The purpose of this collection of articles is twofold—(1) to help fulfill the need for the training of professional counselors, and (2) to disseminate information about research in the field. The first of the seven articles presents an overview of the state of counseling in 1964. The next three articles deal with various new thoughts on counseling in the schools—(1) elementary school counseling, (2) the junior college transition function, and (3) counseling and careers. The last three articles deal with specific aspects of counselor education at Arizona State University—(1) growth of the department, (2) practicum training, and (3) research in the department. All the articles are based on the assumption that counseling improves individual dignity, growth, and adaptation to a world of rapid social change because it reduces the number of drop-outs, helps youth reach their full potential, and leads to well-adjusted and happy workers. This publication may be obtained through the Bureau of Educational Research and Services, College of Education, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona for $1.50. (RD)
BY COUNSELOR
EDUCATION FACULTY
ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

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FOREWORD

Much concentration has been focused on great problems in Education during the past decade. Issues in Education have been sharpened, and evaluation of outcomes has been evident in much of the literature concerning educational problems.

Perhaps the most exciting break-through, with a tremendous thrust forward, has been in the area of counseling and guidance. Nowhere in the development of American Public Education has a more promising approach emerged than in the field of counseling. Not only is there positive impact to reduce the number of drop-outs or school-leavers, but there is a steady stream of encouragement in helping more and more of our youth reach their full capacity or go as far as their potential permits. In the long run, the most significant outcome will be a far greater percentage of workers well adjusted to their work requirements and happy in their vocational choices.

Unquestionably, the most dramatic extension of the concept of counseling has occurred in the development of new programs of counseling in the elementary schools, with specially trained counselors for this important work.

The College of Education at Arizona State University is keenly aware of the challenge in Counselor Education, and it is dedicated to doing everything possible via program, research and services to provide leadership in this important field of endeavor. By working closely with all interested individuals, groups or agencies, it is possible that the decade of the sixties may find true realization of the lofty goals held for counseling, to the end that all of us will have a better life and a bright and promising future as a result of today's activity.

G. D. McGrath
Dean, College of Education
Arizona State University
A 1964 LOOK AT COUNSELING

by C. Gilbert Wrenn

The Use of Counselors in Our Society
MDTA and Other Federal Acts Affect Counselors
Changes in the Society Within the Counselor Will Function
Recent Developments Within the Profession of Counseling
A 1964 LOOK AT COUNSELING

C. Gilbert Wrenn

Last summer the writer was asked to take "A Second Look" at what had been written in 1960 for The Counselor in a Changing World (Wrenn, 1962). This book was the outgrowth of a study by the writer and a national commission under a grant from the Ford Fund which projected the image of the school counselor into 1970 upon the basis of anticipated changes in our culture during this decade. The "Second Look" inquiry (to be found in Loughary, 1965) indicated that much had happened during the past five years — the 1964 look was almost startling.

THE USE OF COUNSELORS IN OUR SOCIETY

The number of full-time secondary school counselors had grown from 7,000 in 1959 to 18,000 by the end of 1963, an increase of 155 per cent. There were, by the end of 1963, some 36,000 full-time and part-time counselors in the high schools of our country, and the average full-time counselor student ratio had dropped from one counselor for each 960 students to one counselor for each 530 students (the hypothetically desirable ratio in high schools has been variously placed by different accrediting associations at from 1 to 300 to 1 to 500).

Of course "averages" are dangerously misleading. Thousands of schools have no counselors at all and thousands of schools need a lower ratio of counselors to students than do the others because of lack of supporting school and community services. Still, the overall gain in a few years has been phenomenal, greatly influenced as it has been by the Title V aid of the 1958 National Defense Education Act. In the first five years of the Act, $62 million of federal aid was matched by $420 million of state and local aid for state and school guidance programs, while $30 million has supported 416 summer and year-long Institutes for the added professional preparation of some 14,000 school counselors. During this period the State of Arizona received $579,169.00 of federal aid in local guidance programs, with Arizona State University and the University of Arizona (the former most substantially) receiving almost one million dollars ($914,000) for the support of 10 Counselor Institutes which have enrolled 263 counselors.
Not enough is known of the extent of specific counseling programs in elementary schools and of student personnel programs in junior colleges to cite increase figures, but the 1964 amendments to the NDEA extended Title V support to the elementary schools, junior colleges and technical institutes; so substantial growth can be anticipated here. The United States Office is now completing a study of guidance facilities and personnel in almost 5,000 elementary schools, and it is known that three experimental institutes for preparing elementary school counselors will be developed as a result of the NDEA amendments. One of these will be at Arizona State University, a 15-month institute starting in the summer of 1965.

If the reader is not too weary of figures (or wary of them) he might consider the estimated demand for 32,000 additional counselors between 1963 and 1968 that was cited in the 1963 Manpower Report of the President to Congress. Some of these are for non-school positions — those in the expanding Employment Service, for example. But, because of the provisions of the late 1963 Vocational Education Bill, the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act, and the 1964 NDEA Amendments, this estimated figure of "demand" well could jump to 50,000. This would mean a doubling of the 50,000 full-time counselors in all types of school and non-school situations, a figure which is obviously impossible. A real danger is present in this situation. The need is there — a need that can be supported financially in large part — but the counselor education institutions (graduate schools) cannot find that number of qualified men and women and prepare them in such a period of time. A year's full-time graduate work is considered minimal (two years of graduate work for high school counselors is recommended by the American Personnel and Guidance Association), and the capacity of graduate school programs is limited. This limitation is primarily in the total number of available counselor-educators at the doctorate level — and these again are produced slowly and painfully!

MDTA AND OTHER FEDERAL ACTS AFFECT COUNSELORS

It is clear that counselors are and will be in heavy demand in both school and non-school settings. In addition to the legislation just named, the 1962 Manpower Development and Training Act specified the extensive use of selection devices and counseling in the State Employment Services which make the selection of those who are admitted to the special vocational education programs provided for by the Act. Three thousand four hundred such programs, involving 171,000 trainees, were approved through June, 1964 — approximately the first 20 months of the availability of the Act. Arizona has had 26 of these.
Counseling also is necessary in the vocational education programs in which the trainees enroll. The Act established a citizens National Manpower Advisory Committee which reports directly to the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. The committee, largely through its sub-committee recommendations, acts both as a watchdog and as an innovator in the administration of the Act. Its thirteen-member Panel on Selection and Counseling, of which the writer is Chairman, meets regularly. Some of their recommendations for the improvement of counseling and selection in both employment offices and vocational education programs have had marked impact. The panel obtained a $52,000 grant for the development of a top-level Invitational Conference on Government-University Relations in the Professional Preparation and Employment of Counselors which will be held June 2 and 3, 1965.

During August, 1964, the House Select Sub-Committee on Labor held extensive hearings on Employment and the United States Employment Service. The writer was one of two personnel specialists who testified before this committee with particular regard to expanding the counseling function of the Employment Service. The full implications of the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act for the further use of counselors are not yet clear, but every title of the bill calls for counselors. It is clear that the major purposes of the Act cannot be achieved without the careful service of qualified counselors. And there are not enough to go around.

The above paragraphs are written to indicate one dimension of the extent to which our society is utilizing counselors. Coupled with the growth of counseling in schools, it is easy to see why there is concern over the “supply” of professionally prepared counselors. The “demand” is almost excessive.

Over-expectations. The expectations of what the counselor can do are also often unrealistic. He (or she) cannot change people who do not want to be changed (perhaps by manipulation he can do so, but his professional ethics put a restraint upon him at this point). He cannot by some magic overcome the handicaps of a lifetime’s deprivation or negative conditioning. He cannot make a decision for a student or client which the student or client is responsible for carrying out. Here again both his psychology and his sense of values tell him to beware. He knows the futility of repeating reprimands or making exhortations that the student has heard many times before. He can help a person sort out alternative courses of action and evaluate them, can contribute to the student’s understanding of good decision-making. He can widen the horizon of thinking and suggest additional alternatives, supply information which contributes to a better sense of reality about both self and world. He can provide sug-
gestions or establish habit changes for improving social relations, study habits, etc.—if there is a readiness for such changes. Most of all, perhaps, he can help a student better understand his own behavior, appreciate himself more—grow in self respect and a sense of personal identity. So many people tell a student—or an unemployed man—what to do. Someone should listen—carefully.

CHANGES IN THE SOCIETY WITHIN THE COUNSELOR WILL FUNCTION

Here I quote from my earlier-mentioned Second Look chapter: "It now seems apparent that I was not imaginative enough with regard to scientific and technological developments—and that I was too optimistic about the speed of social innovation and change." This is my 1964 reaction to what I wrote in 1960. I am not aware of any scientific discovery that markedly changes our concept of man and the world and therefore changes the slope of our curves of extrapolation, but in the development of effective oral contraceptives, and the development of computerized and automated systems, as examples, greater strides have been taken in four years than I had thought at all possible.

"There is also a firm advance in the more or less structural elements of our society. Our 1964 Gross National Product of $600 billion is about where it should be if the projected $750 billion for 1970 is to become a reality. But one set of 1964 projections puts 1970 GNP at $825 billion. Barring major crises, the Gross National Product certainly will be more than $750 billion. The same is true of metropolitan development. The explosion of suburbs and physical action to counteract economic and social decay within the Central City is more rapid than seemed possible in 1960.

"Social innovation, however, is another story. I failed, in 1962, to allow sufficiently for the time element involved in the operation of the social principle which says that "things must get worse before they get any better." Nor did I anticipate the magnitude of physical and intellectual violence as a protest, for change. Social innovation has not produced new jobs rapidly enough to care for those displaced by automation and other technological changes. We will have, I now predict, a constantly large and probably increasing segment of the population who are unemployed. Some will be temporarily unemployed because they are in the process of retraining and replacement, but some, for a variety of reasons, will increase the size of the chronically unemployed group. We need a new economic and social theory to fit the inescapable reality that from now on there will be more people than jobs."
"The family is adjusting at a slow pace to the new demands made upon it in the light of greater freedom of action available to children and the impersonalized, mobile nature of urban life.

"The clash is very real in a number of other social areas where bad conditions probably will get worse before constructive action outweighs destructive tendencies. Four areas are illustrative. (1) Young people, faced with what seems to them to be an unrealistic school program, vocational uncertainty, and adult uncertainty in the declaration of firm values, become resentful and turn to violence, expressions of contempt for law, and disregard for the rights of others. This probably will continue for some time since the causes are basic in our society and not easily modified. (2) Attempts to hasten the slow change of attitudes toward racial and color-line differences is and will be accompanied by more violence than was anticipated. The solution is not yet apparent, nor by what avenues we will arrive at a solution. The violence of resistance to educational, political and economic integration indicates that status quo with all of its attendant injustices is more acceptable to some and more deeply resented by others than students of the subject appeared to realize. Here the violence dimension described in (1) becomes an augmenting factor and has, for both sides, retarded movement toward constructive behaviors.

"(3) The movement toward what is generally regarded as more liberal economic and political assumptions (more federal concern with education, employment, and physical and social health at state and community levels) is being resisted vigorously. Name-calling is relied upon; the Bible is invoked for the meeting of conditions not dreamed of by the writers of that day; people are denying economic and political realities with an undreamed-of intensity.

"(4) The projected increase in GNP, and therefore in average family income, probably will result in an increase in the gap between those who have much and those who have little. The 35 million people whose annual income is less than $3,000 will not keep up with the projected increase in family income. They will fall farther behind. Those who are fortunate in family support and in amount and kind of education will be rewarded more, and those without these advantages will be penalized more. There will be pressure on community, and, in particular, upon educational leaders to develop educational programs and non-employment activity outlets appropriate to the disadvantaged and the non-employed. There will be pressure also on the government to provide a living "wage" for all who are low in income and only partially employable. There will be resentment also of those who have by those who haven't."
"The Economic Opportunity Act (Anti-Poverty Bill) is a brave attempt to iron out some of the unevenness of opportunity in our country. It may well be too much of a crash program but, if its objectives are reached to only a limited degree, hundreds of thousands will benefit and the gap in family income mentioned earlier will be slightly less formidable."

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS WITHIN THE PROFESSION OF COUNSELING

The development in 1961 of the Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services with its consequent five-year grant of $1,800,000 from the National Institute for Mental Health was a marked step forward in interdisciplinary study. Twelve national professional associations concerned directly or tangentially with pupil personnel work and mental health in schools banded together in what is one of the most striking interprofessional efforts of the decade—all in the interests of pupil personnel work! Three additional associations asked for inclusion in the study after the grant had been made, making fifteen in all and covering APGA and APA, NEA and ASCD, four medical associations, school administrators, elementary and secondary principals, speech and hearing, exceptional children, social workers, etc. In the summer of 1968 four centers of research were established at the University of Maryland (also the headquarters of the central staff, Dr. Walter B. Waetgen, General Director), the University of Michigan, the University of Texas, and the University of California at Los Angeles. Each of these has a distinctive program of research—community cultures and vocational choice, professional role of different specialists, the function of child behavior consultants, the school learning environment, etc. The central staff anticipates making a national survey of pupil personnel specialists, establishing criteria for the evaluation of pupil personnel services, collecting and disseminating professional information, etc.

The Division of Counseling Psychology of the American Psychological Association represents counselors at the doctorate level. These work in colleges and universities, hospitals, industry, government, and a few in the larger school systems. This Division during the quadrennium also has published some significant professional studies—Recommended Standards for Internship in Counseling Psychology, The Current Status of Counseling Psychology, The Scope and Standards of Preparation in Psychology for School Counselors, Psychology in the Preparation of Rehabilitation Counselors, and the results of the 1964 Greystone Conference, The Professional Preparation of Counseling Psychologists.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association. As the major professional organization for counselors of all sorts, this
association has taken some major strides forward in the past four or five years. The current membership of about 18,000 represents an increase of 50 per cent over the past five years. The two largest of the six divisions are the oldest, the National Vocational Guidance Association and one of the youngest, The American School Counselors Association. Each has around 8,000 members. Other divisions are The American College Personnel Association, The Association of Counselor Education and Supervision, The Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, and The American Rehabilitation Counseling Association.

After long study a Code of Ethics was approved by the Association and distributed to its membership in 1961. APGA has received a number of grants for study — $50,000 from the Ford Fund for the projection of school counseling into the next decade (the Association has sold nearly 40,000 copies of the resulting book, The Counselor in a Changing World), $40,000 from the Office of Education for a conference and publication on new media in the guidance program, $5,000 from the American Child Guidance Foundation for a preliminary study of guidance in the elementary school, etc.

The Association has an active publishing program — recent books and monographs titles (in addition to the one named above) are: The Legal Basis for College Student Personnel Work, Student Financial Aid, The Role of the Student Personnel Worker in Teacher Education, Looking at Private Trade and Correspondence Schools, Stimulating Guidance in Rural Schools. The APGA College Kit has four titles — How to Express Yourself Vocationally, How About College, How to Visit Colleges, How About College Financing. The Association contracted with Houghton Mifflin Company for publication in 1964 of the National Vocational Guidance Association's 50th Anniversary Volume, Man in the World of Work, and has published jointly with NEA and the Public Affairs Pamphlets Guidance and the School Dropout and School Failures and Drop-outs. It publishes a major, fifty-year-old journal, The Personnel and Guidance Journal and publishes for certain of its Divisions such journals as The Journal of College Student Personnel, The School Counselor, The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, and Counselor Education and Supervision.

Two Major Statements by APGA. 1. The American School Counselor Association (a division of APGA) passed a milestone in 1964 when a random sample of one third of its total membership was polled for approval or disapproval of a carefully developed Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors and an accompanying Guidelines for Implementation. (One might
wish they had used a less hackneyed pedagogy term than “implementation!”) The vote resulted in an overwhelming 80 per cent approval for Policy and 90 per cent approval for Guidelines. Both then were made official at the Annual Meeting in April, 1964. For the first time in educational history there is both consensus and official adoption of a statement of “role and function” for the Secondary School Counselor! Although the Report is a commendably brief 10-12 pages, it is too much even to summarize here. One significant section contains statements (each with a breakdown) of the ten professional responsibilities of a counselor. Of equal interest to administrators as well as counselors is the section on Professional Environment which includes consideration of personnel administration, counseling load and assignment, communication and staff participation, accessibility, confidentiality, budget, space and physical facilities. The preparation of these two statements by ASCA included substantial consultation with the officers and the executive councils of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the American Association of School Administrators.

It is anticipated that this prepared report will have wide usage. It will be developed fully in the previously mentioned March, 1965, book, Counseling: A Growing Profession, and it is available as a separate leaflet. Both book and leaflet can be secured from the American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington 9, D.C.

It is tempting to share with the writer’s 1964 Second Look chapter in terms of additional suggestions on an emphasis upon the team work concept, the considerations that should guide principal and counselor in the assignment of housekeeping duties to a counselor, new stresses and concepts in Vocational Counseling, and the counselor’s relations to staff and parents. But there is no space here.

2. Of seemingly more limited interest to school people generally but a factor which will affect vitally the supply and quality of school counselors made available, is the official acceptance of Standards for Counselor Education in the Preparation of Secondary School Counselors, the result of a five-year study by the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (a Division of APGA). These standards are to be considered tentative for the next three years when a re-examination of them will be made. The standards are tough. Under three section headings of “Program of Studies and Supervised Experiences,” “Selection, Retention, Endorsement, and Placement,” and “Support for the Counselor’s Education Program, Administrative Relationships, and Institutional Resources,” a significantly profes-
The professional program is spelled out. It also will be analyzed in the 1965 book and can be obtained as a separate publication from APGA.

Comments on the ACES Report might focus on the need for built-in criticism and constant revision of these professional education standards, and an attack upon the great lag between certification standards and graduate school curricula. It is gratifying to note that this Report incorporates my 1960 projections on counselor education—two years of graduate work (to be considered a top goal with two levels of certification provided), a core of preparation in psychology and the social-behavioral sciences, less emphasis on technique courses, fundamental attention to supervised experience, preparation for service research and computer understanding, and a study of ethical relationships and legal responsibilities. Many of the 1960 counselor education proposals can be seen in action in particular institutions in 1964—and, in large measure, it is believed because of the impetus given to innovation by the NDEA Counseling Institutes.

This 1964 Look at Counseling should be encouraging to all who want realistic and professional help for school children in a perplexing and frustrating world. The counselor is achieving stature. He will carry his end of the professional load in any socially and psychologically receptive school or school system. Where these conditions do not prevail, his effectiveness as a counselor will be reduced seriously.

C. Gilbert Wrenn, Professor (Ph.D., Stanford University, 1932) has taught at Stanford University and the University of Minnesota. He has taught summer sessions and lectured at various universities in the United States and other countries. He joined the faculty at Arizona State University in 1964. His teaching and research interests are in counseling philosophy and theory, personality, the world of work, and the developing role of counseling and student personnel work in schools and colleges.
NEW THOUGHTS ON COUNSELING IN THE SCHOOLS

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELING
   by Verne Faust
   Elementary School Counseling at Arizona State University
   Rationale of Arizona State University Program
   Background and Literature
   Central Objective of the Model
   Differences Between Elementary and Traditional Counselor
     Education Programs

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE TRANSITION FUNCTION
   by H. D. Richardson
   Proposal
   Services To Be Provided

COUNSELING AND CAREERS
   by Calvin J. Daane
   Emphasis Upon Careers
   Making Career Choices
   Counselor Procedures
   Automation and New Careers
   Poverty, Unemployment, and Overcommitment to Work
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELING

Verne Faust

For more than a decade the American Personnel and Guidance Association's counselor seismograph has been detecting at least faint underground rumblings of a "new" professional school counselor about to emerge. During the past five years, the tracing on the seismograph chart has indicated clearly that the quake has been gaining momentum. The elementary school counselor is about to be shaken into a full-fledged place on the public school terrain.

During the 1964 APGA national convention, the strength of these rumblings moved the elementary school counselor meetings, for the first time, out of dark, hastily scheduled hotel broom-closets, into spacious, chandeliered convention rooms, where large audiences of counselors and counselor educators met, hoping to prepare themselves for the imminent tidal wave of demand for elementary school counselors about to sweep across the United States.

While sporadic efforts have been made, here and there, to prepare for the tide with descriptions of what the role and function of the elementary school counselor should be, no certain leadership has emerged to point the way. Only one certainty of agreement appears to have been reached: the elementary school counselor should not be simply an image of the secondary school counselor. Beyond this, publications (Eckerson, 1962; Reed, 1963) have referred to the elementary counselor variously as one who works more with parents and teachers, with continuing emphasis on the "different" child, or the child in some sort of difficulty. Occasionally, reference to play therapy can be found. While these references constitute a gross under-description of current thinking, practice and status of elementary school counseling, it remains to be said that no certain direction of professional image has emerged.

The United States Congress, in 1964, signed into effect a virtual "title wave" of its own. Additional authority was added to the National Defense Education Act, granting that preparation of elementary school counselors could be initiated under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Education. It can well be expected that this congressional action will stimulate elementary school
counseling perhaps even beyond the remarkable surge which has occurred in secondary school counseling as a result of the original National Defense Education Act congressional legislation.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELING AT ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

The Counseling and Educational Psychology Department at Arizona State University has been preparing, for two and one-half years, to meet the predicted public elementary school demand for counselors. The counselor education program model has been on the drawing boards since this time, and, with the impetus of current national legislation, has been translated recently into a full sixty-hour, or two-year graduate curriculum.

The program first will be undertaken experimentally through a National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute, sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education. The interest and support of the U. S. Office of Education, with particular leadership shown in this area by Harold McCully and Ralph Bedell, of the Counseling and Guidance Branch, undoubtedly will contribute considerably toward the present Arizona State University model influencing the character of elementary school counselor education throughout the nation.

RATIONALE OF ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY PROGRAM

Perhaps the chief failure for any explicit national leadership in elementary school counseling to emerge to date may be attributed to a critical absence of clearly defined objectives and a rationale of human behavior out of which role and function could grow. This is to say that no leadership has begun with an organized, systematic conceptualization of human behavior, with the counseling program being determined by such a framework. Instead, approaches generally have been atomistic, devoid of continuity, and seldom relating to a common systematic base. We have, for example, heard much about "working with parents," "focusing on the teacher," or other areas. Elementary school counselor curriculum designers have tended to begin with a discussion of areas, focuses and courses. No substantial effort has been undertaken to permit areas, focuses and courses to develop out of objectives and a systematic rationale of human behavior.

While the limitation of space in the present report prohibits an exposition of the human behavior rationale out of which grew the elementary school counselor education model at Arizona State University, a brief examination of the objectives can be made.

The premise on which these objectives are based maintains that public school personnel, whether they are teachers, coun-
seldors, or administrators, are employees of the tax-supporting society. It is the public — and not school personnel or higher education — which decides what the goals of public education are to be. The public employs personnel to undertake the achievement of these goals. Where the public does not clearly and explicitly define its public school objectives, school personnel must demand clarification or, where this is either inadvisable or not feasible, infer what appears to be the public mandate. (Faust, 1964.)

The major objective of the elementary school counselor preparation model to be initiated at Arizona State University has been derived through inferential processes, rather than having been gained from explicit public directives.

While we frequently have heard it said that it is the “whole child” we are concerned with in education, more often it is cognition alone which in reality receives the attention of teachers, counselors and the public.

This is to say, that “knowing” — knowing how to read, knowing how to manipulate numbers meaningfully, or other content — is most frequently the educational focus; indeed, the current primary goal of tax-supported education.

Every segment of the elementary school counselor education program has been designed to prepare the counselor to contribute toward the child’s functioning maximally at the cognitive level. This is the primary, if not the only objective of the curriculum.

Whether we, as one kind of educationist, may not agree with current objectives issued to us by the tax-supporting public is another issue. To change these goals — if indeed they require changing at all — would behoove us either to work cautiously in new directions at our present educational posts, or, perhaps, resign our positions, and as a part of the public citizenry, free of certain public school alignments which may leave one’s self suspect, attempt to effect change in the public goals of education.

It should be pointed out that the emphasis on “intellectual functioning,” the “curriculum,” and “non-crisis situations” in the elementary school counseling model initiated at Arizona State University is, in its position, neither new nor unique. At the same time, it is both innovative and unique in its breadth, depth and translation into a complete counselor education curriculum.

BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE

As long ago as 1918 the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary School Education, of the National Education Association, (N.E.A., 1918), recognized that a close relationship exists between guidance and curriculum.
More explicitly stated twenty years later, Jones and Hand (1938) supported the contention that "... guidance and instruction would be functioning as inseparable parts of a unitary process ..."

Despite this point of view appearing sporadically over the years, it never has been, in an important way, translated into practice. Apparently, this has been due, on the one hand, to an absence of leadership in successfully moving beyond a mere statement of the position that counseling and curriculum are "inseparable parts of a unitary process." No thorough effort has been undertaken to establish this position on a theoretical conceptualization of human behavior, with counselor education coursework emerging out of the model.

In addition, a tenacious resistance to change on the part of many personnel identified with the earlier guidance movement has shown a shift to the more central core of the student in the educative process. Carroll Miller (1961) has, in a noteworthy way, summed up the historical struggle to relate guidance more centrally to learning and the curriculum. On the other hand, he ended his exposition with support of a traditional posture, containing guidance on the periphery of the child in the educative process.

One of the more recent important supporters furnishing a counseling emphasis on intellectual functioning within a non-crisis curriculum setting is Wrenn (1962). In *The Counselor in a Changing World* he has stated, "The critical question is whether or not the elementary school will learn from the experience of the secondary school and build a counseling program which is not crisis-oriented." Further, Wrenn has explicitly formulated the contention that the school curriculums of today are "... clearly concerned with intellectual growth." He has gone on to say, "The school's primary function can be stated briefly. It is to facilitate the intellectual development of students who vary in the relation of the intellectual to the social and emotional dimensions of their personality."

The apparent impact which Wrenn's book is having on counselors in this country suggests that the posture which he has assumed in regard to intellectual activity of the student, the importance of direct curriculum involvement, and de-emphasizing a focus on crisis situations, may mean that periphery guidance and counseling may, at last, be replaced perhaps as early as within the coming decade. Certainly this seems to be imminently true in the case of emerging elementary school counseling programs.
CENTRAL OBJECTIVE OF THE MODEL

If it is accepted that cognition receives the greater portion of attention in the academic setting, certain implications for educational practice, including the role of the elementary school counselor, as well as counselor educators, become apparent.

The elementary school counselor and the counselor educator possess the same responsibility as teachers and other school personnel. It is assumed in the model for counselor education at Arizona State University that all educationists are to behave in ways which will assist students to learn cognitively at the highest possible levels of efficiency. The elementary school counselor hopefully will possess knowledge, skills, techniques, all the professional competencies, which will add to the probability that public school students will, within whatever innate potentialities they may possess, function cognitively with maximum efficiency.

While it might be imperative for certain other educators to concern themselves with various broad corollary goals, this does not seem to be true in the case of the elementary school counselor. The counselor educator in the present program model acts on the premise that if counselors in the school setting can behave in ways which will allow the intellects of students to function free of crippling anxiety, fear, guilt, and defensive posturing, secondary gains also will be effected. (Faust, 1964) Patriotism, civic responsibility, creativity, character development and personal adjustment, all of which at one time or another have been considered by some voices to be the goals of education, would be expected to result autonomously. This is to say that the kinds of experiences which contribute to effective intellectual functioning also make it possible for effective behavior in other areas.

The goal, the major, most central objective of counselor education, as understood in the present program proposal, is not to train personnel to assist students to make better personal or emotional adjustments; nor, for that matter, to aid students in career and educational choices and planning.

The elementary school counselor education program is designed on the contention that if a new world is constructed for children in the classroom, where students feel relatively safe, the central nervous system of the organism will function at high levels of efficiency. As a by-product, positive, efficient identifications will occur with appropriate societal members, accompanied by a self-searching, curious, creative exploration of the world of work, politics and economic responsibility, so that decision-making may be undertaken effortlessly, or relatively so. Entire guidance and counseling systems or organizations constructed to assist students in choices or decision-making would be practically
unnecessary. Certainly, less public school personnel, with less elaborately expensive training, would be necessary to provide students information and a relationship in order to arrive at appropriate career and social choices. It is contended, to reiterate, that individuals who function efficiently (though not pseudo-efficiently) at intellectual levels also will be maximally effective in other areas of human behavior.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ELEMENTARY AND TRADITIONAL COUNSELOR EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The broad, basic objective (to facilitate cognition) on which the elementary school counselor education curriculum is anchored is not identical with the objectives of the department's secondary school counselor program. The very nature of the elementary counselor program is new on the scene of professional school counseling in America. It is innovative and experimental. It almost precludes the objectives being similar to those of the department's current goals in counselor education.

This is not to say that the secondary counselor program at this University rejects the major objective—of contributing toward highest levels of cognitive learning—represented by the elementary counselor programs. On the contrary, although not explicitly stated, in many cases the current secondary curriculum would be in support of the central objective stated here.

The elementary counselor education program is more central to what is traditionally called the curriculum core of the school, where the essence of learning, of cognition, occurs. It is less periphery, less an adjunct to the central stream of the educative process than that represented by the secondary school counselor's role. It focuses less on advisement, less on career and educational planning, less on tests, measurements and program planning. Also, less emphasis is placed on record keeping.

Further, it functions with less emphasis on direct student contact and work with individuals. While the individual is considered to be of supreme worth, it is maintained that economically his educational welfare can be effectively realized only primarily through teachers and various types of group experiences, all within a particular kind of curriculum design.

The elementary counselor model presented here is less child-treatment oriented, and almost exclusively preventative in nature. Intervention and treatment procedures, techniques and roles are but a minor working part of the model.

Work with parents and community agencies, while a part of the program, is, by comparison, of much less significance than
the central focus on curriculum and the personnel responsible for developing, managing and carrying out the curriculum in action.

The elementary program focuses more on teachers and the effects of their relationships, subject-matter content, and instructional methods on the learning apparatus of the child. It economically spends more attention on persons, such as teachers and administrators, who will affect, either directly or indirectly, large numbers of students. When working with students it more often is economical to do so with groups, rather than individuals. In illustration, a counselor who works intensively with eight teachers, two hours each week, is contributing to perhaps 240 children. It is conceivable that the counselor-student ratio needs be 1 to 750 (based on one teacher for every 50 students) rather than 1 to 250, which is a recommended ratio for secondary school programs. The costs of the elementary school counselor can be 200 per cent less than that of high school counselors.

Instead of testing, program planning and record keeping, the elementary counselor is involved in the most economically crucial places, lending his professional role to building a new world for children, making it safe, and so freeing intellects of children to learn.

The program is not designed so much to heal disordered, perplexed, unproductive children, as it is to assist other school personnel in building a new world for children, in which disorder and disease have little opportunity to originate and flourish.

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THE JUNIOR COLLEGE TRANSITION FUNCTION

H. D. Richardson

Every society, primitive or advanced, is confronted with the problem of effecting an orderly transition of its youth from the irresponsibilities of childhood to the responsibilities of adulthood. In simple, primitive, and highly regulated societies, the transition from youth to adult appears to take place normally and without great hazard. As civilized societies become more complex, interdependent, and less authoritarian, the transition or growing-up period becomes much more precarious and difficult (Venn, 1964). "Growing-up" becomes a problem not only for the youngsters but for the oldsters as well. In our society teen-agers often are looked upon as over-grown children, immature socially, and personally irresponsible. Those who leave school before graduating, or who are pushed out, are sometimes labeled "drop-outs," or downright "juvenile delinquents." In their rebellion against the "established social order," many drop out of schools but do not drop in to society. It is the difficulty of dropping in to society that creates the real problem.

To date, the secondary school has not been conspicuous for its success in effecting an orderly transition of youth from school to society (Gardner, 1960). While a great many secondary schools offer a diversity of courses and provide programs for the guidance of youth, the sad truth is that little, if any, systematic followup is provided the school leaver, either as a drop-out or graduate. The one exception to this unfortunate state of affairs is the moderate attention paid to the transfer of students from the secondary school to college or university.

Today, neither the secondary school, nor any other organized agency of society, is primarily responsible for effecting an orderly transition of youth from the sheltered life of the educational establishment to the fiercely competitive, increasingly complex, highly mobile, and insecure adult life in an open-ended and rapidly changing technological society. The magnitude and complexity of the factors related to the modern "transition problem" raise some doubt that the major responsibility for meeting it should be delegated to, and assumed by, the secondary school (Venn, 1964). The modern demand for additional education and train-
ing beyond the secondary school, and the recent proposal (EPC, 1964) for the extension of universal educational opportunity beyond the high school, clearly point to the junior college as the most likely unit of the American educational system to discharge adequately this fundamental educational obligation.

What is the answer to this vexatious situation? Perhaps there is no complete answer. Partial answers have been suggested and tried in Arizona and elsewhere. Another is herewith proposed for consideration.

Arizona is now in the initial stage of developing a state-wide system of junior colleges. The junior college is widely acclaimed as a community-centered institution, dedicated to serving the needs of secondary school graduates, young adults who have not completed high school, and adults of all ages who desire to continue their education for civic, cultural, and vocational purposes. Its programs are designed to provide additional general education, two-year college transfer curriculums, and one or two years of "terminal" vocational-technical studies for young adults who plan to enter the work force. Programs also are provided for the continuing education of all age groups for re-training or upgrading of vocational skills or competencies, and for leisure or cultural pursuits of diverse kinds. To augment these educational and training programs, guidance services are available to help the individual student know and accept himself as a person, and to help him select, prepare for, enter upon, and make progress in, those life pursuits which will enable him both to live and to make a living. These are the commonly accepted functions of the junior college. Through the broad processes of education, and of expanded guidance and counseling services, the individual may be prepared for the transition from school to the world of work. For many, however, the transition becomes a difficult and frustrating experience, and often a recurring problem.

What can be done to alleviate some of the factors and conditions that make the transition problem an unpleasant experience for many youth and adults? Can the transition function of the junior college be modified and strengthened to play a central role in servicing this common socio-educational problem?

**PROPOSAL**

It is proposed that the junior college in Arizona be recognized as a public guidance agency with full responsibility for developing a systematic and comprehensive program of guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-up services designed to effect an orderly and continuing transition of youth and adults from school to society. In short, it is proposed that the junior college in Arizona become a community guidance center, and that the guidance and
counseling of youth and adults be accepted as its primary and pervasive responsibility. Its education and training function would, of course, be retained. Educational programs would continue to be developed and offered to “meet the needs of individuals” who have discovered through systematic guidance and counseling what their “needs” are (Collins, 1965).

Were the junior college in Arizona to act on this proposal, a vitally-needed dimension in breadth and depth would be added to its present guidance function. This added dimension would give the junior college a distinctive character, and quality. Its servicing of a vital and disquieting social need, long neglected, and not now adequately met by any educational unit or social agency, would justify materially its place and purpose in the total educational establishment (Medsker, 1960).

SERVICES TO BE PROVIDED

In operational terms, this proposed added dimension to the transition function of the junior college would involve the following types of services:

1. Accept on transfer and maintain an active register of all secondary school graduates and school leavers until age 25.

2. Assume as a primary task the assistance of youth during the several years after each has left school with a comprehensive program of educational and occupational counseling, placement, and follow-up services. Some youth would be placed in part-time or full-time employment almost immediately. Others would enroll in the junior colleges or in other educational institutions, part-time or full-time, and remain for months or years.

3. Provide youth seeking admission to other educational institutions the full use of the guidance services in selecting institutions, planning programs of studies, gaining admission, seeking scholarships or other financial aid, arranging for living accommodations, and planning for recreational and other extra-curricular activities.

4. Assist youth seeking full-time or part-time employment to utilize the coordinated placement services of the guidance facility for help in initial occupational placement, and in becoming participants in recreational, cultural, and community service activities.

5. Make continuously available to unemployed youth the counseling, placement, and follow-up services of the guidance program. The placement and follow-up services of the junior college would coordinate, or at least be in touch with, all job opportunity and employment programs at the community level, and be fully informed of state and national programs.
6. Assist adults who are seeking further education or training for up-grading and advancement in employment, or re-training for new employment, to avail themselves of the opportunities and services offered through the educational and training programs of the college, and the guidance, counseling, and placement services.

7. Conduct follow-up and other types of research studies designed to evaluate, strengthen, and improve each of these essential guidance services.

8. Develop an expanded guidance facility and program to serve as the central agency of the community for coordinating the activities of public and private social agencies, service clubs, special organizations, task forces, and the office of the United States Employment Service. Such a development could result in a united and cooperative community effort to serve youth and adults in the entire field of educational, occupational, and personal planning, and enable them to adjust progressively to life as citizens and workers.

In summary, the effective transition of youth and adults from school to society is an important and long-neglected social responsibility. At present, the transition problem is not being adequately met by any single educational institution or social agency. A new approach to the solution of this problem should be made through a cooperative community effort to provide a comprehensive program of educational and personnel services—continuing education and training, guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-up—administered by a staff of professionally competent persons utilizing the most effective modern personnel methods and procedures.

The time is NOW for a public, community centered, educational institution that is willing to accept full responsibility for servicing this vital socio-educational need. In Arizona, this institution could be the junior college, with the transition function as its central and distinctive role.

H. D. Richardson, Professor (Ph.D., Northwestern University, 1937) has taught in public schools, summers at Northwestern University and directed graduate academic programs for more than 25 years at Arizona State University. His teaching and research interests are in the emerging counseling role for the secondary school and junior college.
COUNSELING AND CAREERS

Calvin J. Daane

Counseling attempts to develop appropriate and efficient behavior, but the emphasis is upon a person and his facility for growth. In the past, counselors often diagnosed and then advised the student accordingly. Today, there is more concern for communication which results in the client's recognition of his own unique, but developing, frame of reference for choice. The focus is upon self-understanding, aspiration, and environmental awareness, i.e., "Who I am, and what I can, and what I want to do." The selection of appropriate behavior is reserved for the client. He uses counseling to help him decide.

Exciting techniques are emerging which can be applied to either the old or newer counseling goals. The counselor can use them to refine his presentation of advice, but he also can use them to create an atmosphere which helps the client assume responsibility for himself. The counselor is thus concerned with developing an inventory of usable techniques in which he must involve himself as a person. He also must grapple with his own philosophy and his basic intentions for counseling.

There is considerable evidence to suggest that the development of a personal relationship during counseling will contribute to client assumption of responsibility for self. The relationship must be empathic rather than either authoritative or merely friendly and sympathetic. Experience has shown that this doesn't just happen—it must be created through effort and skill. The counselor must come to know his techniques, understand his own values and biases, and gain the facility to be sensitive and to hear what really is being said. The counselor must be flexible to adapt his technique. He makes running judgments as to how he can maintain and enhance the helping, empathic relationship. The new counselor is more artist than diagnostician.

EMPHASIS UPON CAREERS

Counselors always have been considerate of the client's need to make vocational decisions. There are practical reasons. Almost everyone is concerned with these kinds of choices because efficient work brings high social and economic reward. Occupations also
are recognized as interacting, social groups, in which individuals may identify with each other and relate socially to each other through their jobs. Clients often seek help in making these choices.

Following the second world war, the vocational emphasis in counseling expanded rapidly. Arbitrary job placements had been relatively successful for the military and also for civilian production; but now we were in a new mood. We could afford the luxury of longer range planning as well as the protection of an individual’s right to choose. The vocational emphasis thus moved from placement to counseling. The concern was for individual welfare and career potential. Counselors searched for new theory and evidence to establish appropriate technique for the new emphasis.

Ginzberg (1951), an economist, was one of many in the professional community who reminded counselors that they function without the confidence and support of adequate theory. He and his colleagues offered some hypotheses, and considerable activity followed in which theories expanded and departed from the Ginzberg beginning.

Super (1953) outlined a theory and then began to research it. Then Forer (1953), Shaffer (1953), Caplow (1954), Bellin (1955), and others proposed theories and reported studies in this area. Then Roe (1957) developed her theory based upon Maslow’s (1954) intrinsic need hierarchy, and Holland (1959) proposed a theory based upon worker function and worker traits. Rothney (1958) found career theory implications in his counseling evaluation studies. Super has followed his earlier theory presentation with a program of research, as have Roe and Holland. Their results have begun to appear—(Super, 1960, and 1963; Holland, 1962; Roe, 1964). Other statements based increasingly on research were made by Segal (1961), Hilton (1962), Tiedeman (1963), and Borow (1964).

Vocational choice theories now may be classified in two broad groups: (1) structural theories which focus upon early experience and intrinsic need, and (2) developmental theories which concern a socially-determined self-concept and growth tasks.

While researchers were concerned with career choice theory, a second and equally important concept emerged to test the validity of grouping occupations into related families. Numerous studies throughout this period attempted to observe the traits of successful workers and to relate these traits to work functions. New criteria for grouping thus began to emerge. Roe (1956) reviewed these studies and proposed new levels and groups. The groups compare various work functions and worker personality needs. The levels compare degree of need rather than kind. Super
(1957) then added a third dimension of work setting to the Roe levels and groups; others continue to evaluate and extend the grouping concept.

The new theories regarding choice, and the new knowledge about work groups, have led to a *psychology of occupations and careers*. Earlier placement and "matchmaker" techniques are thus no longer appropriate. Both workers and jobs are known to be multipotential and the "one best job" choice is known to be myth. Clients now explore and choose within families of related occupations and careers. The new psychology has helped to make counseling practice more realistic.

**MAKING CAREER CHOICES**

Careers involve choices which are irreversible but they can be extended into sequence which is appropriate to aspiration. The more appropriate and desired sequence of choice is the major concern in career counseling.

Choice making is, of course, a compromise. The process involves a "sorting out" of alternatives while the client struggles to rationalize his aspiration, or to relate it to his feelings, fears, and various self-defense patterns. A person then may seek to develop a rational logic and phraseology for the justification of his motives. Throughout the process, however, real motivations often remain obscure. It is at this point that counseling attempts to help through clarification.

For the young person there is uncertainty as to how he should proceed. He would like to make his own independent choice, but he often feels inadequate. He knows that adults will give support but that they usually give advice! He also knows that adults tend to withdraw support when their advice is not followed. Therefore, the approach to counseling brings some conflict itself. In the hope that he will find a different kind of adult, he usually begins by asking the counselor — "What should I do?"

To help, the counselor must recognize that because he has different experiences and aspirations, his own values may be inappropriate or irrelevant. He must handle his own values skillfully in order to keep them from becoming dominant. He proceeds by encouraging the client to explore his own aspirations and then he listens intently, trying to identify and clarify a theme. He may use frequent short summaries to highlight the issues as he seeks to help the client clarify his thoughts.

**COUNSELOR PROCEDURES**

The counselor often will recognize that some topics should be explored further, so he uses lead questions like: "How do you
feel about this . . . ?" or "What do you think about . . . ?" The counselor is concerned about the client's comfort and his level of tolerance. As the client unfolds new thinking about himself, the counselor attempts to help him establish appropriate pacing by responding to either content or feeling or a sensitive combination. The counselor will try to be more permissive and try harder to understand if the client seems threatened and tending to withdraw. He also will recognize subtle manipulations by the client which take the attention away from the basic task, and he will try to respond in a way helpful for the regaining of focus.

Lead questions which ask: "Why do you want this?", or "Why do you feel this way?" are usually difficult for a client to handle. The question seems to call for a justification of behavior rather than acceptance, and there is an implication that if the client doesn't supply the reason, the counselor will. "Why?" questions are threatening — they put the client on the spot.

Exploring during counseling may bring about expressions of strong feelings. As in all areas of living, these usually are rationalized at the time. Unlike the psychotherapist who may confront these defenses with interpretations, the counselor may consider them more permissively. Counseling asks "Who?" and "What?" "Why" is a deeper question with a variety of involved implications.

Career planning usually calls for additional information about opportunity. Estimates from tests are sometimes valuable for this, but current and meaningful information about the world of work is even more important, because the information will develop new areas for discussion and identify new alternatives and goals. The important consideration, however, is how the client sees himself in light of the information. Genuine communication and the helping relationship will help in this regard. Counseling must supply not only inspiration and encouragement, but also direction and support.

AUTOMATION AND NEW CAREERS

Writers speak of the computer as only one member of a new series of machines. In the future, machines are expected to provide product and process control for most kinds of material and distribution. The effects upon work will be pronounced.

Diebold (1964) describes a worker who currently operates a power plant with automated process control: the worker reads instruments on panels in a three-level, round room. He sits at a desk in the middle of the room while recording data and reading the instruments with field glasses because they are so many to
read at one time. Grosz (1964) describes a large, automated oil refinery in the Midwest where there are four workers per shift who run the entire plant—they have phones, but they work about a half-mile apart.

Both writers refer to “lonesome pay” (bonus pay) and lonesome pay clauses in worker contracts, because there is no one around to talk to and there is great responsibility involved. Social communication is well recognized as a technique for maintaining and enhancing self-confidence and emotional support.

Writers also predict changes for the field of information-storage and language translation. Apparently, we will have some entirely new libraries where ideas and huge amounts of data are contained in information retrieval machines. The machines will search for the data, classify, analyze and transport it to the inquirer almost instantly.

Michael (1964) describes some effects of automation upon skilled and professional workers. Designing, as well as some other kinds of engineering, are apparently more efficiently handled by the machine. Whereas several engineers, using their records, would design a transformer, today the motor can be designed automatically. The same seems to hold true for bridges, airplanes, missile components and many other structures. Apparently some areas of middle management also can be automated or circumvented by applications of the new machines, as well as many kinds of service workers whose duty is mainly routine.

It is conceivable that nearly all work could be replaced in the long-range future, if we wanted this to happen. A machine does only what it is told to do, but apparently, even now, man can direct it to learn. In the future, machines may be able to learn almost anything while, in addition, also discovering whatever else is needed to be known. For the immediate period of transition, however, this is certainly not the case. Now, we have expansion in some occupations as well as reduction in others.

Detail work with machine tool production includes assembly-line supervision and also most skilled crafts. These are now rapidly being replaced. Manual activity in direct personal services is in demand, but the manual labor in production is rapidly becoming extinct.

The personal supportive services are now increasing with a variety of new occupations and techniques for instruction, protection, medicine, therapy, consulting and advising, etc. Sales service and persuasion also is increasing. This certainly will continue as the distribution medium for new products and services. Worker management is developing new techniques for evaluating human factors, worker control, and the resolution of worker con-
filet. For the present at least, more workers seem to be needed here. More workers are needed in Electronic machine technology as new occupations are developed for the operation, repair, and increase need for complex “machine watching.” Creative research and development should at least match the current rate of expansion in technology, and also develop increased emphasis for social-emotional living. Occupations in Entertainment obviously must increase as workers have more time for passive relaxation, but also for stimulation of new thoughts and ideas.

POVERTY, UNEMPLOYMENT, AND OVERCOMMITMENT TO WORK

It is believed that today people do not become poor. Rather, they are born poor, remain poor, and, in turn, raise children who are poor. Poverty is thus accompanied by an attitude: a feeling of being left out, of not having “made it,” and with little if any aspiration because the odds appear too great. The poor have too few skills, too little education, and not enough money.

Of the forty-seven million families in the United States, nine and one-half million have work income from all sources of less than $3,000 a year, and the average for this group is $1800. This is 20 per cent of all families, but 50 per cent of Negroes, rural families, and families headed by women.

We now have approximately five per cent of available workers unemployed, but this is more nearly 15 per cent among available youth, and it is expected to increase. Twenty-six million youth are seeking work in this decade.

Wrenn (1964) reported to a House Subcommittee on Labor that unemployment is expected to remain, even to increase, and to become a constant factor in our society. Net new jobs per year are now about a half million, while job seekers are at twice that number. The ratio is expected to increase as automation develops and expands.

National legislation is attempting to stem the tide of unemployment. The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 is designed to re-train workers for needed jobs and thus keep them from “slipping into” poverty. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 is designed to help people escape from poverty, but in each case the medium is work. The new EOA includes direct employment in work-training, work experience, and work study through the programs of the job corps, neighborhood youth corps, and college student part-time work. One title also is concerned with improving and expanding adult basic education, while other titles seek to build new job development with incentives for small business and encouragement to communities to uncover needed work.
Most of the worker surplus is in the non-professional areas where automation has developed more rapidly. Professionals in both technology and service seem to be working almost double their former rate to keep up with the growth in knowledge demands and vocational expectation. Professional workers generally are more educated than trained; so as a group they are more creative. They could tolerate and utilize increased leisure time. But they don't have it, while the worker in unskilled technical production finds that he has too much. New problems of over-commitment to work are beginning to emerge for the professional worker, while economic stability, social attitude, and unused hours of leisure are problems current for the worker who has fewer skills.

A positive ethic regarding hard work seems to be well entrenched in our society. The industrial revolution took man from the field to the factory, while mass production changed our civilization, but work remained and was adapted in stride as the favored route for gaining and justifying economic rewards and social acceptance. No one knows what new attitude will be needed now because the scope and ability of the new machine revolution has not yet been fully tested. At present we have only speculation, but if a substitute attitude is necessary, we will need to rely upon new research. We have no history or satisfactory experience in this regard.

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COUNSELOR EDUCATION AT ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

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GROWTH IN THE DEPARTMENT

Sandford S. Davis

The growth of counselor education as a professional discipline since the close of World War II is unequalled in any other profession in educational history. The return of the men from military service to the educational scene, the educational and vocational counseling provided them under the GI Bill of Rights, and the constant expansion of school enrollments have led to a rapidly expanding demand for counseling services. The country soon found itself sorely in need of adequately trained personnel to perform these functions. Universities across the country have tried to meet the demand, and the growth of counselor education programs in the last fifteen years has been phenomenal.

Arizona State University (then Arizona State College) developed a graduate program in counselor education in the early 1950s. The need for advanced education in guidance and counseling led to the establishment of the Doctor of Education degree program, authorized by the Arizona Board of Regents in 1952. Thus graduate programs in Counselor Education were among the first of the doctorate programs to be developed at ASU. Subsequent developments have seen the addition of the Education Specialist and the Doctor of Philosophy degree programs authorized in 1961.

NATIONAL INFLUENCES AND ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY DEVELOPMENTS

During the 1950s counselor education programs throughout the country tended to follow identical patterns. Typically these programs have included didactic coursework in principles, individual appraisal, counseling techniques and educational-occupational information. Developing concurrently was a nation-wide movement for upgrading state certification of school counselors. The educational requirements for counselors tended to become standardized as the states adopted certification plans embodying the above-listed preparation areas.

With the advent of NDEA in 1958 and the provision of funds to encourage educational innovations, some of these older patterns began to change. We have seen an increasing emphasis on counseling practicum (counseling experience under supervision),
and diversification of offerings. Important professional forces influencing change in professionalization of counseling in the 1960s are: (1) the American School Counselor Association study of the role and function of the counselor, and (2) the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision study on counselor preparation. At Arizona State University the impact of these movements has been very strong. This university was selected to conduct one of the first Title V NDEA summer institutes in 1959. This was followed by another summer institute in 1960 and by academic year institutes in 1960-61, 1961-62, 1962-63, 1963-64. Beginning in the summer of 1965, at the encouragement and invitation of the U. S. Office of Education, the Department will offer one of three nationally sponsored trail-blazing NDEA pilot institutes to prepare elementary school counselors.

During the most recent years the Department has extended its services to the preparation of counselors for other than secondary school programs. It has conducted a series of out-service programs for up-grading the training of counselors in the Arizona State Employment Service. In the summer of 1964 the department was selected to conduct one of twenty-seven university programs subsidized by the U. S. Department of Labor to prepare counselor-aides and youth-advisors to work with disadvantaged youth. For several years now the Department also has conducted service counseling under contract with the Veterans Administration.

With the completion of the new College of Education building in 1961, counselor education moved from the old Lyceum building into new and expanded quarters with greatly improved facilities for laboratory and practicum experiences. During the succeeding years many new courses and procedures have been introduced and incorporated into new programs. One of these is the new state-approved certification program. This program has grown beyond the original thirty-hour M.A. program and is an eighteen-hour post-M.A. certification pattern. Another new program is the two-year Educational Specialist degree. Employing schools have welcomed enthusiastically the new requirement of practicum and the more intensive study of the psychological factors involved in counseling and in career and personal development. In response to the need to up-grade college student personnel workers, the Department, in 1964, added a new Master of Arts program for persons planning to enter beginning positions in college student personnel work. The Department shortly will announce a Ph.D. program in Student Personnel Work in Colleges and Universities.
GRADUATE STUDENTS

Growth in the various programs has been impressive at the advanced graduate level. Recent doctoral graduates have taken positions in major institutions over the country as counselor educators, in schools in major administrative posts, and in colleges and universities in student personnel assignments.

Also indicative of the growth are the Department's enrollment figures. During the 1963-64 school year 270 graduate students were enrolled in M. A. programs, 13 in the Ed. S. program, 57 in the Ed. D. program, and 16 in the Ph. D. program.

The number of students completing degrees during the last seven years has increased steadily from 25 M. A. degrees in 1958 to 71 in 1964, for a total of 276 M. A. degrees. The number of Ed. D. and Ph. D. degrees granted has progressed from two in 1955 to nine in 1964, for a total of 19 doctorates.

At this point the future of counseling seems unlimited. The counselor in the secondary school has become well established. While more slowly developing, the immediate future years will see the establishment of counselors in the elementary schools, and the demand is constant and strong for professionally qualified college personnel workers. The state employment services now have fully accepted the responsibility for counseling as well as placement. In all facets of the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act, the provision of counseling services is established.

THE FACULTY

A further indication of the growth of the Department has been the expansion of the Department faculty. Dr. Robert A. Heimann came to ASU in 1952; in the following year, Dr. Sandford S. Davis. These two men, with occasional part-time members assisting, constituted the staff until 1961. In the fall of 1961, Dr. Calvin J. Daane joined the Department, followed by Dr. Verne Faust in 1962, Dr. Charles F. Combs and Dr. H. D. Richardson in 1963, and Dr. C. Gilbert Wrenn in early 1964. Each faculty member was selected carefully to meet particular departmental needs in program expansion. All members are active in counselor education professional organizations and contribute widely as professional consultants locally and nationally. In addition to professional research and writing, the individual members participate regularly in on-going counseling and hold various state and national certifications in counseling practice.
Sandford S. Davis, Professor and Chairman of the Department (Ed.D., University of Colorado, 1953) has taught at the University of Miami, State College of Iowa, and the University of North Carolina. He has been at Arizona State University since 1953. His teaching and research interests are in the history and foundations of guidance and the organization of guidance services in the schools and general community.
PRACTICUM TRAINING

Robert A. Heimann

One of the areas of increasing importance in the training of the school counselor is that of "practicum" or supervised counseling practice. Arizona State University's Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology has been offering Practicum since 1957 and with an ever-increasing emphasis. Currently 20 or more trainees are enrolled each semester in counseling Practicum at the Counseling Center of the College of Education.

Until recently, school counselors have been recruited from the ranks of high school teachers who have been given preparation for their new tasks through a sequence of courses in guidance. This graduate program often was spread over several summers of university work and consisted of an introductory course to the field of guidance followed by several other courses designed to cover the various "guidance services." One of these graduate courses was in Counseling Techniques, which gave attention to different ways of counseling and of developing counseling programs in schools. Other than listening to taped interviews of others, this course of necessity was a "textbook approach" to counseling. As a consequence, the beginning counselor often was forced to learn later many of his skills in the field by trial and error.

Today, the counselor, his duties, and his training are in a period of change. He is becoming more of a professional person because there is generally greater awareness of the importance of the counseling task. Numerous forces have contributed to this development. The sheer increase in numbers of counselors between 1958 and 1963 accounts for some of the drive for greater professionalization (USOE, 1964). Special programs such as the Title V-B Guidance Institutes under NDEA, as well as numerous national conferences on the training of counselors held by the American Psychological Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association have furthered this development. As a result of this activity the educational program for the school counselor has increased not only in over-all scope but in depth.

A significant dimension of the increased attention to counselor education has been the expansion of the Practicum phase of the professional education program. This nation-wide growth has
become a significant feature of the year-and-a-half to two-year graduate training of the school counselor. Practicum experience sometimes is offered in the high school setting, but more often in a campus setting. It is central to the newer concepts of training counselors. Following several older professions, such as law, medicine, and social work, it has become apparent that, without carefully planned and supervised counseling experiences of a try-out nature, it is very difficult to create an adequate professional worker.

THE SETTING FOR THE PRACTICUM

The essence of the Practicum experience is counseling “live” clients under close supervision. This posers two main considerations. The first of these is an adequate physical setting in which to carry out the activities. The second and most vital is a competent professional staff to do the close supervision that is necessary to protect both the client and the counselor. Many counselor education programs, including the one at Arizona State University, have approached the first problem by establishing a campus center for laboratory training. The Center facility at Arizona State University has enabled several hundred counselors in-training to try their professional skills in testing and counseling with several thousand clients over the past few years. The physical setting that has evolved features one-way mirrors in each counseling room which, together with a built-in audio system, allows each interview to be observed, listened to, taped, and sometimes filmed over closed-circuit TV (Heimann and Whitemore, 1964). The professional supervisory staff does the listening and observing, but trainees are encouraged to watch one another, to listen to tapes of interviews together, and to present taped interviews and a written typescript of the interview in case conferences with supervisory staff members.

These activities become a rewarding clinical experience. Each trainee in the Practicum is assigned several clients with whom he meets regularly. He learns to prepare confidential case materials, to exchange professional information with other agencies, and to try out the skills he has studied in his counseling classes. At this point the discrepancy between talking about counseling and talking as a counselor is noticed. It is here that the second problem becomes apparent—the need for a competent and professional supervisory staff.

THE SUPERVISION PROGRAM

The Practicum supervisor has a dual function, partly managerial, and partly as a catalyst in the learning process. He is directly responsible for the daily routines of his trainees. He
assigns them to their cases, he reads their case writings, he listens to their interviews, and helps them review their tapes. Perhaps his most important function is as the "spark" in the process of teaching and learning counseling. His role is somewhere between that of being the trainee's counselor and being his teacher. The supervisor's major task is to help the student study his perceptions of himself, of the client, and of the counseling relationship. The student-counselor often needs to learn a new verbal repertoire based on a communication process that is essentially different from that between teacher and pupil. While he has studied "reflection," "support," "structuring," and other counseling concepts in his classes, now is the time he must clothe these abstractions in concrete verbalisms. Often he finds this a quite difficult task. To shift his role from teacher-pupil to counselor-client he needs to understand himself as well as his client. This is where the dynamically oriented supervisor enters the picture.

The physical setting of the center, as described above with its rather elaborate instruments, often arouses in the beginning student a high degree of anxiety. He usually has a strong desire to please those assigned to supervise without being able to easily muster habits of response that will assure good grades and encouragement on the part of the supervisory staff. Care need be taken that this threat is not overwhelming, but it is not possible or even desirable to do away with all of the learner's anxiety. Anxiety motivates change and learning. The anxiety developed, the questions asked, the uncomfortable feeling of listening to one's own taped interview for the first time can be triggers to self-insight and self-improvement to a degree that is impossible in an ordinary classroom.

The gap between theoretical awareness of the proper counselor-like role and the actual behaviors appropriate to this position varies with individual counselor-students. For some it is a minor point. These trainees seem sensitive enough to be able to close the gap quickly, with the supervisor playing only a small part in the process of what might be called "becoming a counselor." For others there is a great distance between where the student is in terms of his verbal behaviors in the counseling situation, and where he might wish to be. For these students the supervisor's task is great; he needs to be skilled in assisting the trainee to change many perceptions of himself and of the counseling task. Such changes come slowly, if at all. Hence the practicum often becomes a screening process, a place where some students may have to be helped to see that while they can be many things they should not be counselors.
TEACHING AND RESEARCH IN THE PRACTICUM

Teaching techniques in the Practicum are laboratory-like experiences rather than formal classroom activities. Most of the instructional method is adapted for individual or small seminar groups, with informality and cooperative participation. Unlike a chemistry or physics laboratory, in the Practicum it is impossible to develop a step-by-step manual of instructions and a predetermined set of correct exercises because this laboratory is concerned with live clients. Pre-planned instruction concentrates upon the activities that are being carried out as the process of counseling is studied. These include the use of various observational aids to learning, i.e., the tape recorder, the film, the one-way observation glass, closed circuit TV, typescripts of interviews, case writing, and conferences and demonstrations. Since what is being studied is a dynamic process rather than a static event of known dimensions, all efforts must be focused on the observing and recording of this continuous process so that it may be studied and analyzed at a later time and place as well as at the moment.

The laboratory manual, so to speak, is a state of readiness, a technology of recapture, a time of active observation by the learner and his instructors. In an effort to study counseling along scientific lines it becomes important that the discrete behaviors of the counseling process stand the test of replicability. For this scrutiny to be possible it is necessary to depend upon the technology of the capture of the "moment" of the relationship by observational and recording procedures. In this way it becomes possible to make a scientific analysis of what transpired, and by doing so to understand the process more fully.

An outside observer witnessing the teaching methods in the Practicum Laboratory would find varied activities being carried out at nearly the same time. He would see some trainees interviewing, recording, preparing typescripts, writing case notes, talking over their cases with their supervisors, giving or scoring tests, reading or seeking occupational informational materials for their clients, viewing other trainees conducting interviews, listening to tapes of interviews of themselves or others, or preparing for these activities by study. He would note that much of this activity is self-directed and that the leader or teacher is a co-participant rather than a lecturer and that much of the instruction also varies in its order of presentation.

Under the new requirements that lead to recommendation for certification, adopted by the Department at Arizona State University in February, 1964, all candidates for the Arizona counseling certificate must enroll for a minimum of one semester of
practicum. This specification in the training of Arizona school counselors should go a long way toward the ultimate preparation of a master counselor who is equipped to aid young people to make wiser decisions and to lead more satisfactory lives for themselves and for their communities.

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RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT

Charles F. Combs

The body of research accomplished within the area of Counselor Education is very impressive when one considers the relative youth of the Department. Only that research which was accomplished in the Department or directly under its auspices is reported in this review. A considerable amount of research that has been undertaken by the Department faculty while resident in other institutions is not touched upon here, nor are numerous non-research publications of the faculty.

Eighteen doctoral dissertations have been completed within the Department, five more candidates are in the process of evaluating their data or writing the dissertation, and approximately fifteen candidates are currently formulating the research design for committee approval. To be noted also are several research proposals by department faculty that are being prepared currently for submission to national research agencies or are awaiting action by the agency.

The research undertaken within the Department seems to fall logically into four broad categories. Many of these studies might well be listed in more than one category, but multiple listings were made only when different portions of a particular study were thought to be uniquely applicable to other segments of the scheme.

I. Counseling

Seventeen research studies have been, or are in the process of being, completed which deal with counseling. Generally, these studies fall into three major areas:

The Outcomes of Counseling — with studies by Anderson, Foster, McGreevy, and Whittemore concerned with individual counseling, and studies by Clements, Jessee, Heimann and McKendry concerned with counseling in groups.

The Dynamics of Counseling — with studies by Dunlop, Hertweck, Mazer, McGreevy, Witkowski, and Zimmer.

The Training and Supervision of Counselors — with studies by Combs, Daane, Heimann, and Kaslo.
II. Personality

Four major research studies in personality have been completed within the department.

Combe and Daane studied the areas of perception and empathy. Golden and Kimler studied the area of interpersonal relationships.

III. Decision-Making and Commitment

Eleven researches done within the department logically fall within this category. Generally, these studies further seem to fall into three major areas:

The Making of Vocational Decisions — with studies by Anderson, Bernardoni, Combs and Stafford, Jessee, and McKendry.

The Talented Student — with studies by Foster, Heimann, Schenck, and Whittemore.

The Drop-out — with studies by Daane and Hagebak, and Goodner.

IV. Other Researches

Four remaining researches in the department were not clearly within the frame of reference of the above categories. They include studies by Crouch, Heimann, Long, and Thoroman.

The studies are presented as follows in alphabetical order:


An exploration of the relationship between short-term individual counseling with eighth grade girls and their achieved vocational maturity, knowledge of occupational information, and ability to do accurate self-estimates. Presented also are several selected case reports.

Independent experimental and control samples of 30 girls each were drawn from elementary schools in the Phoenix metropolitan area. Experimental treatment consisted of six weekly, 35-minute individual counseling interviews. Each interview was designed to focus attention upon objectives considered important in career planning and vocational decision-making. Change was measured by criteria explicitly developed for the purposes of this study.

Students who received counseling were found to be significantly higher than the control group students in general vocational maturity. On "knowledge of occupational informa-
"situation" and "ability to do self-estimates" the counseled group, while higher, failed to reach the .05 level of significance.


An analysis of the relationship between selected historical, cultural and environmental factors and the stated vocational preferences of male White Mountain Apache high school students. Also explored were factors which influenced the vocational choice of the general population of high school students.

Data were obtained chiefly from interviews with Apache students and their parents, ratings of acculturation and socio-economic level, an apperceptive device, a review of historical and anthropological studies, and a study of the job opportunities on the Apache reservation.

The process of vocational development for Apaches includes a synthesis of compromise between two cultures as well as between subjective and reality factors. Vocational choice is a tentative one due to antithetic pulls from both cultures.


This study examined the effects of group counseling with college-bound high school seniors upon their anxiety levels and upon the degree of empathy between parent and child.

Independent experimental and control samples of 60 students each were drawn from high school seniors in the Phoenix metropolitan area. The experimental sample was assigned randomly to six sub-groups of 10 each. Two counselors met with three groups each for six 50-minute sessions prior to graduation. In three of the sub-groups the experimenter attempted to involve the parents of the students in the educational planning of their children.

The results of this study indicated that group counseling experience significantly increased empathy and parent-child agreement of interest, and decreased anxiety concerning self both prior to and after college entrance. Group counseling apparently resulted in less anxiety and greater ability to assess self accurately.

Combs, Charles F. An Analysis of the Relationship Between Certain Perceptions of Self and the Experience in a Gradu-
All 11-card apperceptive device has been and is being administered to graduate classes at various training levels in the Counselor Education program at ASU. The device is given at the beginning and end of each course selected. Certain students are to be followed throughout their academic program to ascertain any affected change in self-concept, and that pattern of perception most inimical to optimal counselor function.

Preliminary findings indicate significant differences between beginning and finishing students in both the M.A. and doctorate groups, and between beginning and end of semester perceptions in certain groups.

With respect to their perceptions, those students who are enrolled in the M.A. programs who are working toward the service course goals of "just the M.A." are significantly different in their perceptions from students who express an intent to go on in counseling. These results are NOT significantly related to class grade obtained.

Combs, Charles F. and Stafford, Kenneth R. In Investigation of the Relationship Between Certain Personality Aspects and Selection of University Major. (Research in Progress), 1964.

This study examines the hypothesis that selection of, and survival in, an academic program is directly related to personality characteristics of the student and his perception of the program as meeting them. Cognitive and non-cognitive variables are being studied.

Hypotheses explored: Does decision regarding selection come from extrinsic and historic data or from personality needs which are intrinsic and immediate? Does survival and function within any program depend upon experience, therein shaping the intrinsic needs structure, or is the experience shaped to fit the needs? Do certain programs shape students to fit nomothetic patterns while others enable students to develop ideographic patterns? Are there differences in cognitive and non-cognitive characteristics between students in humanities vs. scientific programs? Are there significant differences within these programs? Does the perceptual organization of effective students in these separate programs differ?

Study of the student's selection of departmental specialization is broadly based on C. P. Snow's Two Cultures. Programs are differentiated in terms of Humanistic and Scientific
categories of disciplines. Students from Counseling and Educational Psychology courses are being examined on apperceptive and other instruments.


An analysis of the organizational patterns and program practices used by state colleges and universities for providing on-campus religious activities within the Federal Constitutional prescription.

A questionnaire was sent to and received from 290 tax-supported four-year colleges and universities in the U.S. A majority of colleges and universities did provide cooperative aid. Financial resources, qualified leadership, and allocation of responsibility were the most common problems. Where public opinion was supportive (southern and central U.S.) sectarian activities were sometimes practiced and even administratively approved for all students.

Constitutional interpretation is tending toward differentiation between establishment of religion and prohibition of free exercise thereof.

Daane, Calvin J. A Pilot Use of Three Non-Standardized Evaluation Techniques Regarding Attitude and Motivation for Counselor Education. (Reported to NDEA Counseling Institute Directors meeting), 1962.

Three-non-standardized evaluation techniques were used in an attempt to measure attitude and motivation for counselor education. The study explored the nature, status, and change in trainee attitudes, rigidity indices, stereotypy, and depth of motivation.

Pre- and post-course instruments were administered to the 26 students in the NDEA Guidance and Counseling Institute at ASU during the semester. Students were rated in terms of self-report-depth, counselor response preference, and a projective technique.

The results indicate that training increases the number and depth of positive motivation indices.


A preliminary effort to develop a scale for the measurement of empathy as an analytical predictive ability. The
approach utilized 20 words in three contexts. Agreements between self-ratings of a person to be judged (reader), and the estimates of those ratings by a group of persons (judges), was used as the basic measure.

Various factors were considered in the refining of the empathy score: (1) similarity in definition of the 20 words, (2) similarity of self-concept of reader and judge, (3) similarity between reader's self-rating and the judges' estimate of some hypothetical, average reader (stereotype), and (4) similarity in response set of reader and judge. The standard materials included a filmed version of the reader's behavior. This was used with various samples.

Results show generally better than chance empathy scores. There is some indication for use in identifying successful student nurses, with other between group differences also suggested.


This research bulletin presents a very comprehensive summarization of the literature on the school drop-out. Formal and informal studies and literature on the school drop-out have been studied and organized, by decade, from 1914 to 1964. These studies were reviewed for historical perceptive, various attitudes expressed toward the problem, and the various action programs now in progress.

The bulk of public comment as reviewed seems to see the drop-out as a social problem rather than as a symptom. The authors emphasize consideration of the drop-out as a phenomenological whole.


To test the hypothesis that no differences exist among several categories of educators and lay persons, insofar as their perceptions of the appropriateness of counselor performance of several responsibilities was concerned.

A list of 106 counselor tasks was reviewed by 11 doctoral candidates in counseling, and from these an opinionaire was evolved. The opinionaire was given to 25 randomly selected counselor-educators, 25 counselors, 24 administrators, 35 male and 35 female teachers, 25 college-bound and 25 job-bound seniors and the mothers of 25 college-bound and 25 job-bound seniors.
All groups agreed that counselors were appropriately involved in educational and vocational counseling. Personal counseling activities, while agreed upon by counselors and counselor educators, were questions by college-bound seniors. Counselors' involvement in testing and diagnostic activities was universally approved. While parents and students viewed advice-giving and administrative-clerical activities as appropriate, these were generally rejected by counselor-educators and counselors. All groups rejected the use of disciplinarian activities as being appropriate for counselors.

The author concluded that the counselor role is poorly defined by the public. He further concluded that while the educational and vocational assistance role is accepted, wider usefulness is not yet generally recognized. Job-bound students and their families tend to accept the counselor as a helping person in the area of personal counseling, more than do the college bound. Teachers and administrators do not seem to understand and to accept the role of the counselor as an educational specialty.


Analyzed the effects of counseling as applied to ASU freshman males. A secondary purpose of this study was to determine the measurable effects of the interaction of different counselors using different counseling techniques with the same subjects on the same criterion measures.

The experimental treatment consisted of a random selection of two groups of 34 ASU freshman males who were in the top 10 per cent on a college qualification test. Four counselors were assigned a structured counseling technique to use with four of their group. On the other four the counselor was encouraged to use whatever counseling techniques were comfortable for him.

The results indicate that grade-point-average does not show an immediate response to counseling, though there was a significantly higher relationship between grades and college qualification tests with those who received counseling than those who did not. Also, there was a significant relationship to grades while in counseling that seemed related to particular counselors.


Analyzed change in the interpersonal interview performance behavior of practicum trainees.
Students enrolled in the counseling practicum in the Guidance Center were observed and recorded. The tape recordings then were analyzed in terms of several criteria.

The results of this study indicate that reported behavior and actual performance tend to remain consistent throughout practicum. Trainees and supervisors tend to observe trainee-behavior differently.


Analyzed case studies of ninth-grade students identified as capable of high school graduation but who exhibited behavior symptomatic of a school drop-out. This study attempted to identify common traits or responses which might serve as focal points in interpreting the behavior of potential drop-outs.

Three public junior high schools in Albuquerque, New Mexico, were the source of the subjects. Five students, each exhibiting many symptoms of potential drop-out, were selected from each school, and a case study drawn for each.

Findings indicate that school drop-out is an individual problem. Academic success experience is necessary if the drop-out is to be retained in school.


Experimental and control groups of ten each were selected randomly from the following populations: members of the 1963-1964 NDEA Institute; masters candidates in counseling, doctoral candidates in counseling, and members of a graduate class of the College of Education. A four-phase training program was given to the experimental groups in terms of increasing their accuracy of prediction for clients. At the end of the training period the subjects were tested in terms of making predictions on the basis of 135 cases drawn from the files of the Counseling Center. The data presently are being analyzed.

Heimann, Robert A. A Study of Attitudes Toward the Education of Arizona’s Migrant Farm Children. (Unpublished study for Governor’s Advisory Committee on Seasonal Farm Labor), 1957.
The attitudes of a sample of teachers from non-metropolitan schools in Arizona were studied to ascertain their stated feelings toward the education of Arizona's migrant farm children.

Respondents reflected that they were open-minded toward the problems of these children, but that other teachers and members of their communities tended to discriminate against migrant youth because of their lack of middle class values, especially those relating to academic achievement, promptness, and neatness.

The presence of large numbers of these children in a given classroom or school compounds usual educational problems and raises the need for special consideration, curriculum modifications, and guidance progress.

Heimann, Robert A. Guidance Center Faculty and Staff, Non-Verbal Communication Process During Counseling. (Research in progress), 1964.

An investigation of non-verbal communication process during counseling by means of closed-circuit TV and sound-motion pictures presently is being undertaken by the Counseling Center. Recognition of the significance and importance of cues to understanding of the client that are perceived by other than verbal means would add a needed dimension in the training of counselors and the increasing of their sensitivity toward clients. Analysis of non-verbal behavior in relation to verbal progress of the counseling would allow categorization of such stimuli and aid in formalizing it as a technique that could be taught.


A comparative study of school performances of 120 high school students differentiated into two social class groupings, i.e., middle and upper-lower classes using a modification of Warner's social-class scales. In-school performances over a three-year period were studied as well as scores on a scholastic aptitude test for both groups. Significant differences were found in favor of the higher social class students in both school marks and grades. Comparison of sex differences, however, seemed to operate irrespective of social class position as girls performed at a superior level in all measures. Implications for counseling are discussed.

Five-minute segments of sound movies were taken of counselor trainees enrolled in the department counseling practicum during the fall semester of 1964. The short segments were chosen randomly as to which counselor and which time segment would be used. These segments were spliced randomly together. Potential counselees were drawn from ASU freshmen who have not had contact with the Counseling Center. One group of potential counselees rated slides of the counselors for the feeling-tone communicated. A second group rated the movies without the sound track. A third group rated only the sound track. A fourth group rated on the basis of both film and sound.

An analysis of the preliminary data indicates very promising results.


Independent experimental and control samples of 30 boys each were selected randomly from the eighth grade homerooms of an intermediate school in a Phoenix suburb. In addition two of the homerooms were selected randomly for group guidance activities. Three counselors met 10 boys each, once a week, in individual counseling sessions.

The results of this study indicate that individual counseling is effective in increasing vocational maturity, knowledge of occupational information and in doing self-estimates. The individual counseling experience was found to be superior to group guidance.


An exploration of the nature, quality, and extent of supervisory practice of school counselors. State guidance directors and counselor-educators were asked to nominate secondary schools with outstanding counseling programs in six Western states. Thirty schools in these states were visited and the supervisory aspects of their counseling programs analyzed and surveyed by taped interviews with administrators and guidance directors.
Preliminary data suggest that there is much more management supervision than psychological supervision.


Exploration of the hypotheses that a teacher's inability to "get along" with pupils was not as much related to a lack of knowledge or teaching skills as to her own unresolved personality needs.

Four techniques were used to assess the parental identification of 59 female, elementary-teacher candidates enrolled in Directed Teaching during the fall semester of 1955.

Parental identification is significantly related to the teacher's interpersonal relationships in the classroom. Father-identified teachers readily identified and reported pupil disruptive behavior as annoying, while teachers with weak mother-identification identified but denied annoyance with such behavior.


An exploration of the relationship which exists between subjective time, defined from the standpoint of its duration or magnitude, and acuity in the perception of time.

The experimental sample consisted of two classes in elementary psychology at Arizona State College. Time permissiveness in the classroom is conducive to greater creativity. The study indicates that students should not be restricted by time blocks.


Analysis of the relationships between the identified dimensions underlying the interview practices as reported by school counselors, and factors related to personality variables.

Practitioner members of the American School Counselor Association were selected randomly as subjects, and administered a general counseling inventory. The results then were compared with data obtained from a control group of 120 graduate students in counseling.

The results indicate that presently-practicing counselors often are reluctant to establish an "effective" relationship
with clients. Such reluctance decreases the probability that client behavioral change will occur. The author concludes that unless this pattern can be changed the counselor role will continue to be largely informative in scope.


An analysis of the relationship between the values of the client and the values of the counselor in the counseling relationship, together with an attempt to measure the counselor's perception of the client. The proposed study utilizes the meanings given to selected concepts over the period of the counseling experience.

The sample consists of 13 counselor trainees who were in the advanced ASU counseling practicum. The selected clients were 28 college students who voluntarily had sought counseling assistance in the Counseling Center. Both clients and counselors used a semantic differential device throughout the course of the counseling experience.

The clients and their counselors increased their similarity of rating as did the counselors' predictions and the clients' ratings. The similarity of the counselors' ratings and those they predicted for their clients did not increase.


An analysis of the relationship between group counseling and educational planning of students who were in the transition from high school to college.

Experimental and control groups of 60 college-bound high school seniors who had selected ASU as the college of their first or second choice were selected randomly. The experimental group was divided into six subgroups of 10 students each. These subgroups then were assigned to two counselors who met with them for six 60-minute weekly sessions. Thirty-eight of the experimental group who actually entered ASU in the fall again were divided into four groups of approximately 10 each and provided with an additional six 60-minute weekly group-counseling sessions.

The results of this study indicate that group counseling as a medium for educational planning was effective in aiding college planning efforts.

Forty-eight students who were registered for student teaching in the fall semester of 1961 were tested and interviewed. The taped recordings of these interviews were analyzed in terms of a scoring scheme. Individual case reports, including the background of each student, motivational factors, and a summary, were prepared for each student.

The highest priority of motivation was the “influence of others” followed by “status and ego,” “related experiences,” “special circumstances,” “security,” “intellectual stimulation,” and “desire to serve.”


This study found that youth-serving services were lacking or deficient in leadership, public relations, finances, etc.


Measured attitudes of clients toward their counselors and the counseling experience and relationship of these attitudes to the verbal techniques used by the counselors.

Initial educational-vocational interviews with 25 ASU college students who voluntarily had sought counseling experience at the Counseling Center were recorded and transcribed. Counselor responses were analyzed as were client attitudes.

Only “approval and encouragement” was found to be significantly related to positive client attitudes, and “forcing the topic” and “interpretation” to negative attitudes. The study suggests that the qualification of verbal techniques is far too narrow a dimension by which to explain the counseling relationship. The study suggests that counselor-educators should emphasize that counselor verbal behavior is only one small aspect to the relationship.


An analysis of the relationship of counseling and the ability of the subjects to evince “original” behavior. Ran-
domly selected experimental and control groups of ASU freshman students were differentiated as being either “original or non-original.” During the course of their first semester at ASU they were given counseling and other treatment and then re-examined on the criteria.

The findings of this study indicate that, although counseling can be of some assistance, certain operant conditioning techniques can be even more effective than counseling in increasing originality responses.


University freshmen identified as “talented” by their 99th percentile scores on the College Qualification Tests were dichotomized as “original” or “non-original.” These classifications were based on scores on The Minnesota Test of Creative Thinking, parts I-V of the Consequence Test, and the Anagram Test. Twenty subjects scoring at the extreme were studied further with self-report inventories.

In all, 23 scores were obtained and comparisons were made between the subjects deemed most original and least original. The original group received significantly higher scores on scales named “dominant,” “intuitive,” “perceptive,” “impulsive,” “self-centered,” “self-accepting,” and “tolerance for complexity.” In 12 scales differences were at the five per cent level or better and in the direction hypothesized. This published report is a part of the dissertation previously listed under Whittemore.


Identification of selected content and style in language and relationship to response of teachers and counselors at different levels of experience and training. A concommitant problem was the adaptation of content analysis procedures to the task of quantifying written responses.

The samples used were 17 experienced doctoral students and practicum supervisors in the Counseling Center at ASU, 29 inexperienced counselors in the early stages of counselor training, 30 experienced teachers, and 24 inexperienced ASU College of Education Student Teachers. The four groups were shown a 20-minute sound film of a troubled adolescent boy and then tested on their perceptions. Each response was typed and coded and analyzed.
The results of the study indicate that there are significant differences in the way that the four groups responded to the stimulus. As experience increases there is a definite related change in the character of the verbal responses elicited by the film.

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POSTSCRIPT

Counseling is just over fifty years old. It is American in concept—developing out of our national character and nourished by our commitments to individual freedom to respect of self, and to respect for others.

New concepts for counseling continue to emerge rapidly in program, procedures, and research. The focus of counseling, however, continues to be a concern for individuals—a dignity, growth, and more skillful adaptation of people to a world of rapid social change.

Thousands of professional counselors in school now are contributing to the development of the intellectual and social effectiveness of students. Others are working with the adjustment and relocation problems of a large share of our adult population. Many thousands more are needed to meet the increasing demands in the schools at all levels and in the community as a whole. Arizona State University shares with other universities the task of preparing counselors for schools, colleges, community, and government agencies. The task is barely begun and the research needed is extensive. The University is attempting to meet its heavy responsibility of leadership in both professional preparation and research.

Editors
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