Guest Editors' Comments: Counsellor Education in Canada

In producing this special issue of the *Canadian Counsellor* we have had three goals: (a) to bring together in a single volume, for the first time, various points of view and research reports on counsellor training in Canada; (b) to distribute to all counsellor educators in Canada the results of a research study designed to test the competency preferences of a national sample of counsellor educators, counsellor supervisors, practicing counsellors and counselling students; and (c) to present a condensed "state-of-the-art" literature review on counsellor education. To achieve this third goal, we have cited studies from a wide range of North American sources. This review confirms that the state of counsellor education reflects a number of unresolved issues. In an edition of *The Counseling Psychologist* addressing the issue of "Professional Identity", Shertzer and Isaacson (1977) suggested the most striking feature of counselling psychology today is its disarray. They contend that "incredible controversy abounds about its identity, licensure, practises, training models, clients served, effectiveness, to cite a few issues" (p. 33).

The rest of this editorial essay is devoted to a condensed review of approximately the last decade of literature and attempts to identify trends and conclusions in counsellor education that can be reasonably supported by the available evidence. Those issues selected for review include: definition and identity; characteristics of the counsellor; counsellor competencies, standards, training modes, and practicum and supervision. The essay closes with a few predictions for the future.

Definition and Identification: "For what are we training?"

Since 1952 (American Psychological Association) counsellor education programs have undergone continuous review (Berstein & Lecomte, 1976; Carkhuff, 1969; Ford, 1979; Matarazzo, Weins, & Laslow, 1966; Rogers, 1956). On the one hand counsellor education programs have been criticized as unsystematic, poorly defined, and reflecting subjective or ideological bias. On the other hand, as Ford (1979) points out, in contrast to training programs in psychoanalysis, psychiatric social work, and clinical psychology, it has been primarily in the counsellor training literature that "innovative, systematic, empirically-based and technologically-advanced instructional methods and educational evaluation procedures have been discussed and researched" (p. 89).

One difficulty in assessing counsellor education is that examination of particular aspects (e.g., skill-training) to the exclusion of other aspects of training programs can easily provide a distorted and misleading view of the total picture.

In the long-standing controversy as to "What is counselling?", attempts at clarification most often contrast it to psychotherapy. Belkin (1975) points out a number of authors who strongly hold there is no general distinction or at most a very fine distinction between counselling and psychotherapy (Albert, 1966; Ard, 1966; Balinsky, 1951; Curran, 1968; Patterson, 1973) but numerous others who hold strong convictions to the contrary (Audrey, 1967; Blocher, 1966; Bordin, 1968; Mahler, 1971). There are a number of criteria on which counselling has been differentiated from related roles.

Attempts to differentiate on the basis of setting have not proven satisfactory (Brown, 1974; Lewis, 1970; Pallone, 1977; Wren, 1977). In terms of clientele similar lack of consensus is evident (Lewis, 1970; Manning & Cates, 1972; Pallone, 1977; Stefflre, 1965).

Training has also been a focus for differentiation. Although better trained counsellors are scarcely distinguishable from better trained psychotherapists (Stefflre, 1965), two myths appear to be entrenched in the minds of many: that counsellors are less skilled and that psychotherapy is more effective. When reviewing training programs no clear differentiation is obvious (Hamilton, 1977; Hewer, 1972; Lewis, 1970). Where Belkin (1975) reviews effectiveness he "set the record straight" with regard to the second myth in his statement "There is no evidence psychotherapy is any more efficacious in the treatment of any disorder than is counselling" (p. 31). The issue becomes more than a point for academic dialogue in light of the implications for licensure and certification as a psychologist (Stigall, 1977).

There is little controversy about the desirability of clearly defining the differences between clinical, counselling, and clinical-school roles since doing so would provide clearer guidelines for training. The feasibility of doing so might be disputed on the grounds that it is premature. Of equal importance is a clear understanding of the commonality of the skills necessary for each role.

Gottman (1974) establishes that a major obstacle in teaching people how to do psychotherapy has been a reluctance to define psychotherapy, to believe or endorse it as an elusive, intuitive process. The statement might well be generalized to other related roles.

Such avoidance is reminiscent of Eysenck's amusing definition, "Psychotherapy is an unde-

fined technique applied to unspecified problems with unpredictable outcomes. For this technique we recommend rigorous training" (Stefflre, 1965). This attitude is no longer acceptable. The process of evaluation, a vital necessity for improving the profession, demands specificity of techniques and goals. What Reisman suggests, therefore, although not totally satisfactory, is a realistic base point, "it is preferable to have a definition that approximates the 'truth' than to have nothing at all" (p. 9).

The "truth" has apparently changed with time. Major shifts have taken place in counselling psychology since its emergence in 1951. Shertzer and Isaacson (1977) report the shifts noted by Tyler (1972):

> During the 1950's, counselling psychologists saw themselves primarily as therapists, who helped clients clear away personal conflicts produced by complex feelings and emotions. During the next decade, another shift occurred and the counselling psychologists saw themselves as architects of behavioral and organizational change. The most recent shift, according to Tyler, came during the 1970's as counselling psychologists became experts on group interactions. (p. 34)

A professional identity should not be thought of as "absolute, immutable, neverchanging" (Shertzer & Isaacson, 1977, p. 35). Yet, questions regarding identity, role and definition are important to the issue of training. They generate additional questions: To what degree is the counsellor a specialist and to what degree, a generalist? Is the emphasis on *counselling* or *psychology?* Is the counsellor an educator or therapist? Is counselling a process of learning or curing? What training is "core" to all roles? For what do we as a profession stand? The educators of counsellors must struggle, apart from suggested differences between counselling and related roles, with the question of whether the *character* and the *skills* required of the counsellor differ from those required of related roles.

Personal Characteristics

The key to the helping process is reflected in two dimensions of the counsellor — personal characteristics and professional skills. In other words, as Hackey (1971) suggests:

> The skilled counsellor must be able to establish rapport and a facilitative relationship, and beyond that, he must possess a repertoire of counselling strategies that can be used to help the client achieve his goal. (p. 102)

There appears to be unanimous agreement that the personality of the counsellor is one of the most crucial variables in determining the effectiveness of counselling behaviour (Allen, 1967). "The importance of counsellors' characteristics to counselling outcome has long been recognized" (Shertzer & Stone, 1974, p. 98) and, "The counsellor is the single most important single factor in counselling," (Webb & Rochester, 1969, p. 313) are typical of statements throughout the literature. The American Personnel and Guidance Association Committee on Professional Preparation and Standards recognizes the importance of the personality of the counsellor in its statement, "Criteria for selection should include personal qualifications for counselling as well as the ability to master academic requirements and acquire professional skills" (McGreevy, 1967, p. 69).

The qualities indicative of the potential and actual effectiveness of the counsellor have been the object of much attention in counselling theory and research. The answer is important in that if "effectiveness" of counsellors can be predicted, counsellor educators could develop new methods by which to select prospective candidates for the counselling program. Secondly, it would provide reason to strengthen those qualities which relate to effectiveness. Theoretically, different trainee personal characteristics may be presumed to interact with different training procedures to produce differentially effective training.

Investigation of characteristics of counsellors has been the focus of numerous studies, the basis of which is the assumption that some combination of personal qualities are highly related to counsellor effectiveness. There has been a hope that some form of measurement of such qualities might consistently identify prospective effective counsellors.

Many studies, when viewed in isolation, offer promising possibility as to the nature of the "effective" counsellor. However, Shertzer and Stone (1968), clearly described the situation 10 years ago: "at the present time, the counselling profession is unable to demonstrate consistently that a single trait or pattern of traits distinguishes an individual who is or will be a 'good' counsellor" (p. 126).

Walton and Sweeney (1969) concluded that "results of research indicate that indices of academic ability and achievement are rather poor predictors of counselling effectiveness" (p. 32). Other studies confirm their findings (Anthony, Gormally, & Miller, 1974; Felker & Brown, 1970; Jansen, Robb, & Bonk, 1970, 1973; Jones & Schoch, 1968). It is of interest to note that Myrich, Kelly, and Wittmer (1972) report academic test scores and G.P.A. remained the most frequently used criteria for determining admission to graduate school programs. Despite information suggesting that these traditional criteria have little or no correlation with effectiveness, G.P.A. still remains the most used criteria for admission (Redfering & Bisaco, 1976).

A number of studies have suggested the 16 PF may have predictive value (Donnan, Harlan, &

Thompson, 1969; McLain, 1968; Myrich, Kelly, & Wittmer, 1972; Shelton, 1973; Wehr & Wittmer, 1973). However, call for the use of the 16 PF as a predictor of effectiveness appears premature, based on the considerable variation which exists in the findings of the various studies, particularly in the desirable attributes associated with male and female counsellors (Rowe, Murphy, & Csiphes, 1975).

A similar conclusion can be stated regarding studies using the MMPI (Bergin & Jasper, 1969; Demos & Zuwalif, 1966; Johnson, Shertzen, Linden, & Stone, 1967; Jones, 1974; McGreevy, 1969; Mills & Menckle, 1967; Truax, 1970). The overall conclusion of Heikkinen and Wegner (1973) who reviewed studies using the MMPI was that "at this point, we simply cannot say that the MMPI is a proven discriminator between effective and ineffective counsellors" (p. 276).

Measures of psychological adjustment have been used to explore the possibility of isolating effective counsellors by measurement of some personal characteristic. Foulds (1969) produced promising results using the POI as a measure of self-actualization. Disappointingly Winborn and Rowe (1972), in replicating his study, were unable to produce similar promising results. Trotter, Uhlig, and Fargo (1971) found none of the POI scales significantly related to counsellor success. Anthony (1973), using different measures, found some justification for use of self-acceptance as an important criterion.

Dogmatism, authoritarianism, and openess have been the focus of other attempts to identify characteristics of effective counsellors. A number of studies support a relationship of low dogmatism and/or high openess and effective counselling (Allen, 1967; Graff, 1970; Messano, 1969; Tosi, 1970). However, a strong case is provided to question the results of the suggested positive relationship (Foulds, 1971; Milliken & Paterson, 1967; Passons & Olsen, 1967; Wright, 1974). Studies investigating tolerance for ambiguity have met with similar inconclusiveness (Gruberg, 1969; Jackson, 1971; Jackson & Thompson, 1971; McDaniel, 1967). Self-concept and self-confidence studies are promising but too few to be even minimally conclusive (Eberlein & Park, 1970; Jackson & Thompson, 1971; Schmidt & Strong, 1970; Tien-Teh Lin, 1973).

A number of other measures and variables have been the focus of research but with little, if any, conclusive evidence to support their use as predictors of effectiveness. These have included undergraduate major recommendations, and work experience (Hurst & Shatkin, 1974); sociometric ratings (Gade, 1967); verbal activity (Scher, 1974); verbal responses (Freedman, Antenen, & Lister, 1967); experience (Scher, 1974; Schmidt &

Strong, 1970; Trotter, Uhlig, & Fargo, 1971) and sex (Haase, 1970; McLain, 1968; Rochester, 1972; Scher, 1974; Shelton, 1973).

Several articles have even questioned the desirability of the "ideal" profile pointing out the possible flaws of the so-called "ideal" (Johnson, Shertzer, Linden, & Stone, 1967; Knowles & Barr, 1968; Rickabough, Heaps, & Finlay, 1972; Wicas & Mahan, 1966).

In summary, these results with little doubt, confirm the introductory statement that "at the present time, the counselling profession is unable to demonstrate consistently that a single trait or pattern of traits distinguishes an individual who is or will be a 'good' counsellor" (Shertzer & Stone, 1968, p. 126).

Counsellor Competencies

Counselling implies that in some way the client will be helped through the process. It also implies that the counsellor, the person to whom the client is coming for help, has competencies which will be useful in helping him/her to realize the outcomes he/she desires. A broad definition of competence includes "all the personal qualities relevant to the counselling process, such as knowledge, attributes, skills, personality characteristics and education" (Menne, 1974, p. 20).

There are several difficulties in determining what competencies should qualify a counsellor. Cottingham (1976) points out that there is a proliferation of individuals from various disciplines performing counselling functions in different settings. As well, controversies over what is effective and therapeutic are far from being resolved (Berstein & Lecomte, 1976; Dreyfus, 1967; Fiedler, 1951; Hubbard & Grayson, 1975; Patterson, 1973; Raming & Grey, 1976).

A variety of sources provide information regarding the competencies required by counsellors: professional standards and recommendations; competency-based programs, and research specific to competencies.

Standards. The AGPA Standards reflect a 1964 statement of the Professional Preparation and Standards Committee which declared "There is a core of preparation and professional role which should be common to all counsellors" (Loughary, 1965, p. 13).

The core approach was based on the rationale that there are more areas of similarity than difference among counsellors, regardless of the particular agency or setting in which they work.

The specialty of counsellor education which first reached formal arrangements relating to accreditation was school counselling. In 1964, the first *Standards for the Preparation of School Counselors* was published. The last revision took

place in 1967. *Standards for the Preparation of Elementary Counselors* (ACES, 1967), was developed along similar lines. In 1969, *Guidelines for Graduate Programs in the Preparation of Student Personnel Workers in Higher Education* followed, and in 1973, *Standards for the Preparation of Counselors and Other Personnel Service Specialists* appeared. Recently *ACES Guidelines for Doctoral Preparation in Counsellor Education* has appeared.

In the majority of cases competency in the suggested areas is assumed to take place through certain courses. Bernstein and Lecomte (1976) point out that "The courses although selected to meet APGA and APA standards, frequently offer uncoordinated training in theory, practise and research as discrete areas of counsellor functioning" (p. 29). This confirms other similar observations that no organizational framework exists to promote the integration of learning (Jakubowski-Spector, Dustin & George, 1971; Shertzer & Stone, 1968; Wrenn, 1962).

It can be noted that the official APGA standards do not stipulate personal characteristics in any way even though research has placed a strong emphasis on characteristics and awareness. Attention to the personal qualities of a counsellor is dealt with only in a brief policy statement calling for a counsellor "who has beliefs, commitments and interests which enable him to work in an understanding way with individuals" (Loughary, 1965, p. 9). The policy statement identifies six basic qualities believed to characterize the effective counsellor.

Competency-based programming. Dash (1975), in discussing the standards approach, suggests that to implement the recommendations of the standards policies the objectives need to be written in such a manner and with due regard for evaluation that they are based on demonstrated competencies of the learner. There is presently a trend toward competency-based programs. Basic to the competency-based curriculum is the assumption that the student in training will be able to master and demonstrate certain important skills in order to function effectively as a helper. There is more and more acknowledgement of a core of counselling skills. Brown, Sewall, and Linstrom (1977) report that nine states (Florida, Michigan, Nebraska, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Utah, Washington, West Virginia) have competency-based certification requirements for school psychologists.

Some educators are recommending exchanging traditional college-credit-based programs for systematic performance-based counsellor training programs. (Brammer & Springer, 1971; Hendricks, Ferguson, & Thoresen, 1973; Horan, 1972; Jakubowski-Spector, Dustin, & George,

1971; University of Washington, 1975; Windborn, Hinds, & Stewart, 1971; Zifferblatt, 1972). There is a clear trend toward competency-based, or performance-based programs. An overview by Jones (1976) reports 53.6% of state certification to be competency-based and 76.1% of counsellor education institutions to be moving toward competency-based programs.

The strength of the competency-based standards or programs lies in the recognition of specified competencies rather than the accumulation of course hours or semester credits. No assumption is made that successful completion of particular courses can be equated with competency.

Research on competency development. Menne (1974) indicates that the initial impetus toward research on competencies can be traced to Rogers:

> For over 2 decades studies of competencies have been limited to individual or small clusters of competencies, mainly, those suggested by Rogers. Rogers (1951) listed 7 conditions he believed were necessary for a therapist to be facilitative in client-centered counselling. (p. 7)

Later, empathy, unconditional positive regard and congruence were put forward as the "necessary and sufficient" ingredients for effecting positive client outcomes. Extensive research has been directed toward the development and validation of scores to measure Rogers' conditions. However, the measures which have been used extensively in process and outcome research have often yielded conflicting results. Horwitz (1977) concludes "The objective measurement of empathy is admittedly crude and subject to numerous sources of error" (p. 295). Menne (1975) points to several sources of difficulty: the possibility of research error; the possibility that empathy may not be a stable quality; the effect of situational or relationship variables; the competency of the rater or evaluator.

Specific competencies involved in the counselling process per se are suggested by particular models or training procedures. Carkhuff would have helpers learn specific skills (i.e., attending, reflecting, confrontation) which facilitate the "explore, understand, act" model. Ivey (1971) in his micro-counselling training procedure also breaks the process into specific skills (attending, listening, paraphrasing, interpreting). Brammer (1973), too, concentrates on the counselling process, suggesting particular skills appropriate for particular stages of the process. These skills have been the subject of considerable research. This research, however, has been restricted to investigation of their effect as means of training.

Effort to obtain verification of required competencies has recently resulted in research of a broader nature. Menne (1973) undertook a major study in which 376 experienced professionals from a variety of settings rated 132 competencies for

importance. From the analysis of the ratings received, 12 factors or dimensions of counsellor/ therapist competency were isolated. In order of most important to least important, they were: (1) professional ethics, (2) self-awareness, (3) personal characteristics, (4) listening, communicating, (5) testing skills, (6) counselling comprehension, (7) behavioural science, (8) societal awareness, (9) tutoring techniques, (10) professional credentials, (11) counsellor training, and (12) vocational guidance. Lechowicz (1973), via the Delphi procedure, investigated the competencies required specifically of a group counsellor. The value of identifying and clarifying required competencies appears obvious. Until the competencies are specifically identified, counsellor education will continue to be a "hit and miss" process in which the educator has no grounds by which to select or develop methodology, or to validly and reliably assess each of the competencies. Without such base points, it is doubtful whether counselling or counsellor education can dispel the misgivings that now plague the profession.

Training Modes

Once again, the field of counsellor education offers more in terms of assumptions, presumptions, and generalities than hard data based on empirical investigation. No widely accepted model for rationalizing counsellor education has yet been developed.

Not only are there apparently no common counsellor education objectives but different programs stress different activities as essential. Some programs produce behavior modifiers, others graduate existential counsellors. Some emphasize a sound philosophical/personal base, others strongly believe in the acquisition of skills as a focus. Others insist on the importance of the practicum. Bernstein and Lecomte (1976) also point out the methodology of achieving even any one of the chosen emphases is also not necessarily common:

> For example, Brammer (1973), Hackney and Nye (1973) and Ivey et al. (1968) believe that the acquisition of skills should be the focus of the training. Bordin (1968) and Lister (1967) have emphasized the importance of theory in the education of the counselor. The experiential aspect of learning has been seen by Rogers (1956) and Tyler (1961) as the most significant element of counselor training. Finally, the practicum experience has been hailed as the ultimate training vehicle in many programs (APA, 1952; Cross, 1968). The divergence of views regarding the most essential elements of counselor training contributes to the difficulty in acceptance of a training paradigm. (p. 28)

One reaction to the traditional approach is found in the efforts to develop the "person" of the counsellor. Research on person-centered training, although not extensive, has suggested value in the

approach (Hurst & Jansen, 1968; Malcolm, 1971; McClain, 1969).

Comprehensive Training Programs

One potentially valuable research direction on trainee characteristics and training procedures is indicated by Rosenthal's (1977) demonstration that direct contact with trainers was significantly more effective than a self-instructional approach for "low conceptual" trainees undergoing "structural learning training." In contrast, the self-instructional and direct contact methods were equally effective with "high conceptual" level trainees. This study indicates the possibility of matching trainees with training method through the use of carefully controlled behavior samples and previously defined training methods to achieve optimal training effects.

The use of specific interviewing skills can be taught in as brief a period as one hour (Stone and Stein, 1978; Uhlemann, Lea, & Stone, 1976), but combining discrete skills into a learnable counselling style is another matter. The most noteworthy comprehensive training programs which attempt to teach integrated sets of skills are Systematic Human Relations Training (Carkhuff, 1969); Microcounselling (Ivey, 1971); Interpersonal Process Recall (Kagan, 1972); and Integrated Didactic-Experiential Training (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). Comprehensive training programs include several or all of the following processes: (a) didactic instruction (e.g., programmed texts, readings, seminars), (b) modeling, simulation, and instructor cueing, (c) a self-change project in which a trainee designs, carries out, and evaluates a learning project to modify his/her own behavior, (d) micro-counselling, (e) guided practice in a real counselling situation with the supervisor "sitting-in" and providing immediate feedback and guidance, (f) guided practice and cueing by supervisor from remote observation, and (g) continued guided practice but from audio or videotape, or session notes and follow-up discussion.

The rather large number of research studies of comprehensive program training for discrete counselling skills development has been critically reviewed by Mahon and Altman (1976) and, more recently by Ford (1979). What conclusion can be drawn? Mainly that comprehensive training programs, when carried out with parametric precautions (e.g., facilitative, immediate, and performance specific feedback) are effective in helping trainees learn discrete counselling skills. Unfortunately, studies of the impact of training procedures on counsellor trainees offer tentative rather than conclusive results because (a) dependent variables are insufficiently validated, (b) training procedures are usually too briefly de-

scribed to permit replication, (c) discrete skills do not a complete counsellor make! (many studies use undergraduate university students rather than real counsellor trainees), and (d) evidence is shallow regarding transfer of skills from training to practice and the intended effects of counsellor skills upon various categories of real clients.

Krumboltz (1967) suggested 10 years ago that there is a need to experiment with a number of different models of counsellor preparation and activity and to allow research and experience to arrive gradually at improved training. Whatever the model, it appears the present challenge is to avoid the generalities and ambiguities characteristic of counsellor education, and to define the process and outcome in such ways that they can be measured and compared with other training modes and models.

Practicum and Supervision

Practicum

The counselling practicum is looked forward to with enthusiasm and trepidation by the would-be counsellor. It is the beginning of what he/she entered graduate school to learn — counselling. The majority of academic exercises of theory and philosophy are past. The practise of counselling has begun. The beginning counsellor, by virtue of his scholarly preparation, knows he/she is to be warm, empathic, accepting and genuine as he moves his/her client through a process previously described and perhaps even demonstrated. In reality the beginning counsellor is often ill-prepared, as a person, to be relaxed and genuine, and as a professional to be, in any way but minimally, facilitiative or competent.

Even if we allow the counsellor in training his/her inadequacies, Patterson (1968) suggests that the first concern is an ethical one of protection for the client. After citing research indicating the fact that counselling or psychotherapy may make people worse as well as better, he concludes, "It is no longer possible to say, as many of us have said in the past, that student counsellors may not help their clients but they cannot hurt them" (p. 322). The supervisor then has dual responsibility. Delaney (1972) similarly insists he must help the counsellor develop necessary counselling skills and must maintain ethical and professional responsibility for the client.

It would be comforting to be able to say that students are so well supervised that such danger is minimized. The implications of a recent survey, however, are disquieting. Jones (1976) reports the overwhelming majority of institutions graduated more students than they have staff to train adequately. This implies a contradiction of APGA (1973) recommendations that "a qualified faculty

and staff with adequate time allocated to supervision is provided for laboratory, practicum and internship experiences" (p. 10).

Increasingly, the deficiencies of the "sink or swim" approach to practicum are being recognized. The introduction of "pre-practicum" experiences is on the upsurge. In nature, the practicum experiences vary considerably (Dunlop, 1968; Hackney, 1971; Muro, 1968; Peronne & Sanborn, 1966). With wide differences in the requirements of the practicum, it is likely that similarly wide variations exist in the skills of the graduating counsellors.

The Counsellor Educator

An important dimension of the counselling practicum is the supervisory relationship. What is the role of the supervisor? Better asked first is, "Who is the supervisor?" What skills and expertise does the counsellor educator bring to the relationship? Only one study (Scott, 1971) was found which gave any descriptive data on the counsellor educator. It was based on 1964 data and examined education level, professional organization memberships, employment, certification, and professional interests. It is likely far more will be known about the counsellor educators of the future (APGA, 1977; Weitz, Anchov, & Percy, 1976).

Supervisory Styles

Payne and Gralinski (1968) summarize the knowledge available to that time concerning supervisory styles:

> In reviewing basic approaches to supervision, Truax, Carkhuff, & Douds (1964) contrast the "didactic" to the "experiential." Didactic supervisors (e.g., Krasner, 1962; Krumboltz, 1967) stress the counsellor's need for feedback regarding his performance and the techniques which must be mastered for successful work. On the other hand, experiential supervisors (e.g., Arbuckle, 1961; Patterson, 1964; Rogers, 1957) are averse to such mechanistic approaches and emphasize the counselor's need for security so that he may explore his own feelings and learn from his own experience. However, most writing on supervision has been of a theoretical nature and little has been done to measure the effects of either of these approaches upon counselor performance. (p. 517)

Ten years later the situation appears no more decisive. Bernstein and Lecomte (1976) indicate "little is known about which supervisory activities best promote certain goals, particularly in view of the ambiguity in definitions and training objectives" (p. 28).

There appears to be a transition in supervisory style that can be traced through the last two decades. Basically, the movement appears to have been towards a more structured involved role. The

early sixties had the supervisor in a counsellor role (Arbuckle, 1963; Johnston & Gysbers, 1966; Parker, 1967; Pierce & Schauble, 1969). Johnston and Gysbers (1966) summarize the dilemma of the supervisor in that role:

> Left unanswered is the question of how practicum supervisors can be self-congruent in a democratic, minimally structured relationship and still handle common supervisory roles, such as instruction and evaluation, or administrative roles, such as endorsement for certification. (p. 10)

A new trend appears to have been gathering strength. Arbuckle (1965, p. 91) points out what he sees as the reality of the situation: "The supervisor is a supervisor, and as such he carries the weight and responsibility of judgment and evaluation on his shoulders." This was more in line with expectations students had of supervisors (Delaney & Moore, 1966; Foreman, 1967; MacGuffie, Jansen, & McPhee, 1970). The new trend recognized that if the practicum evaluation was to reflect the level of competence of the counsellor, the evaluative function of supervision had to be faced and the supervisor must be more than a counsellor. The new trend has found considerable support (Bauman, 1972; Birk, 1972; Blane, 1968; Delaney, 1972; Lambert, 1974; Payne & Gralinski, 1968; Payne, Winter, & Bell, 1972). However, the data is not conclusive (Austin & Alterkuse, 1972).

A number of other issues, besides the supervisory relationship, are of interest with regard to practicum aspects of training. Who is the best source of feedback — clients, peers or supervisors? What techniques and experiences are most effective for learning (or teaching) which skills? How shall the effectiveness of supervision be measured — by the student counsellor's behavior or the behavior of the student counsellor's client? To reach insight into such issues, more systematic comprehensive research is needed.

Hansen and Warner (1971) admit in their "Review of Research on Practicum Supervision" that, to that time, little conclusive can be said about the practicum:

> What have we learned from these studies? The answer is almost as obvious as the question: very little. . . . We have some contradicting ideas about the role expected of supervisors, and we know very little about how this role effects counsellor trainees. We know about some new methods being used in counsellor preparation, but we do not know whether these methods are any better than past methods. (p. 271)

Hansen, Pound, and Petro (1976) note that although the sources of invalidity in supervision research have been reduced by more rigorous designs, compared with research reviewed five years ago, serious questions about current research persist:

> In several instances, the lack of an adequate sample size and the lack of specificity in variable definitions limit the generalizability of findings. The experimental situation is generally not sufficiently rigorous to control for the effects of variables other than the treatment. Caution is warranted in the interpretation of application of results from supervision research. Futhermore, a more complete description of procedures to permit replication and improve application is needed for further studies. (p. 113)

Finally, the Future!

Examining the literature of the last decade permits us to make certain predictions, albeit with some temerity, about four future trends in counsellor education in Canada. Futurists are of three types: *extrapolators,* who project the future from history and the status quo; *romantics,* who believe that changes take place primarily as a result of individuals creating and adopting new life styles which in turn bring about societal changes; and *system thinkers* who believe that change comes about because change is governed by humans who create the methods to move from the present to the future. Probably, one needs to use all three modes of futurizing with counselling — a process composed of elements both evanescent and permanent. Perhaps the urge to predict about counselling comes most of all from dissatisfaction with many elements of the current status of counselling together with a desire to bring about a future, which as counsellors and counsellor educators we prefer to choose, rather than to have foisted on us through neglect and default.

Prediction 1. The emphasis on self-awareness in counsellor education will continue to be strong. The reasons for this are long-standing and evident. Ancient dicta such as "Know Thyself" and "To Thine Own Self Be True" document the timeless recognition that self-knowledge is a precondition to maturity, good judgment, and sensibility, all of which personably characterize the efficacious counsellor. We cannot expect self-awareness, like Minerva, to spring full-grown from the head of Jupiter. In fact, much work must be done on the delineation of the *content* of self-awareness as well as on the development of educational procedures for increasing self-awareness levels in counsellor trainees. Uhlemann and Jordan's (1981) article, "Self-Awareness and the Effective Counsellor — A Framework for Assessment" in this issue is a promising step in this direction.

Prediction 2. Increasingly, the counsellor will take on consulting functions. Through increased consultation, counsellors are able to contribute to prevention of difficulties, extend the impact of counselling by training others in the use and skills of counselling, and work indirectly with the client populations being served by consulting directly with those who interact daily with clients. Carr's

(1981) article, "A Model for Consultation Training in Canadian Counsellor Education Programs" in this issue is an excellent critical summary of the literature on counselling and consultation. Carr outlines a model for training the counsellor as consultant.

Prediction 3. Career counselling will continue to increase in importance and may even become a major force in counselling theory, research, and practice. Because of the changing nature of careers, the labor market, and societal goals and values, career counselling will extend to an ever greater range of clients: youth, young, middle-aged, and aging adults, handicapped persons, correctional populations, immigrants and, possibly, increasing numbers of refugees. Career counsellors are likely to be increasingly engaged in combatting sex, age, and ethnic bias and stereotyping in education, training, careers, and employment. The Jevne (1981) study reported in this issue found information services to rank next to last in order of importance. Within the general category of information services, vocational/occupational information was regarded as most important. However, information on job search, occupational lifestyles, and work setting was less favorably ranked.

Career counselling may be one dimension of counselling which will change more from the influence of external pressures than from conscious effort on the part of members of the counselling profession. Eberlein's (1981) reaction to Jevne's (1981) study makes the point that counsellor education programs may be more of a reflection of the predilections of the faculties which teach in the programs than an attempt to meet the needs and requests of populations served by counselling (e.g., students, parents, employers). The Canadian School Trustees Association position paper on counselling, just distributed, expressed a sorry dissatisfaction with career education in schools and advocates a modernized, vital role for counsellors in both career education and the counselling and guidance activities which are corollaries to career education.

Prediction 4. Competency-based counsellor education programs will continue to be developed, refined, and implemented. Although there is a considerable literature on competency-based programs in counsellor education, such programs — at least in Canada — are in their infancy stage. A major criticism of competency programs is that they do not, at present, take sufficiently into account how counsellors use their "self." Focussing on skills is insufficient since counselling is a process which includes values, motivations, personal styles, and self-awareness as well as skills. To this point, no satisfactory taxonomy of competencies has been agreed upon in the profession of counsel-

ling. The paper in this issue by Marks, Kahn, and Tolsma (1981) addresses both the issue of deriving a useful taxonomy of competencies and the matter of adopting a standard format for constructing competency statements. Klas's (1981) paper examines the correspondence between the terms "counsellor role" and "counsellor competencies" revealing the confusions which arise in their usage, and briefly argues for an integration of counsellor competency and role.

The final article in this issue, Borgen's (1981) "Marketing Counselling Skills: Implications for Counsellor Education," directly examines counsellor role/competency inconsistency from another perspective. Are counsellors-in-training provided with skills deemed necessary by counsellor educators to raise them to the level of professional counsellor but not equipped with the competencies required for success and survival in the work setting? This provocative thesis used by Borgen to examine school counselling, can also be applied to other types of counselling (e.g., employment, rehabilitation, etc.).

It is our hope, as editors, that the articles in this issue will help to stimulate research and dialogue in Canadian counsellor education in the 1980's.

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