### CHAPTER

## 1

### School Counseling, an Evolving Profession

### **OBJECTIVES**

By reading and studying this chapter you should acquire the competency to:

- Describe the historical development of the changing role of school counselors
- Discuss the reasons why vocational guidance was the first of the counseling specializations to develop and become part of public education
- Describe the paradigm shift in school counseling that occurred in the 1950s and 1960s
- Explain human motivation using the model developed by Abraham Maslow
- Describe the influence of Carl Rogers in the practice of school counseling
- Explain how the No Child Left Behind Act has changed the practice of school counseling
- Describe the evolution of professional associations in counseling
- Explain and describe the core principles for the ethical practice of counseling in schools

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**66** It is not our abilities that show who we truly are, it is our choices. **99** 

Ersatz Professor Dumbledore

### INTRODUCTION AND THEMES

The history of school counseling parallels the development of public education in America. By the 19th century, public schools in America, called "common schools" (grades 1 through 8), were established in the great industrial cities and had been extended into the rural regions by the 20th century. The first public high schools in the 19th century were run like preparatory schools, offering only academic courses. These 19th-century high schools were revised early in the 20th century to serve a larger constituency and offer a more comprehensive curriculum. Urban high schools have served many generations of children of first-generation Americans and also have become the major education provider for minority students and for many children from impoverished homes (Tyack, 1974).

Today, school-based professional counselors play many roles and perform a myriad of duties critical to the welfare of children and the operation of schools. The American School Counselor Association (American School Counselor Association [ASCA]/Hatch & Bowers, 2005) has provided a National Model to provide a framework that when implemented places professional school counselors in the center of the education process (p. 4). However, it can also be reasonably argued that the role that a school counselor plays is one that he or she crafts.

As a school counselor, you will be provided with professional guidelines, school district job descriptions, and policy statements from the school's principal, all designed to guide your performance in the counselor's role. Yet, the work of a school counselor is defined, and given form and focus, by the individual in the job. It is the author's position that school counselors must always advocate for their profession and attempt to bend school district policies and modify school principals' requirements so as to make school policies match the ASCA National Model (see Case in Point 1.1). This may take time and careful negotiating.



### **CASE IN POINT 1.1**

In 2006 an innovative program was launched to reduce the shockingly high **dropout** rates at many schools in Los Angeles. This program, the **Diploma Project**, involved hiring extra school counselors for 49 high schools and 31 middle schools and tasking the

extra counselors to help students complete their high school educations. Counselors worked as **mentors** to students who were at risk of leaving school. Counselors helped students find solutions to problems that hindered their success. In addition to **one-on-one counseling**, this included helping these **at-risk students** pass state-mandated tests, change curriculums, or even transfer to schools more conducive to their needs. The Diploma Project was a success and had improved the dropout rate at the targeted schools from more than 50% to about 33% by 2009. It is unfortunate that Superintendent Ramon C. Cortines was forced to cut from the 2009–2010 school district budget the \$10 million annual cost of the program (Blume, 2009).

Thought Question. Urban high schools can present school counselors with many seemingly intractable problems to resolve. Using your past experience and knowledge, provide a short list of priorities professional school counselors working in inner-city schools should address before others.

### A BRIEF HISTORY

After the fall of the ancient world, in the fifth century C.E., the concept of child-hood in the Western world was ignored as the population focused on subsistence farming and survival. The few boys taught by scholastic monks to read and write were the exception and were given an education only to continue the work of the monastic organization.<sup>1</sup> This era of little education and interest in children came to an end with the Renaissance.

At the start of the Renaissance (circa 1300 C.E.), education in Europe was hit or miss, and there were only a handful of towns where scholarship was practiced (Bologna in Italy, Cordova in Islamic Spain, Oxford and Cambridge in England). The early development of the arts and sciences during the Renaissance fostered a series of reformers and philosophers who set the model for what we now consider as the **Western view** of the world. We describe that era from about 1600 C.E. to the French Revolution (1789) as the era of the **Enlightenment**.

One of the differences between the early Renaissance and the later era of Enlightenment can be seen in the general beliefs about education. Early Renaissance scholars rediscovered classical literature and arts from ancient Greece and Rome. The implication for educators during the Renaissance was the need to emphasize instruction in the classics in their schools.

### **Educational Enlightenment**

Beginning with philosophers and linguists including Erasmus of Rotterdam, the primacy of classicism was challenged. This challenge focused on the

### 4 INTRODUCTION TO SCHOOL COUNSELING

importance of vernacular European languages (e.g., French, Dutch, German, English). Contemporaries including John Amos Comenius along with Martin Luther advocated for publicly supported education for both boys and girls. Also, during the era of the Enlightenment, John Locke provided a model for conceptualizing the importance of experience in learning by children.

An early effort to provide **vocational guidance** occurred near the close of the Enlightenment in 1747. That year Robert Campbell wrote a guidebook for parents of young boys. That text was designed to help parents decide which skilled trade they should select for their sons. In the 18th century, the question of where to apprentice a child was of major concern for working-class parents. That guide, *The London Tradesman*, gave parents information about working conditions, wages, and what we would call today lifestyle (Inwood, 1999).

### America's Schools

To understand how school counseling became part of the educational establishment, it is necessary to know about the development of high schools. At the start of the 19th century, education for adolescents from families with money was provided by private schools and academies. The focus of these academies was college preparation (preparatory schools), and the curriculum was generally dominated by studies of the classical languages. The first free public high schools (e.g., Latin Grammar School [1635] in Boston and Central High School [1836] in Philadelphia) were examples of that approach (Celebrate Boston, 2009; School District of Philadelphia, 2009). Mandatory education beyond the eighth grade was not a requirement for all children until after World War II (Otto, 2000). (See the description of the development of comprehensive high schools in "New High Schools" later in the chapter.)

Common schools (public elementary schools) were established in most large American cities in the 1840s and throughout America by the dawn of the 20th century (Clabaugh & Rozycki, 1990). First through eighth grade schools provided all the education that 90% of the population of 19th-century America would ever receive (U.S. National Center for Education Statistics, 2003). To prepare teachers for these schools, a new approach to higher education was started: the normal school. Normal schools provided a 2-year program to educate unmarried young women of good character for the education profession. College-educated men and a

handful of women with bachelor's degrees were hired to teach in the new secondary schools as America moved into the 20th century (Solomon, 1985). This resulted in a two-tier system of public schools. Less-educated (normal school diploma) women taught in the elementary schools, while better-educated (bachelor's degree) and better-compensated men taught in high schools (Landman, 1992).

### **New High Schools**

The growing population of youth in urban areas brought about a need for high schools that could do more than get students ready for college. Following the First World War, cities built democracy's high schools, known more generally as comprehensive high schools (Angus & Meril, 1999). Comprehensive high schools began offering different curriculum tracks for adolescents based on their mental ability and career potential scores (Reese, 2001).

Tests of mental ability were a product of the **child study movement**. Research centers, including one at Stanford University under the direction of Lewis Terman and the Vineland Training School in New Jersey under the direction of H. H. Goddard, developed and promoted the use of both ability and later **achievement tests**. These measures provided a **scientific rationale** for class and ethnic divisions that resulted within the school curriculum tracks. Recent critics have described this approach as providing a "**split-level**" **education** with watered-down courses for some students and a banquet of academically enriched classes for others (Angus & Meril, 1999).

### **American High School Curriculum**

Secondary education assumed the standard 4-year design (grades 9–12) following the recommendations of the Committee on Secondary School Studies, more popularly known as the "Committee of Ten" in 1892–1893. Charles William Eliot, president of Harvard University, led this committee appointed by the National Education Association (NEA). It established a minimum core curriculum of 24 high school classes, including nine curriculum areas (Ornstein & Levine, 1989). In 1906 the newly chartered Carnegie Commission recommended that these core courses be taught over time blocks of not less than 120 clock hours per year (Claybaugh & Rozycki, 1990).

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The Carnegie Commission required that colleges participating in the Carnegie's new faculty retirement program, Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association (TIAA), enforce the 120-hour course unit rule. The Carnegie Commission would not let the faculty of colleges that did not enforce this rule on high schools participate in TIAA. Thus, by setting college admission policy, the commission was able to get its way with all of America's secondary schools. This gave birth to the 180-day school year and the 45-minute high school teaching period. The phrase Carnegie Unit then entered the lexicon of American education for this standard unit of instruction (Shedd, 2003).

### **Problems With Scientific Management of Schools**

A major problem with the **tracking model** in education was the rigidity of the system. Starting in the primary grades, children were grouped for instruction by ability. Bright children were given a rich curriculum filled with challenging concepts and materials. Children who did not test as well were provided a watered-down approach to their education. After grade 8, teenagers were either sent to the adult world of work or moved into a high school curriculum track.

Once a high school student was placed on a track (college preparatory, business, vocational, and general studies), it became increasingly difficult each year for students in business, vocational, or general studies to move to a more academic track. After having spent time in a less demanding academic program, a student would need to catch up on many of the advanced courses missed previously. The whole tracking system was based on an assumption that each child's tested level of mental ability was genetically established at the moment of his or her conception and was immutable to change (Terman, 1921).

### VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Confusion over academic planning and selecting a vocational goal were problems for turn-of-the-century students and their families. The problem was one that every family had to solve on its own, as there were no professionals who could help high school students. The result can be read in a U.S. Census Bureau report showing that only 6% of the population of 18-year-old adolescents graduated from high school (www.census.gov/statab/hist/02HS0021.xls).

The wave of immigrant families into the cities brought tens of thousands of new high school students, many of who had poor facility with English. All of the problems we see in our inner-city high schools today existed 100 years ago, but the students were on their own to figure them out and move on.

In 1900, high schools in America were academically oriented and designed to prepare graduates for college.<sup>2</sup> A severe recession that began in 1897 and the low industrial skill level of American youth contributed to the expansion of the mission of the high schools of many cities. Both the industrialists and the trade unions of turn-of-the-century America championed the movement toward high schools with many tracks, not just one for college-bound students (Stephens, 1988). The first federal act to address guidance in the schools was the **Smith-Hughes National Vocational Education Act** of 1917. This law, signed by President Woodrow Wilson, provided a federal source of funding for vocational guidance programs and for the hiring of counselors. The idea behind the act was that vocational education and guidance would flourish only if protected from the academic elitism of high schools of that day.

### Frank Parsons

The father of American vocational guidance and the first counselor was Frank Parsons, a polymath who graduated from Cornell University with a degree in civil engineering at the age of 18 (Glosoff & Rockwell, 1997). Later he became a lawyer, French teacher, author, college dean, and social reformer. His interests turned to vocational counseling when he began work as a counselor in a settlement house in Boston in 1901. In this job he assisted members of the poor and immigrant population to become employed and productive (Jones, 1994). With the assistance and cooperation of the Boston YMCA, he created a Vocational Bureau within the settlement house. From the director's position he helped the City Schools of Boston establish vocational counseling districtwide. By 1911 there were 100 educators in schoolbased vocational counseling positions in Boston (Jones, 1994). Parsons wrote the first modern textbook on vocational guidance. It was published a year following his death at the age of 54 in 1908. In that book, Choosing a Vocation, he presented three steps toward making a good career choice (Parsons, 1909/2006, p. 5).

### **Three Steps of Frank Parsons**

- 1. The first step is to develop a clear understanding of yourself, your **aptitudes**, abilities, interests, resources, limitations, and other qualities.
- The second step is to acquire the knowledge of all requirements and conditions of success for a vocation including the advantages and disadvantages of the vocation, compensations, opportunities, and prospects in different lines of work.
- 3. The final step is to apply true reasoning to reconcile the relations of these two groups of facts.

After Parsons' untimely death, a close friend, Myer Bloomfield, continued the work of the Vocational Bureau, even offering a summer course at Harvard for new teacher/vocational counselors in Boston in 1911. This became the first college-level class for vocational counselors (Thayer, Castle, De Howe, Pier, De Voto, & Morrison, 1912).

### Vocational Planning

The expansion of high schools between 1900 and 1917 and their increasing list of course options were beyond the experience of many families with adolescent children. Then, as now, many parents were recent immigrants into the country who did not speak English (Williams, 1998). These two factors, along with the need of American industry for a well-trained, properly screened, and motivated workforce, made vocational guidance a necessity. These forces contributed to make vocational guidance the first specialization and cornerstone of the movement to what would become the profession of school counseling (Gysbers, 2001).

The first counselors in high schools had a single focus: vocational guidance. (See Case in Point 1.2.) There were at least two perspectives on the role and function of the first generation of vocational counselors in the school. One position was that vocational guidance should serve the need for social efficiency by sorting students by their various capacities and making a smooth transition for high school students into the world of work (Gysbers, 2001).<sup>3</sup> A second perspective was one that was encouraged by the educational philosopher John Dewey. He did not believe students should be modified to fit into industrial and clerical jobs. He wanted school counselors to work to modify industries so industry better met the needs of workers (Tang & Erford, 2004).



### **CASE IN POINT 1.2**

Vocational guidance in public schools often involved direct teaching of vocational and occupational topics in the classroom. A national survey in 1953 found that 92,000 high school students were enrolled in a **group guidance** class and another 158,000 students were enrolled in a class on occupations (Dreese, 1957). This implies that at this high point in vocational counseling, only about 1 in 10 high school students took a vocational guidance class before graduating.

Vocational guidance classes of that era used **vocational interest tests** to help adolescent students begin to understand their own vocational interests. Topics in the typical curriculum in a vocational guidance class included learning about yourself, finding information about careers, identifying job values and prestige, job security, eventual adult lifestyle, potential economic gain, and the level of education and training needed to enter the job.

Thought Questions. Assume you are employed as a school counselor in a middle school in a working-class neighborhood. The school principal has scheduled you to teach one "guidance class focused on vocations and career planning." Your class meets one class period (45 minutes) one day each week for 18 weeks. The second 18 weeks of the school year you start again with another group of eighth graders. Review the list of topics used to teach vocational guidance classes 100 years ago. Which would you include and which would you not cover? What, if any, other topics would be part of your curricula for that class?

### Vocational Guidance to School Counseling

Vocational planning and counseling dominated the role and job description of a counselor working in the new comprehensive high schools. Eventually counselors working in school settings began to assist adolescents and younger students with problems and issues in their lives. The first school counselors utilized a mental hygiene or medical-clinical approach that emphasized diagnosis and treatment. During the 1930s, a highly directive form of counseling in schools was developed that followed the precepts of the mental hygiene movement (Crow & Crow, 1935).

The role of school counselors had become too focused on reacting to immediate problems and serving in the role of gatekeeper by the 1980s and 1990s. The MetLife Trust along with other large philanthropies provided funding to create the National Center for Transforming School Counseling in 2003 (Education Trust, 2009). This organization advocated for a model for school counselors who were committed to providing equal treatment and access for all students.

In its role as a **professional association**, the ASCA also provided a framework for school counseling. In addition, ASCA provided an ethical set of canons to guide the practice of counseling in schools (see the front and back fly pages of this book). The most recent development in creating a strong professional model for school counselors was the publication of *The ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs* (ASCA/Hatch & Bowers, 2005).

### Counseling in the Roaring 1920s

Prior to 1920, school counseling programs existed in a small number of secondary schools and school systems. The job descriptions of the earliest school counselors had a large vocational component. Yet, as soon as counselors were in place, they spontaneously expanded their roles and included areas such as the moral development and interpersonal relationships of high school students (Schmidt, 2008). The result was a drift in official job descriptions to include other missions and services for adolescents. In the 1920s the counselor's job description expanded to include helping resolve educational problems, social concerns, and the usual problems of vocational selection and preparation (Tang & Erford, 2004).

During the 1920s, states, starting with New York, established certification requirements for "school vocational guidance counselors." The decade of the 1920s also saw the birth of a movement for counseling in the elementary schools. These elementary school counselors served in many roles, including as the liaison between the school and its programs and the families of students attending the school (Burnham, 1926).

Beyond guidance tasks related to vocational preparation and selection, the model for the job of a school counselor was primarily one drawn from a medical or clinical framework. By that framework, the task of a counselor was to determine what was wrong with the client and then fix him or her. This approach fit well with the "mental hygiene" movement of the 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s. (See section following on "Mental Hygiene.")

### Testing and the School Counselor

Much of the work done by those first school counselors was focused on testing and academic placement as well as providing guidance. Testing in America came into its own in the 1920s with the publication of the first group-administered

measures of ability and academic achievement (Wright, 2008). These published tests just seemed to be fairer than other subjective methods of assessment, and they were widely adopted and used by counselors and other educators. Testing provided a framework for identifying students with school problems.

Early measurement devices encouraged schools to calculate an accomplishment ratio for everyone who took the combination of achievement and mental ability tests. This ratio was determined as the ratio of a student's educational age (EA) to his or her mental age (MA). This ratio linked mental age, as determined by an IQ test, with scores from an achievement test. The educational age in the formula is equal to the age of a group of children whose median educational achievement is the same as a particular child's level of achievement. Thus, the accomplishment ratio (AR) = EA/MA. By this method a child with an AR score above 1.0 would be described today as an overachiever because he or she is doing more than would be expected of a person with that mental ability. Likewise, an AR score below 1.0 indicated an underachieving student (Engle, 1945). Students with low AR scores (below 1.00) became the focus of the school counselor's efforts.

### MENTAL HYGIENE

During the first part of the 20th century, a movement to improve the treatment and care given to mentally ill individuals was popularized following the publication in 1908 of an autobiographical account of mental illness and treatment by Clifford Whittingham Beers. In educational settings this movement provided models for interpreting and diagnosing behaviors and inappropriate habits of students. The morality, sexuality, work habits, and mental ability were all fair game for well-meaning school counselors.

### Framework

The mental hygiene framework held that mental illness in adulthood could have been prevented if there were appropriate intervention during childhood. Mental hygienists were attached to state and municipal public health offices. Graduate education in school counseling focused on training counselors to be school-based mental hygienists (Crow & Crow, 1935). These workers focused on all aspects of mental hygiene, including students in schools. A major concern of these workers was to educate parents in the "scientific approaches" to child rearing and child development.

Another factor in the growth of mental hygiene in America was the great popularity of Sigmund Freud's writings. The psychoanalytical theory of Freud described how early experiences of children have long-reaching impacts for the mental well-being and adjustment of adults. Therapists or mental hygienists emphasized the importance of therapeutic intervention in both emotional problems of young children and quotidian activities from the daily lives of children at home and school.

The mental hygiene movement influenced the early childhood curriculum framework as first approved by the National Association for Nursery Education in 1929 (forerunner of the National Association for the Education of Young Children) (Davis, Johnson, & Richardson, 1929). It was also the central organizing feature of the emergency nursery schools established by the Works Progress Administration (WPA) during the administration of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt (Wright, 2010).

### Trait and Factor Theory of Counseling

It is not enough to help counselees become what they want to become; rather it is more important to help them become what they ought to want to become.

Edmund G. Williamson

In the late 1930s Edmund G. Williamson at the University of Minnesota developed a widely used model for counseling with students. As an administrator of the university he coined the term *in loco parentis*, describing his belief that schools and colleges have responsibility to govern the behavior of their students as though they are the students' parents (Klinkenberg & Spilman, 2002).

The trait and factor theory for counseling developed by Williamson provides a six-step approach based on clinical assumptions drawn from mental hygiene (Biggs & Porter, 1994). These steps include analysis of information, synthesis of what is known about the client, development of a formal diagnosis, prognosis with necessary counseling, treatment (counseling), and follow-up. The treatment phase as envisioned by Williamson was highly directive and counselor centered. Counselors were to take a position and explain to the student what he or she was to do. Williamson was philosophically opposed to the child- (client-) centered or humanistic counseling that was to dominate the field starting in the 1950s. He found the approach used by Carl Rogers and others to be value neutral and intellectually bankrupt (Ewing, 1975).

### Beyond Mental Hygiene

Humanistic psychology originated in clinics and laboratories of Germany between the two world wars. The expulsion of Jewish scholars and other progressive thinkers by the Third Reich provided the intellectual energy needed to bring about a paradigm shift away from mental hygiene and toward a person-oriented form of humanistic counseling and psychology. Central to this movement were the American psychologists Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers.

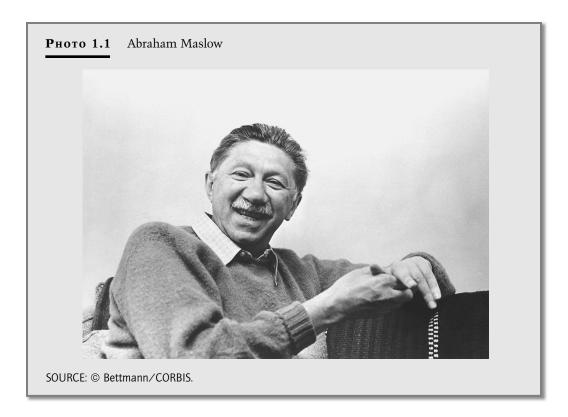
### ABRAHAM H. MASLOW AND HUMANISTIC PSYCHOLOGY

Following World War II, millions of men and women needed to be reintroduced to their interrupted lives. To do this they had to set new goals and work toward achieving success in education, employment, socialization, and family life. These activities gave the new field of counseling a major boost (Tang & Erford, 2004).

During this post–World War II era (1945–1965), there was a major paradigm shift away from the clinical approach of mental hygiene toward a humanistic form of counseling. The returning war veterans were not ready to be told by a counselor what they should do with their lives.

Abraham Maslow (Photo 1.1) was born the same year that Clifford W. Beers (1908) published his creed about the malevolent nature of mental hospitals and therapy. Living and teaching psychology in New York during the 1930s, Maslow came to meet and be influenced by numerous European scholars who were escaping the persecutions of the Third Reich. Among these refugees were Alfred Adler, Eric Fromm, Kurt Goldstein, Karen Horney, Eric Erikson, and the Gestalt psychologist Wolfgang Köhler (Boeree, 2006).

In 1951 Abraham Maslow became chair of the psychology department at Brandeis University, where in collaboration with a member of that faculty, Kurt Goldstein, he proposed the conceptual framework for a new school of psychology and counseling known as humanistic psychology. Professor Goldstein was, by training, a neurologist and originator of the concept of self-actualization (Goldstein, 1934/1995). This new school of thought was not focused on how a counselor could fix a problem experienced by a child or other client, but rather on the capacity of individuals to become self-directing and psychologically whole. They described the task of counselors as removing the obstacles that prevented individuals from making progress toward their personal life goals.



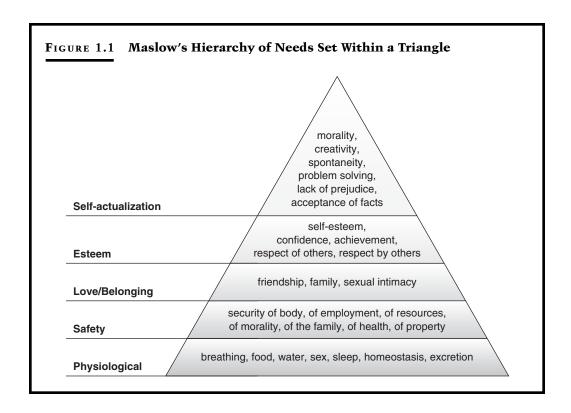
### Hierarchy of Human Needs

Abraham Maslow built upon Goldstein's conceptualization and proposed a five-tier hierarchical system of needs that all people experience (Maslow, 1943, 1968). The model was designed to explain motivation; however, it also provides insight into the dynamics of human personality development and has clear implications for counselors. (See Figure 1.1.)

At the most basic level in Maslow's model are the **physiological needs** of the human organism. These include those of oxygen, water, appropriate foods, salt, minerals, vitamins, a regulated temperature, sleep, elimination, and so on. Without fulfillment of these physiological needs the organism will die.

A number of what Maslow described as somatic needs were not included in his list of proven physiological needs. These somatic needs included the sex drive, maternal instinctual drives, and the need for sensory stimulation and/or pleasure (Maslow, 1943).

At the next step beyond the physiological needs, Maslow proposed the needs for **safety and security**. Humans need to feel secure and have shelter where they



are protected from malevolent factors in the environment. In advanced societies this can be seen in the need for good homes, insurance, and retirement funds (Boeree, 2006).

A child's need for safety is evident in his or her preference for some kind of undisrupted routine at home and in early education programs. Children want a predictable, orderly world. When a child perceives his or her parent's actions as being capricious and unfair, or inconsistent, he or she is likely to feel anxious and unsafe (Maslow, 1943). Likewise, Maslow posited that parents who quarrel loudly, along with those who divorce or abuse their children, promote unhealthy levels of anxiety and fear in children. Anxiety has the power to stymie the child's development at this point. This would prevent him or her from reaching step 3.

The midpoint in Maslow's hierarchy, step 3, is defined as a need for love and having a sense of belonging. These needs can only emerge once the physiological and safety needs have been fairly well gratified. Human beings will feel saddened by the absence of family members and friends. Maslow (1943) proposed that all people hunger for affectionate relationships with others. He made a distinction

with this need with regard to sex. The affectionate needs are only sexual when they involve both giving and receiving affection and love.

This need for belonging and the affection of others extends to the need to be part of a group and to feel that one is among others who like and trust him or her. Children use scouting, Little Leagues, and other youth organizations to become part of the group, while their parents join churches, volunteer groups, and social clubs for many of the same reasons.

Thwarting this need for affection is frequently central to personal maladjustment and inappropriate behaviors. Children know the power of this need and frequently are all too willing to use social isolation as a weapon to punish their peers. Loneliness during childhood and the accompanying social anxiety it generates can be debilitating for elementary school children and caustic for adolescent adjustment.

At the fourth step in Maslow's hierarchy is the need for esteem. This can be thought of as a need that most people, including children, have to be respected by others. With adolescents this may take the form of a need for a powerful reputation and prestige. The self-esteem level of a child is developed as a reflection of what he or she interprets that others in the environment believe about him or her. It is what the child thinks others believe about his or her capabilities and talents. If esteem needs are not met, the child is likely to develop strong feelings of inferiority and discouragement and experience a loss of self-confidence.

At the highest level on the hierarchy of needs is the need for self-actualization. Maslow theorized that not all people reach the point at which this step is part of their life story (Maslow, 1943). Working from Goldstein's model, Maslow proposed that self-actualization refers to a need for self-fulfillment. This need can be fulfilled by becoming actualized in achieving one's potential. "This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (Maslow, 1943, p. 383).

Self-actualization can take many forms. It can be achieved by the teacher who wins the teacher-of-the-year prize, or the mother who is satisfied and fulfilled in the role of loving wife and caregiver in her home (Maslow, 1943). It may be the student athlete who wins an athletic scholarship, or the woman who coaches her high school team to a championship season. It may be the artist who is happy and fulfilled in his or her craft, or the airline pilot who loves to report to work each day.

Maslow noted that to reach this point a person must first have satisfied physiological, safety, love, and esteem needs. Once those steps have been achieved, a person may become fulfilled and satisfied in his or her life. When Maslow wrote this model in 1943, he also noted that such people were the exception.

### CARL ROGERS AND CHILD-CENTERED COUNSELING

No counselor or psychologist has had a greater impact on the practice of counseling than Carl Rogers (Rogers & Russell, 2003) (Photo 1.2). Two schools of thought dominated psychology in the United States during the first 50 years of the

20th century: one was **behaviorism** and the other was **psychoanalysis**. These two models represented two completely different methods used to help individuals, but they offered little help for many students and young adults needing assistance coping with major forces in their lives.

Carl Rogers proposed a humanistic approach to counseling that became a "third force" in the practice of psychology and counseling (Bugental, 1964). Rogers held several meetings with Abraham Maslow and other phenomenologically oriented psychologists at a state park in Michigan in the late 1950s. From these discussions emerged a new organization in 1961, the Association for Humanistic Psychology, with its own journal (Aanstoos, Serlin, & Greening, 2000). Ten years later the field was recognized by the American Psychological Association and elevated to divisional status, Division 32. This new professional organization provided five core principles for the field of humanistic psychology:

1. Human beings, as human, are more than merely the sum of their parts. They cannot be reduced to component parts or functions.

- 2. Human beings exist in a uniquely human context as well as in a cosmic ecology.
- 3. Human beings are aware and aware of being aware—that is, they are conscious. Human consciousness potentially includes an awareness of oneself in the context of other people and the cosmos.
- 4. Human beings have some choice, and with that, responsibility.
- 5. Human beings are intentional, aim at goals, are aware that they cause future events, and seek meaning, value, and creativity. (Bugental, 1964, pp. 19–25)

**Рното 1.2** Carl Rogers



SOURCE: © Roger Ressmeyer/CORBIS.

The approach to counseling based on the work of Carl Rogers and the other humanistic psychologists is still widely employed in educational and clinical settings today. (It is described in more detail in Chapter 6 of this book.)

### SCHOOL COUNSELING IN THE AGE OF ACCOUNTABILITY

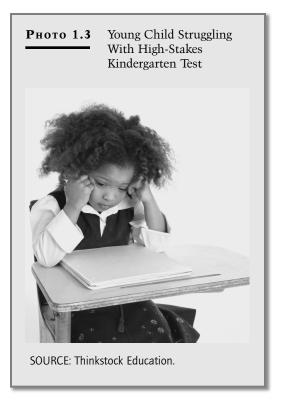
The job of being a school counselor has become much more difficult since the passage of the 2002 and 2004 reauthorizations of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), renamed the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) (P.L. 107–110, 2002). To understand the impact of this legislation on counselors, it is necessary to understand its impact on students, teachers, administrators, schools, and communities.

### Standards-Based Accountability

During the 1990s the administration of President William J. Clinton encouraged a shift in emphasis within the schools to establish state-level standards for learning. These standards were written for all children, from preschool through high school graduation. These standards are sometimes abbreviated as PK–12. This move toward standards-based education brought with it the need for schools to test students on a statewide basis. Uniform testing made it possible to prove which schools were meeting the state's learning standards. Along with these new standards for learning came new standards-based report card systems, and new approaches for monitoring students needing special educational assistance, known as response to intervention (RTI) testing (see Chapter 7).

The administration of President George W. Bush took this concept of standards-based learning a step further and signed into law annual mandated tests in mathematics and reading for all students between the 3rd and 8th grades and once again in 10th or 11th grade. (Photo 1.3 shows a young student struggling with a high-stakes test.) Part of that legislation set increasingly high achievement standards that had to be met each year, leading up to the year 2014 when all (actually 97%) of the enrolled students in public and charter schools had to be proficient in reading and mathematics. The goal had to be met schoolwide and by specific groups within the schools. Each school was required to show that the schoolwide average scores for all identified groups—including students receiving special education, Native American students, non-Hispanic Black students, Hispanic students, students with one or more disabling conditions,

Anglo-White students, students from impoverished homes, and English language learners—are making adequate yearly progress (AYP) toward the goal of universal proficiency by 2014. The various states have each identified specific standards for student learning and have established proficiency targets for students of each grade level. Those targets or benchmarks are unique to each state but must be approved by the U.S. Department of Education (Wright, 2008). In addition to having good achievement levels for their students, all schools must have all enrolled students tested each year. Schools cannot have students stay at home on test day. The pressure to get all students to take the mandated state examinations has resulted in several unusual steps by school administrators. Case in Point 1.3 provides examples of this effort to be in compliance with the testing mandate.





### **CASE IN POINT 1.3**

In March 2006 a local newspaper reported that a fourth grade elementary school child who had been suspended from school pending transfer to a "disciplinary school" was brought back to complete the mandated state examination. This child had been suspended for bringing a starter's pistol into his elementary school. After 5 hours of testing he was sent home to await the disciplinary school transfer (James, 2006).

In another case a boy who was hospitalized following a bicycle accident in which he crushed three vertebrae in his neck and lost the use of his right (dominant side) arm was made to take the 10th grade state assessment test in his hospital. The boy in question was most concerned with the timed essay portion of the examination. This part of the test he wrote in longhand using his left hand (DeGregory, 2005).

Thought Question. What role should a school counselor fill in tracking down missing students who must be tested under state mandates? For example, students who are suspended from school and those who are injured or ill.

A variation of the high-stakes assessment model was later incorporated into the education programs announced by President Barack Obama (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Under his plan, "Race to the Top," schools are not punished for having problems but are encouraged and helped in meeting goals. Extra funds were awarded to states and schools for adopting a strong set of national educational achievement standards and making a number of other educational reforms. This model also maintains the high-stakes testing programs of the previous administration and keeps the pressure on educators and students.

### Goals of Mandated Assessments

An important goal of the NCLB legislation was to close the gap between the achievement levels of students from different backgrounds and ethnic groups. In 2009 the NCLB Act was past the halfway mark toward its target date for having all students proficient in reading and math. Miniscule gains have been made toward reaching this universal proficiency goal, and the parallel goal of closing the achievement gap is not being met (Education Trust, 2010). This is not a new trend but a continuation of the pattern since the beginning of the NCLB-mandated assessments (Maxwell, 2007; Viadero, 2007). There are many reasons for this, including the quality of public schools attended by minority students. Those schools tend to enroll the greatest number of students from impoverished backgrounds, have the least experienced teachers, have the highest student absenteeism, have the greatest faculty turnover and absenteeism, and have the lowest level of parent involvement in their children's schools (Camilli & Monfils, 2004; National Assessment of Educational Progress, 2004).

Ten states have gone a step further and mandated that for a child to be promoted from third grade to fourth grade he or she must first pass the state's assessment test.<sup>5</sup> This has resulted in hundreds of thousands of students being made to repeat third grade. The original goal of this policy was to prevent **social promotion**. Social promotion has been described as a soft form of racism through which students were pushed along from grade to grade without regard to what they knew or what skills they had.

Additionally, 27 states have enacted laws mandating that to earn a high school diploma a student must pass the state's required high-stakes test. This gate-keeping role for proficiency tests in high school has resulted in hundreds of thousands of students who have passed all their courses and have the required graduation credits being ineligible to graduate with diplomas.<sup>6</sup> Once again, the

burden for failing and not being awarded a high school diploma falls most heavily on African American and Hispanic students (Heubert, 2002).

Case in Point 1.4 describes the impact on students of linking grade promotion to a high-stakes test.



### **CASE IN POINT 1.4**

In 2005–2006, 8,000 students in Florida (one of the first states to mandate promotion tests) spent a *third year as third graders*. In an attempt to prevent a build-up in the number of students stuck in third grade, Florida began to put re-repeating third grade students into fourth grade halfway through the school year. Each school district was given permission to decide how to determine whether a retained child was able to move on to fourth grade. The sad truth was that many of these students still could not be promoted at midyear because they were unable to pass the state's third grade assessment test even after 2.5 years in third grade. In 2005 one county school system in Florida gave 750 re-repeating third graders early promotion into fourth grade only to find that 84% failed the mandated examination and ended up repeating third grade yet again (Harrison, 2005). The long-range problem with all grade-retained students is that 61% of them drop out and never graduate from high school (Sparks, Johnson, & Akos, 2010).

Richard Stiggins observed that our obsession with high-stakes testing is causing major segments of our student population to be *left behind* because the mandated measures are causing many kids to give up in hopelessness (Stiggins, 2002).<sup>7</sup>

Thought Questions. The MetLife Foundation, along with more than a dozen other philanthropies, has funded efforts to close the gap in achievement between Anglo-White students and students of minority groups (Education Trust, 2009). One of the priorities has been to improve K to 12 school counseling among students from all ethnic groups. What aspects of the role of being a professional school counselor are related to closing the test score gap between different ethnic groups of students? In other words, what can you do to help?

### **Grade Retention**

More students are retained in their grade for an extra year in the United States than in any other industrial nation in the world (U.S. Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics, 2008). Yet, there is no evidence that **grade retention** has any lasting positive effect. This raises the question of who is being retained in grade? The unfortunate answer is "minority students" (Massachusetts Department of Education, 2005). Overall, approximately 3 out of 4 students

retained-in-grade are members of minority groups (Florida Association of School Psychologists, 2005). African American students are the group most likely to be retained-in-grade. Two times as many African American students are retained-in-grade compared with their Anglo-White peers (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Another group that has a disproportionately high number of students retained-in-grade is English-language learners (ELLs), especially students of Hispanic heritage (Hauser, Pager, Solon, & Simmons, 2008). An analysis of Florida data by Jay Greene of the highly conservative Manhattan Institute speculated that Black and Hispanic third graders are retained-in-grade because of something related to their race, not just lower average achievement test scores (Greene & Winters, 2007).

The natural reaction of educators under this **test-induced stress** has been to identify ways to improve students' test scores. This drive for better scores has resulted in major curriculum revisions, emphasizing more time for instruction in reading and mathematics. The losers in the curriculum reshuffle have been **social studies**, the arts, and other **humanities**. Also lost are recess periods and even naptime in kindergarten (Wright, 2010).

### Counselors as Test Administrators

School counselors are usually given the job of coordinating the mandated testing programs in the schools. This policy is endorsed by the ASCA and has been written into the national framework.

School counselors should be proficient in the collection, analysis and interpretation of student achievement and related data. School counselors monitor student progress through three types of data: student-achievement data, achievement-related data, and standards and competency-related data. (ASCA/Hatch & Bowers, 2005, p. 49)

This role as the "grand examiner" has cost counselors their insulation from the elements of school life that is a cause of stress for teachers and that adds to the angst of students (Dollarhide & Lemberger, 2006). This has diminished the role of the counselor and made him or her suspect in the eyes of students and some teachers as being a co-conspirator in the high-stakes testing process.

The emphasis on spending more time getting ready for the test has also been problematic for counselors. Teachers are more reluctant than ever to release a student from class time to visit the school's counselor. Counselors report they

# CARTOON 1.1 "Modern Education" B B E WE'RE LEARNING IS HOW TO TAKE A MATH TEST, HOW TO TAKE A SCIENCE TEST, AND HOW TO TAKE A READING TEST." SOURCE: Cartoon by Robert Englehart. Reprinted with permission from Robert Englehart.

are continually struggling to prove they are important members of the school community and a valuable resource (Dollarhide & Lemberger, 2006).

### TIME-EFFICIENT APPROACHES FOR SCHOOL COUNSELING

Today few school counselors have the luxury of following a **child-centered extended counseling** effort with an individual student. The time is just not available to spend many sessions with one student. A technique of **solution-focused brief counseling** (**SFBC**) has been identified and is currently being employed in school counseling offices at all grade levels (see Chapter 6 for more on SFBC).

By the 1990s the pragmatic need for an abbreviated but effective approach to counseling in the schools was clearly indicated (Littrell, Malia, Nichols,

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Olson, Nesselhuf, & Crendell, 1992). This need became all the more obvious with the time constraints that mandated testing programs placed on school counseling activities.

The terms solution-focused counseling and brief counseling are used in the literature to describe an approach to counseling of students that can last from 1 to 10 or more sessions (Lewis & Sieber, 1997; Littrell et al., 1992; Littrell, Malia, & Vanderwood, 1995). The focus of these counseling sessions involves several steps. The first step is the identification of the problem area as the student perceives it to be. Second is the task of determining how the resolution of the problem will improve the child's life. During this step it is important to assess with the student his or her strengths and what has already been accomplished. The third step is the identification of goals (both major and smaller ones) that can be accomplished in resolving the problem. The goals make up the central feature of a plan of action for the child to follow (Charlesworth & Jackson, 2004). (See Chapter 6 for more on solution-based brief counseling in schools.)

### PROFESSIONALISM

Professional and learned societies are formed both to serve as advocates for the professional field and to provide the public with reassurance of the quality of the practice and products of its members. To become a member of a professional organization is to accept the ethical standards and precepts of that organization as one's own.

### Professional Societies in Counseling

Not surprisingly, the first national association in counseling was formed by professionals engaged in vocational guidance.

### National Career Development Association

The United States at the dawn of the 20th century was emerging from a severe recession and found that it could not compete with the nations of Northern Europe in the quality of industrial products. President Theodore Roosevelt and the leading industrialists of the day saw the low quality of American manufactured goods as slowing national economic progress. This led to the formation

of the National Association of Manufacturers (NAM) by America's leading industrialists and entrepreneurs. It was clear to NAM from the outset that improved education for the trades was needed.

Both the National Association of Manufacturers and the American Federation of Labor looked to higher education to develop a model for the education of young people to provide the skilled source of labor needed to improve industrial output. Charles R. Richards of Teachers College, Columbia University, and James P. Haney, Director of the New York City Public School Manual Training Program, worked to develop a curriculum for secondary schools designed to meet this need and also helped form the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (NSPIE) in 1906. In 1908, the NSPIE held its first convention in New York City at Cooper Union (Smith, 1999). Vocational guidance was always considered by members of NSPIE as a central part of vocational education (Stephens, 1988).

A newsletter, *Vocational Guidance News-Letter*, was distributed several times each year to vocational guidance workers by its first editor, Frederick J. Allen. This was initiated two years prior to forming an association for vocational counselors (Pope, 2008). This newsletter underwent seven name changes over the years, eventually becoming the *Career Development Quarterly* in 1986.

The National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA) was born during the 1913 meeting of the NSPIE in Grand Rapids, Michigan (Stephens, 1988). That organization flourished and did not change its name until 1985, when it became the National Career Development Association (NCDA). That name is reflective of the evolving focus of the organization on issues less related to basic education and more directed to consulting and providing professional development in a variety of nonacademic settings.

### **American Counseling Association**

A national association for all counselors was not founded until 1952. It was originally the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA). This new counselor organization was founded during a joint meeting of the four dominant organizations related to counseling, including the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA) [now the National Career Development Association (NCDA)], National Association of Guidance and Counselor Trainers (AGCT) [now the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES)], Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education (SPATE), and the National Association of Appointment Secretaries [now the American College Personnel Association (NCPA)] (American Counseling Association [ACA], 2009).

These organizations became the first four divisions in the larger organization. The following year a fifth division was added, the American School Counselor Association (ASCA). This growth has continued, and in 2010 there were a total of 19 divisions operating with charters from what is today the American Counseling Association (ACA). The current name was selected in 1983.

Like the NVGA, the SPATE organization has a long history. It was originally composed of the state supervisors for vocational education and vocational counseling. The organization was very influential in the 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s. This reflects the fact that the federal government, through the Smith-Hughes Act, encouraged vocational education and vocational counseling programs by funding for them through the states. This influence of the organization waned when the funds dried up in the late 1950s during the Eisenhower administration (Gysbers, 2006).

The word *trainers* in the organization's title was used for what we consider today to be **counseling education** faculty. With the growth of counselor education programs on college campuses, the organization is thriving and promoting the best practice in the education and supervision of counselors (Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, 2005).

The American College Personnel Association (ACPA) is the only original organization that has never changed its name after 1952. In 1992 it disaffiliated itself from the ACA. It was originally founded in 1924 as the National Association of Appointment Secretaries, with May L. Cheney, the director of the Office for Teacher Placement of the University of California, Berkeley, as its first president. Today its membership includes college student personnel workers from 1,500 public and private postsecondary institutions. ACPA has a total membership now exceeding 9,000 (ACPA, 2004).

### Professional Training and Credentialing for School Counselors

Early vocational guidance counselors were often teachers who volunteered or were asked to "volunteer" for counseling duties. Many of these teachers were given little direction as to what the jobs involved, and most were asked to perform duties as vocational counselors in addition to their normal teaching loads (Tang & Erford, 2004). A fortunate few were given reduced teaching loads to balance their counseling responsibilities.

A movement to professionalize school counseling through state credentialing requirements began when New York established training standards and issued appropriate certification to qualified individuals (Tang & Erford,

2004). Today all 50 states plus the District of Columbia have published certification standards for the issuing of a credential to be a school counselor. Today 44 states and the District of Columbia provide a license to work as a counselor at all levels of education between kindergarten (or prekindergarten) and grade 12. The other six states provide two certificates, one for elementary school counselors and another for those who work in secondary schools.

All of these certificates require that the prospective school counselor has completed a graduate-level training program from a regionally accredited college or university. Another requirement for certification as a school counselor in most states is passing a mandatory test on either general knowledge or a specific test of knowledge about school counseling. The most commonly required test is the Praxis II: School Guidance and Counseling, mandated in 12 states and the District of Columbia. The lowest passing score on the Praxis II is required by South Carolina (550) and the highest by Oregon (610) (Educational Testing Service, 2008). Every state but West Virginia requires all new school counselors to pass a police background check to prove they are not felons or child molesters.

The ASCA provides a web page listing information on the certification requirements for school counselors in each state. This is available at www.schoolcounselor.org/content.asp?contentid=242.

The ASCA has published a framework for how school counseling programs should be organized for providing services. It also elaborates how they should be managed, and how they are best evaluated (ASCA/Hatch & Bowers, 2005). That framework, while focused on basic education, provides ideas for graduate education in school counseling and provides guidance for inservice programs for professional school counselors.

### **Technology Skills**

One obvious area that should be added to state certification standards is technology (Morrissey & Rotunda, 2006). Up-to-date schools are fully "wired." In a wired school all records are stored electronically, and text-based communications and e-mail contacts are an ongoing activity among counselors and the teachers and other staff of the school (see Photo 1.4). Parents with students in a wired school are encouraged to hold virtual meetings with the school's counselor using Internet video. All standards-based report cards are electronically transmitted to the student's parents.

This standard also implies that school counselors should be able to create and maintain web pages that provide announcements and the counseling



activities schedule. Finally, counselors must be able to manage databases of test scores and provide leadership in conducting school-based action research. All these tasks require that a new set of skills be added to those counselors already are required to develop in their graduate studies. Yet, despite this need for technology proficiency, only Idaho and Nevada have technology standards written into their certification requirements for school counselors.

### **Proactive Versus Reactive**

Critics of counselor education have pointed out that the emphasis of graduate-level preparation has been on how to be an effective helper-responder. The suggestion is that school counselors should be taught to be proactive, preventing problems, and should become leaders in their schools (House & Sears, 2002). The National Model describes quality school counseling programs as preventative in design and developmental in

nature (ASCA/Hatch & Bowers, 2005, p. 28). Reese House and Susan Sears argue that counselors should be taught leadership and collaboration skills at a precertification level and also as an ongoing inservice program for counselor development. The national framework also argues for counselors to take a leadership role in the school and design preventative programs for school problems (ASCA/Hatch & Bowers, 2005, p. 24). The proactive model focuses first on tertiary prevention. This level of prevention reduces the need for secondary and primary prevention. All three levels of prevention are described as appropriate school counseling interventions throughout this textbook.

### **National Certifications**

It is important to remember that a professional counselor is a licensed mental health worker. These counselors are graduates of nationally accredited graduate programs in counseling or counseling psychology and provide a professional service in every state but California. In 2010 an effort was under way to pass legislation in California to create a state license program for professional counselors.

There are two levels to the question of national certification as a school counselor: one addresses the counselor education program, while the other involves the state departments of education that provide the certifications needed to work in the schools.

At the first level, there are three organizations that provide colleges and universities with accreditation for their programs in teacher education and related areas. The first of these is the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). There were 285 colleges and universities that participated in the initial year of NCATE accreditation in 1954. Since that time the number has grown to 632, with another 100 institutions in the process of applying in 2010–2011. This accrediting body coordinates its efforts with 39 of the 50 states. Thus, NCATE provides evaluations of and accrediting for the entire education programs of colleges offering teacher education in 39 states. This cuts the workload for those state departments of education.

While NCATE has standards used for evaluating many educational specializations, including administrators and school psychologists, it does not have specific standards for the accreditation of counselor education. For that reason, in all 50 states, the standards set by individual states are the deciding factor in whether a college gets program approval for educating school counselors.

A second national teacher education accrediting body is the Teacher Education Accrediting Council (TEAC). This organization provides broad general guidelines for college-based teacher education programs at both the graduate and undergraduate levels. In 2010 there were fewer than 70 colleges accredited by TEAC.

There are 2,467 accredited 4-year colleges and universities in the United States, approximately 1,500 of which offer certification in one or more areas of teacher education. Many of these colleges and universities provide graduate education programs in school counseling.

The only national accrediting body for counselor education is the Council for the Accrediting of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). A list of the CACREP accredited graduate programs and contact persons is available online at www.cacrep.org/directory-2–17–09.pdf.

CACREP was chartered in 1981 as the Accreditation Board for Counselor Preparation (ABCP). This was changed to the name CACREP in 1993. The new name was selected to reflect that it services "related educational programs" and to facilitate higher education accreditation. Today CACREP is the agency used

by the various state boards of professional counselors to evaluate the status of colleges preparing professional counselors.

A point of confusion for many graduate students is the difference between (1) the CACREP national certification of a college that provides graduate programs in professional counselor education and (2) the state-by-state requirements for certification as a school counselor. Accreditation by CACREP is enjoyed by 254 colleges. That accreditation provides a student with assurance that the graduate program is one that meets a national set of standards for counselors. However, colleges in 45 states are accredited only by state education departments to provide certification to work as a school counselor. The state's department of education, not CACREP, must approve counseling programs if graduates are to be eligible for certification as school counselors.

### Ethical Practice in School Counseling

There are several professional associations that provide guidance to school counselors about the ethical practice of school counseling. One set of ethical principles is expressed in the American Counseling Association's *Code of Ethics* (2005). This set of ethical canons can be downloaded from the ACA from their page: www.txca.org/Images/tca/Documents/ACA%20Code%200f% 20Ethics.pdf.

A statement of ethics for school counselors was first published in 1984 and updated by the American School Counselor Association in 2004. The document can be seen on the front and back fly pages of this textbook. This document can also be downloaded from www.schoolcounselor.org/files/EthicalStandards 2010.pdf. The ASCA document, *Ethical Standards for School Counselors*, addresses major ethical issues in seven sections:

- 1. Responsibilities to Students. This addresses the need to respectfully treat each child as a unique individual, maintaining confidentiality as appropriate, coordinating referrals as indicated, developing counseling plans and ethically employing assessment materials, maintaining student records, and protecting student confidentiality. The counselor should also work to ensure all students and their families have access to technology needed for school success.
- 2. *Responsibility to Parents*. Counselors must collaborate with the child's parents and work to maintain a balance of confidential counseling with the child while respecting the rights of parents.<sup>10</sup>

- 3. Responsibilities to Colleagues and Professional Associates. This addresses the ethical interaction among educators and the counselor's role in providing accurate, meaningful data as needed by professionals in the best interests of the child.
- 4. Responsibilities to School and Community. These statements are in support of the child's educational program and in the child's best interests. They state that counselors know the school's mission and work to establish an educationally conducive environment, including establishing good working relationships with community agencies.
- 5. Responsibilities to the Self. This section describes how counselors strive to improve professional competence through ongoing development. The standard argues that counselors must avoid deleterious activities and anything that may be harmful to students. It also requires counselors to support diversity and monitor personal attitudes and feelings.
- 6. Responsibilities to the Profession. Counselors are required to understand and accept the ethical principles of the professional associations and become a member of ASCA. Counselors should always employ appropriate research practices when analyzing and reporting data.
- 7. *Maintenance of Standards*. This provides guidelines for counselors to follow in ensuring their ethical behavior.

### **SUMMARY**

The growth of industrial centers in America and the need for educational planning with students who would enter the commercial world at the start of the 20th century was linked to the birth of vocational education and counseling. Concurrently, there was a 20th-century movement toward the humane treatment of mental illness and the parallel development of mental hygiene. Concepts of mental hygiene entered public schools and became part of ongoing counseling programs. The 1930s saw elementary school counseling start in large cities. The 1950s brought a new approach to counseling with the introduction of humanistic psychology and client-centered counseling.

In 1913 the first professional associations for counselors were formed, and the forerunner of the American Counseling Association was chartered in 1952. The following year saw the chartering of an association for school counselors. These organizations have provided counselors with a canon of ethical principles and a framework for the practice of counseling in the schools.

Standards-based education in the 1990s following the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) has placed stress on the educational system and on students. Counselors have had to find more efficient models for providing service for students in the schools.

### **DISCUSSION QUESTIONS**

- 1. Use the Internet to review the curriculum of a secondary school or your state's standards for learning. Then list incidences where classicism may still be evident.
- 2. Interview a teacher in the upper elementary grades about the impact of mandated high-stakes testing programs. Describe how the curriculum or emphasis has changed to provide better test scores.
- 3. Some consider requiring test scores as a gatekeeper for promotion to be an appropriate method of preventing what has been called "social promotion." Under what circumstances is social promotion appropriate? When is the practice not appropriate? Why?
- 4. A number of counselors feel that value-neutral counseling and other humanistic approaches are too inefficient to be used in public schools. Under what circumstances is trait and factor theory counseling appropriate to use in public schools? Explain and elaborate on your answer.
- 5. Should the various states decide the requirements for becoming a school counselor, or should that be decided by national professional organizations in the field? Explain your answer in terms of professionalism and also the rights of each state's taxpayers to local control.

### **RELATED READINGS**

- American School Counselor Association/Hatch, T., & Bowers, J. (2005). *The ASCA National Model: A framework for school counseling programs* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Author.
- Rogers, C. R., & Russell, D. (2003). Carl Rogers: The quiet revolutionary. Roseville, CA: Penmarin Books.
- Sklare, G. B. (2005). Brief counseling that works: A solution-focused approach for school counselors and administrators (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Ungar, M. (2006). Strengths based counseling with at-risk youth. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Wright, R. J. (2009). Methods for improving test scores: The good, the bad, and the ugly. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 45(3), 116–121.

### **NOTES**

- 1. Girls may have been taught to read and write at home, but there was no place in the more formal education programs for them until the 17th century in Europe and America.
- 2. About a third of all high school graduates, or about 28,000 young adults, went on to earn bachelor's degrees each year. This is minuscule compared to today's million and a half bachelor's degrees awarded annually.
- 3. The fact that many adults are not satisfied in what they do to earn a living was brought home by a 2010 Conference Report survey of American Workers. That survey found that 45% of American workers are unhappy with their jobs (Langer, 2010).
- 4. The book *A Mind That Found Itself* brought C. W. Beers (1908) great fame. With the help of the psychiatrist Adolf Meyer and Yale University administrator Anson P. Stokes, he was instrumental in the formation of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene in 1909.
- 5. These states include Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, and Wisconsin.
- 6. Research published in 2009 has shown that by requiring an exit examination, in California 20,000 additional students failed to graduate with a diploma than was the case before testing (Reardon, Atteberry, Arshan, & Kurlaender, 2009). Also, the greatest loss was experienced by minority students and also by girls.
- 7. There are three loopholes for parents to use if they want to avoid having their child retained-in-grade based on a test score. All three require that the parents move the child to another educational model. One is to remove the child and homeschool him or her. In some states this can be done with the assistance of virtual schools taught over the Internet. Another involves enrolling the child in a parochial school. The final answer is the most costly and involves enrolling the child in a private preparatory school or independent school. None of these options require the child to pass a statemandated test.
- 8. Students completing a program approved by CACREP in school counseling are eligible to take the test for national accreditation by the National Board of Certified Counselors. Holding that national license, a school counselor would automatically qualify for state certification as a school counselor in Mississippi, Nevada, New Mexico, and North Dakota.
- 9. The professional associations with an interest in educational measurement have worked together to publish a combined document on testing ethics. The following are four principles drawn from that document (Joint Committee on Testing Practices, 2005).

The first of these principles for the ethical practice of testing involves communication with those taking the test. The purpose of the test and the areas to be measured should be fully understood by the test taker (or the parent or guardian) prior to the time of the test. The use of scores from the test should be explained, and the test takers should be told how long their results would be on file. The administrator should provide special accommodations for test takers with disabilities.

The second area involves **confidentiality**. The test administrator must ensure that the scores from individual students are disclosed only to people having a professional need for those data. The students' parents are included in the group who should have full access to the test score data. It is also critical that test materials are stored in a secure location and never released for review by others.

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Third, the interpretation of scores should be carried out in a way that conforms with the guidelines provided by the test publisher. The person interpreting scores should be trained and knowledgeable of the test and its scoring system. Parents and students should be informed of the scores and their interpretation in a developmentally appropriate way. In addition, scores should be reported using understandable language that parents can follow, avoiding educational jargon. This includes **cut scores** and minimal standards for success. Scoring errors should be corrected immediately and the correction noted through all of the student's records.

A fourth issue is the use of test scores. A single score on a test should never be used to determine the placement of a student. Interpretations should always be made in conjunction with other sources of information.

A related point involves the development and selection of tests. A test or assessment should only be used for a purpose for which it was designed and standardized. The test should provide a manual documenting that the measure is valid and reliable and explaining the tasks it is designed to accomplish. Also, the measure should provide evidence that there is no consistent bias (gender, ethnic, socioeconomic status, etc.) influencing the scores. The test should provide users with clear directions for the test administration and scoring.

10. Prior to the child's 18th birthday, parents or legal guardians have the ultimate authority in matters relating to the child. Parents of dependent college students can claim their young adult as an income tax deduction until the age of 24 years (Internal Revenue Service, 2009).