another way (Covey, 1990). The old paradigm was one of "separation"; the new paradigm is one of "seamlessness." It is "The Paradigm of the Whole" (Ferguson, 1991). This paradigm of the whole emphasizes interconnectedness, and therefore, requires systems thinking. Systems thinking is what Senge (1990) calls "The Fifth Discipline."

So what's so new about this for counseling? Counselors have always known about connectedness: mind and body, facts and feelings, believing and seeing, etc. This new proposed philosophy, involving *Positive Uncertainty*, the paradigm of the whole, and systems thinking, would refocus counseling's approach to change:

> If we want to make relative minor changes in our lives, we can perhaps appropriately focus on our attitudes and behaviors. But if we want to make significant, quantum change, we need to work on our basic paradigms. (Covey, 1990)

Conclusion

If counseling worked on counseling's basic paradigm, and if counselors worked on clients' basic paradigms, some "breakpoint changes" might emerge (see Gelatt, 1992). Most of the readings used for this digest, listed in the reference section, are from the noncounseling literature. Looking outside of our field may lead to new insights, even new visions. It is possible that a new vision of counseling can lead to new counseling strategies and that *Positive Uncertainty* can be a stimulus for such exploration.

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Qualitative Research in Student Affairs

Paul A. Bloland

Overview

While most graduate preparation programs in college student affairs and counseling tend to provide research training that emphasi[z]es statistical comparisons (i.e., experimental designs) or numeri[c] description (i.e., surveys), an approach based upon the traditional positivistic scientific method of solving problems, it is becoming more and more clear that our understanding of college students and their culture is unnecessarily circumscribed if we rely only on the information provided by quantitative research. Fortunately there appears to be an increased acceptance of qualitative research methods at the same time that we are becoming more cognizant of the complexity of college student development and its environmental setting (Caple, 1991). (The September, 1991 Special Edition of the *Journal of College Student Development* was devoted to qualitative research methods in student affairs). Student affairs professionals, most of whose graduate training has been limited to the traditional quantitative research methodologies favored by the field of psychology, need to be aware of the qualitative alternative and the types of data that it may yield for our greater understanding of college students and the cultural ecology of the campus.

What is Qualitative Research?

Although the dichotomy is too simplistic, we tend to think of research as being categorized as quantitative, using numbers as data to describe events or establish relationships between events (positivism), or qualitative, using words as data to describe human experience or behavior (phenomenological). Qualitative research had its origins in the types of field research conducted by anthropologists as they observed the day-to-day lives of their subjects. The qualitative approach became standard for sociologists in the 1920s and 1930s but never became popular among educators and psychologists who relied primarily on their adaptation of the empirical methods utilized by physical scientists engaged in a search for relationships and causes (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). What these qualitative approaches have in common is a reliance on the written or spoken word or the observable behavior of the person being studied as the principal source of data for analysis. The purpose of such research is a greater understanding of the world as seen from the unique viewpoint of the people being studied.

Qualitative vs. Quantitative Research

Because qualitative research is often defined by how it differs from quantitative research, it may be helpful to compare the two approaches. A major difference lies in their fundamentally different assumptions about the goals of research. Babbie (1983), for example, has defined qualitative analysis as "the nonnumerical examination and interpretation of observation for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships" (p. 537) as opposed to quantitative research, "the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect" (p. 537).

The differences between the two approaches, then, result because each is defining problems differently and each is looking for different solutions or answers. As defined above, qualitative methods lend themselves to discovering meanings and patterns while quantitative methods seek causes and relationships demonstrated statistically, a theoretical perspective, positivism, that is concerned with facts, prediction, and causation and not the subjective nature of the groups or individuals of interest. Researchers in the qualitative mode seek understanding through inductive analysis, moving from specific observation to the general. Quantitative analysis, on the other hand, employs deductive logic, moving from the general to the specific, i.e., from theory to experience.

Qualitative Methodologies

In a sense, qualitative research is also defined by the research methodologies or procedures employed to obtain the subjective data that form the basis for analysis and further understanding. While social scientists differ widely among themselves about the categorization of qualitative research and the terminology used to describe it, there are three approaches that appear to be the principal methods currently employed: observation, both participant and direct; qualitative interviewing, from unstructured to structured; and unobtrusive research, including the study of documents.

Observation

Participant observation refers to the collection of data by observers who become involved for a relatively long period of time in a field setting such as a student organization, long enough to observe group and individual interactions as the participants repeat and evolve behaviors. Participant observers, while involved in the setting, have no personal stake in what occurs but are sufficiently detached to find the time to observe and record routine and unusual activities and interactions as they occur naturally and spontaneously in the field setting. Direct observation or nonparticipant observation, in contrast, sets the researcher aside as an uninvolved reporter, as a member of an audience, so to speak.

Qualitative Interviewing

We use interviewing to gain access to ideas, thoughts, emotions, etc., that we can't readily identify through observation alone. There are several types of interviews that are particularly useful in qualitative research. In the unstructured approach the interviewer has no theory or presupposition about what to expect from the encounter and, consequently, does not formulate questions in advance but, after introducing the topic, allows the interview

conversation to follow the interviewee's lead. The interviews are later analyzed to determine recurrent themes or patterns. For an example of phenomenological interviewing see Attinasi's (1991) qualitative study of the meaning of going to college for a group of Mexican-American students.

Interviews may also be more structured with a set of predetermined topics used, or even with a standardized interview consisting of questions to be answered by each respondent. While interviewer flexibility and responsiveness is more limited when structured interviews are employed, structuring reduces variability and makes more efficient use of time than does the unstructured approach.

Unobtrusive Research

Practitioners of unobtrusive or nonreactive research take the position that the researcher must not become a part of what is being studied and must not have any effect upon it. Consequently, the researcher examines already available evidence, usually after the fact, and attempts to draw generalizations and conclusions. A form of unobtrusive research, content analysis, involves the examination of written documents such as personal diaries, course essays, or student newspapers. Historical research which uses existing sources, primary and secondary, to reconstruct the past is clearly unobtrusive.

When Are Qualitative Methods Indicated?

The research method chosen to study a problem should be compatible with the questions being asked. The method should service the kind of knowledge being sought rather than the other way around. One should not approach an investigation by looking for an excuse to use one's qualitative research skills but should, instead, ask, "What kind of an approach is most likely to give me the best answers to my research questions?"

For example, the qualitatively-oriented researcher is less likely to be interested in questions that seek to identify cause and effect, that answer the question, "Why?", than in questions that ask, "What?", "How?", or "Who?" An answer to the latter questions requires that the researcher access the internal experiences of the person being studied. They can't be answered by identifying the variables in advance because we don't know the dimensions of the phenomenon being studied before we talk to the participants. Qualitative research approaches thus appear to be most appropriate for the study of complex organizations such as student affairs programs, and for the study of complex processes such as roommate selection and adaptation.

Reaching Conclusions

As might be expected, the typical study results in a mass of information in the form of field notes, interview transcripts, documents, tape recordings, in short, in a plethora of words. The researcher must somehow recast this information in a form that makes it more readily usable so that meaning can be teased out of it. Miles and Huberman (1984) consider data analysis as consisting of "three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification" (p. 21).

Data reduction refers to the process of taking that mass of words and selecting some of it for summarizing or paraphrasing so that the result is a more succinct and easier to handle representation of the whole. While it may be necessary at times to use numbers they should always be accompanied by the words behind the numbers. By data display, Miles and Huberman mean the organization of the information in the form of graphs, charts, matrices, and networks so that it is in a readily accessible and compact form.

Finally, the researcher must decide what the data mean. At the same time the investigator is attempting to verify the conclusions, testing them for sources of error. Do they hold up as rational, plausible inferences based upon the data analysis? Verification performs for qualitative research what reliability and validity perform for quantitative research.

Conclusion

For student affairs, a professional field heretofore dominated by the positivistic design structure imposed by quantitative research methodology and traditional graduate research courses, an increased utilization of an alternative methodology, the qualitative, would lead to a greatly expanded range of researchable questions. Much of student affairs and counseling research has been characterized by carefully circumscribed and narrowly focused questions designed to illuminate causality and relationship. However, the environment of a college campus and its student culture represents a very rich and complex social structure that cannot readily be studied holistically by statistical means alone. Certainly it is clear that the interior life of the college student is largely inaccessible to objective instruments and quantitative approaches. The use of qualitative research approaches, alone or in combination with quantitative methods in the same study (for example, see Luzzo, 1991), can greatly expand the breadth and depth of our understanding of the student in higher education as a developing participant in his or her own learning process.

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Accreditation of College and University Counseling Services

James I. Morgan

Professionalism and Accreditation

Accreditation of counseling services on college campuses is a relatively recent development. The only agency currently accrediting college counseling services is the International Association of Counseling Services, Inc. (IACS), which was the immediate successor to the American Board on Counseling Services, Inc., a unit within the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA, now the American Counseling Association). IACS was incorporated as an independent affiliate of APGA in 1972 (Morgan, 1986).

Accreditation of counseling services can be seen as a part of a larger concern with professionalism within the counseling community. Professionalism in the counseling profession has the following aims: (1) to protect the public welfare; (2) to improve the counseling profession, and; (3) to recognize that because the majority of counseling services offered are utilized on a voluntary basis by clients, counseling must be seen in a positive light if its benefits are to appeal to the consuming public and to all others to whom the delivery of service may be held accountable (Morgan, 1986). These aims are publicly expressed through the pursuit of certification, licensure and accreditation. Certification and licensure pertains to individual practitioners while accreditation is focused on programs and agencies.

Desirability of Accreditation

Accreditation is closer to the concept of certification than it is to the concept of licensure. That is, it is not necessary for a college counseling agency to be accredited to offer counseling services, but to go through the voluntary process of being evaluated for accreditation and becoming accredited means that the agency can say that it is recognized by an independent professional group as offering counseling services that comply with the standards set by that accrediting group.

Accreditation of college counseling services is not the norm among college counseling centers. Neither is membership in the most recognized professional group for counseling center directors. Also, participation in pre-doctoral internship programs approved by the American Psychological Association is pursued by only a fraction of existing counseling centers. The membership of the Association of University and College Counseling Center Directors (AUCCCD) consists of 353 member directors (AUCCCD, 1991). One hundred and twenty-nine college and university counseling services are accredited by IACS. Sixty-four counseling centers have APA approved pre-doctoral internships. Interestingly, according to information provided to the author (APA, 1991) by the IACS central office, 38, or 60%, of the centers with APA internship programs are also accredited by IACS. Why more centers are not involved with their professional organization or with accreditation is yet to be determined, but it assumed that, as all of these activities are voluntary, they do not yet see the need.

When directors of accredited centers were asked to describe benefits they perceived coming from accreditation of their counseling services, they reported, in descending order of frequency, that it: (1) added to their credibility, status, or image on campus, (2) helped to increase or maintain staff, (3) helped improve administrative understanding or support, (4) enabled them to use information supplied by the accrediting agency to support requests for additional resources, (5) provided political advantages, contributed to staff morale and was useful in public relations (Gallagher, 1985). Another benefit is that the applicants gain a more complete understanding of their agencies' strengths and weaknesses through participation in the intensive self-study required as a part of the application process.

The accreditation process consists of several distinct steps: (1) the center requests the application materials; (2) the center completes the application materials, which involves an extensive self-study related to the areas of concern to the accrediting group; (3) these application materials are reviewed by the accrediting group and a decision is made about the center's readiness for an on-site field visit; (4) the field visit is conducted and a report made to the accrediting group which then sends the report to the center director for a response; (5) the field visit report and the director's response to the report are reviewed by the accrediting group and a determination is made about the status of the applicant center. A center may be denied accreditation, given provisional accreditation for a limited time with the expectation that the staff work toward making changes which will make it fully accreditable, or the center is granted full accreditation. This complete process may take from 10 to 18 months to finish.

Accreditation Standards

The most recent accreditation standards for university and college accreditation are not yet published. They are available from the International Association of Counseling Services, Inc., offices in Alexandria, Virginia. However, they are similar to the previous guidelines for accreditation used until October,

1991, and published in the Personnel and Guidance Journal in 1982 (Garni et al., 1982), and those were revisions of even earlier guidelines. Professionalism recognizes that standards evolve and are not static; hence, the periodic revisions. The following areas are covered in the accreditation standards (Kiracofe et al., 1991):

A. *Relationship of counseling center to the university/college community*—which focuses on the center's administrative independence, its financial support as well as it's relationship to other units within the institution.

B. *Counseling service roles and functions*—which defines the services which must be present for a center to be considered for accreditation as well as defining parameters within which these services should be offered. Training is also dealt with here.

C. *Ethical standards*—which refers to the expected level of professional ethical behavior which must be adhered to by the center and staff in the provision of counseling services, research, treatment of records, testing and other professional activities.

D. *Counseling service personnel*—which refers to the qualifications, duties and competencies of the director, professional staff, support staff, trainees and paraprofessionals.

E. *Related guidelines*—which covers staffing practices, professional development of staff, staff size, workload, compensation, and physical facilities.

F. *Multiple counseling agencies*—which defines when an agency with multiple locations must seek accreditation as one unit or as multiple units.

The Future of Accreditation of Counseling Services

The art of predicting the future is probably best left to seers; however, it may be reasonable to speculate about the future of accreditation of counseling services.

There is some reason to believe that the popularity of, if not the necessity for, accreditation of counseling services will continue to grow. Certainly there is a continued emphasis on professionalism within the counseling profession. The American Counseling Association has formed a Coalition for Preparation and Practice Standards in Counseling and Student Affairs Practices (CPPS) (Guidepost, 1992). This group, consisting of the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), the Council on Rehabilitation Education (CORE), the Council for Advancement of Standards (CAS), and the International Association of Counseling Services (IACS), is meeting to encourage the review, development and endorsement of standards of preparation and practice in counseling and personnel services and to support the accreditation of programs and credentialling of individuals. CPPS intends to encourage coordination of accreditation efforts, to provide a forum for the study and review of standards and to educate various publics.

And, although the Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS) has published standards for all student services areas, some counseling centers find them too marginal for their purposes. The California Counseling Center Directors agreed, for instance, to adopt the IACS standards as minimum standards for university counseling services practice, feeling they were more appropriate, and more rigorous, than the CAS standards (Aiken, 1985).

Conclusion

As public accountability continues to become more important and as the professionalism movement continues, one clear way to establish that at least minimal standards for counseling services are being offered is for an agency to seek and achieve accreditation.

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CAPS DIGEST

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Building Community for the 21st Century

Joan T. England

Introduction

The theme for the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision 2nd National Conference in San Antonio (1992) is "Pluralism: Building Community for the 21st Century." A society in which members of diverse ethnic, racial, religious and social groups maintain participation in and development of their traditions and special interests while cooperatively working toward the interdependence needed for a nation's unity is an excellent definition of pluralism. But what of community building? What is it?

Community

Community is a state of being together in which people lower their defenses, and learn to accept and rejoice in differences among people. The transcendence of rugged individualism to soft individualism is the basis of community. As M. Scott Peck (1987) said "Community is a true alchemical process that transforms the dross of our differences into golden harmony." We can no longer define equality as sameness but must value differences whether we are talking about race, gender, ethnicity, life style, or professional discipline.

Special ACES Conference Digest

How does one build community? Perhaps the best example could be through a version of "The Rabbi's Gift" from Peck (1987): The story concerns a monastery that had fallen upon hard times. As a result of waves of antimonastic persecution in the 17th and 18th centuries and the rise of secularism in the 19th, all its branch houses were lost and it had become decimated to the extent that there were only five monks left in the decaying mother house, the abbot and four others, all over 70 in age. Clearly it was a dying order.

In the deep woods surrounding the monastery there was a little hut that a rabbi from a nearby town occasionally used for a hermitage. It occurred to the abbot to visit the hermitage and ask the rabbi if by some possible chance he could offer any advice that might save the monastery.

The rabbi welcomed the abbot. But when the abbot explained the purpose of his visit, the rabbi could only commiserate with him. "I know how it is," he exclaimed. "The spirit has gone out of the people. It is the same in my town. Almost no one comes to the synagogue anymore." So the old abbot and the rabbi wept together. Then they read parts of the Torah and quietly spoke of deep things. The time came when the abbot had to leave. They embraced each other. "It has been a wonderful thing that we should meet after all these years," the abbot said, "but I have still failed in my purpose for coming here. Is there nothing you can tell me, no piece of advice that would help save my dying order?"

"No, I am sorry," the rabbi responded. "I have no advice to give. The only thing I can tell you is that the Messiah is one of you."

In the days and weeks and months that followed, the old monks pondered on this and wondered whether there was any possible significance to the rabbi's words. The Messiah is one of us? Could he possibly have meant one of us monks here at the monastery? As they contemplated in this manner, the old monks began to treat each other with extraordinary respect on the off chance that one might be the Messiah. And on the off, off chance that each monk himself might be the Messiah, they began to treat themselves with extraordinary respect.

Because the forest in which it was situated was beautiful, it so happened that people still occasionally came to visit the monastery to picnic on its tiny lawn, to wander along some of its paths, even now and then to go to the dilapidated chapel to meditate. As they did so, without even being conscious of it, they sensed this aura of extraordinary respect that now began to surround the five old monks and seemed to radiate out from them and permeate the atmosphere of the place. There was something strangely attractive, even compelling, about it. Hardly knowing why, they came back to the monastery more frequently to picnic, to play, to pray. They began to bring their friends to show them this special place. And their friends brought their friends.

Then it happened that some of the younger men who came to visit the monastery started to talk more and more with the old monks. After a while one asked if he could join them. Then another. And another. So within a few years the monastery had once again become a thriving order and thanks to the rabbi's gift, a vibrant center of light and spirituality in the realm. (From the preface of *A Different Drum* by Scott Peck, 1987.)

The Individual and Community

Much in the same way that the rabbi helped the abbot, we too are called to power. In the process of individuation we must take responsibility for ourselves and develop a sense of autonomy and self-determination toward a global community. This wholeness must be recognized in the context of others. We are social creatures who desperately need each other not only for company but for meaning in our lives. Swami Venkatesananda (1985) said, "Any persons whom you have ever met, even if you have just exchanged a glance on a bus, have become part of your being, and consequently you are in some sense ultimately responsible for them. You carry them in your heart."

Scott Peck, in his book *The Different Drum* (1987) claims that the move into true community frees those who must lead from leadership positions, for, he states that compulsive leaders feel free in

community not to lead. True community becomes the ideal decision-making body, but control and traditional hierarchical patterns must be set aside.

Stages of Community Building

To work toward peace and community we must recall that building community takes time; it is not an instant process but one which requires the recognition and celebration of individual differences. Peck (1987) describes the transcendence of culture and community building as a process of stages involving individuals and groups of people. Christensen (Bernard & Goodyear, 1992) parallels this with a paradigm of Stages of Cross-cultural awareness. For individuals in Peck's (1987) **Stage 1** people are pretenders; they pretend they are loving and pious, covering up their lack of principles. The first primitive stage of community is characterized by pretense. The group looks like a community without doing any of the work involved. Christensen's Stage 1 includes people who are unaware, who have never thought about cultural, ethnic, or racial differences or meaning and influence for individuals and groups.

Peck's (1987) **Stage 2** people have begun submitting themselves to principle—the law. Consequently they are legalistic, parochial and dogmatic. They are threatened by anyone who thinks differently from them and attempt to fix one another as opposed to ***accepting*** one another. Christensen's (1989) Stage 2 people are beginning to become aware, developing a sense of uneasiness and cognitive dissonance.

Peck's (1987) **Stage 3** is a stage of questioning and is analogous to the crucial stage of emptiness in community formation. In reaching for community the group must question themselves. They may ask, " I wonder to what extent my feelings about homosexuals represent a prejudice bearing little relation to reality?" Such questioning is the required beginning of an emptying process. We cannot succeed in emptying ourselves of preconceptions, prejudices, needs to control or convert and so forth without first becoming skeptical of them and without doubting their necessity. Individuals become stuck in stage 3 precisely because they do not doubt deeply enough. Christensen's (1989) Stage 3 involves a conscious awareness where there is evidence of conflicting preoccupation with cultural, ethnic, and racial differences and meanings, present and past. (The stereotypes don't fit anymore.)

To enter Peck's **Stage 4** they must begin to empty themselves of the dogmas of skepticism such as, "Anything that can't be measured scientifically can't be known and isn't worth studying." They must begin to even doubt their own doubt. Christensen's (1989) Stage 4 is consolidated awareness where there is commitment to seek positive societal change and promote understanding. (Reconciliation). In both Peck's and Christensen's models, the key to transition and change is between the third and fourth stages; the changes begin and can be aborted or continue to fruition.

The characteristics of true community are true inclusivity, no one is exclusive or excluded. There must be commitment; the group must commit themselves to one another to become community. A second characteristic is realism; from the divergent views of the members of a community, a realistic and viable response can be found versus the single view of one. Community is a safe place to be vulnerable and therefore leads to change, for you are accepted as you are.

Communication

When you do what you can do you may begin through language and communication. Communication and community, like charity, begins at home. The overall purpose of human communication is (or should be) reconciliation. It should ultimately serve to lower or remove walls and barriers of misunderstanding that unduly separate us human beings from one another. The rules for community making are the rules for effective communication (Peck, 1987). Communication is the bedrock of all human relationships, the principles of community have profound application to any situation in which two people are gathered together—in the global community, in the home, business or neighborhood. The Sufis advise us to speak only after our words have managed to pass through three gates. At the first gate we ask ourselves, "Are these words true?" If so, we let them pass on; if not, back they go. At the second gate we ask, "Are they necessary?" At the last gate we ask, "Are they kind?" (Easwaran in *Peacemaking*, 1985). If we were to adopt the Sufis' strategy would we move closer to community and global peace? As this vision of peace becomes possible, as necessary for human survival, we express this vision in a language of peace. Language, in turn, shapes our way of seeing things. The power of our own words can foster peace and community.

Conclusion

Counselors, are the "human concern providers" to our communities. The pinnacle of our being lies in our membership in communities. Taking a stance from the peace and justice movements currently active in our country may be necessary. Susan Wilson (Menninger Foundation, 1992) says that working toward unity and peace is not a task for the weak or fainthearted. She visualizes for us the words which may spur us forward; we need to build bridges to span barriers, release bonds and practice bravery. The metaphor of a bridge is symbolic in that we may "rise above" the turbulence, the chasms of our fears and build a diverse house with many levels on the "other side"—the 21st century.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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CACREP Accreditation

Setting the Standard for Counselor Preparation

Carol L. Bobby

Introduction

To accredit is to recognize as outstanding, provide with credentials, or vouch that standards have been maintained or met. These statements can be found in most dictionary definitions of the word "accredit." In the U.S., this word has been used to represent a unique process of voluntary, nongovernmental review of educational institutions and professional preparation programs. The process varies from most other countries where quality assessment is a governmental function. Here it has historically been a self-regulating practice of peer review.

The two major types of accreditation in the United States are known as institutional and specialized. In higher education, institutional accreditation is granted by regional and national accrediting commissions which look at entire institutions such as universities or colleges. Specialized accreditation is awarded to professional programs housed within institutions or to free-standing, professional institutes offering training in a particular field of study.

The Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), a specialized accrediting body recognized by the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA), was created by the American Counseling Association (ACA) and its membership divisions to provide a nationally-based standards review process for the counseling profession's graduate-level preparation programs. Although independently incorporated in 1981, CACREP views its mission as synonymous with the goals of ACA—to advance the counseling profession through graduate education standards which promote quality education program offerings. CACREP accreditation is seen as a means of strengthening credibility for the counseling profession.

The Accreditation Process

There are five basic stages to the CACREP accreditation process. Each stage represents a specific level of self and peer review for purposes of constructive feedback regarding a program's compliance with the standards.

In **Stage One**, a program embarks on a process of self-examination. Program faculty review the program's objectives, curricular offerings, clinical instruction facilities, institutional support, faculty credentials, policies, and other organizational support materials against the requirements embedded in the CACREP Standards. Based upon this self-review process, the program may plan for changes which will increase compliance with the standards.

Following the self-review, a program may enter Stage Two of the CACREP process by writing a report which addresses how the program meets each individual standard. Documentation must be provided to support the narrative. Submission of this report with an application form allows for the initial peer review of the program by a subcommittee of the CACREP Board. Feedback is provided to the program, and the program may be requested to either withdraw the application, provide further substantiation, or prepare for **Stage Three** of the review process—the on-site visit.

The on-site visit is conducted by a 3–4 person team of professional counselors and/or human development specialists who have been trained by CACREP to validate the self-study data. The typical visit includes: (1) a thorough review of the self-study report; (2) interviews with faculty, students, graduates, deans, clinical supervisors, and other administrators; (3) actual visits to both on-campus and off-campus facilities such as the library, computer centers, practicum and internship sites, and other laboratory or resource centers; and (4) a review of departmental files and supplemental information. A minimum of 2–3 days is reserved for the visit. At the conclusion, the team submits a detailed report of the on-site review to the CACREP Board of Directors. This report is also provided to the program for further feedback and for an opportunity to respond to the relative accuracy of the information contained therein.

Stage Four is the rendering of accreditation decisions by the CACREP Board. Once again a subcommittee of the Board reviews all materials generated in the process to date. The subcommittee prepares recommendations for Board deliberations and decisions. Accreditation decisions are rendered in the following categories:

- ***Accredited:*** a status awarded to programs which satisfactorily meet the standards; awarded for a 7-year period.
- ***Accredited for a 2-year period:*** a status awarded to programs which substantially meet the requirements for accredited status, but which need to address minor deficiencies. Conditions are attached to the accreditation which must be addressed within a time frame.

- **Denied:** Denial occurs when the evidence indicates that a program is not in substantial compliance with the standards. The program is notified of the decision through correspondence with the institution's president or other official designee. In the event of denial, a program is given the right to appeal within a 30-day period following receipt of the notification letter.

The final stage of the CACREP process is the submission of interim reports and annual surveys. Their purpose is to document further and continued compliance with the CACREP Standards during the 2–7 years of awarded accreditation. The Board reviews this information and provides continued feedback to the program.

Evaluation of CACREP

Program accreditation in counselor education has been the theme of many journal articles. Publications have focused on issues of need for an accreditation program (Stahl & Havens, 1978; Stripling, 1978), concerns generated by increases in program requirements (Cecil & Comas, 1986; Vacc, 1985), faculty characteristics in CACREP programs (Miller & Sampson, 1984), the impact of CACREP's clinical instruction requirements (Pate, 1990; Randolph, 1988), and the governance structure of the CACREP Board as the body responsible for implementing the standards revision process (Engels, 1991; Weinrach, 1991). Research on the relevance of the CACREP Standards (Vacc, 1992) to counselor preparation as judged by representatives from both accredited and nonaccredited programs indicated the existence of a positive degree of content validity of the standards. Additional survey research assessing program representatives' perceptions of whether specific standards hindered the seeking of CACREP accreditation (Bobby & Kandor, 1992) revealed few, if any standards, to be deterrents to achieving accreditation.

CACREP policy also dictates that a comprehensive review of the standards be conducted every 5 years. A committee is appointed to conduct the review which requires dissemination of drafts to its various publics—counselor educators, practitioners, students, and the general public—for comment and suggested revisions. A minimum of two drafts over a period of 2 years are prepared for public review before a final adoption of new or revised standards is completed.

Future Trends

CACREP Standards are responsive to the needs of the profession and the needs of our society. In recent years, society has recognized the "graying" of America, been plagued with a growing drug problem, and witnessed crises associated with family violence, divorce, and unemployment. For the profession to remain responsive, appropriate preparation is imperative. CACREP has been in the process of reviewing specialized training standards in areas such as marriage and family counseling, gerontological counseling, and career counseling.

Conclusion

CACREP accreditation is a powerful tool for self-evaluation and improvement of counselor education programs. The standards provide the guidelines for master's and doctoral level preparation accepted nationally by the counseling profession. Inherent in the accreditation process is continuous evaluation and responsive feedback so that programs and the profession remain current with the problems faced by entering professionals.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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CHDF—Partner in Professionalism

Toni Crouch and Garry R. Walz

CHDF's Mission

The Counseling and Human Development Foundation (CHDF) is the only national philanthropic organization whose sole purpose is the enhancement of individual human development by conducting and fostering programs of research and education in counseling and human development. As a 501(C)(3) corporation under the Internal Revenue Service regulations, donations made to CHDF qualify as tax-deductible gifts.

CHDF was created in 1979 by the American Counseling Association (ACA) to strengthen educational and research opportunities for professional counselors. ACA, the professional association for counselors, represents 60,000 professional counselors nationwide. Although a separate and independent "not-for-profit" corporation, CHDF has continued to work closely with ACA, serving as its "Partner in Professionalism" to strengthen the counseling profession.

CHDF's Past Accomplishments

CHDF, since its founding, has had a strong commitment to facilitating research both through program offerings at ACA national conventions and through a Professional Enhancement Grant Program. A key feature of the convention program offerings by ACA has been to encourage counselors to undertake research on topics relevant to their current activities. Past research grant winners have also shared ideas about quality research as have the CHDF Trustees.

The Professional Enhancement Grant Program alone has awarded over $150,000 to support research projects in the areas of: counseling effectiveness/outcomes, specific populations, pre-and in-service preparation, public awareness and support, and professional issues. Completed research projects are put into ERIC so all counselors can benefit from the research.

Throughout its history CHDF has also provided support to ACA and its Regions, Branches and Divisions. One of the earliest grant programs initiated by CHDF was the Branch/Region Grant Program which awarded over $25,000 to 32 ACA Regions and Branches. CHDF's financial assistance to ACA in the past includes providing funds to modernize and upgrade ACA furnishings, equipment, data processing and word processing, among other headquarters improvements; purchasing the land upon which the headquarters building is situated, and transferring that land to ACA when it purchased the building; contributing to the purchase of the ACA property on Capitol Hill; and maintaining and evaluating the performance of the investment portfolio available to provide high yield and low fees.

Future Programs

In 1991 the Board of Trustees began a formal review of past accomplishments to determine future directions, and concluded that CHDF must expand its programs in order to keep pace with the needs of the profession and society as a whole. The urgent and expanding need to provide counseling services to a growing number of people led CHDF to redefine its program objectives for the 1990s.

The Board of Trustees began this process by soliciting input from 267 ACA leaders who were asked to complete a Program Objective Survey. This survey asked the leaders to indicate their priority ranking of objectives and activities which could be funded by CHDF. The Board of Trustees then reviewed this information and decided to focus our limited resources on three critical areas: research, professional development, and public awareness/recognition. Taken together, these programs will ensure that professional counselors not only know and use the most effective techniques to help, but also that people in need will know what services can best be provided by professional counselors and how to access that help.

Research

CHDF's program continues to emphasize research as a means of helping professional counselors. The research agenda for the 90s concentrates on advocacy research and efficacy/outcome research in order to increase the impact of funding dollars.

Advocacy research documents what professional counselors do and what roles are appropriate for professional counselors in the mental health arena. Advocacy research demonstrated the need for professional counselors, what advantages are gained by employing professional counselors, and how they can work with other professionals to provide optimum service.

Efficacy/outcome research answers two basic questions: *What works? What works best?* Not all of the techniques and programs which professional counselors have developed have been subjected to rigorous evaluation to establish when they are most appropriate or which are most successful. Providing such research data will improve professional counselors' skills as it helps them determine what the best program is for clients.

Lack of research data has also been a hindrance to side acceptance and implementation of new programs. Without research to *prove* that a new program or technique works, other professional counselors may be reluctant or unable to try it. CHDF's focus on efficacy/outcome research will help make this data available.

Professional Development

CHDF plans to implement a program of support for professional development opportunities immediately. The initial stage will include pre-convention workshops (in conjunction with ACA's Annual Convention) and in-service training. During 1992-93, CHDF will focus its efforts on expanding professional counselors' skills and understanding of research techniques and grant review procedures. The goal is to expand the pool of trained researchers in order to enhance CHDF's research program as well as maximize the impact of the research which we support. CHDF will work closely with ACA's Professional Development Department to make our programs available at reduced fees so that more professional counselors can participate.

CHDF's goal is to expand this program significantly in the upcoming years so that professional development opportunities on a wide-range of topics are accessible to professional counselors nationwide. This becomes more important as CHDF's research program begins to identify techniques and programs which are most effective—Professional Development Programs will help train professional counselors in these proven techniques. Such a concerted effort of linking research results to professional development will provide professional counselors with the most effective tools available.

Public Awareness/Recognition

CHDF has targeted public awareness and recognition for the counseling profession as one of our top priorities. Professional counselors help people throughout their life spans to resolve problems and face challenges, yet many people are not aware the profession exists. Fewer still know that special training is necessary to become a professional counselor. CHDF wants to make the public and policy makers aware of the important role of professional counselors so that they are accessible when needed.

CHDF's first step is to develop and implement our Community Disaster Response Program. Our goal is to mobilize counseling support tin times of crisis, such as the Challenger explosion, Hurricane Hugo, the Gulf War, or the Los Angeles riots. Not only will this provide help when and where it is needed, but it can also highlight professional counselors' roles in helping those in need. When national attention is focused on the aftermath of a disaster, the role professional counselors play in alleviating personal pain in times of crises needs to be highlighted so that more people can benefit from that service in the future.

CHDF is committed to the counseling profession and the people it serves. Professional counselors offer a vital service helping to alleviate suffering and to prevent an individual's difficulties from becoming major mental health problems. Professional counselors need to be recognized as highly-skilled professionals whose programs are based on sound research and whose skills are continuously upgraded to reflect the most current and effective techniques. CHDF has expanded its support in research, professional development, and public awareness to help develop that recognition.

Conclusion

As the only national philanthropy dedicated to enhancing the role, skills, and research base for professional counselors, CHDF is in a unique position to serve this vital profession. Its close relationship with ACA ensures that CHDF will continue to complement the association's programs, and thus increase CHDF's impact on the pressing issues affecting counselors today. Professional counselors can ensure the success of our programs through their active involvement, not only financial support, but more importantly participation in the development and implementation of program objectives. CHDF serves the counseling profession, and offer opportunities for counselors to advance their profession.

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CAPS DIGEST

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Consulting With the Judiciary

A Challenging Opportunity for the Counselor Educator

Mary Finn Maples

Overview

Since 1985, I have had the privilege of serving as a part-time faculty member for the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges, the training organization for the National College of Juvenile Law, both based in Reno, Nevada. Judges from throughout the country come to participate in continuing legal education courses in addition to other topics related to their work on the bench. Included among the students are judges from state supreme courts, county district appeals courts and municipalities, along with juvenile and family courts. In addition, courses have included social workers, probation officers, pediatricians involved in legal issues, juvenile court masters, justices of the peace and others involved in the court system.

The curricula that I have taught to these professionals include training them to be faculty members for the Council, courses related to characteristics of adult learners and principles of instructional design, and the use of multi-media as teaching tools. They, in turn, teach legal education courses back in their own jurisdictions, thereby extending the training and teaching resources of the Council.

Teaching as a Form of Consulting

Lippitt (1975) suggested that "consultation, like supervision, or love, is a general label for many variations of relationships" (p. 42). Kirby (1985) defines a consultant as "a catalytic agent in that the consultant sets into motion changes between persons and/or among social forces without appreciable changes occurring in the person of the consultant nor in the relationship role of the consultant to the social system" (p. 3). In their education and training model, Hansen, Humes, and Meier (1990) have expanded the definition by stating that "the consultant's role is primarily that of an advisor, educator, or trainer, presenting information or training that the consultees can use to better provide service for their agency or clients. The information generally comes from the consultant's area of expertise and, although it may relate to consultee problems, the consulting is typically not focused on resolution of specific problems. This form of consultation is called staff development or in-service training" (p. 7). This is the clearest definition which describes consultation with the judiciary.

Consultant Qualifications

The role of the counselor educator is uniquely appropriate to meet the needs of judges. The counselor educator is trained in the areas of interpersonal communications, including non-verbal communication; confronting personal values and attitudes as they impact on professional decision-making; and facilitating clients' abilities to express themselves; encouraging reluctant clients, family systems and stages and tasks in human development. These are specific skills, techniques and areas of knowledge that are overlooked in law school. While the majority of judges have been attorneys, approximately 15-20% have not. In these cases, the counselor educator can be even more valuable to the judiciary.

It is important to note that the consultant to the judiciary must be an expert in the area that he or she is bringing to this audience. Working with judges is not for the faint-hearted or the neophyte. The nature of the judiciary is probing, cognitive, facially unexpressive, insightful yet often unforgiving in the face of ignorance (of subject matter by experts). Members of the judiciary often pose questions that the consultant may not be prepared to answer. While the counselor educator who works with judges need not be a nationally recognized expert, he or she must present credentials that spell out the training and experience that the consultant brings to the process. Establishing one's credibility as a consultant is the most crucial step in effectively working with judges and other court personnel, particularly if the consultant does not have a legal background. The consultant should clarify at the beginning of the process exactly what goals he or she intends to meet throughout the process.

Providing written testimony by earlier clients is often helpful in becoming initially involved as a consultant to the

court system, especially if the consultant's clients are known and respected by the judges. I have found that "selling oneself" is probably more important when working with judges than most groups of professionals or managers in business and industry.

Consultation Through Training—Methods

The ability to effectively utilize a variety of media is most appealing to judges. By training and experience, they are familiar with only one teaching method, that overworked method unique to law school—the lecture.

In our work with training judges to be trainers themselves, my colleague, Gordon Zimmerman, and I, allow the judges to use the lecture method in only 20-25% of their teaching assignments. We work with the judges for one week each year. The purpose of this program is to train the judges to serve as faculty for the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges (NCJFCJ), the training component for the National College of Juvenile and Family Law.

In teaching them how to teach, we use demonstrations, small group activities, experiential opportunities, panel discussions, and role-playing experiences, with very little lecturing. Our objectives contain cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral components—as theirs must in their individual projects. Extensive use of the camcorder/VCR, overhead projector, flip charts, chalk boards, slide projectors and laser printers on word processors are also incorporated.

Consulting With the Judiciary—a Recent Example

In 1990, Merry Hofford, Director of the Family Violence Project for the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges submitted a unique project proposal to the States Justice Institute, a funding agency for judicial education. The project was entitled "The Crucial Nature of Values and Attitudes in Judicial Decision-Making." Dr. Gordon Zimmerman, a colleague in the Department of Speech Communication at UNR, and I, were contracted to conduct two invitational 3-day training sessions designed to help judges at all levels to acknowledge their own personal values and attitudes to the extent that these values and attitudes impact on their decisions from the bench. Additionally, I was contracted to write a curriculum guide to facilitate the ability of the judges to teach this workshop in other areas of the country. Through the utilization of all of the methods and media mentioned earlier in this digest, the judges were to present a brief program to other participants which incorporated cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral objectives and would demonstrate particularly the attitudinal aspect in dealing with judges' values. In the evaluation of the workshop, the participants made only two suggestions: (1) that the workshop should have been extended to a full week as 3 days was not long enough; and (2) that the objective that stated "judges will be able to 'acknowledge the impact' of values and attitudes in their decision-making should be changed to "confront the impact," in order to strengthen that objective. Since that time, several of the judge participants have replicated this workshop in their own and other jurisdictions.

Conclusion

In one of the most recent texts on consulting (Hansen et al., 1990) the authors write of consulting in business and industry, in medical settings, with groups and with families. A group overlooked is the judiciary, yet the opportunities and challenges available to counselor educators are limitless. The training and experience of counselor educators is highly respected by the judiciary. The knowledge base of counseling can contribute significantly to the work of judges, particularly juvenile and family court judges. I have worked since 1985 in a variety of areas requested as needed by the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges. It is a service that is needed throughout the country, yet the resources within the ranks of experienced counselor educators are as yet largely untapped.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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The Counselor and NBCC

Thomas W. Clawson and Victoria Wildermuth

Introduction

Counseling is a relatively young field. Significant advances that counseling has made in becoming a profession can be clearly attributed to credentialing activity (Bradley, 1991). The establishment of standards for practice within the profession has been of major importance. Jointly, national counselor certification and state credentialing (licensure, certification, registry) are major reasons why counseling is achieving parity with related professions in the behavioral sciences (Wittmer, 1992). The National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC) is the largest counselor certification agency in the United States, representing over 17,000 National Certified Counselors (NCCs) and 1,500 counselors certified in the specialty areas of career counseling, gerontological counseling, and school counseling. Prior to the inception of the broad-based NBCC National Certified Counselor credential in 1982, only five states legally regulated the practice of professional counseling. Since that time, the number of states regulating the practice of counseling has grown steadily from five to 38. In addition to the 17,000 counselors certified by NBCC, roughly 50,000 counselors are state credentialed. These large populations of professionally accountable, credentialed counselors possess enhanced visibility and credibility, ensuring their right to equal participation in the mental health care and human development fields (Wittmer, 1992).

Historical Perspective

Mental health professionals have sought legal recognition in the form of certification and licensure since the 1940s when psychologists and social workers began what would be a 50-year process to gain recognition in all states. The counseling profession made dramatic strides in the mid-1970s when the American Counseling Association (ACA, then the American Personnel and Guidance Association, APGA) documented the need for counselor credentialing via needs assessments conducted within the profession. Direct results included both the endorsement of formalized standards of training prepared by the Association for Counselor Educators and Supervisors (ACES), and the creation, in 1982, of the National Board for Certified Counselors. NBCC was designed to certify a broad-based professional counseling population based on documentation of requisite professional experience, supervision, academic training and successful performance on a knowledge-based written examination, NBCC's National Counselor Examination (NCE). The ACES standards define appropriate content areas for NBCC's National Counselor Examination and are used by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) as the basis for graduate program accreditation (Loesch & Vacc, 1991). The NCE is now commonly administered to students graduating from CACREP programs, thus establishing NBCC certification as the next professional step following program completion. The NCE is also used as a component of 28 state-credentialing processes.

In the 1980s, NBCC, CACREP, and the independent specialty counselor certification boards of the Commission on Rehabilitation Counselor Certification (CRCC) and the National Academy of Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselors (NACCMHC) formed the core of counselor credentialing on the national level. Simultaneously, state laws for the regulation of private practice counselors flourished. As of this writing, 38 states have laws regulating the private practice of counselors and all states regulate public school counselors. Through provision of the NCE to state credentialing boards, NBCC supports what became a major focus of the counselor credentialing movement in the 1980s: licensure of counselors, state by state. NBCC has promoted unification of testing standards via provision of the NCE to state boards.

The NBCC Examinations

NBCC has developed two examinations: the National Counselor Examination (NCE) and the National Career Counselor Examination (NCCE). The NCE will undergo its first comprehensive revision in 1994, based upon a major work behavior analysis completed by NBCC in 1992. Presently, there are over 20 separate forms of the NCE and it has recently been translated into Spanish.

The NCCE is the written examination component of the NBCC National Certified Career Counselor (NCCC) credentialing process. Like the NCE, it undergoes ongoing development. The NCCE will undergo content revision beginning in 1992 to reflect the National Career Development Association's (NCDA) revised career counselor competencies. Beginning in 1992, the NCCE will be used for the first time for state-based specialty credentialing by the California Career Counselor Registry.

In addition to revising the National Counselor Examination, NBCC is constructing a new "clinical counseling examination" to be normed before 1994. This will be a companion

examination to the revised NCE. NBCC's present examinations are knowledge based, rather than competency based. The upcoming revision of the NCE will result in a competency-based assessment tool. NBCC currently relies upon assessment of certification candidates' experience and supervision as competency checks for certification. (Loesch & Vacc, 1991; Sampson & Loesch, 1991.)

NBCC's Role and Purpose

As state licensure becomes commonplace, national credentialing becomes even more important to ensure a unified definition of counseling and its practice. Why would one hold both licensure and NBCC certification?

- **National certification is broader than state licensure.** Certification compares the certificant with a national population; state licensure is restricted to comparison with the population of a state.
- **State licensure is subject to the politics of the state.** Sunset commissions in states may terminate the enabling legislation for credentialing.
- **National certification provides referral sources across state lines.** The NBCC database identifies counselors in all states who accept referrals. A state license provides opportunities for state networking; the national certification affords opportunities for national networking.
- **Most state licenses do not provide for a license in a specialty.** National certification offers certificants the opportunity to add an advanced specialty designation.

The NBCC has evolved over its 10-year history from the original concept of providing a broad-based registry of trained counselors to its current configuration as a widely recognized national credential based upon training, experience and performance on a written examination. Further, NBCC is the central point within the profession for establishing national certificates for specialty training. Presently, the National Certified Career Counselor (NCCC), the National Certified Gerontological Counselor (NCGC), and the National Certified School Counselor (NCSC) are available to professional counselors who hold the National Certified Counselor (NCC) general practice credential.

NBCC participates actively in the National Organization for Competency Assurance (NOCA), the National Commission for Certifying Agencies (NCCA), and the Council on Licensure, Enforcement and Regulation (CLEAR). These organizations disseminate current information on legislation and government regulations and provide interprofessional oversight of credentialing programs.

Conclusion

In order for counseling to be seen as a profession by the public, the legal system, and federal and state governments, a complex set of requirements must be met. Establishment and perpetuation of professional societies, research, publication, training standards, and certification are all important factors in defining any profession. Certification emerges as a key ingredient, not only to protect and inform the public, but also to promote professional excellence. Certification denotes the meeting of standards of training and experience and the continuance of standards of ethics and education.

The future of NBCC certification is certain. Yearly, the number of certified and licensed counselors rises by 10% or more. The public recognizes the terms "counselor" and "counseling" as being part of the helping professions. Counseling is gaining additional distinction as time passes. The allied mental health professions are moving more toward providing equal opportunities for individuals practicing in a variety of related helping professions. The hierarchical attitudes of the past are fading, much to the advantage of the counseling profession's constituencies.

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CAPS DIGEST

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Counselor Membership in ACA

Lee J. Richmond and Theodore P. Remley

Overview

Counseling is a relatively new profession. When compared to the three most established professions in the Western world—medicine, law, and the clergy—counseling has only recently emerged as a unique profession recognized by members of our society as different from other similar professions. The last 50 years has witnessed the transformation of counseling from a vague concept or interest area to a profession, complete with all the rights and responsibilities thereof.

After decades of soul searching and political activity, counselors finally are enjoying the privileges that public recognition as professionals has bestowed upon them. Once society acknowledges a professional group as holding specialized skills that can only be evaluated and monitored by others in the profession, a public trust is implied. The consumers of professional services depend upon individual members of a profession to practice according to ethical standards. Consumers also depend upon other members of the profession to monitor individuals within the profession to ensure they are practicing in an appropriate manner.

The public expects professional counselors to be properly educated, aware of current knowledge in the field, and committed to practicing in a manner that benefits, and therefore does not harm, the clients they serve. In short, along with the many privileges recognition as a profession brings, comes a multitude of responsibilities as well.

Because consumers of professional services are often not able to evaluate the performance of professional counselors, then counselors themselves must accept the burden of ensuring their colleagues are adequately educated, current in their knowledge of the field, and practicing within established ethical standards (Walz, 1991). Professional societies or associations have been established as a means of helping professionals respond to their societal obligations (Herlihy & Golden, 1990).

The American Counseling Association

The professional society for counselors is the American Counseling Association (ACA). This organization is concerned with the practice of professional counseling and the advancement of the counseling profession. All individuals who offer or supervise professional counseling services or educate counselors should be ACA members.

The 17 national ACA divisions offer counselors opportunities to receive publications, attend conferences, and associate with other professional counselors in similar work settings or who share similar counseling interests. ACA members must belong to at least one division and most members belong to several.

ACA has 56 branches with one located in each of the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Europe, Latin American, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, and the Philippines. Membership in a branch is optional. ACA members usually affiliate with the branch in the state or jurisdiction in which they live or work. Many professional issues for counselors (including licensure and state job classification systems) must be addressed at the state level. Branches include divisions that parallel national divisions and also offer local chapters. Chapters are made up of members who live close to each other and provide the opportunity for important local networking.

Necessity of Association Membership

For individuals who identify themselves as professional counselors, professional association membership is not an option; it is a necessity. Failure to be an ACA member isolates counselors and deprives them of access to new information. In addition, counselors who are not ACA members have not submitted themselves to the oversight of their professional colleagues—something the public demands from true professionals.

Not only do professional counselors fulfill societal obligations by holding membership in their professional societies, they also reap many personal and professional benefits that are not available to non-members. The mission of ACA is to enhance human development throughout the life span and to promote the counseling profession (ACA, 1992). ACA protects the public, establishes counseling credentials, provides access to information for counselors, offers professional services to members, and advances the counseling profession.

Public Protection

As a condition of membership, ACA requires applicants to promise to adhere to the ACA Ethical Standards (1988) that have been promulgated by the counseling profession. Members who are found to have violated the Ethical Standards are required to submit to a rehabilitation program or are expelled from the association.

Credentials

Professional credentials benefit the counselors who hold them in several respects. They also help protect consumers of counseling services. Credentials provide a public indicator that individuals who hold them have met standards agreed upon by the profession, and therefore are legitimate counselors.

Although counseling credentials are granted by boards that are independent of ACA to avoid political influence, ACA has been responsible for creating and supporting counseling credential granting boards. Credentials include accreditation of university preparation programs (the American Counseling Association Council on Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs [CACREP] and the Council on Rehabilitation Education [CORE]), national voluntary individual certification (National Board of Certified Counselors, National Academy of Clinical Mental Health Counselors, and the Board for Certified Rehabilitation Counselors), and governmental regulation of the profession (state licensure, certification of school counselors, etc.).

Access to Information

The education of a professional counselor never ends. Completing formal training programs in universities and supervised practice experiences simply allow counselors to enter practice. To continue their careers, counselors must keep current on new information being developed within the field (Corey, Corey, & Callanan, 1993). The public expects and demands that professional counselors use the most effective methods of practice, regardless of how long ago their formal education and entry into the profession occurred.

ACA provides members with access to new information in a variety of ways. The scholarly journal, the *Journal of Counseling and Development*, and the many division journals offer new knowledge in the form of research and conceptual papers. The new magazine, *American Counselor*, updates counseling practitioners in the field. ACA publishes professional books, monographs, and media for the benefit of members. Professional conventions, conferences, and workshops bring new information to members through lectures, discussions, and demonstrations. *Guidepost*, the association newsletter, and division and branch newsletters inform members of events and news of particular interest to counseling professionals. Professional meetings of all types encourage members to network among themselves and learn from each other.

Professional Services

Members of ACA are offered services they need or desire related to their professional counseling practices. Professional liability insurance is becoming a necessity for all counselors and is offered at reasonable rates as a benefit of membership.

New professional counseling products are announced to members, reviewed, and evaluated. ACA members are given the opportunity to purchase services or products that will assist them in their practices at discount rates or prices.

Advancing the Profession

ACA is a strong advocate for the counseling profession. The association maintains an active government relations program at national, state, and local levels. Legislators and governmental agency administrators are educated regarding the positive contributions professional counselors are making to our society and the needs counselors have for continuing legislative and regulatory support. Actions or policies that discriminate against counselors as a professional group are challenged and opportunities are sought to promote the public recognition and support of counselors within society.

Conclusion

Counselors are achieving the recognition as professionals they have sought within our society. With this recognition, counselors have corresponding obligations. Membership in their professional society—the American Counseling Association — allows counselors to continue their education and discharge their professional responsibilities.

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If you are interested in becoming a member of the American Counseling Association and would like more information about their 17 divisions, contact the Association at 5999 Stevenson, Alexandria, VA 22304 or call 1-800-347-6647.

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CAPS DIGEST

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Educational Reform and the School Counselor

Nancy S. Perry

Overview

Educational reform is certainly not a new idea but it has been gaining momentum in the last half of the 20th Century. From the wake-up call of Sputnik in 1957, Americans have been examining their educational systems with increasing regularity. The publication of studies and books in the 1980s lighted a torch that was carried to every state in the Union. Most reacted with a "let's get serious about education" reform package which included increased graduation requirements and academic expectations. To the chagrin of educators and the general public, more of the same did not seem to make a difference. The 1990s heralded a more serious effort to look at the roots of public education and to question the very structure of its existence. Thus was born the movement towards restructuring of education.

Rationale for Reform

The news has been devastating. U.S. high school graduates are not able to perform entry level tasks in the new workplace of technology and information services. International studies show the United States to be well down the educational list by almost every measure. The world has changed, yet, the United States has steadfastly held to the structure of the industrialized society of the late 19th and early 20th centuries. We still train our students to passively accept the information given and to react with a uniform feedback method. In the industrialized society, workers were to perform, not think. In the technological society, critical thinking is the expectation; team problem solving is the norm. We have even held onto a remnant of the agrarian society—the summer recess during which students would help on the farm. The conclusion is obvious. We are educating today's students with the schools of yesterday for the world of tomorrow.

Reform Models

We will examine a few of the more prominent approaches being used to make changes. These include site-based management, privatizing of schools, and restructuring within schools such as team teaching, flexible scheduling, integrated learning, and cooperative learning. It also includes concepts such as performance-based appraisal and total quality management. We will also review the literature and research which is having a significant impact on this movement such as the *Report of the Secretary's Commission on Necessary Skills* (SCANS, 1991); *America's Choice: High Skills or Low Wages* (National Center on Education and the Economy, 1990); and *Horace's School* (Sizer, 1991).

The Role of the School Counselor

Site-based management is the approach to reform that transfers most of the decision-making powers to the local school and the staff and parents in that school. The rationale is based on the quality circle concept that the best decisions are made closest to the source of their implementation. Overall budgets are set district-wide but the players in the school—administration, teachers, parents, students, support staff—are given the right, and responsibility, to determine how the money will be spent. They set the priorities and goals for the school and decide how those can best be implemented. They often control personnel issues such as the numbers and types of staff needed. The governance is usually through a steering committee with representatives from the populations involved. The school counselor has important functions within this structure. First, the counselor should make every effort to become a member of the steering committee. School counselors have the negotiating and process skills which can assist in facilitating the work of the group. They also have a unique perspective on the total educational process in a school because, not being in the hierarchy of authority, they hear the real issues of teachers, students, parents, and administrators. This comprehensive perspective, combined with human relations skills, makes school counselors valuable and influential members of site-management committees.

Privatization of Schools

Many people feel that schools would be more successful if they were run as businesses and competed with each other. This is the basis for both the privatization of the educational system and the voucher choice issue which would allow a certain amount of dollars per student no matter what kind of school was chosen. This is not yet a reality, so any idea is speculative. However, if schools are competing for attendance, the school counselor will no doubt become involved in the "selling" of the school to perspective students. They may also have a unique responsibility in helping students to understand and discriminate among media messages, such as advertisements in textbooks, which may become a part of financing private education.

Restructuring Strategies

The middle school philosophy has had a profound effect on our understanding of how children learn. Concern for the whole child, team teaching, flexible scheduling, integration of disciplines, are a few of the restructuring concepts which had their genesis in the middle school movement. We are now realizing that at every level, learning must be connected and integrated if it is to be perceived as relevant to the learner. High school faculties are beginning to work as teams to make their disciplines more meaningful to today's student. As the walls of tradition begin to crumble, the obvious need to be concerned with the whole child has spawned a number of strategies in which the school counselor should be involved. If a team approach is used, the school counselor should meet regularly with the team to consult, advise, and act as a resource. Many

schools are adopting teacher advisor programs (Myrick, 1989) which connect each student with a caring adult. School counselors are vital to the functioning of this program as providers of staff development for the teacher advisors; creators of life skills curriculum which can be taught in the advisee groups; resources for information and ideas; and consultants to the teacher advisors. Experience has shown that teacher advisors, as they get to know their students on a different level, have also referred more students to counselors for non-academic reasons. Cooperative learning presents another opportunity for school counseling programs to be integrated into the educational program. Cooperative learning is usually content based—such as math or science. However, half of the learning involves the social skills needed to work as a team—listening, articulating clearly, persuading, negotiating, decision-making, problem solving—to name a few. School counselors are logical resources to help teachers use cooperative learning in the most effective manner.

America 2000 National Education Goals

Although school counselors are not mentioned in the six national education goals, they are central to the success of this reform program. **Goal #1**, readiness to learn, is certainly the domain of the elementary school counselor. However, readiness is a process, not an event, and school counselors are keenly aware of the personal and environmental issues which create a climate for learning. **Goal #2** is concerned with keeping students in school. Most dropout prevention programs and alternative learning programs involve school counselors. However, the school counselor has a responsibility for all students in ensuring access to needed services by advocating for students who may have personal issues interfering with their learning. **Goal #3** addresses academic proficiency and preparation for responsible citizenship and productive employment. School counselors assist students in acquiring skills for planning, monitoring, and managing personal, career, and lifestyle development. Responsibility for oneself is the cornerstone of this learning. **Goal #4** deals with world class achievement in math and science. School counselors help students to relate academic achievement to personal career success. **Goal #5** states the need for adult literacy in a global society. School counselors encourage personal growth and development throughout the life span. They also ensure that those who come from a culturally diverse background will have access to appropriate services and opportunities that promote maximum development. The last goal is the bailiwick in which principals and counselors must work closely together to develop a school setting free of drugs and violence and to provide a disciplined environment conducive to learning. School counselors are vital to the achievement of the National Education Goals (Perry, 1992).

Workforce Requirements

Two significant works have been published in the 1990s relating education to the workplace. The reports of the SCANS Commission (*What Work Requires of Schools* and *Learning a Living*) clearly indicate that the worker of the future will need to have certain personal qualities and interpersonal skills in order to effectively apply the knowledge gained through schooling. Certainly, self-esteem, decision-making, self-management and communication skills are within the realm of the life skills taught in a guidance curriculum. *Learning a Living* suggests that each student should complete a resume indicating the level of mastery of these skills. The National Center on Education and the Economy (1990) demonstrates how America will never effectively compete with other countries for low wages. The only other choice is to assure that our workers have the high skills necessary to compete in the global market. This challenge should be a motivating tool for counselors working with students to develop critical thinking and problem solving by choosing higher level courses in school. All students considering choice of careers should have a clear understanding of the consequences of not becoming highly skilled.

Concepts of Reform

Total quality management (TQM) is the concept of infusing quality into the process rather than quality control as the culminating event of a process. It is based on understanding the needs of the "customer" and working to meet those needs. In the educational setting, the "customer" of the school counselor may vary according to the situation. Customer populations may include students, parents, faculty, and community. TQM would ask the question, "What do you want and how can I help you get it?" By working with these populations to meet their needs, quality is being infused into the system. Performance appraisal is closely linked with this process. Such tools as portfolios of "best" work would be used to assess progress on a continuing basis rather than relying solely on standardized testing or final exams. School counselors, as assessment experts, will need to become the key players in helping others to understand the concept of performance appraisal and setting the standards of performance.

Conclusion

School counselors have always considered themselves to be change agents. Historically, that change has been related to helping an individual become aware of behaviors or attitudes that might be affecting his/her success and then guiding that individual into new way of acting or thinking. This skill is transferable to affecting change in the learning environment or the school climate. Change is the heart of educational reform. School counselors need to position themselves as facilitators of that change.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON
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CAPS DIGEST

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ERIC/CAPS—Expanding Counselor Choices

Garry R. Walz and Jeanne C. Bleuer

What is ERIC?

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information network designed to provide users with ready access to education literature. Established in 1966 to make government-sponsored educational research available from a single source, ERIC now collects, analyzes, and distributes information from public and private, local, state, federal, and international sources.

Managed by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI), the ERIC system consists of 16 Clearinghouses, a small number of Adjunct Clearinghouses, and several system support components. These support components include the ERIC Processing and Reference Facility, ACCESS ERIC, the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, public and private publishers (for example, Oryx Press), and commercial information services.

What is Contained in the ERIC Database?

The ERIC database—the largest education database in the world—now contains almost 730,000 records of documents and journal articles. Users can access the ERIC database via telephone line from their computer to an online information service, on the Compact Disc-Read Only Memory (CD-ROM) system, or through print and microfiche indexes.

The ERIC database is a bibliographic database of citations and summaries of documents and journal articles. Documents are primarily unpublished or fugitive materials including research studies, program descriptions and evaluations, conference proceedings, curriculum materials, bibliographies, and others. In 1990, more than 13,000 documents were selected, cataloged, indexed, abstracted, and announced in ERIC's monthly abstract journal *Resources in Education* (RIE). Most documents announced in RIE are available in microfiche or paper copy.

Similarly, ERIC announces current journal literature in a *separate monthly publication titled Current Index to Journals in Education* (CIJE). The journal citations contain short summaries of articles from nearly 800 education-related journals. In 1990, 18,032 new journal article citations were added to the ERIC database.

Where is ERIC?

Over 3,000 locations around the world receive ERIC materials on a regular basis. Most documents entered into the ERIC database are filmed and stored on microfiche. ERIC microfiche collections are found at many locations throughout the world, including locations in every state and in more than 60 countries. In addition to the microfiche collections, most of these locations also provide clients with ERIC database search services, either online or on CD-ROM.

For someone without easy access to an ERIC microfiche collection, reprints of ERIC documents can be ordered, in microfiche or paper copy, from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Orders to EDRS can be placed by mail, by telephone (a toll-free number: 1-800-443-ERIC), by FAX (703-440-1408), or through online vendors (e.g., *Dialog* and *Orbit*). In 1990, EDRS responded to 12,200 "on-demand" orders for ERIC document reprints.

The journal articles cited in ERIC, however, present a different situation. Each journal is copyrighted by its own publisher. Users with access to public or university libraries (many of which provide public services) can usually obtain journal articles there or through inter-library loan.

How Much was the ERIC Database Used in 1990?

ERIC was the third-most searched database in the country, the second-most searched database among academic libraries, and the most popular database used by public libraries in the United States and Canada. ERIC is the most popular database on CD-ROM in public libraries and information centers, and the second-most popular database used in research, specialized, and university libraries. The popularity of ERIC in Europe has also grown considerably over the years. Today, ERIC is the fourth-most popular optical media product in European libraries.

Several thousand university, school and public libraries now have CD-ROM work stations dedicated to ERIC, which clients use on their own or with minimal assistance and without much recordkeeping.

What is ERIC/CAPS?

Located around the country, ERIC Clearinghouses are responsible for acquiring, processing, and disseminating information about a particular aspect or subject area of education, such as the ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse (CAPS) at The University of Michigan.

The ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse (CAPS) was one of the original clearinghouses established in 1966 at The University of Michigan and has been in continuous operation since that date. Its scope area includes counseling, student services, and other human services such as school psychology and school social work at all age levels and in all settings (educational, governmental, community, and business). Topics covered by ERIC/CAPS include: the training, supervision, and continuing professional development of counseling, student services, and human services professionals; counseling theories, methods, and practices; the roles of counselors, social workers, and psychologists in all educational settings at all educational levels; career planning and development; self-esteem and self-efficacy; marriage and family counseling; and mental health services to special populations such as substance abusers, pregnant teenagers, students at risk, public offenders, etc.

What Can ERIC/CAPS Do For You?

1. *We can help you find the information you need.*

   Whether we help you to use the print indexes (RIE and CIJE), an online search service, or the new ERIC on CD-ROM, our expertise in retrieving information related to counseling and human services can help you locate a wealth of material related to your particular area of interest. You can learn more about ERIC/CAPS services by attending a workshop or telephoning CAPS for further information.

2. *We can give worldwide visibility to the articles and resource materials you produce.*

   ERIC is the most frequently used educational database in the world and all CAPS products are input into the database. No other source can provide such worldwide visibility. Additionally, CAPS markets its own publications through a wide variety of different sources that acquaint counselors and non-counselors with their availability.

3. *We can provide you with high quality, low-cost resources.*

   Ranging from two-page information digests to in-depth monographs and books of readings, ERIC/CAPS publications have proved to be highly valuable resources that you can use for your own professional development or in classes you teach or workshops you conduct. A new product, CAPS video, has proved to be extremely well received because of its focus on topics of high interest, its "realist" flavor, and its low cost.

4. *We will introduce you to CAPS "fast-break" information tools!*

   Most of us do not lack for information, we typically have more information than we can use. What we *do* need is the ability to retrieve and update quality information on topics where an informed and effective response is required on our part. To assist counselors in being effective "fast breakers" CAPS has developed three new tools:

   CounselorQuest—Periodically, ERIC/CAPS reviews the entire database of *ERIC Digests* and identifies the best and most relevant digests for counselor-identified high priority topics. These are then compiled in a single volume entitled *CounselorQuest*. Indexed alphabetically by subject and education level, this volume offers the user a desktop resource for rapid search and retrieval of highly informative and practical resources.

   CounselorQuest Update Pack—To fill the gap between the issuance of new editions of *CounselorQuest*, CAPS has developed this new tool for counselors. These packs will provide useful information and practical strategies for responding to fast-breaking counseling challenges.

   Treasure Chest—Provides highly useful ideas and resources for each of more than 40 topics nominated by school counselors as "most important." Presented in an attractive 3-inch binder; will be updated semi-annually.

Conclusion

ERIC/CAPS can assist you to share your ideas with others or locate resources which will assist you to be a more effective counselor. It expands your choices and competencies! To be put on the mailing list to receive a periodical newsletter write or call: ERIC/CAPS, 2108 School of Education, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109-1259; phone: (313) 764-9492; fax: (313) 747-2425.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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Internationalizing the University Career Center

Robert Sanborn

Overview

In the emerging global era, efforts to enhance international higher education in the United States focus upon study and work abroad programs. As internationalization becomes an increasingly important trend, other international programs will arise in response to student needs. Internationalization of higher education and of the student services areas within universities is almost certainly a subject to be dealt with now, or in the near future. Career centers, as a part of student services, may be pressed to internationalize sooner than other areas because of student demand. The university career center should respond to this demand and seek to assist students in participating in the global economy.

Development of the Program

Development of the international component of the university career center follows many of the usual steps taken in the development of any university program. The added extra dimension is the integration of college career programs and international programs. While the process used for the installation of the internationalized career center will vary at each university, the *basic* steps will be the same at virtually all university career centers.

Establish a Need

The population of the university should be evaluated to determine if it will use the planned program. Preliminary information may include the increasing popularity of study abroad programs and other limited international opportunities, and the news media's continued focus on international changes. These factors may combine to create a general perception among faculty, staff, and students that a need exists for international programs.

Establish an Administrative Base

A separate office is not usually established initially for the sole purpose of international work but will likely be a part of an existing department, such as the international student services office, the study abroad office, an academic department, or the career office. An existing staff member should coordinate and implement the program as part of his/her duties. Internationalization of the career center may be coordinated as a part of the entire career services program.

Program Goals

Five primary goals are an integral part of the development of an internationalization program. These broad goals can be broken down into specific areas and further developed into components of the career center.

- *Development of a professional staff.* Students seeking counseling or attending workshops presented by the career center must have confidence in the information provided by counselors and professionals with a strong fundamental knowledge of international career prospects.
- *Education of students.* International career education should focus on discussion of international employment and graduate schools through publications, workshops and seminars, and counseling. Education should also create an interest in those students who are less knowledgeable on the subject.
- *Development of international resources.* A resource center or library with a number of international career reference materials, such as directories, international listings, general readings, and international graduate school program catalogues, must be acquired and assembled.
- *Opportunities for international experience.* Opportunities range from short-term international volunteer programs to academic credit internships with an emphasis in an international area, to longer term international projects, such as summer jobs abroad.
- *International opportunities for graduating students.* Efforts should be made to facilitate the career selection process, including identification of key employment areas, areas that have potential for American student employment, organizations aiding the international employment process for Americans, and graduate programs in international fields.

Components of the Internationalized Career Center

Career centers can offer students international options and assistance in a number of areas. Some university career centers may attempt to implement international aspects in all areas of career placement and services. Other career centers may prefer to modify the program to suit particular needs and meet limited objectives.

Career counselors must be able to confidently answer questions about international careers, summer jobs abroad, graduate and professional schools with an international emphasis and opportunities for travel abroad.

Resource or library areas need to be developed with international directories, international publications, international job listings, lists of contact names, and other books on international careers and related areas.

Information sessions, seminars, workshops, and similar methods of outreach are ideal for providing information to students. Workshops should be offered by the career center on international topics such as careers in international affairs, international engineering careers, and international summer jobs.

Internships abroad provide students with an excellent way to gain specific career experience and skills while living in a foreign

culture. Relationships should be initiated with local international organizations to increase student internship placement and employment possibilities.

The university career center should seek to create opportunities for **international experiential learning,** enabling students to view and participate in a foreign culture, and to experience life in a developing third-world country.

Publications written by the career center should focus attention upon international careers. Creation of an **international newsletter** for students provides a constant and consistent source of international career information and educates students on international career issues.

Students interested in **graduate programs in international affairs** should be encouraged to investigate professional schools of international affairs, or programs in public policy with international emphases.

The career center should design an **international summer jobs program** for students interested in working abroad during the summer. Positions must be developed for all majors.

Possible Problems

A number of problems can exist with an internationalized career program. For example, one university career center's successful program could create problem areas at other universities. These problems, while certainly manageable, are worth noting in the evaluation or planning of any internationalized career program.

The dearth of specific information can create problems for a career center. Programs may be developed from primary sources and from the personal experiences of the staff at established programs. Communication between universities with international career programs is a logical step to the advancement of knowledge within the field. Universities should have the option of building their programs on the proven successes of other universities.

At universities where new initiatives are not always looked upon fondly, the **support of the university administration** can be gained by establishing that students need and are demanding such a program. Some career centers will also have to deal with systems in which initiatives only arise from administrators, rather than at the center itself.

University career centers may not have the flexibility, time or budget to contemplate enhancement or innovation. In general, **budgetary problems are a major obstacle** for career centers and can be a large hurdle for establishing internationalization programs. Generally, the level of budgetary support received by a career center corresponds to the level of administrative support.

Student support could easily diminish for a number of reasons: (1) excitement lapses as time passes; (2) international interest among students is not as high as initially assessed; (3) students express an interest in international careers without knowing anything about the subject; (4) students mistake an international career for one that involves travel immediately upon graduation without the benefit of any special skill or foreign language ability; and, (5) students realize the difficulty of locating international possibilities.

A number of **problems may occur with faculty**: (1) apathy towards student services or programs in which they have no part; (2) perception among certain academic areas that an international program can threaten them or their programs; and, (3) possible belief among certain faculty members that international experience is not necessary.

Accumulating enough donations or corporate grants for **travel funds to award as student grants** is often a problem. First, students must be aware of any costs which may be incurred through international work or travel. Second, the career center must use every effort possible to raise funds for the creation of travel grants.

Universities located in isolated rural locales could face problems initiating portions of an international program. Rural universities facing these types of problems must focus their internship attention on summer opportunities or academic internships away from the university.

Societal Benefits

The internationalization of a university's career program will have positive effects on the students; however, the long-term and abstract benefits to the university, American society, and the common good must also be noted.

- *Internationalization of the university*. Many American universities are historically introspective and regional. International career programs may propel them towards the international arena.
- *An educated society*. International education enables Americans to view the outside world intimately and facilitates understanding of global differences.
- *Enhanced economic competitiveness*. As we enter the new era of decreasing military competition and increasing economic integration and trade, the Untied States can benefit from a population that understands cultural and international differences and similarities.
- *Global understanding*. The development of a mutual understanding between nations may lead to the potential prevention or reduction of international conflict.

Resource Documents

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON
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CAPS DIGEST

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Marketing Yourself as a Professional Counselor

Beverly J. O'Bryant

The Goal

True discovery is not seeing new things but seeing with new eyes. Marketing ourselves as professional counselors requires that we help our publics see us with new eyes and that includes new and comprehensive understanding of professional counselors, the ability to articulate what professional counselors do, and the realization that only certified counselors do counseling and the appropriate use for paraprofessionals and interested others in the guidance process.

The Opportunity (Problem)

For all professional counselors—regardless of speciality (school counselors, mental health counselors, rehabilitation counselors, marriage and family counselors, alcohol and substance abuse counselors, and so on) the need for accountability, credentialing, and documentation is of paramount importance when considering the most appropriate marketing venues.

Counselors are judged—intentionally and unintentionally—by the public at large via a mixture of perception and fact; and, while there is clearly a distinction between the two, counselors must recognize unequivocally that both are distinct components of who we are and strategize substantive ways to address both.

Perception, by definition, is the understanding, discernment, comprehension and/or insight gained via observation, patterns, etc. It is a subjective estimate, flexible in nature, and subject to wide interpretation by a host of interpreters; and, therefore, changeable. Fact, however, is a thing known to be true. It is generally unalterable, learned rotely by most, less subject to interpretation, and, therefore, not changeable.

The counseling profession, in general, is as strong as its weakest links. And, its weakest links are the masses of counseling professionals all over the world who reference themselves as 'just' counselors...who don't understand the power of belonging to and banding together through professional organizations...who don't recognize the need for lobbying for appropriate legislation for each and every one of the specialities...who see their 'jobs' as just paychecks...and who fail to see or project the sense of professionalism and commitment required for the discipline to survive.

The weakest links, unfortunately, are often the public's *perception* of the profession; but, that they are practicing professionals makes ineffective, squabbling counselors a *fact*, a reality, and therefore, undeniable. Hence, the inscrutable paradox with which professional counselors must deal.

Correction Strategies

Marketing ourselves appropriately could be our most powerful tool. Marketing is a venue which could help establish counselors in the public consciousness so that a multitude of other publics become counselor advocates and articulate that professional counselors are skilled deliverers of services which initiate positive change, that they promote positive human potential, and that as a professional discipline their services are indispensible.

But this scenario will only come to pass when counselors rise to meet this challenge as a grassroot effort from coast to coast. Our ultimate success as a discipline and as a profession is imbued in team spirit, team effort, team commitment, and team unification. Our greatness lies not in our individualities, but in the magnitude of what we represent as a whole. So to that end, let us forge on *en masse* to implement the following in marketing ourselves as professionals:

1. **Professional stature—walk, talk, and act proud of self as a professional.** Professional pride can be exhibited in many forms, but perhaps none is as powerful as the presentation of self. The ability to exude pride in self and profession is a powerful tool, and, it can be done by even the shyest of personality types. It only requires that one:
   - Speak with assurance, even when saying "I'm not sure about that, but I'll be glad to investigate it for you," and
   - Carry oneself in a professional manner i.e., pridefully, positively, and proudly.
2. **Take pride in total appearance. First impressions are often the only impressions one gets to make.** If the first impression is the only impression one gets to make, it must be inclusive, comprehensive, substantive, assuring and inviting. It must reflect knowledge, ability, concern and interest, and it must suggest that a return visit might be worthwhile. Appearance can do that.
   - Appropriate professional dress, i.e., suits, slacks and shirt, skirt and blouse, ties.
   - Professional accessories: briefcase, business cards, brochures and literature on your program(s) for clients.
3. **Self-enhancement opportunities and incentives.** Self enhancement is made easy through the myriad of professional opportunities. Take advantage of them.
   - Listen to cassette tapes while driving to and from work or while walking and/or jogging
   - Acquire home study programs offered by the American Counseling Association and other associations.
   - Attend local, regional and national workshops and conferences.
   - Read at least one professional journal a month.
   - Commit to memory titles, authors, major findings and pertinent statistics to use in conversation.
   - Network with counselors from other schools.

4. **Display professional office decorum.** From the youngest child to the oldest adult, one always needs to feel a sense of security when dealing with another. The counselor's client is a human being who is often apprehensive, and at best, skeptical. Attaining comfort, ease, establishing rapport, and earning trust are at least made easier when the environment:

   - Is at least neat and clean.
   - Has a comfortable setting.
   - Displays plaques and honors prominently on walls.
   - Has personal touches throughout (family photos, etc.)
   - Has professional journals available for anyone to read.

5. **Design something to market...and market the outcomes.** Every counseling speciality area has an area of expertise. The skills are delivered through various mediums and the programs and/or areas are all outcome based. Market the outcomes—design a brochure, a pamphlet, a PSA, a newsletter, a news release which summarizes the goal, procedure and outcome of your speciality area. Give statistics which show the value of your intervention. Use professional journals, professional associations, and national networks to corroborate your statements.

6. **Join your professional organizations.** The American Counseling Association and its divisions is our professional organization. JOIN!!! It *is* us and as such exists to promote, advocate, and lobby for us. And, while it is not a bargaining agent, it is the only entity which speaks directly for us and about us to the various entities, publics, and legislators. Its strength is directly proportional to the number of professionals it represents and the perceived and actual force of its members. We should be a membership of hundreds of thousands, not thousands. Legislators should worry about offending us, governors should worry about cutting us, and publics should worry about not having us...and if they don't, collectively we should find out why and act on it.

7. **Articulate the positive...the public is always listening.** Pick and choose the arenas in which we elect to speak...especially when we feel a "good gripe" coming on. The silent public is always listening, and what we say and project negatively will always go farther than our intended audience. The public is like the news media...always looking for an angle. Make sure the angle you give is a positive one. This is not to say that there are no negatives, there are...but for once, let us as a profession take responsibility for articulating some of the positive angles, putting the bad angles in the right perspective and context, and highlighting positive hooks the public and news media can latch onto and publicize.

8. **Market specifics.** "The secret to success is skating where the puck is" (Wayne Gretsky). Concurrently, the secret to successful marketing is giving the public what it wants before you give it what it needs. The public wants to know what counselors do. The public wants to know what good counselors do, and why counselors should be hired over other mental health professionals. Tell them.

   - Invite your publics to programs, events, sponsored by you.
   - Keep an extensive guest list of all significant publics including school and city boards, local and state legislators, CEO's and presidents of significant interest groups, to invite to all events and programs sponsored by the counselor. That these persons attend is not nearly as significant as that they know what the counselor is doing.
   - Sponsor a PSA before every pertinent event sponsored by the counselor—advertise!
   - Send out press releases after every pertinent event sponsored by the counselor—publicize!
   - Use pre/post instruments in the implementation of programs and use the statistics to write articles corroborating the effectiveness of counselor interventions.
   - Consider submitting at least one article on counseling to a grocery store magazine.
   - Attend legislative hearings.

9. **Be politically astute.** Recognize that you serve many publics—regardless of your speciality area. Knowing which publics can assist you, being present where they are, making it known you are present, contributing a substantive statement whenever appropriate or possible, will go far in having them become advocates for the causes of counseling. Be sure to:

   - Identify your publics, know something about each of their respective needs and agenda items; identify a need of theirs that you can help them accomplish, and offer your services.
   - Attend receptions, meetings, workshops, and parties to which you are invited. Make a positive impression via articulation of needs, facts, statistics, legislation, research, positive info.
   - Make follow-up arrangements (phone, appointment).

Conclusion

Professional counselors must provide the ammunition for significant others to testify on behalf of counselors in a myriad of forums, and the ammunition must state unequivocally that clients make statistically significant gains in overall achievement/progress as a result of interventions with counselors. The ammunition can come through a number of venues, but marketing is a clear, concise and expeditious way.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON Counseling And Personnel Services

CAPS DIGEST

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The National Career Development Guidelines

Juliet V. Miller

Overview

The National Career Development Guidelines is one of several initiatives that has supported the expansion of state-level career development capacity and comprehensive, competency-based career guidance programs in various local program settings. This initiative, sponsored by the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC), has provided leverage funding to states to support the development and improvement of comprehensive career development programs. It has combined with other program improvement incentives such as Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act funds, state efforts to develop goals and models for career guidance, and local-level interest in making guidance more accountable and programmatic. Over 40 states have used the National Career Development Guidelines as part of a comprehensive state-wide strategy. This Digest will summarize major activities of this initiative and suggest resources for those who wish to use the Guidelines.

What are the National Guidelines?

NOICC undertook its National Career Development Guidelines initiative to support and encourage activities designed to strengthen and improve comprehensive, competency-based career guidance programs. Several program settings are addressed including schools, colleges, human services agencies, community organizations and businesses.

The National Career Development Guidelines initiative was launched in 1987 and the Guidelines were developed in collaboration with the professional career counseling community, local program administrators, counselor educators and state guidance supervisors. Coordination with similar efforts by professional organizations, career development researchers, and state departments of education was stressed. Several advisory and technical assistance groups were formed to ensure broad input from researchers, professional leaders and practitioners.

The Guidelines focus on three broad areas of program excellence including (1) program participant competencies, (2) organizational capabilities, and (3) personnel requirements. The program participant competencies and indicators describe suggested program outcomes and are organized around three areas including:

- *Self-knowledge*—Self-concept, interpersonal skills, and growth and development;
- *Educational and Occupational Exploration*—Relationship between learning and work, career information skills, job seeking, maintenance and advancement skills, and impact of social and labor market change on career; and
- *Career Planning*—Knowledge of decision making, planning for diverse life roles, gender issues in career, and applying career planning skills.

These competency areas address program outcomes for elementary, middle school, high school, and adult levels. The organizational capabilities describe the structure and support needed for quality programs including administrative commitments, facilities, materials, and equipment. The personnel requirements list the staff requirements and competencies needed by counselors and other career development personnel to deliver comprehensive programs.

Five Local Handbooks (National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee, 1989) present the National Guidelines and a suggested program improvement process for elementary school, middle/junior high school, high school, postsecondary and community and business organizations. A Trainer's Guide (National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee, 1989) can be used to train local staff to use the Guidelines.

State-Level Applications

NOICC made grants to 28 states to encourage use of the Guidelines. These grants funded state advisory committees, the development and dissemination of state-level guidelines, and local pilot sites. In addition to NOICC grants, states have used other funding sources such as Federal vocational education and JTPA funds, state educational reform funds, local program funds and business-education partnership support. Many states have developed comprehensive state models and are engaged in a variety of activities to support the improvement of local programs.

California used the National Career Development Guidelines to implement its mandated matriculation guidelines to improve the transition from community colleges to four-year colleges. This activity resulted in improved career counseling and individualized matriculation plans for each student (Chancellor's Office, 1990).

Florida's Commissioner of Education endorsed the Blueprint for Career Preparation that includes recommended career development goals based on the National Guidelines (Florida Department of Education, 1988). A Resource Guide (Florida Department of Education, 1990) describes books, software, kits and materials keyed to students competencies recommended in the Blueprint.

Idaho's comprehensive state model combines the National Guidelines with other models and has been implemented using a ten-year plan (Idaho Department of Education, 1988). Currently, Idaho is developing an adult level model.

Michigan worked to coordinate the Guidelines with the employability skills effort and to focus on developing an activity guide for the middle school level (Michigan Department of Education, 1990).

Nebraska developed a program handbook that suggested activities for the Guidelines competencies and indicators (Nebraska Department of Education, 1989). The product has been expanded and

revised by the Vocational Studies Center at the University of Wisconsin-Madison.

New Jersey used a local pilot site (Neptune Township Public Schools, 1990) to develop a career guidance curriculum in keeping with its emphasis on local control of education. This curriculum has provided a model for other districts in the state.

Oregon emphasized integrating career information into high school career development program. The publication, *Schoolwork, Lifework* (Oregon Occupational Information Coordinating Committee, 1989), provides specific guidance activities to ensure that use of career information is linked to the Guidelines competencies.

Benefits of Comprehensive Programs

A major purpose of the National Career Development Guidelines is to encourage the evaluation of career guidance programs based on student outcomes. Use of the Guidelines results in a program plan which specifies how student competencies will be measured. The Ohio Department of Education (1989) has provided an example of how various districts are evaluating specific student outcomes. There are also benefits for staff. In a report on the four original pilot states, Miller (1991) reported on the following benefits of comprehensive programs.

Administrators. The three highest ratings were for "better understanding the benefits of career guidance programs, better understanding the student outcomes that resulted from our program, and better understanding how career guidance is related to and supports current educational priorities." Other areas that showed high benefit were "better able to communicate about program to other groups and more willing to fund career guidance programs."

Counselors. The two highest ratings were for "more clearly defined role and functions, and clearer understanding of the program goals." Other areas that showed high benefit were "contact with greater number of students, contact with students are more apt to focus on developmental rather than crisis needs, more involved in teaming with other staff, updated skills in career area, and more likely to act as a resource person to teachers and others."

Teachers and faculty members. The highest rated benefit was "better able to relate career concepts to other programs, such as at-risk or drug-free schools programs." Other benefits that received high ratings included "more clear about relevance of their curriculum areas for occupational areas, increased communication with counselors, and better able to incorporate career concepts in their curriculum and instruction."

How Can You Use the National Guidelines?

Here are some steps you can take to access and use materials that were developed through the National Career Development Guidelines initiative.

Access materials in ERIC. The following list of references provides a starting point to learn more about the National Career Development Guidelines and state-level products that are keyed to the Guidelines.

Contact your SOICC director. Ask the Director of your State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee for information about these initiatives and about other SOICC activities. Also, contact your State Guidance Supervisor for information about state-level guidelines and activities related to career guidance.

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CAPS DIGEST

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Pluralism and Education: Its Meaning and Method

Joan T. England and Jeanie T. Bergh

Overview

The philosophy and ideology of pluralism is not new but one whose time has come for actualization. Education is providing experience for students, teachers, counselors and the community to nurture and practice pluralistic thought. The philosophy of pluralism is not restricted to the "purist" educational environment but is being extended to encompass teacher in-service training and community-based involvement and input. Teachers and the community at large are acquiring an awareness of pluralism through subtle methods of dialog and participation. Schools are expediting the implementation of pluralism through activities, workshops, courses, and small groups. These processes often fit under the name of multicultural issues and concerns; frequently the use of the term "pluralism" is avoided. Accurate definition may assist in the transition toward truly pluralistic thought.

Pluralism can be defined in a number of ways. The definition which seems most encompassing is the following: a society in which members of diverse ethnic, racial, religious and social groups maintain participation in and development of their traditions and special interests while cooperatively working toward the interdependence needed for a nation's unity. The focus of most definitions evolves around the elements of interdependence, development and cooperation among diverse peoples of the world.

Actualizing Pluralism

Although counselors, schools, social service components and communities may not label their activities pluralistic in nature, there appears to be a pluralistic thread which runs through the weave of fabric of their teachings and philosophies. Examples of the variety of ways in which pluralism is being practiced, taught and expanded include the following methods.

Community

Innovative programs which have turned to opening the lines of communication to the community have produced remarkable results. In Lake Forest School District in Harrington, Delaware the situation of community linkage was addressed (VanSciver, 1989). The district had a 17% Black enrollment but not one Black was a member of the National Honor Society although several were eligible but chose not to apply. The entire administrative team and counseling staff were white. To whom would a Black youth with a problem go? There were a few Black teaching staff but none anywhere else. A meeting was held with members of the Black community to discuss their perceptions of the school district's effectiveness in meeting their needs. Discussion was frank and clear and items of concern were discussed and in turn acted upon. Other meetings were scheduled to continue the dialogues. With the advent of these meetings, Blacks began to become integrally involved in their children's educations. Service to all students in this school district has increased through these efforts.

Preschool

As early as preschool, youngsters are learning about pluralism in an experiential sense. Barbara Thomson (1989), who teaches 4- and 5-year olds in St. Louis, MO, encourages this age group to "see beyond appearances" by offering them a choice between the contents of a large elegantly wrapped box and a small dirty carton. The children all want what is in the big, beautiful carton but, upon pondering, believe that something "yucky" or delightful could be in either box. Upon opening the boxes the children find garbage in the big box and a group snack in the little box. The discussion which follows this activity promotes the child's ability to transfer this tangible idea of "wrappings" to the real world of other children and how they are "wrapped" or dressed or appear. Other transference of learning takes place when discussion evolves around other times when appearance is not the most reliable indicator of worth.

Thomson's firm conviction that children must "do" and experience to truly learn is additionally noted in her many role-playing ideas for children. She continually emphasizes the individual in a group experience as opposed to a strictly individualistic orientation. This philosophy and her suggested activities provide needed practice for children in a pluralistic society.

Elementary

Later in the elementary school years, teachers can help "celebrate diversity" and develop group respect with their students. To develop the idea of pluralism, children can create a classroom quilt to which each student contributes a square that is designed to represent his or her ethnic background; plant a small farm or garden project to allow children to experience the planning and cooperation required with each other, the earth and nature in planting their crops, harvesting and reaping the benefits or sharing the failures together. Children could create a mural in a similar way or have students independently research and report on various cultures. (Mack, 1988).

High School

Group counseling has a particular impact in the high school setting. *Anytown: A Human Relations Experience* (McWhirter, Paluch, & Ohm, 1988) outlines a group experience for high school students to promote direct, intergroup contact and increased racial tolerance among students. The process of Anytown involves the promotion of group experience based on working together, sharing and listening. Each day of the week has a theme and the small groups are guided through experiential activities to help process the theme and become more fully attuned to themselves and others

in their small group. The intimacy of daily contact and interaction helps to make the groups realize that race, religion, sex, age and other physical or social features are not sufficient bases for prejudice and discrimination. The Anytown program claims that the we-consciousness that is promoted tends to develop into friendships that transcend racial, ethnic, sex, religious, age and other differences.

College Campus

One of the most active environments in reacting to pluralism has been the college campus. College campuses have developed training programs to diminish prejudicial attitudes and to promote unlearning racism. These efforts by universities help to bridge the gap for minority students. Most of these programs develop their ideas through a workshop or brief training program. Examples of these programs include a word association exercise which consists of six minority group descriptors typed on a page leaving space for written associations. Because the goal was to focus on racism, sexism, homophobia and anti-Semitism, the six descriptors were as follows: gay man, Black person, woman, Hispanic person, Jewish person and lesbian. Participants were instructed to respond anonymously by writing down the first words that came to mind for that descriptor. Sheets were collected and responses written on the blackboard. Questions which followed included: "Which group received the most positive associations?" "The most negative?" "Why?" It seems few questions needed to be asked to precipitate discussion. Students subsequently expressed their hurt, fears and anger about prejudice from this activity and in their lives. Both students and faculty participating in this group rated the overall experience as highly positive. (Lasenza & Trout, 1990).

James Stewart (1991), states that the design and implementation of diversity planning are most effectively undertaken as an integral part of overall institutional planning rather than as independent processes.

Questions for Your Consideration

The following questions may provide fodder to provoke further pluralistic thinking.

1. How does the powerful ideology of individualism limit the realization of pluralism? (Olneck, 1990)
2. How can moral development be modified to educate individuals on three levels: (a) as members of a large society, (b) as members of a subgroup, (c) and as individuals free to explore potentialities beyond any group membership? (Haberman, 1990)
3. How does the media (television), assist or hinder in developing views of pluralism? (Piepe, 1990)
4. How can promoting diversity splinter as well as enlarge moral communities? (Opotow, 1990)
5. How does the language we use inhibit pluralistic thought? (i.e., subculture, subgroup)
6. Could we now be in an interval of redefinition before a higher ethos emerges that both tolerates and integrates pluralism? (Olneck, 1990)
7. Do we need to rethink/redefine multicultural counseling? (Speight et al., 1991)
8. How can we re-evaluate the trends toward courses in multicultural counseling and teach all courses in a pluralistic mode? (Journal of Counseling and Development, 1991)

Conclusion

The thesis of pluralism is truly summarized by an old Jewish folktale about a rabbi who is asked how one can know the moment of dawn. The rabbi says simply, "Dawn is the moment when there is enough light to see the face of another as that of a brother or sister." (Thomson, 1989). Dawn has not come to our world as yet, but when it does, pluralism will be the byword of all.

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CAPS DIGEST

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The Professionalization of Student Affairs Staff

Paul A. Bloland

Overview

For well over four decades, the field of college and university student affairs has been wrestling with the question, "Are we a profession?" Implicit in the question, and a justification for its continuing examination is a sense of marginality, of subordination of student affairs staff in the academic enterprise. Implicit also is the suggestion that to be recognized as a profession would confer additional status along with concomitant benefits. The resolution of the question, therefore, is not just an academic exercise but, as is true of many other quasi or emerging professions, one which strikes at the heart of the identity and self-concept as well as the morale of the people who constitute the field. It is the purpose of this digest to examine the definition of a profession that the field uses to assess itself and then to move on to a more profitable conceptualization of the argument.

Is Student Affairs a Profession?

The answer to the question, "Is student affairs a profession?" is quite clearly, "No". Regardless of the analysis undertaken or the criteria used, the analysts inevitably conclude that the field continues to fall short of the models traditionally employed as yardsticks. Wrenn and Darley (1949) essentially began the process by assessing the field against eight criteria and concluding that "student personnel work is not yet a profession" (p. 286).

The Wrenn and Darley criteria were simple and inclusive and provide a useful yardstick against which to gauge progress toward professional status:

1. The application of standards of selection and training
2. The definition of job titles and functions
3. The possession of a body of specialized knowledge and skills
4. The development of a professional consciousness and of professional groups
5. The self-imposition of standards of admission and performance
6. The legal recognition of the vocation
7. The development of a code of ethics
8. The performance of a socially needed function

Stamatakos (1981) re-examined the Wrenn and Darley analysis 32 years later and came to essentially the same conclusion, "Student affairs is still 'en route to professional status'" (p. 204). He revisited the scene again in 1989 (Bloland & Stamatakos, 1989–90) only to find that little had changed. The only criteria that appeared to be fully met were, "development of a professional consciousness and professional groups" and "performance of a socially needed function" (p. 31).

It is true that a number of professionalizing steps have been taken in recent years to respond to obvious needs in the field, i.e., the adoption of the American College Personnel Association's code of ethics (1981), and the "Standards of Practice" by the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (1983). One can also cite the standards and guidelines adopted by the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs (1986). However helpful to the field these much needed developments may be, student affairs still falls short of meeting the recognized criteria of a profession and, for the reasons listed here, it is unlikely that the field will ever achieve the status of a profession.

Why Student Affairs Will Not Become a Profession

While it may appear that the field could become a profession simply by exerting a special effort to develop programs and standards which would fulfill the accepted criteria for a profession, the field is far too loosely defined and variegated for it to qualify as a whole. Canon (1982) argued that "we are a collection of professions functioning in the student affairs area" (p. 468). Rickard (1988) stated that student affairs is simply an administrative designation "for a grouping of functions, department, disciplines, programs, and multiple evolving professions." In his well-known critique of the failure of student personnel work to become a profession, Penney (1969) concluded that there is no occupational entity or identifiable point of view that can be identified as a profession. "...the field is now composed by a number of relatively separate and distinct specialities linked together largely by organizational contiguity (i.e., they all involve working with students out of classrooms) and, to a lesser extent, by the sharing of a common philosophical view of their tasks" (p. 961).

It is this organizational heterogeneity that militates against the possibility of student affairs ever becoming recognized as a profession. As Bloland and Stamatakos (1989–90) put it, "How can student affairs be evaluated against the Wrenn and Darley (1949)...or any other set of criteria of professionalism when the field is comprised of such disparate work activities as academic advisement, psychotherapy, career development, medicine, student activity advising, paraprofessional counseling, residence hall advising, management, orientation, and the like?" (p. 32). Several of the specialties offered in the typical

student affairs organization are already recognized as emerging professions, i.e., counseling/ psychotherapy and medicine, and may meet most or all of any set of criteria that may be advanced but what do they, in substantive terms, share with student activity advising or orientation programming other than their administrative placement in a student affairs program?

Professionalism: A Viable Alternative

An alternative to the inconclusive and seemingly futile pursuit of professional status for the field of student affairs may be found in the concept of professionalism. It is the exhibition of professional behavior that marks the practitioner in the field as a professional, that justifies the use of the term, "professional," when we talk about student affairs services and staff. Rickard (1988) has proposed a paradigm which acknowledges the multiprofessional characteristics of student affairs, minimizing the identity crises associated with the traditional criteria of a profession and focusing instead on being a competent professional.

Professionalism: Moore's Model

What does it mean to be a professional? Moore (1970) has developed a set of six criteria that can be applied to any occupational role. The occupation itself may not be recognized as a profession but its practitioners may perform their tasks in the occupation as professionals. Moore's criteria are as follows:

1. The professional is in a full-time occupation.
2. There must be a commitment to a calling, a strong inner impulse to identify with the field of student affairs, a sense of identification with the field, and a loyalty to its philosophy and purpose. It is not seen simply as one more job in one's work life or as a stepping stone to something better but, rather, as a lifelong pursuit.
3. The commitment to the field is one that is held in common with others in the same occupational role which leads to identifying with them through membership and participation in professional associations such as the American College Personnel Association.
4. The professional must possess specialized knowledge which can only be acquired through a long and rigorous educational regimen such as an appropriate graduate program.
5. The professional is characterized by a service orientation. Meeting the needs of students is a core value of the field and requires constant attention to the maintenance of professional competence and knowledge as exemplified by attendance at conferences, workshops, seminars, research activity, professional reading, and the like.
6. Although sometimes more difficult to achieve in a collegiate bureaucracy than in other settings, professionals are perceived as so competent and knowledgeable that they are permitted a lot of autonomy in the practice of their specialty.

The Moore criteria provide a ready gauge of the extent to which student affairs staff members are rendering professional-level services in a fully professional manner.

Conclusion

It is time for the field of student affairs to put aside its 4-decade preoccupation with professional status and recognize that its identity as a field is essentially an administrative convenience linked by an allegiance to a common philosophical perspective on its work and by the nature of its clientele and the milieu in which it is practiced, i.e., college students in the out-of-class setting. The very diversity of the program and its specialized staff essentially preclude the development of the kind of common core of highly specialized knowledge that could lead to legal recognition and licensing, for example.

The field and its specialties is characterized by its diversity which can be perceived as a strength rather than as a handicap because it is this heterogeneity that enables student affairs to meet the individualized needs of a student body which itself is increasingly diversified and heterogeneous. Rather than further discussion of the field of student affairs as a profession, attention should instead be turned to the development of a fully professional staff, one that is highly educated and motivated to serve its student clientele.

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CAPS DIGEST

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Valuing Diversity in the Schools: The Counselor's Role

Joe Wittmer

Overview

The valuing of diversity in the schools is no longer merely a social goal. With the make-up of the student body changing so rapidly, school counselors, teachers and administrators realize that they are now required to learn new techniques and skills for understanding, motivating, teaching, and empowering each individual student regardless of race, gender, religion or creed. We are a nation of diverse populations and groups. The future of our society depends upon our ability to effectively talk with one another, to reach mutual understanding, and to realize that in diversity there is strength.

By the year 2056, the "average" U.S. citizen will trace his or her descent to Africa, Asia, the Hispanic countries, the Pacific Islands—almost anywhere but white Europe (Wittmer, 1992). Obviously, the United States is changing significantly. By the year 2000 the population of the U.S. will be 43% people of color. In 1990, over 30% of the public school students were either African-American or Hispanic. The statistical meaning of the word minority is quickly losing its significance, especially in America's classrooms. And by the year 2075, African Americans, Alaskan Natives, American Natives, Hispanic Americans, and Asian Americans will be the statistical majority in the United States (Locke, 1992).

School counselors can serve as catalysts to insure that teachers, students and others learn how to value diversity. That is, the valuing of diversity can be taught to others and should be a major part of any school's comprehensive guidance program.

The Valuing Diversity Model: ASK

The "A" in ASK stands for Awareness of self and others. Self and other awareness is a must if cultural diversity is to be appreciated in our schools and elsewhere. The "S" in ASK refers to both Sensitivity and Skills. Sensitivity to others as well as new, innovative, communication. Skills are needed by students and others if we are to learn to value diversity and intercultural communication is to improve. The "K" stands for Knowledge of cultures different from our own. Culture influences feelings, thoughts, non-verbal behaviors, ideas and perceptions and "cognitive empathy" (knowledge) of another's culture is needed to improve intercultural relationships.

Awareness of Self and Others

Self-aware individuals avoid a condescending attitude and do not patronize culturally different persons. To patronize implies the belief that we hold a superior position to them—we come across to them as being "better" than they. And members of other cultural groups view this as disrespectful. Relatedly, some Anglo Americans seem to have a characteristic that could best be described as "assumed similarity." That is, they assume that people either ought to be like them or want to be like them! Self-aware individuals do not hold such assumptions (Wittmer, 1990).

Students of all ages can be taught, through various guidance and counseling activities, to be more aware of self and others (Wittmer & Scott, 1991).

Sensitivity and Communication Skills

Our sensitivity toward and willingness to understand others is a major key to effective communication with the culturally different. We need to be aware of others' thoughts and feelings, regardless of their race, creed or cultural background. Effective, multicultural communicators are aware of other persons' frames of reference, their views of the world. And, they understand that worldviews are influenced by culture.

We can learn communication skills that will assist us in understanding how others view their worlds and react to them, as opposed to telling them how they should react and behave toward their own worlds! Their worldviews may be very different from ours, but they are based on their perceptions—which are their "realities." And, their reality determines how they feel, think and behave.

How sensitive are you to your own views of those who are different? Do you view other cultures as equally valuable to yours? Is your cultural group superior to another? Are you culturally sensitive to your own heritage and the possibility that you were taught (perhaps unconsciously) to be prejudiced as a part of your upbringing? Do you value and respect differences? Are you aware of your own values and biases and how they affect those who are culturally different? Do you avoid stereotyping and labeling? Do you monitor your own assumptions about those different from you? Are you willing to accept someone of a different race into your organization, i.e., your sorority, your fraternity, your church? It is important that each of us examine ourselves concerning these questions if we hope to become culturally skilled communicators (Wittmer, 1992).

The emerging sense of worth of members of culturally distinct populations can no longer be neglected. Learning about their different values, attitudes, desires, aspirations, and beliefs is

necessary because it effects all of us. Learning skills to help us communicate effectively with people from different cultures will speed up this necessary learning process.

Knowledge of the Culturally Different

Feelings, thoughts, nonverbal behaviors, and ideas are important in interpersonal communication and are culturally influenced and learned (Wittmer, 1992). As noted, empathy, interest in others, caring, personal awareness, sensitivity and understanding are stressed as important to effective interpersonal communication and to learning to value diversity. However, having these core conditions present is not always enough for effective communication with a person from another race or culture. We also need "cognitive" empathy. That is, knowledge of that person's culture, or knowing "where that person is coming from" is also extremely important (Wittmer, 1992).

Students of all ages can be taught to be culturally skilled. A culturally skilled communicator is willing to gain cognitive knowledge about different cultures, i.e., their history, cultural values, current problems and lifestyles and how this impacts on their respective worldview. This may be the most important thing we can do in becoming more effective intercultural communicators.

It is important that we approach different cultural members with understanding over and above our feelings. That is, having strong feelings of support for a particular culture and its participants is necessary. However, it is not enough to truly communicate with participants from that cultural group. If we are ignorant of the values and ways of participants from cultural groups different from ours, we will certainly be less effective communicators than we would be if we operated with accurate, cognitive understanding of them. The teaching of the values and ways of other cultural groups can, and should be, central to any comprehensive school guidance program.

Implementing the Model: The School Counselor's Role

The professional school counselor possesses many excellent communication skills that can, and should be, shared and taught to teachers, administrators, students, and others.

The "cognitive knowledge" aspect of the above described model can easily be generalized to the school setting. There are many effective ways that students can obtain knowledge about others' cultures, e.g., outside speakers from different cultural backgrounds, culturally distinct student panels, field trips, etc. Learning about other cultures should be a major component of any guidance curriculum, regardless of the school level.

In addition, self awareness, awareness of others and sensitivity to self and others in regard to diversity can and should be a major component of any comprehensive school guidance program. Many guidance activities can be developed and delivered by various modes with these themes in mind (Wittmer, 1992).

School counselors know how to communicate effectively with others regardless of their or the other person's cultural background. They are skilled in how to "tune in to" the feelings of others, how to put the speaker at ease by clarifying the content of what was just said, how to show interest in others through the use of open-ended questions, etc. And the research is clear, these skills can be taught to students of all ages, i.e., there is considerable evidence that peers can become very effective in helping other peers (Myrick & Folk, 1991). And, through structured guidance and counseling approaches all students and teachers can be taught these facilitative communication skills.

Conclusion

Counselors can conduct in-service training with the teachers in their respective schools to incorporate the ASK model described above. For example, teachers can learn the facilitative skills previously mentioned (with minimal training) and learn how to put them into practice in their everyday subject matter classes (Wittmer & Myrick, 1989). It has been demonstrated that teachers can—and want to learn how—to put "group facilitative skills" to work in their classrooms. That is, teachers can learn how to have students "tune in to," "listen with empathy," etc. to one another on a daily, routine basis. This increases student awareness of and sensitivity toward others regardless of race or cultural background. Not only will this create a classroom environment more conducive to learning, it ensures that students learn new skills which will ultimately lead to a better understanding of others and to a valuing of diversity in the school. School counselors hold the key to the teaching and the valuing of diversity.

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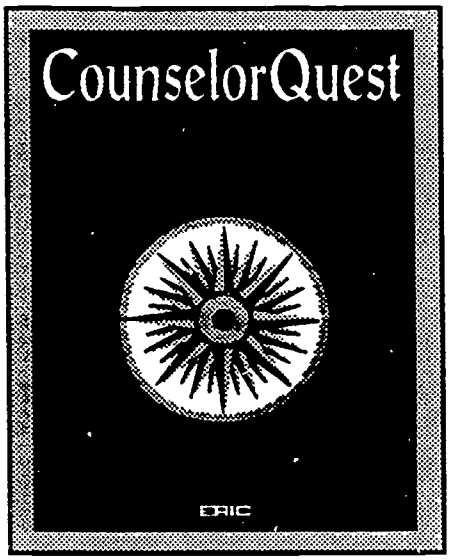

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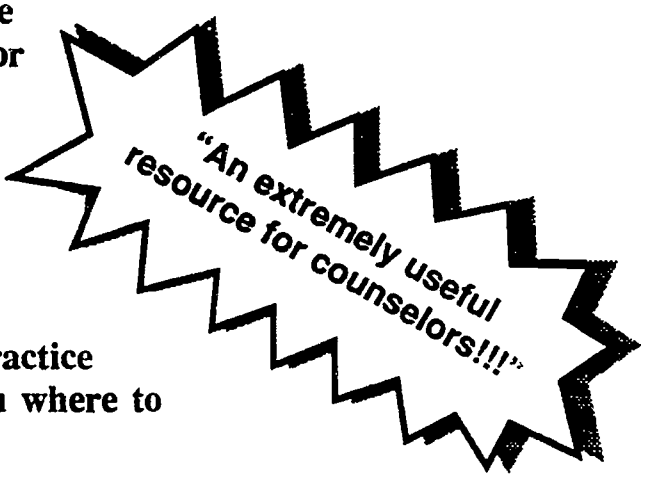

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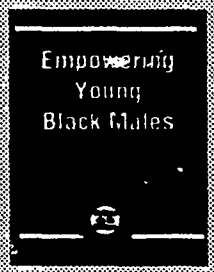

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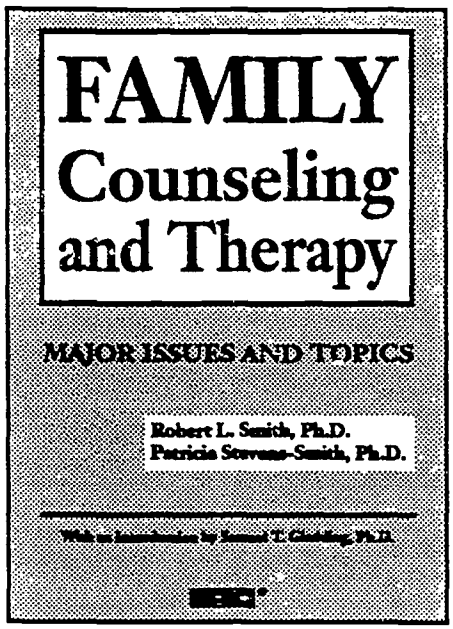

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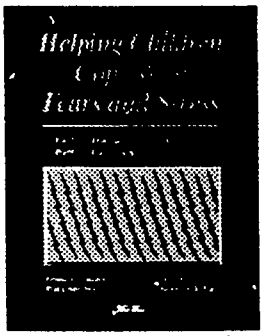

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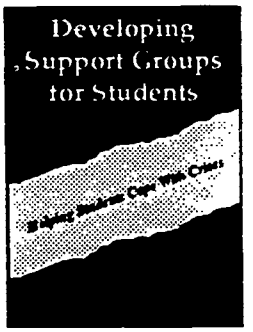

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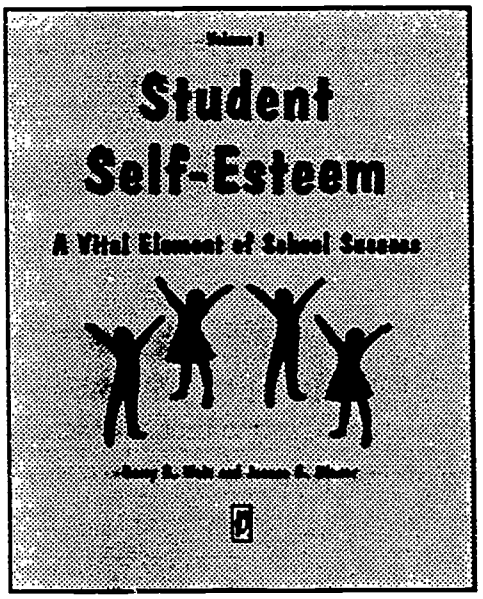

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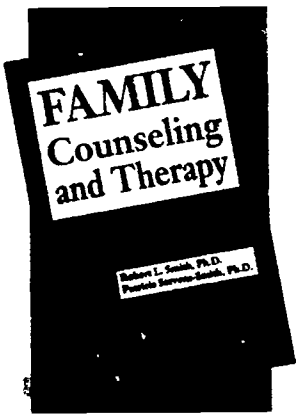

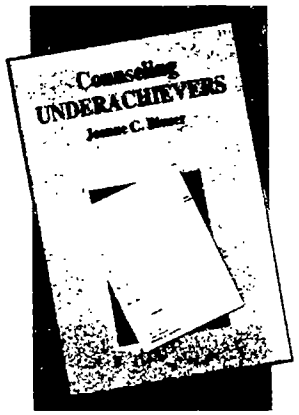

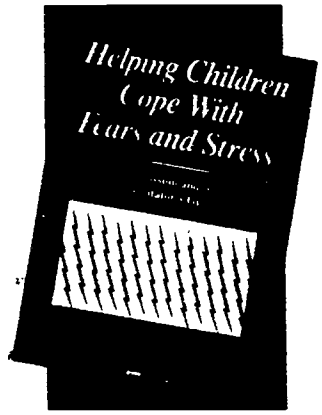

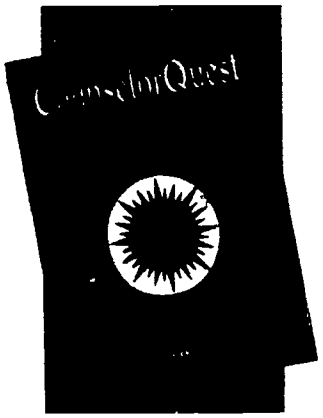

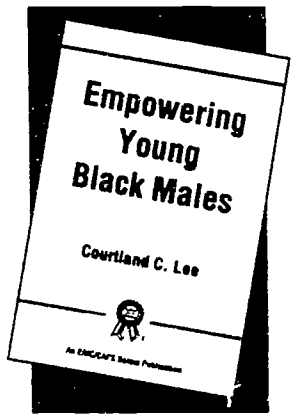

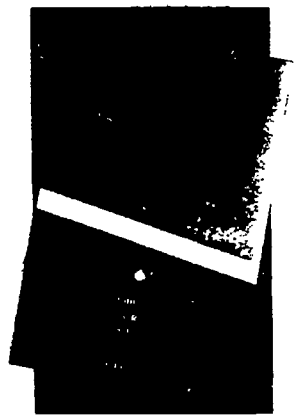

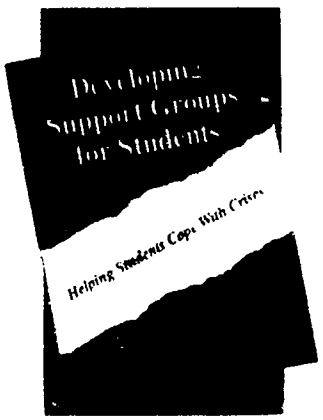

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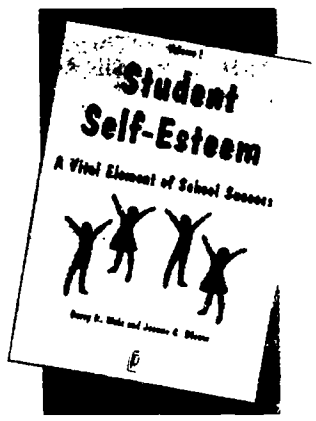

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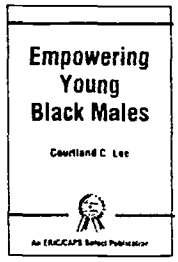

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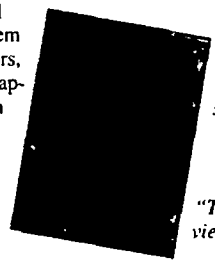

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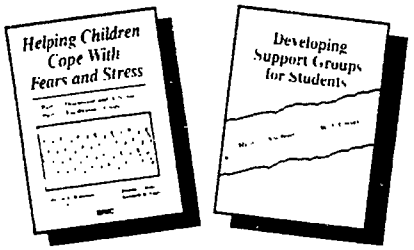

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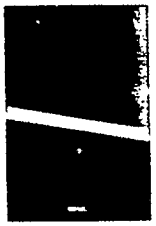

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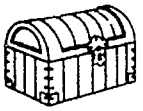

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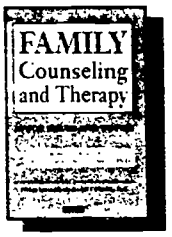

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