JOURNAL OF PROFESSIONAL COUNSELING:

Practice, Theory, & Research

The Texas Counseling Association

Journal of Professional Counseling: Practice, Theory, & Research

Guidelines for Authors

The Journal of Professional Counseling: Practice, Theory, and Research is a semi-annual publication seeking to advance clinical, theoretical, and empirical knowledge in counseling and psychotherapy. The journal invites manuscripts that are directed to the mutual interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government agencies. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with: (a) practical and unique applications of counseling techniques in schools and clinical settings, (b) significant quantitative and qualitative research, (c) critical integrations of published research, (d) theoretical and social policy, and (e) scholarly reviews of professional materials.

1. The following articles are considered for publication:

Articles: Manuscripts should not exceed 4,000 words. There is not a lower limit; a subject line should seek its own limit.

Dialogues: Dialogues should take the form of verbatim exchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Dialogues are subject to the same length limitation as articles.

Sharing: Manuscripts should briefly report on or describe new practices, experimental programs, innovative techniques, and personal reflections.

Responding: Letter to the Editor and other responses intended for this section should be as short as possible, preferably under 300 words.

Reviewing: Reviews of a new book, a recent article in a professional journal, a new test or inventory are encouraged.

2. Manuscripts should be well-organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull stereotyped writing, and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Include a capsule statement (abstract) of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in non-technical language and should engage the reader's interest. Type on a separate sheet.

4. For quantitative research, estimates of effect size should be addressed along with interpretations of practical significance.

5. For qualitative research, issues of trustworthiness with respect to the credibility, transferability, and confirmability of the analysis is required.

6. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

7. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

8 Author's name with position, title, and place of employment should appear only on the cover page.

9. Double-space all material, including references.

10. References should follow the style described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Sixth Edition, 2009.

11. Never submit manuscripts that are under consideration by another periodical.

12. Submit all manuscripts to: Rick Balkin, Richard.Balkin@tamucc.edu. Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent - with your name deleted - to three members of the editorial board. In all correspondence, please include your email address.

13. Upon acceptance for publication, authors may be requested to provide both a hard copy of their manuscript (final version) and an additional electronic copy sent as an attachment, preferably in Microsoft Word format. Do not send electronic copies until requested to do so. Final copies should include the authors' biographical information (#8).

Manuscripts not accepted after review will be returned for revision, or rejected as unacceptable for the journal.

[Permission was obtained from the American Counseling Association to adapt the "Guidelines for Authors" published in the *Journal of Professional Counseling: Practice, Theory, and Research*.]

Table of Contents
for Volume 38, Number 1, Spring/Summer 2010

Professional Acculturation: A Conceptual Framework for Counselor Role Induction

S. Allen Wilcoxon
James L. Jackson
Karen M. Townsend

The authors examine factors that affect professional acculturation in the process of role induction. Previous works have omitted discussions concerning layers of values and forms of power affecting the worldview of counselors. The initial foci concern the significance of institutional and personal layers of values as well as legitimate and referent forms of power affecting acculturation and personal worldview of most people. However, the significance of professional values and expert power associated with professional counseling role are unique to the field, particularly for resolving dissonance and integrating insights in counselor role induction. The article concludes with a discussion of application for educational and practice settings.

Counselors have been greatly influenced by the past half-century of social and professional emphasis on multicultural awareness and sensitivity. Most discussions of cultural influences begin with noting an array of factors affecting *acculturation*. For example, Baruth and Manning (2003) noted that cultural distinctions emerged from encounters with "institutions, communications, values, religions, genders, sexual orientations, disabilities, thinking, artistic expressions, and social and interpersonal relationships" (p. 8).

Authors' Note:

S. Allen Wilcoxon, Program in Counselor Education, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa; James L. Jackson, Program in Counseling and Guidance, The University of Texas at Brownsville, Brownsville; Karen M. Townsend, Department of Counselor Education, The University of North Alabama, Florence. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to S. Allen Wilcoxon, Program in Counselor Education, The University of Alabama, PO Box 870231, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0231 (email: awilcoxo@bamaed.ua.edu).

Counselors have been greatly influenced by the past half-century of social and professional emphasis on multicultural awareness and sensitivity. Most discussions of cultural influences begin with noting an array of factors affecting acculturation. For example, Baruth and Manning (2003) noted that cultural distinctions emerged from encounters with "institutions, communications, values, religions, genders, sexual orientations, disabilities, thinking, artistic expressions, and social and interpersonal relationships" (p. 8).

Krober and Kluckhohn (1952) noted that "... the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially attached values" (p. 81). More recently, Wilcoxon, Magnuson, and Norem (2008) stated that "... culturally derived values become the reference point for perceived power or powerlessness, risk or security, privilege or oppression, and other experiences of social interaction" (p. 145). The attached values of family, peers, region or locale, sacred institutions, significant personal figures and public icons, and multiple other sources of influence promote one's acculturation (Sue, Carter, Casas, et. al, 1998; Sue & Sue, 2002). Acculturation yields an internalized template for understanding and interpreting experiences described as *worldview* (Ivey, D'Andrea, Ivey, & Simek-Morgan, 2002).

Developmental theorists have discussed the dynamic elements of acculturation and learning related to dissonance and integration. According to Erikson (1950; 1968), dissonance is a state of tension that emerges between existing cognitive and emotional schemas upon encountering new and conflicting information. Successful resolution of dissonance occurs through integration, a process of internal accommodation to unite existing schema with new information. This interaction of dissonance and integration affects worldview. For example, one's worldview related to fairness might be grounded on a simplistic assumption of equality for rewards and opportunities. By contrast, when encountering a practice such as targeted hiring or affirmative action for under-represented cultural groups, dissonance might emerge concerning equality in opportunity. However, through integration, one could come to appreciate the value of equality, but only when equality exists as a precondition. Through the interaction of dissonance and integration, one's worldview becomes increasingly complex, but more

mature and realistic (Erikson, 1968). Conversely, one's beliefs might become more firmly entrenched, leading to a decision to disengage from the reflective process necessary for integration.

The dynamics of dissonance and integration affecting one's worldview ultimately intersect the various roles in one's life. Worldview dissonance is compelling as one enters a profession. For example, many professionals who work with children must strike a balance between their personal worldview as parents and their professional roles with children. One's professional role as a counselor increases the complexity of decision making and integrating dissonant worldviews. We offer a conceptual framework for examining role induction, dissonance, integration, and applied decision-making in the professional acculturation of counselors. One approach to understanding commonalities and distinctions that increase dissonance between personal and professional contexts is to consider the layers of value and the forms of power that affect acculturation.

Value and Power Aspects of Acculturation and Emergent Worldview

Wilcoxon, Remley, Gladding, and Huber (2007) discussed three layers of values that affect both the personal and the professional acculturation processes. Specifically, these authors suggested that these layers consist of (a) personal values, (b) institutional values, and (c) professional values. The following discussion focuses on personal and institutional values. Comments related to professional values will be presented in the next section of the article.

Personal values are generally reflective of the acculturation process discussed previously. Establishing personal values is a critical aspect of developing one's identity and worldview. Personal values are held and expressed in the interactions ranging from larger social systems to family, friends, and intimates. Within this range of interactions, however, the larger the scope, the less one can rely on personal values, particularly with institutions of regulation (e.g. governmental), protection (e.g., legal), or indoctrination (e.g., religious systems).

Institutional values exist beyond the layer of personal values, though institutional values often play an integral part in establishing personal values. Institutional values tend to be associated with meta-systemic principles and agendas, often promoting standardization, conformity, and overarching ideologies intended to

merge individual efforts and perspectives for corporate purposes. Institutions exist in dialogue with constituencies or members for purposes of organized effort, control, protection, and regulation. On the other hand, institutional values can also serve purposes such as oppression, economic/political manipulation, and even condemnation.

Integrating personal and institutional values is a key aspect of the struggle to establish one's unique personal worldview. However, values do not simply exist as passive templates for understanding and interpreting our lives. Rather, values typically fuel attempts to influence others or affect situations. Values are expressed through various forms of power that reflect one's commitment to actions that demonstrate values. Specifically, these forms of power consist of (a) legitimate power, (b) referent power, and (c) expert power (Gallessich, 1982). The following discussion focuses on legitimate and referent power. Comments related to expert power will be presented in the next section of the article.

Legitimate power is typically founded on a hierarchical structure that can require certain behaviors of subordinates or con- stituencies. Legitimate power is most readily recognized in governmental agencies, commercial enterprises, and other authoritative structures such as military or legal/penal systems. A distinc- tive characteristic of legitimate power is the means to require conformity, including the use of threat, intimidation, or even force.

By contrast, *referent power* is a means of influencing others that is non-coercive and highly personalized. Grounded in qualities such as admiration, attractive- ness, or veneration, referent power is granted by an observer rather than imposed by a system of legitimate power and hierarchical structure. Iconic figures who persuade others to follow or emulate them have been granted referent power by those they affect, often more by charm and charisma than by wisdom or skill. Referent power may be the most personal and, to some extent, the most compelling means of being influenced by others.

Values and power interact in ways that require balance between personal autonomy and social conformity. For example, one may believe that fair treatment and justice require each circum- stance to be examined as an isolated decision based on its own merits. For them, uniform standards of judgment may be perceived as oppressive, insensitive, and biased. By contrast, a legal system without
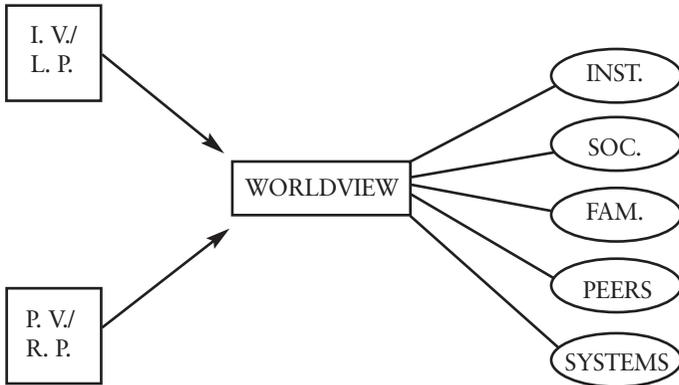
I. V. - Institutional Values
L. P. - Legitimate Power
P. V. - Personal Values
R. P. - Referent Power

INST. - Institutions
SOC. - Society
FAM. - Family

any established standards or precedents, that allow decisions to be tailored to each circumstance, would be inefficient at best and corrupt at worst. Though both approaches can coexist, the institutional values promoting law and order have a much broader application than the personal value of seeking circumstantial justice for each unique situation.

The sources of power also appear to align with layers of value in a somewhat symmetrical fashion. As couplets, legitimate power often supports institutional values while referent power can strongly influence personal values.

Figure 1 reflects the manner in which these value-power combinations (i.e., institutional values-legitimate power;

personal values-referent power) merge to affect one's acculturation and worldview. Internalized rules, laws, sacred truths, or other forms of conventionalism that promote social compliance are foundational aspects of acculturation and worldview. Influence and indoctrination advocating conformity for traditions of collective propriety come from the couplet of institutional values-legitimate power. This value-power combination has significant and sustained influence throughout one's life.

By contrast, the personal values-referent power combination introduces a more idiosyncratic form of influence to emulate family or significant personal figures. In a manner comparable to that of

the institutional values-legitimate combination, the inspiration of personal icons and the allure of individuality hold considerable sway to acculturate and affect worldview over the course of one's life.

As Figure 1 reflects, integrating and internalizing these sources of acculturation into a worldview provides a framework for interactions with various groups and sectors in one's life (e.g., institutions, society-at-large, family, peers, and other systems). For children and youth, dissonance is often resolved by simplistic obedience and unexamined resolution to internalize the values of those with institutional or referent power. In this way, one's personal acculturation in youth can remain unchallenged until early adulthood (Baruth & Manning, 2003).

Some professions, such as military, governmental, penal, or even industrial, are closely aligned with institutional values and legitimate power. Thus, the acculturated personal worldview for some in these fields may be sufficient for their professional identity. In some instances, the notion of "organization-based self-esteem (OBSE)" (p. 791) discussed by Bryan, Barnett, Hester, and Relyea (2003) is applicable for those whose personal worldview and professional role are effectively interchangeable in interactions with external groups or systems. By contrast, many self-employed professionals, such as artisans and skilled workers, may rely primarily on personal values and referent power to guide their personal worldview and professional role fulfillment. For some in this circumstance, interactions with larger systems may be experienced as uncompromising and bureaucratic.

For those whose personal acculturation yields a worldview that is fully consistent with their professional role, dissonance is minimal and professional acculturation is virtually unnecessary. However, the developmental path by which counselors are inducted into a helping and advocacy role involves a more complex process of professional acculturation.

Professional Acculturation of Counselors: Worldview and Role Induction

Long ago, Eckstein and Wallerstein (1957) observed that "we speak then not of having a job, but of being a member of a profession. Professional people are strongly identified with what they do…" (p. 66). In a similar manner, professional acculturation that serves to challenge existing values and attitudes in one's personal worldview prompts an expansion of the dissonance-integration process (Gale & Austin, 2003).

Unlike many other professions, one's acculturation as a professional counselor involves care and advocacy for clients (Auxier, Hughes, & Kline, 2003). Trainees encounter theoretical models, ethical principles and codes, supervised scrutiny of skills, group discussion in case conceptualization, and a variety of other experiences that define the duties they and their colleagues embrace as practitioners in a unique professional role. Such duties require an expansion of one's personal worldview to accommodate professional identity, particularly as one evolves from novice into competent maturity. Studer's (2007) term "professional consolidation" (p. 170) denoted the need for one to resolve cognitive/emotional dissonance that can emerge between one's personal worldview and one's emergent professional worldview. As with any form of dissonance, integrating disparate information and experiences involves introspection, learning, and dialogue with others. Such consolidation is critical for one's professional acculturation into the counselor role.

How does professional acculturation occur? Various models and discussions of role induction have emerged for helping professionals over the past two decades (Auxier, Hughes, & Kline, 2003; Brott & Meyers, 1999; Gale & Austin, 2003; McGowen & Hart, 1990; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). Common among each of these models, whether as stages or benchmark passages, is an emphasis on knowledge and skill to increase self-confidence and competence. However, none features discussions of the influence of education, supervision, mentoring, and professional affiliation as a means of professional acculturation. Similarly, none examines the notion that complexity, dissonance, and occasional anxiety are introduced into one's worldview and emerging professional role by contrasting the distinctive layers of values and forms of power.

In addition to institutional values and personal values, Wilcoxon et al. (2007) noted that professional values are precepts, traditions, and expectations that become the professional template of decision-making and action for counselors. Graduate education, supervision, licensure/certification, mentoring, professional affiliation, continuing education, and even legal regulations significantly affect the learning and development of counselors (Nelson & Jackson, 2003). As Brott and Meyers (1999) noted, "Self-conceptualization, which has been termed as one's professional identity, serves as a

frame of reference from which one carries out a professional role, makes significant professional decisions, and develops as a professional" (p. 339). Without such experiences of professional acculturation, counselors could rely only on their intuition and personal values or only on the application of standardized institutional values in their role as helpers.

The nature of power to influence also differs for counselors in their work with clients and peers. In addition to legitimate power and referent power, Gallessich (1982) described expert power as the capacity to influence others through experience, knowledge, skills, and accomplishments. While educators and supervisors could exercise legitimate power in their positions, they may offer a more compelling influence through their expertise. Gallessich (1982) observed that persons in applied human services positions, such as counselors, must rely heavily on their expert power to influence the process of change with clients.

Gallessich (1982) also noted that such expert power influences interactions with clients in a manner that differs from the way it influences interactions with peers. The influence of expert power on non-professionals is often grounded in the role and status held by a professional, reflecting

trust in the expectations of care and competence. By contrast, the influence of expert power on peer professionals is often grounded in the demonstration of competence and skill, reflecting recognition of one's capabilities and ability. Thus, in a manner similar to the value-power combinations of institutional values- legitimate power or personal values-referent power, expert power is often associated with professional values for both consumers and peers.

In some instances, professional values may come into conflict with institutional values, personal values, or both. Similarly, the nature of expert power may come into conflict with legitimate power, referent power, or both. Such distinctions are critical for the practicing counselor attempting to balance questions of "Who I am" and "What I do" in a holistic fashion (Auxier, Hughes, & Kline, 2003). Failing to resolve discrepancies associated with these questions can leave counselors without a well-integrated understanding of their role as professional helpers and peers. Acculturating a professional worldview in the counselor role that prioritizes duty to clients and peers seems at least as compelling as one's worldview as a citizen, partner, or parent. The significance of this reintegration process is further
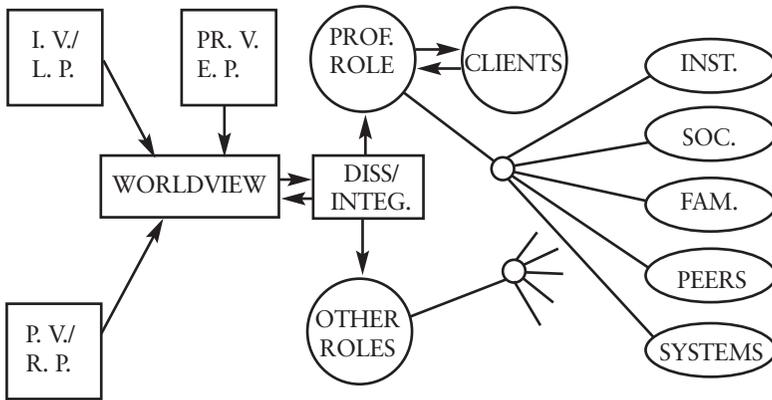
I. V. - Institutional Values
L. P. - Legitimate Power
P. V. - Personal Values
R. P. - Referent Power
PR. V. - Professional Values
E. P. - Expert Power

PROF. ROLE - Professional Role
DISS./INTEG. - Dissonance and Integration
INST. - Institutions
SOC. - Society
FAM. - Family

expanded and clarified when one interacts with many of the same external systems (i.e. institutions, society, family, peers) in distinctive professional and non-professional roles. A representation of this process is noted in Figure 2.

Professional acculturation and the unique role as a counselor noted in Figure 2 emphasizes that one cannot simply rely on the worldview as citizen. This distinction is significant in three critical ways. First, the role of counselor is modulated by duty to client welfare in interactions with institutions, society, family, peers, and other systems. Second, the role of counselor often challenges the personal worldview that existed prior to profes-

sional acculturation. In this respect, the counselor often faces a schema reorganization to resolve dissonance in order to integrate and inform his or her functions as counselor as well as citizen. Third, the status of "professional counselor" revises the types of interactions one has on the output side of Figure 2. For example, one's interaction with citizen peers differs appreciably from one's interactions with professional peers. Similarly, one's appearance before an institutional body such as a court in the role of professional counselor as an expert witness offering an opinion of interpretation would differ greatly from such an appearance as a citizen witness offering an account of fact.

Thus, Figure 2 features the distinctions of interactions in professional and non-professional roles with institutions and other entities. Figure 2 also serves to emphasize the importance of maintaining the citizen role, which must persist for the counselor to create and maintain the balance between "Who I am" and "What I do."

The comparison between Figures 1 and 2 depicts the complexity of addressing dissonance and successfully resolving such internal conflicts through integration to establish the balance and distinction of one's professional and non-professional roles. Considering the similarities and distinctions of personal and professional acculturation of counselors who assume a helping role appears to offer potential applications for educators, supervisors, students, and practitioners.

Applications and Implications

An initial application of this framework is a revision of conceptual discussions about acculturation, dissonance, integration, and emergent worldview by referencing the interactive effects of values and power. Figures 1 and 2 graphically depict the differences in personal acculturation and professional acculturation. In Figure 1, the psychological inputs leading to the development of worldview for non-

professionals are predominantly from the convergence of institutional values-legitimate power and personal values-referent power. Output interactions with others in the role of non-professional allow an unfiltered emergence of these value-power combinations with little concern for their potential to affect others (e.g., society, family, other systems). By contrast, Figure 2 reflects the influence of the professional values-expert power couplet in a manner that distinguishes duty to clients and, to some extent, to professional colleagues, in interactions with others. This view is unique in the counseling literature.

The systemic characteristics in Figure 2 offer a framework for discussing professional acculturation with a view toward convergence. Perhaps the work of Bronfenbrenner (1979) describing a multilayered ecological systems theory of offers the most comparable model. Yet even Bronfenbrenner's critical discussion does not distinguish personal and professional acculturation or value-power pairings to describe the "professional consolidation" (Studer, 2007, p. 170) counselors must complete to manage duties to clients, peers, and organizations.

A second application of the convergent view of professional acculturation in Figure 2 concerns role induction for coun-

selors. This framework clarifies the distinct duties and obligations one assumes in the role of counselor, particularly in terms of minimizing the effect of personal values and referent power by reliance on professional values and expert power. Such a view also emphasizes the delicate balance of "Who I am" and "What I do" (Auxier, Hughes, & Kline, 2003) in a variety of areas, such as client advocacy, professional representation, and peer interactions. While this beneficial application may be apparent for students and supervisees, it also holds relevance for seasoned counselors, educators, supervisors, and researchers as a framework for self-awareness and inquiry in continuing professional development.

A third beneficial application from a discussion of value-power pairings in professional acculturation is a means of increased awareness of boundary distinctions and cognitive complexity in practitioner decisions and duties. Comparisons of Figures 1 and 2 can clarify divergent values and agendas held by clients, families, cultural groups, or institutions, particularly for practice considerations such as client resistance, implications for diagnoses, managed mental health care, and the implications of changes in counselor role (e.g., referral agent, custody evaluator, expert witness, institutional representative).

A final beneficial application from the framework is an emergent language to distinguish differences in values, power, and value-power combinations. For example, a student listening to a guest lecturer in a graduate class can understand that the visitor relies on expert as well as referent power to influence the learning process. Or, a school counselor may wish to minimize the impact of legitimate power in discussions with parents from a traditionally oppressed cultural group, favoring an attempt to establish expert power and avoid the potential boundary complexities of legitimate or referent power. Similarly, when considering a difficult decision related to client welfare, the counselor can consider the impact of institutional values plus legitimate power in the legal system as opposed to the professional values and expert power embedded in the code of ethics and practice traditions of the field. Using such a language scaffold to clarify the value-power combinations that may have created a dilemma or affected an intervention can be beneficial in supervision, consultation, or other professional duties.

To illustrate the value of language as a frame of reference for applied discussions,

the authors offer three examples of discussions in group supervision with interns. In the first example, an intern discussed her frustration with the logistics of a counseling group established in her placement. Following her presentation, others began discussing the case using comments such as "What conflicts do you have with your personal values versus your professional values?" and "That's an institutional agenda that seems to run counter to a professional value we all hold" and, finally, "You have sacrificed your expert power by relying on your referent power in attempting to get this resolved. The institution has legitimate power to force you to follow its decisions, and you are acting like a citizen with a protest sign. There is research to support your view; give it to them!"

Another example of the use of the framework for ascertaining sources of dissonance and conflict concerning role distinctions emerged for a school counselor intern who declined to serve as a soccer coach at her middle school, but decided to coach in a youth soccer league sponsored by the YWCA. Her rationale was "I did not want my role and my expert status to be jeopardized by confusion with the children in my school. How could I make decisions about the starting team then

have a group guidance session on self-esteem with those left on the bench? In my community, my expert power is not up for debate, and I can enjoy not having to guess what mixed messages I'm sending."

A final example was presented by an intern faced with completing a mandatory report to local authorities about suspected child abuse. With the help of her supervisor, she promoted the professional value of autonomy by allowing the parent to self-report while also not relying on the legitimate power-institutional value associated with the setting. In group supervision, she stated, "I knew I could not continue as her counselor, but I felt like I didn't set up her next counselor as a policeman rather than a helper. Otherwise, we would all be members of 'the system' to her" (Woodruff, personal communication, 2008).

In a similar manner, this framework also reveals language for interacting with other systems one would encounter in a counselor role. For example, an institutional representative (e.g., probation officer) accustomed to relying on legitimate power could be persuaded to view the counselor's contribution involving a client as requiring different rather than duplicate forms of power. Similarly, a citizen skilled in using referent power to

influence others in advocating for social change might be open to understanding how expert power could complement, rather than offset, actions grounded in persuasion by emotional appeal or outrage.

This discussion of the professional acculturation in counselor role induction distinguishes between personal and professional acculturation by emphasizing the various value-power combinations. Perhaps such a framework is a means of examining and clarifying counselors' role obligations to clients and peers as well as address the complex decisions of their professional practice.

Suggestions for Further Research

The concepts examined and proposed in this article are theoretical in nature and do not represent conclusions based on empirical findings. Conceptual works often feature two benefits for readers. The first such benefit is an organizing schema for integrating complex or even disparate ideas. This benefit might be realized if the ideas advanced in this article serve to increase students' and supervisees' appreciation for their role as practicing counselors. Similarly, educators and supervisors might find the concepts and graphics of the article useful in educational and training efforts.

The second benefit concerns the potential catalyst for research efforts beyond conceptual notions. From a qualitative vantage, educators and supervisors could participate in guided interviews featuring the concepts in this article in an effort to identify thematic commonalities concerning professional acculturation. Shared views on professional acculturation could bolster, discount, or expand the conceptual ideas advanced in this article. A more traditional quantitative approach could then be pursued to develop an instrument reflecting the thematic components identified in the guided interviews. Three specific lines of research could be followed regarding the concepts in this article. The first line of inquiry could focus on curricular development in counselor education programs. To the extent that professional acculturation is tied to graduate education, such research could inform faculty about curricular content or sequence to promote this developmental process. A second line of inquiry could focus on the supervisory experiences of students during and following their graduate education. National standards and training traditions for the field have long promoted supervised experience in graduate programs and pre-licensure status as essential for emergent counselor competence.

Professional acculturation promoted in supervised experience seems to be an area of research that could yield meaningful supplements to curricular review in training programs. A final line of inquiry concerns post-graduate professional development and continuing education. Awareness of current developments in the field of counseling may be a component of expanding one's knowledge, but continued professional acculturation may be a matter that far exceeds new knowledge. Thus, research concerning the nature of professional acculturation for seasoned practitioners could be an area of novel inquiry to extend the conceptual ideas advanced in this article.

References

Auxier, C. R., Hughes, F. R., & Kline, W. B. (2003). Identity development in counselors-in-training. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 43,* 25-38.

Baruth, L.G., & Manning, M.L. (2003). *Multicultural counseling and psychotherapy: A lifespan perspective* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.

Bronfenbrenner, U._ (1979). *The Ecology of Human Development: Experiments by Nature and Design.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Brott, P. & Meyers, J. (1999). Development of professional school counselor identity: A grounded theory. *Professional School Counseling, 2,* 339-348.

Bryan, J.F., Barnett, T., Hester, K, & Relyea, C. (2003). A social identity perspective on the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment. *Journal of Social Psychology, 143,* 789-792.

Eckstein, R. & Wallerstein, R. (1957). *The teaching and learning of psychotherapy.* New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Erikson, E. H. (1950). *Childhood and society.* New York: Norton.

Erikson, E. (1968). *Youth and crisis.* New York: Norton.

Gale, A. U., & Austin, B. D. (2003). Professionalism's challenges to professional counselors' collective identity. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 81,* 3-10.

Gallessich, J. (1982). *The practice and profession of consultation.* San Francisco: Brunner/Mazel.

Ivey, A.E., D'Andrea, M., Ivey, M.B., & Simek-Morgan, L. (2002). *Theories of counseling and psychotherapy: A multicultural perspective* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Krober, A. L., & Kluckhohn, C. (1952). *Culture: A critical review of concepts and definitions.* New York: Vintage Books.

McGowen, K. R., & Hart, L.E. (1990). Still different after all these years: Gender differences in professional identity formation. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 21,* 118-123.

Nelson, K.W. & Jackson, S.A. (2003). Professional counselor identity and development: A qualitative study of Hispanic student interns. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 43,* 2-15.

Ronnestad, M. J., & Skovholt, T. M. (1993). Supervision of beginning and advanced graduate students of counseling and psychotherapy. *Journal of Counseling Development, 71,* 398-405.

Studer, J. (2007). Erik Erikson's psychosocial states applied in supervision: Professional identity development in supervision. *Guidance & Counseling, 21,* 168-173.

Sue, D.W., Carter, R. T., Casas, J.M., Fouad, N. A., Ivey, A. E., Jensen, M. et al., (1998). *Multicultural counseling competencies: Individual and organizational development.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sue, D. W., & Sue, D. (2002). *Counseling the culturally different: Theory and practice* (4th ed.). New York: Wiley.

Wilcoxon, S. A., Magnuson, S., & Norem, K. (2008). Institutional values in managed mental health care: Efficiency or oppression? *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 36,* 143-154.

Wilcoxon, S.A., Remley, T.P., Gladding, S.T., & Huber, C.H. (2007). *Ethical, legal, and professional issues in the practice of marriage and family therapy* (4th ed.). Columbus, OH: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Family Violence, Trauma and Social Learning Theory

Amir Abbassi

S. Dean Aslinia

Texas A&M University-Commerce

Family violence is a historical social problem that continues to exist among modern societies. The authors of this paper identify how children learn violent behaviors and continue to teach these behaviors to their own offspring. This paper also discusses practical techniques on how to battle this serious problem among couples and contemporary families.

Family violence is a relatively new term but not necessarily a new phenomenon in human societies. Various scientific disciplines previously traced family violence back to primitive civilization (Bakan 1971; Gelles, 1985; Korbin, 1981; Radbill, 1980; Shorter, 1975; Taylor & Newberger, 1979). Violence against intimate partners and family members has existed in a more systematic way in our culture since the modern state or statehood when civilization was formed. However, in more recent times, society has recognized violence as a social problem (Gelles, 1985).

According to Barnett, Miller-Perrin and Perrin (2005), violence is defined as "an act carried out with the intention, or perceived intention of physically hurting another person" (p.15). This definition, however, does not entirely satisfy those who have

Authors' Note:

Amir Abbassi, Ph.D., LPC, LMFT is an Associate Professor in the Department of Counseling at Texas A&M University-Commerce,

S. Dean Aslinia, M.S., M.A., LPC-I, NCC is a doctoral students in the Department of Counseling at Texas A&M University-Commerce

Correspondence regarding this article should be directed to Amir Abbassi at Texas A&M University-Commerce, Department of Counseling, P.O. Box 3011, Commerce, TX 75429 or Amir_Abbassi@tamu-commerce.edu

studied violence. Potter (1999) noted that the issue of a comprehensive definition of violence is still unresolved. This is due to varied viewpoints that differ in whether or not the operational definition should include verbal, emotional, and physical violence. Most definitions of violence do not include the verbal and emotional abuse as an act of purposeful negligence. This negligence can also be carried out against children or elderly and can be considered as a passive violence against these individuals. Potter (1999) suggested that a more comprehensive definition of violence, which would include verbal and emotional violence, is important because it gives researchers a clearer picture of violence and how individuals can become more effective in accurately assessing the risks posed by it. On the other hand, most definitions of violence are considered overly broad, since some forms of physical aggression (i.e., corporal punishment) are not generally considered acts of violence in some societies (Ripoll-Nunez & Rohner, 2006). Hence, family violence should be more narrowly defined in order to include families with existing violence and prevent the exclusion of purposeful negligent behaviors.

Levesque (2001) defined violence among family members as an "act of omission or commission resulting in physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, neglect or other form of maltreatment that hamper individuals' healthy development" (p.17). This definition would have been a good working definition if it included the word "purposeful." An act of violence is not a random behavior among human beings (Gelles, 1980). Alfred Adler's theory of *Individual Psychology* explains that all behaviors have meanings and are purposeful (Adler, 1956) Moreover, common denominators to all violent acts, active as well as passive, can be considered anger or revenge. As a result, a more suitable definition for family violence among human beings may be the following: a purposeful act of omission or commission that is anger-driven or revenge-driven. This act results in physical, sexual, and/or emotional abuse, negligence or other forms of maltreatment that interfere with the psychological, emotional, or physical development of healthy individuals.

Consistent with problems related to defining family violence, the term trauma should be defined. Trauma is an emotional wound that has long-lasting effects (Gelles, 1980). The term, trauma, was originally defined by the American Psychiatric Association in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental

Disorders *(DSM-III-R)* as an event occurring outside the continuum of usual human experience (APA, 1987). This definition was subsequently expanded in the DSM-IV-TR.

The *DSM IV-TR* no longer requires a person to be a direct subject of an act of violence to be considered traumatized. Experiencing, witnessing, being confronted, or informed with an act of violence against others can result in the development of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) in an individual (APA, 2000). According to *DSM-IV-TR,* results of trauma or traumatic events include inappropriate sexual experiences without threat, actual violence or injury. Traumatic events, according to the *DSM-IV-TR,* include the unnatural death of another person caused by violent assault, accident, or, unexpectedly seeing a dead body and/or body parts. Additionally, *DSM-IV-TR* criteria indicate a person may become traumatized in response to intense fear, helplessness or horror. Such events experienced by a person other than the one traumatized include, but are not limited to, violent personal assault, serious injury experienced by a family member, or the sudden or unexpected death of a family member. The long lasting effects of trauma are known as post traumatic stress

disorders (PTSD) by most mental health professionals. In clinical practice and experience, mental health professionals have seen signs and symptoms of PTSD reported by children who have only heard about an act of violence toward either their parents or siblings. Van der Kolk called the human reaction to trauma a "physioneurosis" (1987).

There are two different types of family trauma: existential and pathological trauma (Gorman, 2001). However, the *DSM-IV-TR's* definition of trauma does not make a distinction between the two. For instance, the loss of a loved one or the death of a family's pet due to natural causes can have traumatic effects on individuals who witness the event. However, the effect is not as long lasting or as damaging because people are resilient and adjust to existential situations rather quickly. This type of trauma is called existential trauma, and people who experience it, for the most part, accept it as a passage of life. This is different than pathological trauma. In this case, a person may see a loved one get killed in an unexpected accident. This traumatic event may have longer lasting effects. This paper will mostly concentrate on the pathological trauma and its implications within the family.

Family Environment and Vicarious Learning

Family violence is classified in three general categories: physical violence (including child and spousal beating), emotional violence (including verbal and non-verbal and/or negligence), and incest (including all types of sexual abuse) (Foshee, Bauman, & Linder, 1999; Gelles, 1987; O'Leary, 1993). Social thinkers have tried to explain family violence that results in trauma in unique ways (Bandura, 1978; Evans, 1989). Sociologists and feminist social theorists, in particular, blame class, race and social inequalities as possible sources for family violence and believe that until reforms and adjustments are made in social institutions, these issues will continue to exist (Benson, Fox, DeMaris, & Van Wyk, 2003; Bybee & Sullivan, 2002; Staggs, Long, Mason, Krishnan, & Riger, 2007). An example of this is found in the general public belief that poor or low-status individuals are more violent in their homes as compared to rich and high-status individuals.

Bowen (1978) demonstrated that the linear casualty model (A ➔B ➔C) is no longer the case in family dysfunction (Bowen, 1978). This model was replaced by the family system's more circular model where A may affect B, which may impinge on C, which may initially have influenced A. Moreover, researchers have discovered that functional as well as dysfunctional behaviors are passed from one generation to the next within a family system (Bowen, 1978). Each family is affected by at least seven generations of behaviors, and cultural family heritage continues to grow from one generation to the next.

Social learning theory is based on several assumptions (Bandura, 1978; Evans 1989), which include vicariously learning aggression through observing (Bandura, 1977). The Social Cognitive theory was formulated on the basis of the social learning theory, which concerned itself with the limitations of social behavior and observational learning (Eyal & Rubin, 2003). In 1978, Bandura stated that "a theory of human aggression should explain (a) how aggressive patterns are formed, (b) what provokes people to behave aggressively and (c) what sustains aggressive behavior" (p.19). Dorr & Kovaric (1980) suggested that familial and environmental background and observational learning conditions interact highly with the tendencies to influence a probable aggressive response. Both of these theories illustrate that people discover behaviors through vicarious learning; meaning one

does not need to get engaged in an actual behavior directly to learn or model it. Thus, simply witnessing a behavior is sufficient to learn and later behave in the same manner. This conclusion helps explain the reason that the majority of researchers believe that family violence is repeated from one generation to the next (Bowen, 1978).

Different types of family violence may be the result of individual mental disorders. Most offenders have been victims at one point in their lives and as a result, they continue the cycle of violence (Downs, Miller, Testa, & Panek, 1992; Dutton & Hart, 1992; Fagan, Stewart, & Hansen, 1983; Marshall & Rose, 1990; Murphy, Meyer, & O'Leary, 1993; Simons, Wu, Johnson, & Conger, 1995 ; Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980). Regardless of how one explains the origin of family violence, the solution may lie in breaking the cycle of violence as the first step (Abbassi, 2008). Two of the most widely cited statistics by Carlson (1984) and Straus (1992) estimated that at least "3.3 million children yearly are at risk of exposure to parental violence" (p. 160). Straus (1992) estimated that "at least a third of American children have witnessed violence between their parents, and most have endured repeated instances" of

violence (p. 98). Many studies (Edleson & Beeman, 1999; Fantuzzo & Lindquist, 1989; Fantuzzo & Mohr, 1999; Holtzworth-Munroe, Smutzler, & Sandin, 1997; Jaffe & Sudermann, 1995; Kashani, Daniel, Dandoy, & Holcomb, 1992; Margolin, 1998; Rossman, 2001) indicated that most children who have developed PTSD have been exposed to domestic violence and abuse.

Among the different types of trauma, sexual trauma is the most predictive of risky behavior and seems to be more devastating, particularly for children and women (Batten, Follette, & Aban, 2001; Brener, McMahon, Warren, & Douglas, 1999). As sexual trauma may not only hurt physically, sexual trauma can also create feelings of guilt, shame, betrayal, trust and self-blame in abused children. One of the common issues that sexually abused children deal with is feeling as though they have caused the incident or deserved it in some way (Batten, Follette, & Aban, 2001). Batten, Follette and Aban (2001) looked at the relationship between risky sexual behaviors and childhood abuse. Individuals with sexual assault or abuse histories are likely to engage in risky sexual behaviors and other types of self-destructive behaviors as they grow older.

Implications for counseling

Trauma within the family may further discourage a teenager from seeking the advice of parents about risk-taking. Minuchin (1974) argued that children in the adolescent stage of life need structure. Without proper structure teens can get lost in the complexities of life. Furthermore, more often than not, abusive dysfunctional families may not provide the structure needed to support adolescents from participating in risky behavior, or may not provide appropriate supervision to reduce this behavior. Parents in abusive families were reported to be more verbally abusive and not likely to exhibit behavior that is considered emotionally healthy (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinard, 1998). Researchers (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinard, 1998; Grych & Finchem, 1990) suggested that a teen that is not connected to his or her parents would also be more likely to seek out mates for intimacy beyond what might be desired by an individual who received love and affection in his or her own family.

Even though the family may not be the only socialization agent of a child's life, the family may be the most salient factor in respect to the development of the child's emotional understanding (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinard, 1998; Grych & Finchem, 1990). Many times, family experiences and interactions teach children about social interactions, including what others may be thinking or feeling and how those feelings and thoughts are managed and expressed (Cassidy, Parke, Butkovsky, & Braungart, 1992; Davies & Cummings, 1994; Dunn, 1995; Dunn & Munn,1985; Garner, Jones, & Miner, 1994; Nixon & Watson 2001; Saarni, 1990). Bjorkqvist (1997) suggested that an adolescent's identification with the roles of his or her parents as role models created imitations in his or her behavior. Counselors may wish to focus on how children view their roles and what is modeled in the family system.

Children witnessing domestic violence exhibit more externalized behaviors such as aggression, antisocial behaviors, and oppositional defiance (Fantuzzo, DePaola, Lambert, Martino, Anderson, & Sutton, 1991; Hughes, 1988; Hughes, Parkinson & Vargo, 1989). In addition, they may experience or exhibit symptoms association with internalizing behaviors such as phobia, separation anxiety, being reserved, lower self-esteem, lower self-respect, and lower social competence as compared to other children (Adamson & Thompson, 1998; Fantuzzo et al., 1991). Children witnessing violence may also suffer more

from anxiety, depression, PTSD symptoms and develop temperamental problems (Hughes, 1988; Maker, Kemmelmeier & Peterson, 1998; Sternberg, Lamb, Greenbaum, Cicchetti, Dawud, Cortes, Krispin, & Lorey, 1993). Children become maladjusted when caregivers are consistently unreliable, absent, and/or unresponsive (Dutton, 2000). Thus, these maladjustments also delay or destroy the child's ability to develop a trusting and secure attachment to the primary caregiver. These maladjustments, if externalized, produce attachment disorders which can result in anger toward others, and, if internalized, produce depression and grief (Dutton, 2000).

Adaptive as well as maladaptive behaviors are learned in the same manner. Bandura (1977) suggested that there is an interaction of personal, behavioral and environmental variables which lend in the development and acquiring of aggressive tendencies (Eyal & Rubin, 2003). For example, childhood trauma may stem from the experience of parental shaming, poor attachment, and direct physical abuse from the primary core of abusive personality. Individuals with an abusive personality may struggle to appropriately transform their aggression and as adults often abuse their partners (Alpert, Brown,

& Courtois, 1998; van der Kolk, 1987; van der Kolk & Fisler, 1994). Other factors thought to be crucial for learning positive or negative trades include symbolizing, self-efficacy, self regulation, self-reflection, and forethought (Bandura, 1978; Evans, 1989). Emphasizing healthy adaptive behaviors and discouraging maladaptive behaviors is key to working with children of abuse and preventing the cycle of violence from continuing.

Counselors should also be proactive in dismissing existing myths and stereotypes that the issues of trauma and violence are always initiated by males. Studies have shown that women initiate acts of intimate violence as often as men (Straus, 2005). However, both male and female partner violence is overwhelmingly utilized as a method of coercive control (Fiebert & Gonzales, 1997; Medeiros & Straus, 2006).

Conclusion

There is a distinct relationship between family violence, trauma and how children may easily imitate behaviors they learn by either hearing or witnessing them at home. Once children are traumatized through violence in the family, they may become more likely to induce unnecessarily difficulties in their own lives and later

traumatize their own offspring, as the vicious cycle of violence continues.

Working with couples that have an insight into how violence can become a part of their family tradition helps to reduce the frequency or perhaps stop the violent and traumatic behavior altogether. Overall, understanding the concept of vicarious learning has been a very effective technique in helping families. One of the effective techniques that the authors of this paper use in couples therapy is to ask the victim, as well as the perpetrator, whether they are aware of the fact that they are modeling this behavior for their own children. Often partners are surprised when they learn that even if by chance their offspring marries someone who is not violent, they may not know how to handle calm and non-chaotic marriage life, thus potentially leading to a failed marriage. Once this insight is developed and comprehended by the couple, further steps can be taken to ensure that children are not exposed to such scenes which may permanently damage their future relationships indirectly and perhaps at an unconscious level.

References

Abbassi, A. (2008). Social learning theory and family violence. *Encyclopedia of Interpersonal Violence.* Renzetti, C.,M & Edleson, J.L. (Eds) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Reference.

Adamson, J. L. & Thompson, R. A. (1998). Coping with interparental verbal conflict by children exposed to spouse abuse and children from nonviolent homes. *Journal of Family Violence, 13,* 213-232.

Adler, A. (1956). *The individual psychology of Alfred Adler* (H. L. Ansbacher & R. R. Ansbacher, Eds.). New York: Basic Books.

Alpert, J. L., Brown, L. S., & Courtois, C. A. (1998). Symptomatic clients and memories of childhood abuse what the trauma and child sexual abuse literature tell us. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 4* (4), 941-995.

American Psychiatric Association(1987), *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (3rd ed.) Washington, DC: Author.

American Psychiatric Association. (2000). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Bakan, D. (1971). *Slaughter of the innocents: A study of the battered child phenomenon.* Boston, Mass: Beacon.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1978). Social learning theory of aggression. *Journal of Communication. 28*(3), 12-29.

Barnett, Miller-Perrin & Perrin (2005). *Family violence across lifespan* (2nd Ed.). London, Sage publication Inc.

Batten, S. V., Follette, V.M., & Aban, I.B. (2001). Experiential avoidance and high-risk sexual behavior in survivors of child sexual abuse. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 10,* 101-120.

Benson, M. L., Fox, G. L., DeMaris, A., & Van Wyk, J. (2003). Neighborhood disadvantage, individual economic distress and violence against women in intimate relationships. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 19,* 207-235.

Bjorkqvist, K. (1997). Learning aggression from models: From a social learning toward a cognitive theory of modeling. In S. Feshback & J. Zagrodzka (Eds.), *Aggression: Biological, developmental, and social perspectives.* NY: Plenum Press.

Bowen, M. (1978). *Family therapy in clinical practice.* NY: Jason Aronson.

Brener, McMahon, Warren, & Douglas (1999). Forced sexual intercourse and associated health-risk behaviors among female college students in the United States. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 67,* 252-259

Bybee, D. I., & Sullivan, C. M. (2002). The process through which an advocacy intervention resulted in positive change for battered women over time. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 30,* 103-132.

Carlson, B. E. (1984). Children's observations of interparental violence. In A. R. Roberts (Ed.), Battered women and their families. NY: Springer.

Cassidy, J., Parke, R.D., Butkovsky, L., & Braungart, J.M. (1992). Family-peer connections: The role of emotional expressiveness within the family and children's understanding of emotions. *Child Development. 63,* 603-618.

Davies, P., & Cummings, E.M. (1994). Marital conflict and child adjustment: An emotional security hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin. 116,* 387-411.

Dorr, A. & Kovaric, P. (1980). Some people some of the time-but which people? Televised violence and its effects. In E.L. Plamer & A. Dorr (Eds). *Children and the faces of television: Teaching, Violence, Selling.* New York: Academic press.

Downs, W. R., Miller, B. A., Testa, M., & Panek, D. (1992). Long-term effects of parent-to-child violence for women. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 7,* 365-382.

Dunn, J. (1995). *Connections between emotion and understanding in development. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Asso*ciates Ltd., Publishers

Dunn, J. & Munn, P. (1985). Becoming a family member: Family conflict and the development of social understanding in the second year. *Child Development.* 764-774.

Dutton, D. G., & Hart, S. D. (1992). Risk markers for family violence in a federally incarcerated population. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry, 15,* 101-112.

Dutton, M. A. (2000). *Empowering and Healing the Battered Women: A model for assessment and intervention.* New York. Springer.

Edleson, J. L., & Beeman, S. B. (1999). *Final Report: Responding to the co-occurrence of child maltreatment and adult domestic violence in Hennepin County, St. Paul, MN.* Retrieved August 4, 2009, from University of Minnesota: http://www.mincava.umn.edu

Eisenberg, N., Cumberland, A., & Spinrad, T. L. (1998). Parental socialization of emotion. *Psychological Inquiry. 9,* 241-273.

Evans, R. I. (1989). *Albert Bandura: The man and his ideas-a-dialogue.* NY: Praeger.

Eyal, K. & Rubin, A. M. (2003). Viewer aggression and homophily, identification, and parasocial relationships with television characters. J*ournal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media. 47*(1), 77-95.

Fagan, J. A., Stewart, D. K., & Hansen, K. V. (1983). Violent men or violent husbands? Background factors and situational correlates. In D.Finkelhor, R. J.Gelles, G. T. Hotaling, & M. A.Straus (Eds.), *The dark side of families: Current family violence research* (pp. 49-67). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Fantuzzo, J. & Lindquist, C (1989). The effects of observing conjugal violence on children. *Journal of Family Violence. 4* (1), 77-94

Fantuzzo, J. & Mohr, W. (1999) Prevalence and effect of child exposure to domestic violence. *The Future of Children: Domestic Violence and Children.* (3), 21-32

Fantuzzo, J. W., DePaola, L. M., Lambert, L., Martino, T., Anderson, G., & Sutton, S. (1991). Effects of interparental violence on the psychological adjustment and competencies of young children. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology. 59*(2), 258-266.

Fiebert, M. S. & Gonzales, M. D. (1997) College women who initiate assaults on their male partners and the reasons offered for such behaviors. *Psychological Reports 80,* 583-590.

Foshee, V. A., Bauman, K. E., & Linder, G. F. (1999). Family violence and perpetration of adolescent dating violence: Examining social learning and social control processes. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61,* 331-342.

Garner, P. W., Jones, D. C. & Miner, J. L. (1994). Social competence among low-income preschoolers: Emotion socialization practice and social cognitive correlates. *Child Development. 65,* 622-637.

Gelles, R. J. (1980). Violence in the family: A review of research in the seventies. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42* (4), 873-885

Gelles, R. J. (1985). Family Violence. *Annual Review of Sociology, 11,* 347-367.

Gelles, R. J. (1987) Family violence. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Gorman, W. (2001). Refugee survivors of torture: Trauma and treatment. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 32* (5), 443-451.

Grych, J.H., Finchem, F. D. (1990) Marital conflict and children's adjustment: A cognitive-contextual framework. *Psychological Bulletin. 108* (2), 267-290.

Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Smutzler, N., Saadin, E. (1997). A brief review of research on husband violence part I: Maritally violent versus nonviolent men. A*ggression and Violent Behavior. 2*(1), 65-99.

Hughes, H. M. (1988). Psychological and behavioral correlates of family violence in child witness and victims. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. 58,* 77-90.

Hughes, H. M., Parkinson, D. & Vargo, M. (1989). Witnessing spouse abuse and experiencing physical abuse. *Journal of Family Violence. 4,* 197-209.

Jaffe, P. G. & Suderman, M. (1995). Child witnesses of woman abuse: Research and community responses. In S. M. Stith & M. A. Straus (Eds.), *Understanding partner violence.* Minneapolis, MN: National Council on Family Relations.

Kashani, J. H., Daneil, A. E., Dandoy, A. C., Holcomb, W.R. (1992). Family Violence: Impact on children. *Journal of American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry. 31* (2), 181-189.

Korbin, J. (1981). *Child abuse and neglect: Cross-cultural perspectives.* Berkeley, CA: University California Press. Calif. Press

Levesque, R. J. R. (2001). *Culture and family violence.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Maker, A. H., Kemmelmeier, M. & Peterson, C. (1998). Long-term psychological consequences in women of witnessing parental physical conflict and experiencing abuse in childhood. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence. 13,* 574-589.

Margolin, G. (1998). There effects of domestic violence on children. In P.K. Trickett & C. Schellenbach (Eds.). *Violence against children in the family and the community.* American Psychological Association. Washington, D.C.

Marshall, L. L., & Rose, P. (1990). Premarital violence: The impact of family of origin violence, stress, and reciprocity. *Violence and Victims, 5,* 51-64.

Medeiros, R. A. & Straus, M. A. (2006). Gender differences in risk factors for physical violence between dating partners by university students. *Intimate Violence Intervention Study Group Meeting.* New York University.

Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and Family Therapy.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.

Murphy, C. M., Meyer, S., & O'Leary, K. D. (1993). Family of origin violence and MCMI-II psychopathology among partner assaultive men. *Violence and Victims, 8,* 165-176.

Nixon, C. L., Watson, A. C. (2001). Family Experiences and Early Emotion Understanding. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly. 47*(2), 300-322.

O'Leary, K. D. (1993). Through a psychological lens: Personality traits, personality disorders, and levels of violence. In R. J. Gelles & D. R. Loseke (Eds.), *Current controversies on family violence* (pp.7-30). Newbury Parks, CA: Sage.

Potter, W. J. (1999). *On Media Violence.* London:Sage.

Radbill, S. (1980). A history of child abuse and infanticide. In R. Helfer & C. Kempe (Eds.), The Battered Child (3rd ed.) (pp. 3-20). Chicago: University of Chicago Press. Ratner, H. H., & Stettner, L. J. (1991). Thinking and feeling: Putting Humpty Dumpty together again. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly. 37* (1), 1-26

Ripoll-Nunez, K. J., & Rohner, R. P. (2006). Corporal punishment in cross-cultural perspective: Directions for a research agenda. *Cross-Cultural Research, 40* (3), 220-249.

Rossman, B.B.R. (2001). Long term effects of exposure to adult domestic violence. In Graham-Bermann, S.A. and Edleson, J.L. (Eds.) *Domestic violence in the lives of children: The future of research, intervention, and social policy* (pp. 35-66). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Saarni, C. (1990). Emotional competence: How emotions and relationships become integrated. In R. A. Thompson, (Ed.) *Socioemotional development* (115-182). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Shorter, E. (1975). *The making of the modern family.* New York: Basic

Simons, R., Wu, C., Johnson, C., & Conger, R. D. (1995). A test of various perspectives on the intergenerational transmission of domestic violence. Criminology, 33, 141-171.

Staggs, S. L., Long, S. M., Mason, G. E., Krishnan, S., & Riger, S. (2007). Intimate partner violence, social support, and employment in the postwelfare reform era. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 22,* 345-367.

Sternberg, K. J., Lamb, M. E., Greenbaum, C., Cicchetti, D., Dawud, S., Cortes, R. M., Krispin, O. & Lorey, F. (1993) Effects of domestic violence on children's behavior problem and depression. *Developmental Psychology. 29*(11), 44-52.

Straus, M. A., Gelles, R. J., & Steinmetz, S. K. (1980). *Behind closed doors: Violence in the American family.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

Straus, MA. 1992. Children as witnesses to marital violence: a risk factor of lifelong problems among a nationally representative sample of American men and women. In D.F. Schwarz (Ed) *Children and Violence: Report of the Twenty-Third Ross Roundtable on Critical Approaches to Common Pediatric Problems.* (98-119). Columbus, OH: Ross Lab.

Straus, M. A. (2005). Woman's violence toward men is a serious social problem. In D. R. Loseke, R. I. Gelles & M. Cavanaugh, *Current Controversies on Family Violence* (2nd Ed.). Sage publication Inc.

Taylor, L., Newberger, E. H.(1979). Child abuse in the international year of the child. *New England. J. Med. 301,* 1205-1212.

Van der Kolk, B. A. (1987). *Psychological Trauma.* Washington DC: American Psychiatric Publishing Inc.

Van der Kolk, B. A., & Fisler, R. E. (1994). Childhood abuse and neglect and loss of self-regulation. *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic, 58,* 145-168.

Critical Incidents in Practicum Supervision: Supervisees' Perspectives

Heather C. Trepal, Ph.D.
Jillian Bailie, M.A.
Christopher Leeth, M.A.
The University of Texas at San Antonio

Trainees *(N= 25) were asked to describe a critical incident occurring during practicum supervision that contributed to their growth as a counselor. Categories of themes and resulting subthemes emerged and included (a) positive/supportive (feedback, observation/vicarious learning, and normalizing), (b) neutral (re-evaluation), and (c) negative/harmful (lack of support and unprofessionalism). Results and implications of the study are discussed.*

Practicum is typically the first opportunity students have to put their theoretical knowledge to use in a professional setting. Numerous authors have underscored the importance of practicum in counselor training and development. For example, Ryan, Toohey, and Hughes (1996) argued that the practicum experience is seen by both educators and students as a vital part of a counselor-in-training's education. Students view practicum as a time to practice and apply the theories and skills they have learned. Practicum also provides students an opportunity to experience and test how well they

fit into the field of counseling. Field-based experiences enhance the students' career prospects, by giving them exposure to professionals in their area. Many students report that this practical learning is the most important part of their education, and feel it is where they gain the most knowledge (Daresh, 1990).

As mandated by the profession through accreditation guidelines and ethical codes, (American Counseling Association, ACA, 2005; Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, CACREP, 2009), students must receive supervision while providing counseling services. In addition, CACREP standards emphasize specific weekly individual and group supervision requirements for practicum (CACREP, 2009, Section III. F). Thus, supervision is an integral part of the practicum experience.

Authors have devoted attention to the particular role of supervision and its effects on counselor development. The supervisory relationship and the interactions inherent in such an ongoing task can have an effect, both positive and negative, on counselor development (Ladany, Hill, Corbett, & Nutt, 1996). While practicum supervision is typically a positive experience for students, this is not always the

case. Supervisors who are "poor, uneven" or have a "lack or experience" can drastically change the outcome of a student's practicum, thus making supervision a very important part of this initial practical learning experience (Ryan et al., 1996, p. 360). Although research exists on practicum students and their experiences of supervision, extant research examining perceptions of the effects of supervision on development as counselors is scant.

Critical incidents and counselor preparation

Critical incidents, or the critical incident technique (CIT), have been cited as an exploratory tool and qualitative methodology that give participants an opportunity to select and describe specific "developmental turning points" relative to counselor development (Skovholt & McCarthy, 1988, p. 69). The CIT has been utilized to examine a number of aspects of supervision (Ellis, 1991; Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Rabinowitz, Heppner, & Roehlke, 1986) and counselor development (Furr, & Carroll, 2003; Howard, Inman, & Altman, 2006).

The critical incident technique has been used to study aspects of supervision, primarily focusing on the experiences of the supervisee. For example, Heppner and

Roehlke (1984) examined practicum students and interns perceptions of critical incidents from individual supervision sessions over the course of a semester. Critical incidents were categorized as self-awareness, professional development, competency, and personal issues affecting counseling. In addition, the authors found some support for a developmental progression in the supervision process. Beginning and advanced practicum students described more incidents related to support and self-awareness. Doctoral students reported more incidents about personal issues that affected their therapeutic work.

Rabinowitz, Heppner, and Roehlke (1986) continued this line of research by eliciting critical incidents and information about supervisory interventions per week from trainees of different levels (beginning level through doctoral interns). They concluded that all levels of trainees found supervisory support and treatment planning to be important. Ellis (1991) extended the previous research on supervision by asking both trainees and their beginning level supervisors to complete critical incidents on a weekly basis. Results indicated that issues involving the supervisory relationship and competence were more common that those of support or purpose in supervision.

Furr and Carroll (2003) studied master-level counseling students' experiences (beginning of program through internship) of critical incidents that contributed to their professional growth. Resulting themes included value conflicts, cognitive development, competency beliefs, professional development, perceived support and obstacles, personal growth in and outside of the program, and skill development. They further grouped these incidents into four clusters: belief, behavioral, cognitive, and affective. Participants in the field experience (practicum and internship) reported that many critical incidents occurring during this time contributed to their growth.

Howard, Inman, and Altman (2006) explored critical incidents that counseling students identified as contributing to their professional growth during their practicum. Through the use of weekly journals, they identified five themes of critical incidents: professional identity, personal reactions, competence, supervision, and philosophy of counseling. The supervision theme supported previous critical incident research in the areas of the importance of supervisory support (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984) and the existence of positive and negative experiences with practicum supervisors (Ladany

et al., 1996); thus further lending support for the relevance of supervision experiences on counselor development (Howard, Inman, & Altman). While others have begun to study critical incidents that occur in supervision (Ellis, 1991; Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Rabinowitz, Heppner, & Roehlke; 1986), and critical incidents in training that have had an impact on counselor development (Furr, & Carroll, 2003; Howard, Inman, & Altman, 2006), to date, students' experiences of critical incidents in their practicum supervision that contributed to their growth as a counselor have yet to be distinctly examined.

Method

Participants

Participants for this study were master-level counseling students currently enrolled in an internship course. All students had just completed an initial 100-hour practicum experience where they were supervised weekly at the university by either a faculty member or doctoral student and at their practicum site by a field supervisor. After obtaining Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, the researcher entered classes during the first week of internship and described the study in detail. A total of 25 counselors-in-training responded to the request and participated in the critical incident survey. Due to the small potential pool of participants, demographic information was not collected in order to further ensure anonymity

Critical Incident Technique

Using the Critical Incident Technique (CIT), participants were asked to provide a retrospective self-report. Specifically, they were asked to recall a critical incident that occurred during their practicum supervision the previous semester with either their on-site or university supervisor that in some way, either positively or negatively, influenced their development as a counselor. They were then asked to write a paragraph describing the critical incident and to rank the impact of the incident on a Likert-type scale similar to the one used by Toporek, Ortega-Villalobos, and Pope-Davis (2004).

The critical incident responses were analyzed according to category, a method consistent with Flanagan (1954) and are presented below. To establish credibility for the categories, three independent coders were asked to examine the 25 critical incidents and establish categories. Finally, an independent coder was given the categories and asked to place the incidents within them (consistent with

recommendations provided by Butterfield, Borgen, Amundson, and Maglio, 2005).

Results

Critical Incident Experiences

Participant responses to the critical incidents question were analyzed according to each category of responses: positive/supportive (n = 14); middle-of-the-road (n=4); and negative/harmful (n = 7). Then, sub-categories were formed from each of the three overarching groups. The subthemes for the positive/supportive category include: (a) *feedback,* (b) *observation/vicarious learning,* and (c) *normalizing*. The subtheme for the neutral category was re-evaluation. Finally, subthemes for the negative/harmful category include: (a) *lack of support* and (b) *unprofessionalism*. Each category and the subthemes are described and quotations from the critical incident responses are used to add context, enhance meaning, and provide a thick description of the participants' experiences.

Positive/Supportive Themes

Feedback. A positive/supportive theme of the critical incidents for the students in this study was that the supervisors provided them with feedback. It seems from the results of this study and those of others in the literature (Arthur & Gfroerer, 2002; Heckman-Stone, 2003) that feedback is desired by supervisees. What has been indicated is that supervisees desire ongoing and consistent feedback (Heckman-Stone, 2003) and this study illuminated the importance of feedback during practicum supervision. This was captured in a number of ways as the following two examples illustrate:

> The first time (mid-semester) I sat down with my supervisor to complete the required evaluation of my skills was the first time I recall receiving substantial feedback from my site supervisor. My supervisor asked me for my opinions on each item and we discussed my strengths and weaknesses concerning key items. This incident led to a more feedback-rich supervision environment and significantly decreased the discomfort I had thus far experienced in supervision.

> It happened just after the first session I had during practicum. I was very nervous and insecure. My supervisor was observing the whole session and at the end gave me wonderful and positive insight, especially saying that he didn't notice I was nervous and that I had done a very good job.

Observation/Vicarious Learning. Practicum students were given the opportunity to observe their site supervisors providing counseling services. In some instances, the practicum student watched the supervisor speak to clients, while other times, supervisors allowed the student to co-counsel. Students were able to witness more experienced counselors perform counseling and this fostered confidence and passion. Instances can be seen in the following quotes:

> This was an amazing experience that allowed me to be fully immersed with my supervisor, yet also be able to watch how he handled rough situations and ethical dilemmas. This exposure had given me confidence and shaped how I have developed into a counselor.

> Had a child that was out-of-control and the supervisor/professor talked to the mom about the child. He did it in a way that I learned a great deal about how to deal with parents and unruly children.

Normalizing. Literature suggests that practicum students are often worried about issues of competence and effectiveness (Jordin & Kelly, 2004). Normalizing can be described as helping practicum students realize that all counselors make mistakes and occasionally feel some insecurity when seeing clients. An example of normalizing is depicted in the quote below:

> Both my on-site and university supervisor mentioned the importance of realizing that they "still don't have all the answers" and at times "still stumble through an intervention or two."

In summary, the practicum students in this study recalled the supervisory interventions of providing feedback, normalizing and experiences with observation as positively impacting their development as counselors. It is interesting to note that over half of the critical incidents given were in the positive/supportive category.

Neutral Themes

Re-evaluations. The neutral theme category included critical incidents where students described re-considering previous ideas about how to handle situations with clients. Often, supervisors provided some

guidance and support that facilitated the students' learning and development. The following quotes provide examples of this theme:

> Early on in practicum I was confronted by a client in the treatment center I was interning in on whether or not I myself was, or is in recovery. I personally do not believe in self disclosure, especially with clients where this knowledge may not be beneficial. I spoke with both my onsite and university supervisors and I have recognized that I will need to reevaluate my stringent views on personal self disclosure.

> The incident that I am referring to has to do with ethical standards that have to be followed regarding a suspicion of child abuse. The negative part of the experience refers to my on-site supervisor and the attitude and demeanor with which my concern for the client was handled. The positive part was that I did receive a supportive attitude from course supervisor and received the necessary guidance to handle the situation.

Negative/Harmful Themes

Lack of Support. There were some situations where students did not feel supported by their supervisors. The lack of support may have been an oversight, such as when a student expected more attention during a stressful situation. The following critical incidents are examples of a lack of supervisor support:

> The nature of the incident dealt with sexual harassment by a client...I consulted with staff and the practicum supervisor and it was addressed. However I did not receive any support regarding dealing as well as coping with the incident.

> I was at a very popular but small site with many other interns and staff members. I had a very good supervisor who gave us ample information and examples of what to say; I felt lost among the 'bustle'; I couldn't get my hours to coordinate with the clients; hence I barely got my hours in with no shows, etc...I felt like I had no control of getting my clients/hours.

Unprofessionalism. A recurrent theme from the negative critical incidents was unprofessional behavior from on-site supervisors. One entry detailed manipula-

tion and a lack of confidentiality from the supervisor. Another student explained that because a supervisor was not professional, the student had to go for weeks without any supervision. Perhaps the most serious offense involved potential "sabotage" from the on-site supervisor:

> The site supervisor worked in collaboration with another entity and the intern students received clients from the other entity. The supervisor would inquire specifically about what or whether or not the clients had anything to say about the director of the other entity-who happened to be a personal friend…It was apparent that the site supervisor had been discussing things with the other entity's supervisor…In my opinion, it bordered on manipulation and/or coercion.

> When the semester started, I was placed under a certain supervisor. I had several conversations over the phone with her in order to set up an appointment with her to meet, but she kept putting me off. She finally was honest with me and told she was not comfortable being a supervisor to someone in a different office that started the process without her being involved. I understood where she was

coming from, but I felt she could have handled it differently. She could have told me sooner as I was without a supervisor for weeks…I felt disappointed by my first experience with a supervisor.

There were several occasions of miscommunication throughout this time. Eventually I began to realize the possibility that the LPC-I was sabotaging my practicum experience. For whatever reason, she had determined that my style of counseling was wrong and must be corrected, and she would do whatever possible to see me fail.

During the practicum at the site, the site supervisor was very negative towards me…It was a territorial situation and because I was only temporary it seemed best for the site supervisor to side with her coworkers. I was treated as an outsider from then on. I never felt part of the team.

In summary, critical incidents in the negative/harmful theme involved poor supervisory behaviors. Students noticed unprofessional, and even unethical practices. The critical incidents revealed that supervisees can and do notice when aspects of supervision are not working and

when supervisor behaviors are not appropriate.

Discussion

Nevertheless, the results of this study provide information on supervisees' perspectives on their supervision experiences in practicum. The results revealed three categories (positive/helpful, neutral, and negative/harmful) of critical incidents with specific subcategories for each. Over half of the 25 critical incidents (n=14) were in the positive/helpful category, perhaps confirming that supervisees' see supervision as important and useful for their development as counselors. The positive/helpful incidents also provide evidence for the functional role of practicum supervision. Supervisory interventions that contributed to the most positive critical incidents involved feedback, normalizing, and providing opportunities for observational learning. Future researchers may try and operationalize these terms, measure their effect on growth of supervisees and support best supervision practices in these areas. These strategies can also be considered in terms of counselor educators and supervisors.

While confidentiality and anonymity were concerns, it is possible that the counselors-in-training felt pressured to respond in a positive light, thus explaining the majority of positive/helpful critical incidents. Further, these critical incidents were gathered in the semester after they occurred, perhaps not leaving enough time for the students to become professional counselors and reflect on their initial clinical training experiences with supervision. It might have been useful to compare the supervisees' perceptions with those of their supervisors, in relation to incidents that contributed to their growth as a counselor. The purpose of qualitative research is not to generalize findings to a larger population. Nevertheless, readers should be mindful when attempting to transfer the themes and concepts from this study to other populations or settings.

Implications for Counselor Education

The findings from this study have implications for counselor education faculty who are charged with training students and working with supervisors. With regard to the positive/helpful critical incidents, practicum supervisors seem to play a paramount role in instilling confidence in students and their own abilities. This echoes the findings of others regarding the significance of the supervisor and supervisee relationships during training. In fact, support has also been

found to be crucial to the supervisory relationship in a number of critical incident studies (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984; Rabinowitz, Heppner, & Roehlke, 1986). Support was very critical to the students in this study as evidenced by the critical incidents in the positive and negative categories that referred to this theme.

Based on the results of this study, educators and supervisors can be reminded of the importance of several supervisory interventions; specifically feedback, normalizing, and providing opportunities for observational learning. Participants' critical incidents in supervision that they thought most positively and supportively contributed to their professional development as a counselor were those involving feedback. The literature on clinical supervision has been varied on the availability, frequency, and the quality of feedback provided by supervisors (Heckman-Stone, 2003). Supervisors are encouraged to seek out ways to provide helpful feedback, to normalize supervisees' experiences when appropriate, and to provide opportunities for observation of their work with clients when possible.

In addition, the negative/harmful category responses also provide some guidance for educators and supervisors. Given the incidents describing unprofessional and even unethical behavior, there is a need to educate both students and supervisors about supervision and appropriate supervisory practices and this has been supported by other research (Nelson & Friedlander, 2001). It may be important for counselor educators to clarify supervisor expectations with both student supervisees as well as supervisors. In addition, mechanisms should be in place for reporting, and the investigation and remediation of supervisors when negative experiences arise. There are several sources for continued guidance in making these assessments (Jacobs, 1991).

Limited evidence regarding supervisees' perspectives of effective or helpful practicum supervision exists. Thus, future research on effective supervision, both from the supervisee and supervisor perspectives, seems warranted. The process of becoming a counselor is complex and not yet understood in its entirety. Counselor educators and supervisors who are charged with the responsibility of training future counselors are called to find ways to continue to promote their professional development while also learning from them what training experiences most impacted their professional development.

References

American Counseling Association. (2005). *Code of ethics and standards of practice.* Alexandria, VA: Author.

Arthur, G.L., & Gfroerer, K.P. (2002). Training and supervision through the written word: A description and intern feedback. *Family Journal, 10,* 213-219.

Butterfield, L.D., Borgen, W.A., Amundson, M.E., & Maglio, A.T. (2005). The critical incident technique: 1954-2004 and beyond. *Qualitative Research, 5,* 475-497.

Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs. (2009). CACREP accreditation manual: 2009 standards. Alexandria, VA: Author.

Daresh, N. S. (1990). Learning by doing: Research on the educational administration practicum. *Journal of Educational Administration, 28,* 34-47.

Ellis, M. (1991). Critical incidents in clinical supervision and in supervisor supervision: Assessing supervisory issues. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38,* 342-349.

Flanagan, J.C. (1954). The critical incident technique. *Psychological Bulletin, 51,* 327-358.

Furr, S. R., & Carroll, J. J. (2003). Critical incidents in student counselor development. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 81,* 483-489.

Heckman-Stone, C. (2003). Trainee preferences for feedback and evaluation in clinical supervision. *The Clinical Supervisor, 22,* 21-33.

Heppner, P., & Roehlke, H. (1984). Differences among supervisees at different levels of training: Implications for a developmental model of supervision. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 31,* 76-90.

Howard, E.E., Inman, A.G., & Altman, A.N. (2006). Critical incidents among novice counselor trainees. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 46,* 88-102.

Jacobs, C. (1991). Violations of the supervisory relationship: An ethical and educational blind spot. *Social Work, 36,* 130-135.

Jordin, K., & Kelly, W. E. (2004). Beginning practicum students' worries: A qualitative investigation. *Counseling and Clinical Psychology Journal, 1,* 100-105.

Ladany, N., Hill, C., Corbett, M., & Nutt, E. (1996). Nature, extent, and importance of what psychotherapy trainees do not disclose to their supervisors. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 43,* 10-24.

Nelson, M.L., & Friedlander, M.L. (2001). A close look at conflictual supervisory relationships: The trainees' perspective. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 48,* 384-396.

Rabinowitz, F., Heppner, P., & Roehlke, H. (1986). Descriptive study of process and outcome variables of supervision over time. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 33,* 292-300.

Ryan, G., Toohey, S., & Hughes, C. (1996). The purpose, value, and structure of the practicum in higher education: A literature review. *Higher Education, 35,* 287-294.

Skovholt, T. M., & McCarthy, P. R. (1988). Critical incidents: Catalysts for counselor development. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 67,* 69-72.

Toporek, R.L., Ortega-Villalobos, L., & Pope-Davis, D.B. (2004). Critical incidents in multicultural supervision: Exploring supervisees' and supervisors' experiences. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 32,* 66-83.

Specialty Training in Counselor Education Programs: An Exploratory Study

Richard C. Henriksen Jr.
Judith Nelson
Richard E. Watts
Sam Houston State University

We investigated the training of licensed professional counselors in Texas by focusing on how students receive expertise in specialty areas such as substance abuse, sexual concerns, domestic violence, play therapy, family therapy, and art and music therapy. A mail survey elicited responses from department chairs or program directors of community counseling programs. Results of the survey were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively and indicated that most participating programs offer coursework in specialty areas designed to prepare students to work with a wide variety of client issues in counseling.

Recently, the ability of Licensed Professional Counselors (LPCs) to counsel clients with presenting problems including sex offender issues, substance abuse, and family counseling has been questioned. The reason for this questioning appears to be the belief that certain certifications or specialized training render only a minority of counselors able to conduct counseling sessions that might deal with these specialized issues. For

---

example, Texas recently passed legislation that licenses sex offender counselors separate from licensure as a professional counselor. LPCs may believe their licenses are under attack by some groups and that their abilities are being misrepresented to the public. In general, LPCs incorporate a wellness model into their work that benefits many clients (Myers & Sweeney, 2005). Also, the American Counseling Association's Code of Ethics (2005) strictly prohibits working with clients on issues clearly outside the counselor's expertise. Our study examined the various delivery methods of specialized training in counselor education programs and specifically looked at the range of opportunities available to counselor trainees to expand their knowledge and expertise. We first examined the literature to determine what, if any, issues are relevant to specialty training in counseling.

Relevant Literature

Specialty Areas

The American Counseling Association (ACA, 1997) defined professional counseling as "the application of mental health, psychological or human development principles, through cognitive, affective, behavioral or systematic intervention strategies, that address wellness, personal growth, or career development, as well as pathology" (¶ 1). ACA (1997) further defined a professional counseling specialty as "narrowly focused, requiring advanced knowledge in the field founded on the premise that all Professional Counselors must first meet the requirements for the general practice of professional counseling" (¶ 2). These definitions indicate that counseling specialties are the result of additional training that go beyond the foundational training and preparation as a professional counselor. Specialties, according to the aforementioned definitions, do not define counseling but rather identify counseling practices for specific issues faced by clients. Taleff and Swisher (1997) noted that the alcohol and substance abuse field early on developed a master's trained specialty that had professional counselor training as a foundation. The National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC) currently provides certification for three counseling specialties: The National Certified School Counselor, the Certified Clinical Mental Health Counselor, and the Master Addictions Counselor (NBCC, 2009). Each of these specialty certifications requires training in the skills of a professional counselor and in the counseling specialty. Clearly, counseling is defined as

a profession with specific skills and training requirements that can be used in a wide variety of situations. Specialty training is designed more for specific counseling settings rather than the general practice of counseling and is often obtained in work settings under supervision.

Unification versus Specialization

Questions regarding the unity of the counseling profession have concerned leaders in the field since the founding of the American Personnel and Guidance Association in 1952 (Sweeney, 1995); however, few articles regarding specialization and unification within the profession have been written since the early and middle 1990's (Gale & Austin, 2003; Hosie, 1995; Watts, 2004). The unity of professional counselors remains a key topic of interest at professional conferences and business meetings in the early 21st century. Brian Canfield, ACA Past President, addressed this issue in the President's column in *Counseling Today* (February, 2008) when he asked: "How do we maintain the autonomy of specialization areas - such as school counselor, mental health counselor, marriage and family counselor and so forth - and concurrently integrate these identified groups

into a unified counseling profession? 'Autonomy' and 'common identity' are not mutually exclusive concepts, but we have yet to find the balance in terms of counselor identity" (p. 5). Citing Bateson's (1971) *Steps to an Ecology of Mind,* Canfield (March, 2008) noted the importance of boundaries around an entity (e.g. a profession) in order for that entity to maintain an identity. However, these boundaries must be sufficiently permeable to allow essential outside information inside or the entity will atrophy and die.

ACA recognizes the master's degree as the entry level for professional counselors and is inclined to view counselors as generalists (Myers, 1995). However, the number of ACA divisions continues to grow and now includes 19 specialty areas defined by work settings, client populations, techniques, skill sets, and specific bodies of knowledge. Although state licensure has been an integral part of the recognition of counseling as a viable profession, issues surrounding specialty areas in counseling become even more complex with states credentialing counselors in a variety of ways. Some states regulate specialty areas, others do not. The Model Legislation for Licensed Professional Counselors (Glosoff, Benshoff, Hosie, & Maki, 1994) supports the idea of

licensure boards establishing standards for specialty counseling. On the other hand, Remley (1995) noted that other disciplines (e.g. psychiatry, psychology, and social work) do not license separate specialty areas.

One dilemma regarding counseling specialties is the various definitions professionals ascribe to specialties that often overlap and influence each other (Sweeney, 1995). According to the *ACA Manual of Policies and Procedures* (2008), to be recognized by ACA as a counseling specialization, the specialty area must achieve specialty recognition through the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), the Council on Rehabilitation Education (CORE), a voluntary national certification must be made available through the National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC), or the Commission on Rehabilitation Certification (CRCC). All specialty program areas must require "a minimum of a master's degree in counseling or a closely related field" (p. 107). The fact that four different credentialing bodies provide specialty status according to differing rules and procedures raises questions of continuity and definition of specialties.

Advocacy

Sweeney (1995) posited that the counseling profession would have progressed very little in the way of professionalization if it were not for specialty areas, and, yet, no single specialty area has the impact that comes from a united profession. According to Sweeney, the standards, credentialing, and accreditation particular to specialty areas have been instrumental in the professionalization of the counseling field. Meyers, Sweeney, and White (2002) indicated that a national plan for professional advocacy among counselors is vital to presenting a positive image to the public about the counseling profession. Furthermore, unless counselors advocate for their profession, they will fall short in advocating for their clients (Watts, 2004).

Ethical Issues

The ethical issues related to specialty areas and generalist counseling pertain to whether or not a counselor is practicing outside of his or her professional expertise. An interesting search of the archives of ethical violations in Texas revealed no infractions for practicing outside of one's area of expertise with records going back to the 1990's (Texas Department of State Health Services, n.d.). Some professionals might state that the general public does

not understand the language and, therefore, does not know to report counselors practicing outside their areas of expertise. However, many lay persons receive some type of support from another helping professional when making ethical complaints (Corey, Corey & Callanan, 2007), and these professionals would understand the language and know when a licensed counselor has practiced outside of his or her expertise. It may be that the ethical issue regarding practicing outside of one's area of expertise is a non-issue, one not impacting the safety of the clients of Licensed Professional Counselors.

Training Issues

Counselor training continues to undergo changes designed to meet the emerging needs of clients. In the counselor training standards of CACREP (2008), training in several areas beyond the core subjects is required. For example, in the Community Mental Health Counseling curriculum, training that includes chemical dependency and other addictions, crisis intervention, family interventions, and disaster preparedness training is required for future counselors.

CACREP views the aforementioned courses as necessary for preparation of community mental health counselors.

These expanded training requirements suggest that professional counselors will be prepared more thoroughly to assist clients with a wide variety of problems. The following research was an exploratory study designed to investigate the various methods used in counselor education programs to prepare professional counselors to work with clients presenting with many diverse issues.

Method

Our study was conducted following the *Tailored Design Method* (Dillman, 2007) that focuses on providing a research outline for mail and internet surveys. We used a mail survey to capture a picture of the specialty training counselors receive in their initial master's level counselor training programs.

Participants

A statewide survey of community counseling programs at Texas universities was conducted to determine the types of counselor specialty training provided. Thirty-two community counseling programs were identified and requests to participate were sent to either department chairs or program directors. Programs accredited by the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related

Education Programs (CACREP) and non-CACREP accredited programs were included in the study.

Instrument

We developed a survey questionnaire for self-administration that was intended to be interpreted in the same way by all participants, was intended to elicit accurate responses, and that participants were willing to complete. The resulting questionnaire provided a common stimulus for each participant (Dillman, 2007). Fowler (2002) noted that survey research is designed to produce quantitative and written descriptions of aspects of a specific topic. Using the Tailored Design Method (Dillman, 2007), questions were designed with the expectation that participants would have clear answers concerning the specialty training in their programs and included both closed-ended questions (e.g., Do you offer a course in Substance Abuse counseling?) and open-ended questions (e.g., If you do not offer a course in this area, how do you address this topic in your courses?). Specialty training areas were selected for this study based on current licensure and certification requirements for practice. Seven specialty areas were covered by the questionnaire, including Substance Abuse, Sexuality

Issues, Domestic Violence, Play Therapy, Family Therapy, Art Therapy, and Music Therapy. Questions for each specialty area were grouped together so that responses to one specialty area were completed prior to responding to the next specialty area (Dillman, 2007).

Data Collection

Data were collected via regular mail using multiple contacts to maximize the response rate to the survey (Dillman, 2007; Fowler, 2002). Participants were sent a questionnaire packet that included a detailed cover letter indicating the importance of participation, the informed consent form, a copy of the questionnaire, and a stamped, self-addressed envelope. One thank you post card follow-up was sent followed by a replacement questionnaire mailing. A final contact was made by telephone approximately two weeks after the last mail contact. Dillman (2007) noted that a multiple contact approach helps to maximize the response rate of mail survey research.

Results

Thirty-two universities with community counseling programs that prepare students for licensure as a professional counselor were contacted. Twenty univer-

sities completed and returned the survey, a response rate of 62.5%. Fifteen responses were from CACREP accredited programs, and five responses were from non-CACREP programs. Each program responded to questions concerning the seven specialty areas that were the focus of this study.

In the area of substance abuse, 11 programs indicated they offer a basic substance abuse course. Two programs require students to take the course whereas nine programs offer the course as an elective. There were two programs that offered an advanced course in addition to the basic addictions course. Each program was asked how they covered this topic if they did not offer course work, and 10 programs provided a variety of responses. Responses indicated that substance abuse material is covered in coursework related to sexual diversity and psychodynamic theory, community counseling, intermediate methods in counseling adolescents, application and technique courses, advanced psychopathology course, crisis intervention course, introduction to counseling course, and counseling theories, techniques, and practicum. One program indicated that this area "is a weakness of our program." All but one program indicated that they either offer course

work in substance abuse or cover this topic in a variety of other courses.

Sexuality courses were offered in four programs, and these courses were required in all four. All four courses offered training addressing healthy sexuality and sexual disorders, but none of the courses included training in regards to counseling sex offenders. Several programs indicated they cover sexuality issues in a variety of ways. Responses indicated that sexuality issues were "integrated in other courses, covered in abnormal psychology, mental health counseling, human development, ethics, multicultural," and infused in marriage and family courses. Sexual abuse is discussed in counseling interventions, techniques and practicum and integrated into crisis intervention courses, advanced psychopathology, introductory counseling courses, and courses covering gender studies and/or human sexuality. One program indicated that it had proposed a sexuality course to the university's curriculum committee for future approval. Results of the study indicated that all responding programs not offering a specific course in sexuality issues addressed the topic in other courses, and many programs covered the topic in multiple courses.

Domestic violence coursework was offered in one program, and the course was required. This course included information concerning victims/survivors and batterers. However, 13 programs indicated that domestic violence is covered from a variety of perspectives. Domestic violence components were included in a "non-traditional families course," and as part of a crisis training workshop. Domestic violence was also addressed in family and couples counseling coursework, crisis intervention coursework, introduction to counseling courses, pre-practicum, practicum, supervised practicum, group counseling, ethics training, multicultural courses, and others reported integrating it throughout the curriculum. One program indicated it would be adding a course in this area as part of their efforts to meet the 2009 CACREP standards, and one program indicated that domestic violence counseling would be part of a new course that includes trauma and crisis counseling. Results indicated that 14 of the 20 responding programs offer domestic violence training as part of their overall counselor training program.

Play therapy course work was provided by 9 of the 20 responding universities. Three of the programs required students to take a basic course whereas the remaining six programs offered the course as an elective. Six programs offered a course in advanced play therapy. Many programs not offering a course in play therapy indicated they address the topic in other courses. Programs noted that play therapy was covered in a required child and adolescent course or an elective, depending on the program. Another program indicated that play therapy was addressed during "several periods discussing various approaches to play therapy. It is embedded in our Counseling Interventions class and in small group dynamics." One program indicated that their doctoral students currently take a course in play therapy and that a new master's course in play therapy will be offered as an elective in 2009. Another program will be adding a filial therapy elective to address play therapy skills and parental involvement. Other programs indicated that play therapy is incorporated in such courses as Developmental School Counseling, Innovative Techniques in Counseling, Pre-Practicum, Working with Children, Advanced Applied Counseling Techniques, Counseling Theories, and Practicum. These results point out that play therapy is covered in 20 of the 32 surveyed programs.

Table 1

Counseling Specialty Training in Texas Universities

Area	Basic	Advanced	Required	Elective	Offered Elsewhere	Planned for 08/09
Substance Abuse	11	2	2	9	19	0
Sexuality	4	0	4	0	20	1
Domestic Violence	1	0	1	0	13	2
Play Therapy	9	6	3	6	11	2
Family Therapy	17	9	8	9	3	1
Art Therapy	1	0	0	1	5	0
Music Therapy	1	0	1	0	0	0

Family therapy course work was offered in 17 of the 20 responding programs. Eight programs required students to take the basic course, and nine programs offered the course as an elective. Additionally, nine programs offered at least one advanced family therapy course. One program reported having an accredited marriage and family degree. Other programs discussed a variety of ways they incorporate information on this topic. Coursework is offered in counseling theories, group counseling courses, and other programs indicated they now have newly developed family counseling courses. Additionally, two programs indicated that family therapy is integrated throughout their programs, and another stated that it is one of three applied courses a student can choose. The results of our study indicated that all responding programs provide some training on family therapy.

The final areas surveyed for this study included art therapy and music therapy. Only one program offered basic coursework in both of these areas. The art therapy course was an elective, and the music therapy course was required. Five additional programs mentioned that art

therapy is introduced in courses including counseling interventions, counseling theories, working with children, and introduction to counseling, techniques, and practicum. Results of the study indicated that art therapy and music therapy receive limited coverage in the counseling programs that participated in this study.

Discussion

Implications

The results of our study indicated that most of the participating universities offer coursework in the areas of substance abuse, sexuality, domestic violence, play therapy, and family therapy (see Table 1). The coursework is provided either in a course that specifically addresses the specialty area or in courses by other names that include information regarding those specialty areas. Graduate students preparing to be Licensed Professional Counselors are exposed to important information on special counseling issues in their coursework at most of the universities in our study. The participating universities appear to offer a wide variety of exposure to the many issues that clients bring to counseling. As Texas LPC Interns begin their 3000 or more hours of supervision toward licensure, most typically begin developing areas of expertise based

on their internship setting and the expertise of their supervisors. Working with clients under supervision allows the intern to experience many counseling issues and to make decisions regarding which clients to treat and which to refer. The results of our study also indicated that participating universities are proactively making decisions to enhance coursework to align with the new 2009 CACREP standards. Even non-CACREP accredited participating universities appear to be using CACREP standards as a template in developing their counseling programs as there were no examples of what might be called "substandard" programs or programs that did not address all the current specialty areas. Six of the universities reported that they were adding courses either in Fall 2008 or Spring 2009 that address sexuality issues, domestic violence, play therapy, and family therapy. As the counseling field evolves, and as clients seek help for increasingly complex problems, graduate programs will be required to update coursework to meet new demands. Unification of professional training of counselors is demonstrated by the standardization of graduate counseling programs by CACREP. This standardization insures that CACREP accredited institutions are required to include the most

current information in the field relevant to graduates being well trained to work with many client issues.

Art therapy and music therapy appear to be specialty areas that do, in fact, require specialized training and background, and this may explain why only one participating university offered coursework in these areas (see Table 1). Music therapy, for example, would be quite difficult to use as a counseling approach if one were not a musician or had some background in music. Art therapy would also be challenging if one did not have some knowledge of art. For those counselors using art or music therapy exclusively, their education or training backgrounds may include undergraduate degrees (or minors) in art or music. Although most counselors could probably infuse some art or music ideas into the counseling relationship, they probably do not consider themselves art therapists or music therapists. These labels are reserved for counselors who truly have an extensive background in the arts.

Recommendations

Advocacy seems to be the key to a unified profession, and typically advocacy requires professional counselors to be committed to their professional organiza-tions both at the national, state, and local levels. Thus, our first recommendation is that our counseling associations do a better job of reaching out to all counselors during membership drives. We also recommend that every counselor make it a professional priority to belong to their professional organizations. Professional counselors will have the strength in numbers and the unity to advocate in the following ways:

(a) Educate the public about the training and skills of professional counselors;

(b) Educate legislators about the training and skills of professional counselors;

(c) Urge legislators to vote against legislation that severely limits the clientele of professional counselors and help them understand why that type of legislation is not necessary;

(d) Urge all professional counselors to be members of ACA and their state and local professional organizations in order to work together to promote professional counseling as a viable mental health field.

Limitations

Interpretation of the present findings should take into account the study's limitations. The first limitation is the self-report nature of the study. When a self-report assessment is used for data collection, several confounding factors may influence participants' responses. Some participants may fear that their identities will be disclosed and, therefore, hesitate to be completely honest. Others may believe that the researchers have an idea of "correct" responses to the items and may select responses based on this belief (i.e., socially desirable responses). However, since we were asking basic, factual information about programming rather than opinions, we worked under the assumption that the respondents answered honestly to the items. An additional limitation is that the participating universities are all located in one state. Our research plan is to use this data as our pilot project and to expand the study to a national level in the near future.

Conclusion

Participating universities in our study appear to be meeting the needs of their students in providing basic and general counseling skills and knowledge as well as introducing them to the current areas of specialized counseling they will need in order to choose their preferred area of work, decide which client issues are outside of their areas of expertise, and work with diverse clients who seek the help and expertise of a LPC. In addition, participating universities appear to be cognizant of the various specialty areas and adding pertinent course information as independent courses or within existing ones.

The purpose of recognizing a unified counseling profession through professional affiliation is to promote the counseling profession and to protect those who are served. Other issues surrounding the profession such as specialty areas seem to be tangential compared to the significance of advocating for the profession as a whole and protecting the welfare of our clients. When counselors with certification or licensure in specialized areas of counseling do not identify with the profession of counseling in general, and maintain membership in associations that promote the entire profession, then the profession of counseling may suffer as a result.

References

American Counseling Association (2008). *American Counseling Association Manual of Policies and Procedures.* Alexandria, VA: Author.

American Counseling Association. (2005). *2005 code of ethics.* Alexandria, VA: Author.

American Counseling Association (1997). *Definition of professional counseling.* Retrieved August 5, 2008, from http://www.counseling.org/Counselors/

Bateson, G. (1971). *Steps to an ecology of mind.* Chicago, IL: University Press.

Canfield, B. (February, 2008). Who are we? *Counseling Today*, p. 5.

Canfield, B. (March, 2008). The vital role of school counselors in the counseling profession. *Counseling Today,* p. 5.

Corey, G., Corey, M. S., & Callanan, P. (2007). *Issues and ethics in the helping professions* (7th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson.

Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Education Programs. (2008). *2009 accreditation standards.* Retrieved January 23, 2009, from http://www.cacrep.org/2009standards.html

Dillman, D. A. (2007). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Fowler, F. J. (2002). *Survey research methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gale, A. U., & Austin, B. D. (2003). Professionalism's challenges to professional counselor's collective identity. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 81,* 3-10.

Glosoff, H. L., Benshoff, J. M., Hosie, T. W., & Maki, D. (1994). The 1994 ACA model legislation for licensed professional counselors. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 74,* 209-220.

Hosie, T. W. (1995). Counseling specialties: A case of basic preparation rather than advanced specialization. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 74,* 177-180.

Meyers, J. E. (1995). Specialties in counseling: Rich heritage or force for fragmentation? *Journal of Counseling & Development, 74,* 115-116.

Myers, J. E., & Sweeney, T. J. (2005). The indivisible self: An evidence-based model of wellness. *Journal of Individual Psychology, 61,* 269-279.

Meyers, J. E., Sweeney, T. J., & White, V. E. (2002). Advocacy for counseling and counselors: A professional imperative. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 80,* 394-402.

National Board for Certified Counselors. (2009). *Certifications.* Retrieved April 26, 2009 from: http://www.nbcc.org/certifications/Default.aspx

Remley, T. P. (1995). A proposed alternative to licensing of specialties in counseling. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 74,* 126-129.

Sweeney, T. J. (1995). Accreditation, credentialing, professionalization: The role of specialties. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 71,* 117-125.

Taleff, M. J., & Swisher, J. D. (1997). The seven core functions of a master's degree level alcohol and other drug counselor. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 42,* 1-17.

Texas Department of State Health Services (N. D.). *Texas state board of examiners of professional counselors: Enforcement actions.* Retrieved January 27, 2009 from: http://www.dshs.state.tx.us/counselor/lpc_enforce.shtm

Watts, R. E. (Spring, 2004). Are we in danger of losing the identity we never clearly defined? *The CACREP Connection,* pp. 1, 7-8.

An Exploration of Accountability Practices of School Counselors: A National Study

Dilani M. Perera-Diltz
Cleveland State University
Kimberly L. Mason
University of New Orleans

*A*ccountability practices of school counselors deserve attention and is a timely topic considering the direction of education reforms toward data driven practice. School counselors (n = 1,704) nationwide were surveyed online to determine their current accountability practices. The results suggested that approximately 54% of school counselors engaged in data gathering and approximately 32% engaged in information distribution. Further analysis indicated significant relationships between building level and accountability practices. Implications for school counselors and directions for further research are provided.

Professional school counselors are being asked to engage in accountability practices that support the effectiveness of their comprehensive counseling programs. For more than two decades, the professional literature has stressed the need for increasing counselor accountability practices (Housley, McDaniel, & Underwood, 1990; Nims, James, & Hughey, 1998; White, 2007). In 2003, the American School Counseling Association (ASCA) reinforced the importance of school counselors engaging in accountability by including a section labeled accountability system in their national model. This movement toward data-driven programs is also reflected in the education

---

Authors' Note:

Dilani Perera-Diltz is an assistant professor at Cleveland State University. Kim Mason is assistant professor at the University of New Orleans. Please address comments or questions regarding this article to Dilani Perera-Diltz at Cleveland State University, 2121 Euclid Avenue, RT 1412, Cleveland, OH 44115, Phone: 216-523-7117, Fax: 216.687-5378, Email: d.pereradiltz@csuohio.edu.

system (U.S. Department of Education, 1990, 1994, 2002) within which school counselors operate (Sink & Spencer, 2005).

Accountability, although discussed as a single term, can be perceived in different ways. Stone & Dahir (2007) defined accountability as the ability to provide documentation on effectiveness of professional activity outcomes. Myrick (2003) defined accountability as being answerable for one's actions, particularly in terms of establishing objectives, implementing procedures, and using results for program improvement. It involves setting goals, defining what is being done to meet them, and collecting information that supports any achievements claimed. Studer and Sommers (2000) defined accountability by three types of evaluation: (a) program, which includes surveys to assess the goals, objectives, and activities of a program; (b) personnel, which includes checklists or portfolios to determine a school counselor's performance in order to keep his or her job; and (c) individual service evaluation, which includes objective assessments based on indicators of a student's or group's behavior changes. Recently, more emphasis has been placed on accountability practices that include gathering baseline and effectiveness data

of school counseling services (ASCA, 2005). In other words, school counselors must demonstrate how students are different as a result of the school counseling program (ASCA, 2005), and how the school counseling program contributes to the school improvement agenda (Dahir, 2004). In addition, school counselors are urged to share their accountability information with all stakeholders so they can advocate for their positions and their profession (ASCA, 2005; Baker & Gerler, 2004; Loesch & Ritchie, 2008). Therefore, gathering information on effectiveness of services and distributing such information to all stakeholders (e.g., accountability) is essential for the survival and the future of the school counseling profession (Dahir, 2004).

Engaging in accountability practices has several sound benefits for school counselors. First, accountability provides the opportunity for school counselors to define their role and duties within schools (Isaacs, 2003), as it is not unusual for school administrators, teachers, parents, and community members to hold different views about their role (Culbreth, Scarborough, Banks-Johnson, & Solomon, 2005). Currently, there are no legal mandates for school counselors to provide accountability information.

However, by taking the initiative to engage in accountability practices, school counselors may be able to dictate activities for which they gather data and distribute information in the future. Ability to choose the activities for which to provide accountability also places school counselors in a position to define their role (Isaacs, 2003; Lapan, 2001). Next, engaging in accountability practices establishes and aligns the school counseling profession with the current education reforms such as America 2000 (U.S. Department of Education, 1990), Goals 2000 (U.S. Department of Education, 1994), and No Child Left Behind (U.S. Department of Education, 2002); all of which require educators to be accountable for each and every child receiving a quality education. The current trend in accountability in the field of education suggests that in the near future, school counselors will be held to standards of accountability, similar to what is occurring with teachers. Engaging in appropriate accountability practices prior to being dictated by others sets precedence on appropriate practices for school counselors while aligning with trends in education. Third, distributing accountability reports could make school counselors more visible and an integral part of a child's achievement (Johnson,

1997; Lapan, 2001; Lapan, Gysbers, & Sun, 1997; Napierkowski & Parsons, 1995). Currently, school counselors' role in a student's achievement is neglected with current educational accountability protocol only recognizing teachers and schools (Dahir & Stone, 2003; Isaacs, 2003). All educators, including school counselors must share accountability for student achievement (Stone & Dahir, 2007). Defining the school counselor's role within a school, aligning with current trends in education, and becoming visible among stakeholders as an essential component of a student's education are all effective tools in advocating for the school counselor profession.

Amidst the many authors'(see Gysbers, 2004 for evolution of accountability) recommendations for school counseling practices, some (Butler & Bunch, 2005; Johnson-Reid, 2008; Schmidt, 1995) have claimed that school counselors in general lack or are disinterested in accountability practices. Suggested reasons for the lack of accountability practices among school counselors include resistance to change into data driven professionals (Issacs, 2003), lack of time (Isaacs, 2003; Loesch & Ritchie, 2008; Myrick, 2003), lack of training (Astramovich, Coker, & Hoskins, 2005;

Fairchild, 1993; Myrick, 2003), and lack of a requirement to be accountable (Isaacs, 2003). In addition, Loesch and Ritchie suggested that most school counselors do gather accountability data but are deficient in distributing this information to stakeholders to make the school counselors' services visible. Whatever the reason for the lack of visible accountability, the current National Model directly recommends that school counselors engage in accountability practices by incorporating such practices into the performance standards (ASCA, 2005). In addition, the ethical standards (ASCA, 2004) and the accreditation standards (Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, 2009) for school counseling also call for accountability practices in school counseling. Therefore, school counselors engaging in accountability for their services is pertinent.

There is extensive literature on accountability (Gysbers, 2004) with authors writing about accountability from many perspectives on how to be accountable. While some provided designs and frameworks for school counselors to engage in accountability (Brott, 2006; Brigman, 2006; Brown & Trusty, 2005; Curry & Lambie, 2007; Eschenauer & Chen-Hayes, 2005; Lapan, 2001; Segool, Brinkman, & Carlson, 2007; Stone & Dahir, 2007), others provided instruments (Carey, Harrity, & Dimmit, 2005; Scarborough, 2005; Sink & Spencer, 2005, 2007; Whiston & Aricak, 2008) and portfolios (Curry & Lambie) that may be beneficial in gathering accountability data. In addition, another group called for more training in accountability practices for school counselors (Astramovic et al., 2005; Brott; Studer, Oberman, & Womack, 2006). However, in order to improve accountability practices and to align school counselors with education reforms, first we need to determine the gaps in accountability practices of practicing school counselors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore current accountability practices of school counselors nationwide to determine if and what data is gathered and if, what, and how information is distributed. The following two main exploratory questions were posed for this study: The first question (1.a) inquired if the participants gathered data pertaining to the effectiveness and efficiency of their program. If they responded yes, then they were requested to answer how they gathered

data pertaining to the effectiveness and efficiency of their program (1.b). The second question (2.a) inquired if the participants distributed information pertaining to effectiveness and efficiency of their program. If they answered yes, they were directed to inquiries on what type of information they distributed (2.b) and what methods they utilized to distribute such information (2.c).

Method

Participants

The information for this study was gathered from a larger survey distributed to members of ASCA. From this pool, 1,704 current school counselors completed the survey. The participants included 456 (26.76%) elementary, 384 (22.54%) middle, and 602 (35.33%) high school counselors who worked at only one building level and 262 (15.38%) counselors who worked at more than one building level, referred to as the mixed group. The participants included 281 (16.49%) males, 1,408 (82.63%) females, and 15 (.88%) participants who did not indicate their gender. The sample mean age was 40.94 years (SD = 11.42, range = 23-69) for the 1,620 (95.07%) participants who indicated their age. The ethnic identity provided by 1,445 participants

included American Indian/ Alaskan Native (n = 11, .65%), Asian/ Pacific Islander (n = 12; .70%) Black (not of Hispanic Origin) (n = 89; 5.22%), Hispanic (n = 88; 5.16%), White (not of Hispanic Origin) (n = 1,209; 70.95%), and Other (n = 36; 2.11%). The other category included those who identified as biracial or bicultural as well as those who identified themselves by their country of origin. The participants included individuals who were trained in the ASCA National Model (n = 1,367; 80.22%) as well as those who were not trained in the model (n = 319; 18.72%). Eighteen (1.06%) did not indicate their training. While a similar proportion of school counselors with (n = 884; 51.88%) and without (n = 811; 47.59%) a teaching credential indicated their status, nine (.64%) refrained from responding to this question. Of the total number of participants indicating a specific building level, 614 (36.03%) were from states with some level of mandate for school counseling for kindergarten through 12th grade (K-12), 245 (14.38%) were from states with some level of mandate for school counseling for only some grades between K-12, and 845 (49.59%) were from states with no mandates for school counseling at any grade level.

Table 1

Chi Square Results for Accountability Practices of School Counselors by Demographic Variables

	Data Gathering	Information Distribution
Building level		
Elementary ($n = 456$)	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704) = .924, p<.336$	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704)= 8.949, p<.003*$
Middle ($n = 384$)	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704) = 1.340, p<.247$	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704) = .057, p<.811$
High ($n = 602$)	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704) = 15.335, p < .001*$	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704) = .427, p<.513$
Mixed ($n = 262$)	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704) = 25.281, p<.001*$	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1704) = 23.179, p<.001*$
Presence of a state mandate ($n = 614$)	$\chi^2 (2, N = 1704) = .071, p<.965$	$\chi^2 (2, N = 1704) = 9.289, p<.01*$
Gender	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1689) = .075, p<.784$	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1689) = .183, p<.669$
ASCA model training	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1686) = .554, p<.348$	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1686) = 2.769, p<.096$
Teaching License/ Certificate	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1695) = .303, p<.582$	$\chi^2 (1, N = 1695) = .068, p<.795$

NOTE: * = $p < .05$; Participants from states with mandates for school counseling across k - 12 = 614; Participants from states with mandates for some grades only = 245; Participants from states with no state mandates = 84

The Survey Instrument

The instrument contained a total of 30 items. There were two main questions with subsections that were pertinent to accountability, which are provided under the purpose of this study. In addition, participant demographics were gathered (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, ASCA model training, teacher credential, and practicing state). Survey questions were generated and loaded to Zoomerang, an online survey tool, by the first author and checked for accuracy, ambiguity, and timing by completing the survey by the second author. Further piloting of the instrument was not undertaken as ambiguities or conflicts did not arise.

Procedure

All members of the American School Counseling Association with email addresses ($N = 13, 805$) were sent a survey through the Zoomerang online survey program. After requesting consent and determining eligibility, active school counselors were permitted to continue on with the survey. This initial invitation also provided the opportunity for receivers to remove themselves from the email list without the knowledge of the researchers. In addition, requests of those who directly contacted the researchers to be removed from the list were honored. A reminder was sent in two weeks to those who had not completed the survey or removed their names from the list.

Results

Both quantitative and qualitative data on accountability practices of current school counselors were gathered. In responding to the quantitative questions, 53.59% ($n = 1,116$) indicated they gathered data pertaining to services provided through their program (Question 1.a.) and 32.08% ($n = 670$) indicated they distributed information pertaining to the data gathered (Question 2.a.). Chi-square tests of independence were conducted to determine if demographic variables such building level, gender, state mandate for school counseling, ASCA National Model training, or teaching background influenced the accountability practices of school counselors (Table 1). Relationships significant at .05 or better are reported below. Among the building levels, significant relationships for data gathering were present for high school counselors, χ^2 (1, $N = 602$) = 15.335, $p<.001$, Cramer's $V =$ .10; and mixed group of school counselors, χ^2 (1, $N = 262$) = 25.281, $p<.001$, Cramer's $V = .12$. Significant relationships for information distribution were present

Table 2
Categories and Frequencies of Data Gathering Methods from Qualitative Analysis

Method	Frequency	Percent
Surveys (Needs and Satisfaction)	492	47.7
Testing and Assessment (i.e., pre and post testing and other forms of evaluation)	492	47.7
Grades, Standardized test scores & Report Card	198	18.4
Informal questioning of colleagues/Anecdotal evidence	168	16
Disciplinary action tracking	97	9
Enrollment, attendance, drop out, graduation rates	97	9
Accountability models (i.e., M.E.A.S.U.R.E, GRIP, SCAATAP)	21	1.9
Direct observations	19	1.8
College application and scholarship award rates	17	1.5
Specific incidents (e.g., bullying, harassment, conflict)	6	.5
Specified other methods (i.e., online, data from other schools)	28	2.6

Table 3
Categories and Frequencies of Information Distributed from Qualitative Analysis

Method	Frequency	Percent
Survey and assessment data related to progress due to school counseling services	367	58
School counseling services offered and enrollment in such services	240	38
State report card and other evaluative data	172	27
Enrollment, attendance, drop out, graduation, college attendance	54	8.6
Crisis response and disciplinary referrals	34	5.4
Information on counseling related topics, diversity, ASCA model	34	5.4
Needs assessment data	28	4.5
School profile and demographic data	19	3
Meetings attended or facilitated	4	6

Table 4

Method of Information Distribution from Qualitative Analysis

Method	Frequency	Percent
Meetings and presentations	594	96
Personal conversations	483	78
Paper form such as newsletters, flyers	347	56
Technology through e-mail, websites, and different computer programs	166	27
Completing relevant school accountability forms	75	21
School Handbook/portfolio	5	8

for elementary school counselors, χ^2 (1, $N = 456$) = 8.949, $p<.003$, Cramer's $V = .07$; mixed group school counselors χ^2(1, $N = 262$) = 23.179, $p<.001$, Cramer's $V = .12$; and the presence of a state mandate for school counseling χ^2 (2, $N = 1704$) = 9. 289, $p<.01$, Cramer's $V = .07$. According to Cohen (1998)'s rubric, values of all the above relationships correspond to a small effect size indicating a significant but weak relationship.

To analyze the qualitative data (Questions 1.b. and 2. b-c), the researchers independently identified the primary patterns in the data (Patton, 2002). Data were then classified according to their commonalities and were combined or refined in order to better manage the data. Through content analysis, the method of gathering data was placed in an emerged category, which is based on activities found in the ASCA National Model (2005).

A total of 1, 077 participants responded to actual methods engaged in gathering information pertaining to their services (question 1.b). Results are categorized and presented in Table 2. Six hundred and twenty eight participants indicated the type of information they distributed, which is categorized and presented in Table 3. Finally, 621 participants responded to question 2.c.on how they distributed the information (see Table 4). The total number of responses in the tables does not meet the total number of participants because some participants provided more than one answer.

Based on the findings provided above, a discussion of the results is provided below with some plausible explanations for our findings. Implications of our

findings, limitations of the research, and directions for future research are provided following the discussion.

Discussion

To recap, school counselor accountability has been a topic of conversation for many decades but continues to be important for defining and maintaining the school counselor profession. Currently, school counselor accountability is integral to the profession as education reforms move toward accountable practice (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). From this exploratory study, we can conclude that about half of the practicing school counselors engage in accountable practices by gathering data related to school counseling services rendered and about one third of them distribute information on such data to some or all stakeholders. These results lend support to Loesch and Ritchie's (2008) position that although most school counselors maybe gathering data they are not distributing such information. It is hoped that school counselors gather data and distribute information as an acceptance of the benefits of accountability and the ASCA National Model (Hatch & Chen-Hayes, 2008), indicating a departure from the resistance to being accountable noted

by Myrick (2003). Moreover, it is plausible that school counselors may believe it is necessary to collect data on the effectiveness of their programs to improve services, but may not feel a sense of responsibility to take a leadership role in informing stakeholders of such (Dollarhide, Gibson, & Saginak, 2008; Isaacs, 2003), in essence advocating for the profession. Because accountability and professional advocacy go hand-and-hand (Curry & Lambie, 2007), perhaps school counselors could benefit from further training on effective ways to distribute accountability information while advocating for the profession, given the current educational economic climate.

Studer and Sommers (2000) indicated three types of accountability for counselors: (a) personnel, (b) program, and (c) results. Results from this study indicated that school counselors engaged in the latter two. Both needs and results of certain programs and services (e.g., classroom guidance, individual and group counseling) were evaluated and distributed by needs and satisfaction surveys (69.6%), pre and post testing (47.4%), grades and standardized testing scores (18.4%), and interviews (16%) (Table 2). Of these four methods, grades and standardized testing scores, although not easily

connected to school counseling services, could still be a result of an effective school-wide counseling program. For instance, school counselors may provide guidance on test taking skills and dealing with anxiety as well as provide group and/or individual counseling for those who need further services on how to become efficient test takers. Such services would lead to improved grades and standardized testing scores.

Results also indicated that school counselors employ a variety of quantitative and qualitative methods to distribute the results of their interventions or programs (Tables 3 and 4). The three most common types of information distributed were survey results on progress of service recipients (58%), counseling services offered and number of students enrolled in such (38%), and overall school academic performance including state report card (27%). Of these three, the first two are easily related to school counseling services and demonstrate the need and results of services rendered. Unfortunately, although, improved performance in state or national tests could be a result of school counseling services, this data is difficult for school counselors to claim credit for, especially because teachers work with students daily on academic skills, whereas school coun-

selors provide indirect and short-term services (Myrick, 2003) that improve academic performance. On the contrary, needs assessment data, which has a more direct connection to school counseling services, was distributed by less than 5% of school counselors. These findings suggest that school counselors may need to evaluate the appropriateness and efficiency of what information is distributed, especially as school counselors' time is valuable. It is necessary for more school counselors to distribute information directly related to outcomes of specific school counseling services (ASCA, 2005) as such practice is integral to establishing the need for school counseling services. It is more likely that stakeholders will support school counseling programs and its personnel only if they are apprised of needs, programs and interventions implemented to meet those needs, and the results of such (Studer et al., 2006).

Most school counselors distributed information through meetings and presentations (96%) with personal conversations (78%) and paper forms (i.e., newsletters) (56%) being the other two most popular methods. Whereas these approaches are effective methods of distributing data, personal conversations with individuals or small groups (i.e. collecting anecdotal

evidence) appear an inefficient use of a busy school counselor's time. The minimal use of advanced technology (27%) such as a Web site, e-mail, or list serves may also be inefficient because such methods are time and cost efficient in distributing information to vast and diverse number of stakeholders simultaneously. Presently, technology provides better opportunities to increase information circulation and reduce reliance on inefficient traditional paper distribution methods, expanding opportunities for improved accountability (Adelman, 2002; White, 2007). Therefore, it appears necessary for school counselors to engage in more efficient manner of information distribution, however, with caution, as always, to maintain professionalism.

In analyzing relationships between demographics of participants and accountability practices, we found two variables (i.e., building level and state mandates for school counseling) to have an impact on accountability practices. First, in comparing building levels (i.e., elementary, middle, high, and mixed), high school counselors appear to be better at data gathering, and elementary school counselors appear to be better at distributing information. These finding are not surprising because high school counselors who mostly engage in career and goal-setting related activities (Dahir, 2004; Erford, 2007) typically gather data on students' acceptance into college or the amount of scholarship money received as required by some mandate by state, district, or individual school. Conversely, because elementary school counselors show a high preference for activities that support personal/social growth such as self-awareness (Dahir, 2004), and may have better relationships with parents, guardians, teachers, and other stakeholders due to developmental needs of their clientele (Perera-Diltz & Mason, 2008), they are more accustomed to disseminating information on the different types of programs the counseling department offers or information on various topics related to elementary school students. Results also indicated that the mixed group of school counselors, which included counselors who worked across some combination of the three building levels, was better at gathering data and distributing information on the effectiveness of their program. We believe that the mixed group of school counselors showed these significant results due to the mix of elementary and high school counselors in this group.

Second, the presence of any state mandate for school counseling was significant in distributing information pertaining to the school counseling program. It is possible that attention by legislature on school counseling practices may have contributed to this result. However, surprisingly, state mandates on school counseling appear to not have influenced data gathering practices. It is speculated that the noticeable absence of school counselors from educational reform may influence this finding. Perhaps some school counselors, who are already inundated by a myriad of functions, may not spend time and energy on tasks such as data collecting if the task is not valued by the school system.

Interestingly, our findings also indicated that accountability training appears to have no bearing on accountability practices, with 81% of our sample acknowledging ASCA National Model training, which includes accountability training. Although such training can vary, it is assumed that accountability practices to some extent are covered in all training. Therefore, we posit that school counselors may be utilizing evaluation methods used by teachers, such as grades, to measure the effectiveness of their interventions as well. Another explanation for this finding based

on some of the qualitative responses is that some school counselors may still lack an understanding of appropriate and effective accountability practices. For instance, some of the answers to the type of accountability information distributed included "requests for technical assistance," "latest studies in the field," and "memos to supervisor." It is possible that some misunderstood or misread the question. Nevertheless, it may be necessary to continue to train future school counselors on appropriate and efficient methods of engaging in accountability practice with a focus on practical implications (Brott, 2006). School counselors' desire for such accountability training was noted by Astramovich et al. (2005). However, the high number of school counselors trained in the ASCA National model in our sample raises the question on what else may influence school counselors' engagement or lack of engagement in accountability practices.

In summary, the overall results of this study suggested that school counselors are engaging in accountability practices by gathering data and distributing information. However, the accountability practices of current school counselors, especially information distribution component of accountability, can be greatly improved. It

is necessary to note that sharing information with stakeholders is an integral part of accountability (Brott, 2006; Loesch & Ritchie, 2008) and may possibly lead to defining and surviving of the profession.

Implication for School Counselors

The results suggest that more school counselors are engaging in data gathering and some are practicing information distribution. However, a couple of areas are still in need of improvement. First, overall, more school counselors need to engage in accountability practices. Second, more school counselors need to engage in more efficient means of data gathering. Third, school counselors need to engage in efficient (i.e., time and money saving, reaching more stakeholders) methods of information distribution to enhance stakeholder perceptions of the need and significance of school counseling programs in schools to promote academic achievement. For such practice to occur, school counselors may need more training in efficient means of gathering, analyzing, and distributing appropriate accountability data, thus facilitating better accountable practice leading to better marketing of school counseling programs. Such training can be secured through engaging in more graduate coursework or workshops,

which focus on research methods and statistical analysis. School counselors could also secure grants to buy necessary equipment (e.g., computer, scanner), programs (e.g., statistical analysis, web development), and instruments (assessment and outcome measures similar to those utilized by clinical mental health counselors) that would facilitate more efficient methods of data gathering, analyzing, and distributing information. Utilizing an online survey engine for data gathering, a computer based statistical programs for data analysis, and a webpage for information distribution would be a very efficient method to engage in accountability for some services. A free resource that can aid in efficient and effective use of data is the EZAnalyze program (www.ezanalyze.com). This program allows school counselors to collect data, track changes over time, and create results reports with simple statistics including charts and graphs. A specific tool currently available in the literature is MEASURE, a six-step accountability process (Dahir & Stone, 2003). A benefit of this tool is that it aligns with the recommendations for accountability by the ASCA National Model (2005) and federal standards (U.S. Department of Education, 2001).

School counselors with their ever-changing job description and the multitude of services required from them (Loesch & Ritchie, 2008), certainly are legitimate in their claim for not having time to gather data of their effectiveness and distribute such information in a timely manner (Isaacs, 2003; Myrick, 2003; White, 2007). However, some school counselors have been successful in finding ways to incorporate accountability practices into their work (Eschenauer & Chen-Hayes, 2005; Hughes & James, 2001; Sink & Spencer, 2007; Studer et al. 2006; Vacc & Rhyne-Winkler, 1993). The literature (Brown & Trusty, 2005; Isaacs, 2003) indicated a strong rationale for producing such accountability data for the profession of school counseling to survive and to establish itself with the new reforms in education. Following protocols for accountability from the ASCA National Model, which aligns school counseling programs with education reform initiatives (Carey, Harrity, & Dimmitt, 2005) is also encouraged. Moreover, it is prudent for school counselors to align themselves with researchers, maybe from a nearby institute of higher education, to implement and/or assist in research related to efficiency and effectiveness of school counseling services. With the increased emphasis on accountability and the recent multiple publications on outcome assessment instruments for school counseling, such relationships maybe more feasible at present, departing from Whiston & Sexton's (1998) claim that most researchers were not interested in outcomes of school counselor interventions.

Limitations

From the structure of our survey, we are unable to determine if school counselors received accountability training beyond those who received such training as part of learning about the ASCA National Model (n = 1367; 81.1%). Therefore, there may still be a need for training in accountability as suggested by Brott (2006). Second, due to the method of data gathering, we are unable to further analyze qualitative data by building level. This limits our ability to determine if there are pertinent themes in gathering data or distributing information at the different building levels. Third, we did not pilot our survey beyond the second author checking for error or for confusing elements. Although we know of no such difficulties arising for participants, the lack of piloting is duly noted. Fourth, the method of data gathering through email may pose limits as only those who have a current email

address and who are members of ASCA were able to participate in this survey. These two restrictions along with our inability to determine if those who did not participate had any special characteristics limits generalizability of results. Finally, the effect sizes of the significant relationship are small according to Cohen's (1998) rubric, indicating weak relationships between the variables. This indicates our lack of ability to ascertain a relationship with certainty and the need for further research to determine the validity to our findings.

Future Directions

This study was intended to be a preliminary exploration of school counselors' actual accountability practices. First, further exploration of actual accountability practices with a focus on if school counselors are able to generate data and distribute information that directly links their services to improved academic performance (Isaacs, 2003) and that the outcome of the intervention was the anticipated outcome (Brown & Trusty, 2005) are needed. Such research will establish efficiency and effectiveness of accountability practices, which are essential for school counselors to navigate themselves as an integral part of the school system. It is also

necessary to explore the stumbling blocks that prevent school counselors from engaging in effective and efficient accountability practices. In addition, it maybe necessary to determine if those who engage in accountability practice do so as an acknowledgement of its benefits or if they were required to do so by an outside force. Such information will enlighten further training and research needs.

References

Adelman, S. H. (2002). School counselors and school reform: New directions. *Professional School Counseling, 5,* 235-248.

American School Counselor Association (2004). Ethical Standards for School Counselors. Retrieved January 14, 2009 from http://www.school counselor.org/files/ethical%20 standards.pdf

American School Counselor Association (2003). *The ASCA National Model: A framework for school counseling programs.* Alexandria, VA: Author.

American School Counselor Association (2005). *The ASCA National Model: A framework for school counseling programs* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Author.

Astramovich, R. L., Coker, J. K., & Hoskins, W. J. (2005). Training school counselors in program evaluation. *Professional School Counseling, 9,* 49-54.

Baker, S. B., & Gerler, E. R. (2004). *School counseling for the twenty-first century* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Brigman, G. (2006). Research methods in school counseling: A summary for the practitioner. *Professional School Counseling, 9,* 421-425.

Brott, P. E. (2006). Counselor education accountability: Training the effective professional school counselor. *Professional School Counseling, 10,* 179-188.

Brown, D., & Trusty, J. (2005). The ASCA National Model accountability and establishing causal links between school counselors' activities and student outcomes: A reply to sink. *Professional School Counseling, 9,* 13-15.

Butler, S. K., & Bunch, L. K. (2005). Response to EGAS: An innovative approach to prevent high school failure for at-risk urban African American girls. *Professional School Counseling, 8,* 395-397.

Campbell, C. A., & Dahir, C. A. (1997). *Sharing the vision: The national standards for school counseling programs.* Alexandria, VA: Author.

Carey, J., Harrity, J., & Dimmit, C. (2005). The development of a self assessment instrument to measure a school district's readiness to implement the ASCA national model. *Professional School Counseling, 8,* 305-312.

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin, 112,* 155-159.

Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (2009). 2009 Standards. Retrieved January 14, 2009 from http://www.cacrep.org/2009 standards.pdf

Culbreth, J. R., Scarborough, J. L., Banks-Johnson, A., & Solomon, S. (2005). Role stress among practicing school counselors. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 45,* 58-71.

Curry, J., & Lambie, G. W. (2007). Enhancing school counselor accountability: The large group guidance portfolio. *Professional School Counseling, 11,* 145-148.

Dahir, C. A. (2004). Supporting a nation of learners: The role of school counseling in educational reform. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 82,* 344-353.

Dahir, C. A., & Stone, C. B. (2003). Accountability: A M.E.A.S.U.R.E. of the impact school counselors have on student achievement. *Professional School Counseling, 6,* 214-221.

Dollarhide, C. T., Gibson, D. M., & Saginak, K. A. (2008). New counselors' leadership efforts in school counseling: Themes from a year-long qualitative study. *Professional School Counseling, 11,* 262-271.

Erford, B. E. (2007). *Transforming the school counseling profession* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Eschenauer, R., & Chen-Hayes, S. F. (2005). The transformative school counseling model: An accountability model for urban school counselors. *Professional School Counseling, 8,* 244-248.

EZAnalyze (n.d.). EZAnalyze program. Retrieved April 22, 2009, from http://www.ezanalyze.com.

Fairchild, T. N. (1993). Accountability practices of school counselors: 1990 National Survey. *The School Counselor, 40,* 363-374.

Gysbers, N. C. (2004). Comprehensive guidance and counseling programs: The evolution of accountability. *Professional School Counseling, 8,* 1-14.

Hatch, T., & Chen-Hayes, S. F. (2008). School counselor beliefs about ASCA National Model school counseling program components using the SCPCS. *Professional School Counseling, 12,* 34-42.

Hughes, D. K. & James, S. H. (2001). Using accountability data to protect a school counseling program: One counselor's experience. *Professional School Counseling, 4,* 306-310.

Housley, W. F., McDaniel, L. C., & Underwood, J. R. (1990). Mandated assessment of counselors in Mississippi. *The School Counselor, 37,* 294-302.

Isaacs, M. L. (2003). Data driven decision making: The engine of accountability. *Professional School Counseling, 6,* 288-295.

Johnson, J. H. (1997). *Data-driven school improvement.* (Report No. 109). Eugene OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED401595).

Johnson-Ried, M. (2008). Accountability meets appropriation: The case of the elementary and secondary school counseling program. *Children & Schools, 30,* 3-4.

Lapan, R. (2001). Results-based comprehensive guidance and counseling programs: A framework for planning and evaluation. *Professional School Counseling, 4,* 289-299.

Lapan, R. T., Gysbers, N. C., & Sun, Y. (1997). The impact of more fully implemented guidance programs on the school experiences of high school students: A statewide evaluation study. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 75,* 292-302.

Loesch, L., & Ritchie, M. H. (2008). *The accountable school counselor.* Austin, TX: Pro-ed.

Myrick, R. D. (2003). Accountability: Counselors count. *Professional School Counseling, 6,* 174-189.

Napierkowski, C. M., & Parsons, R. D. (1995). Diffusion or innovation: Implementing changes in school counselor roles and functions. *The School Counselor, 44,* 146-150.

Nims, D., James, S., & Hughey, A. (1998). The challenge of accountability: A survey of Kentucky school counselors. *Kentucky Counseling Association Journal, 17,* 31-37.

Perera-Diltz, D. M., & Mason, K. L. (2008, September 18). Ideal to real: Duties performed by school counselors. *Journal of School Counseling, 6*(26).

Sagor, R. (2000). *Guiding school improvement with action research.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Scarborough, J. L. (2005).The school counselor activity rating scale: An instrument for gathering process data. *Professional School Counseling, 8,* 274-283.

Schmidt, J. J. (1995). Assessing school counseling programs through external reviews. *The School Counselor, 43,* 114-123.

Segool, N. K., Brinkman, T. M., & Carlson, J. S. (2007). Enhancing accountability in behavioral consultation through the use of single-case designs. International *Journal of Behavioral Consultation and Therapy, 3,* 310-321.

Sink, C. & Spencer, L. R. (2007). Teacher version of the My Class Inventory Short-Form: An accountability tool for elementary school counselors. *Professional School Counseling, 11,* 129-139.

Sink, C., & Spencer, L. R. (2005). My Class Inventory Short Form as an accountability tool for elementary school counselors to measure classroom climate. *Professional School Counseling, 9,* 37-48.

Stone, C. B. & Dahir, C. A. (2007). *School counselor accountability: A M.E.A.S.U.R.E. of student success* (2nd ed). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Studer, J. R. & Sommers, J. A. (2000). The professional school counselor and accountability. *NASSP Bulletin, 84,* 93-99. Retrieved from January 14, 2009 http://www.census.gov/popula tion/www/socdemo/education.html

Studer, J. R., Oberman, A., & Womack, R. (2006). Producing evidence to show counseling effectiveness in the schools. *Professional School Counseling, 9,* 385-391

U.S. Department of Education. (1990). *America 2000: An education strategy.* Washington, DC: Author.

U.S. Department of Education. (1994). *Goals 2000: The educate America act.* Washington, DC: Author.

U.S. Department of Education. (2001). No child left behind. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved January 14, 2009 from http://www.ed.gov/ policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education (2002). About SASA. Retrieved January 14, 2009 from http://www.ed. gov/offices/OESE/SASA/aboutus.html

Whiston, S. C., & Aricak, O. T. (2008). Development and initial investigation of the school counseling program evaluation scale. *Professional School Counseling, 11,* 253-261.

Whiston, S. C., & Sexton, T. L. (1998). A review of school counseling outcome research: Implications for practice. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 76,* 412-426.

White, F. A. (2007). The professional school counselor's challenge: Accountability. *Journal of Professional Counseling: Practice, Theory, and Research, 35,* 62-70.

JOURNAL OF PROFESSIONAL COUNSELING:
PRACTICE, THEORY, & RESEARCH

1204 San Antonio, Ste. 201
Austin, Texas 78701